



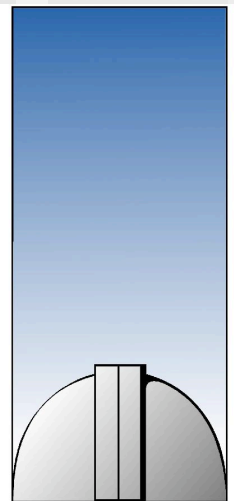
Introduction to inverse problems

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&

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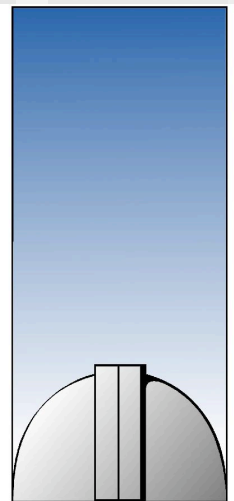


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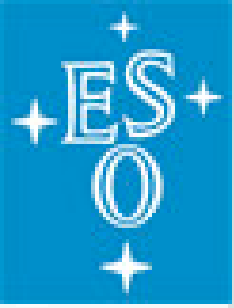


Outline

- n What are inversion problems?
- n Where are they used?
- n And how are they solved?
- n One example in detail: Doppler imaging



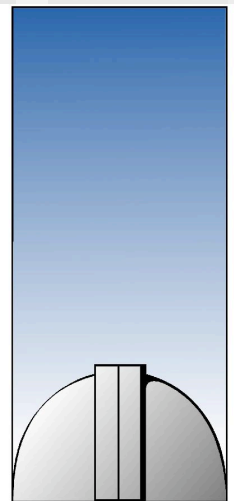
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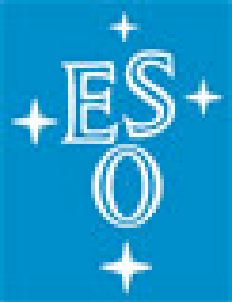
What is an inverse problem?

Alifanov: Solution of an inverse problem entails determining unknown *causes* based on observation of their *effects*.

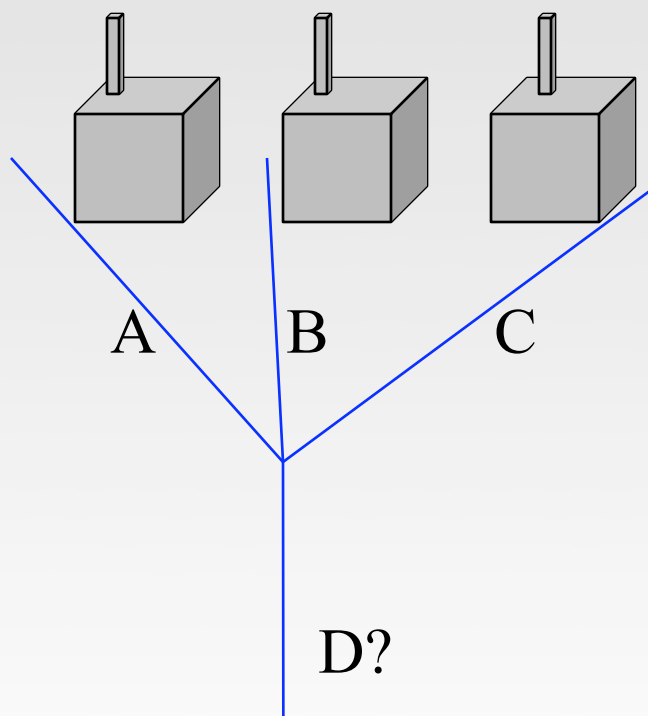
Or: A problem where the answer is known, but not the question



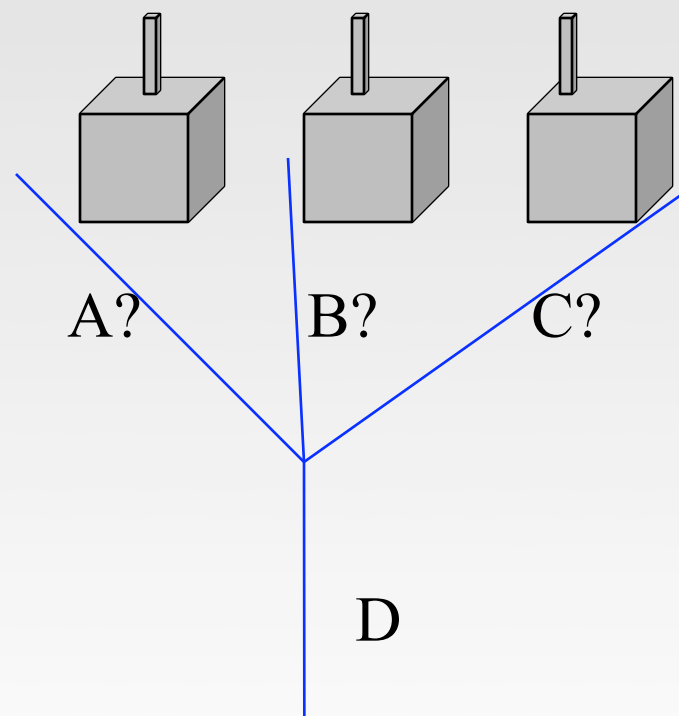
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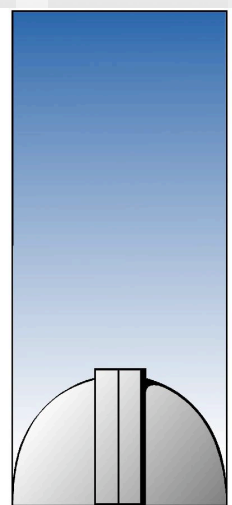
Forward vs. Inverse problem



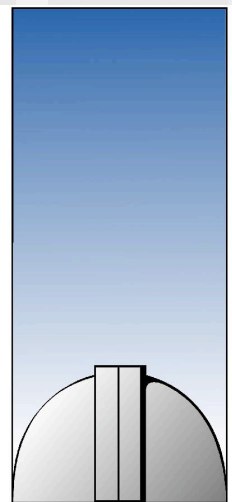
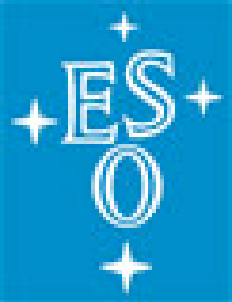
Forward problem



Inverse Problem



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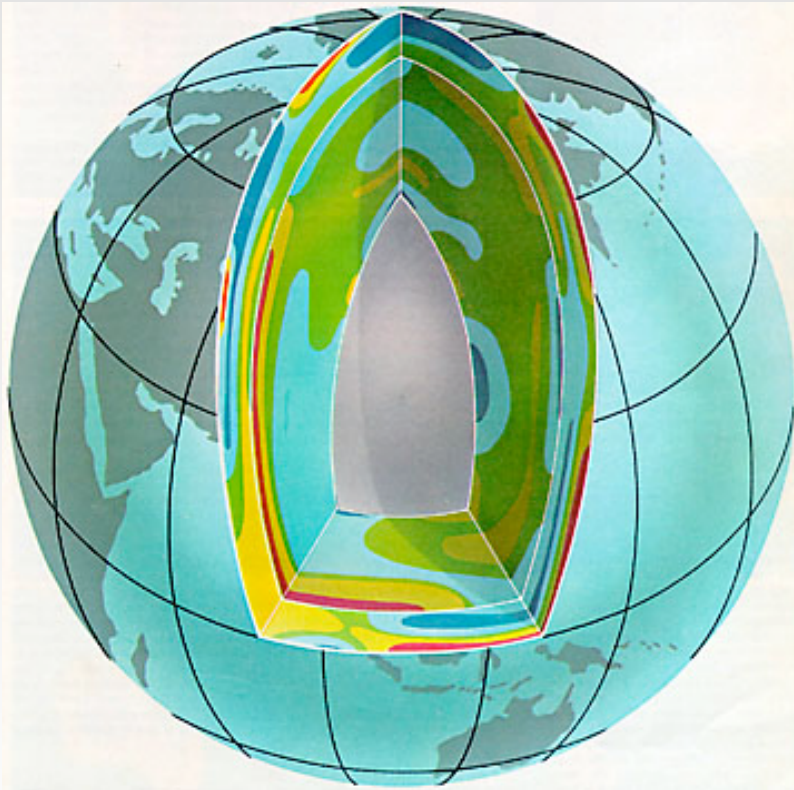


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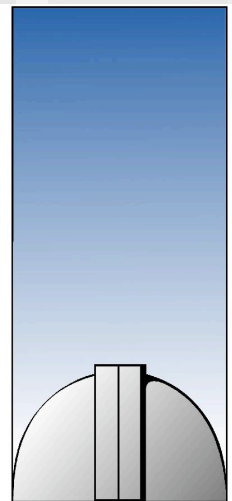
Applications of
inverse
methods

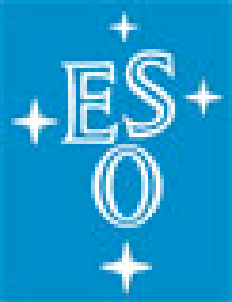


Seismology



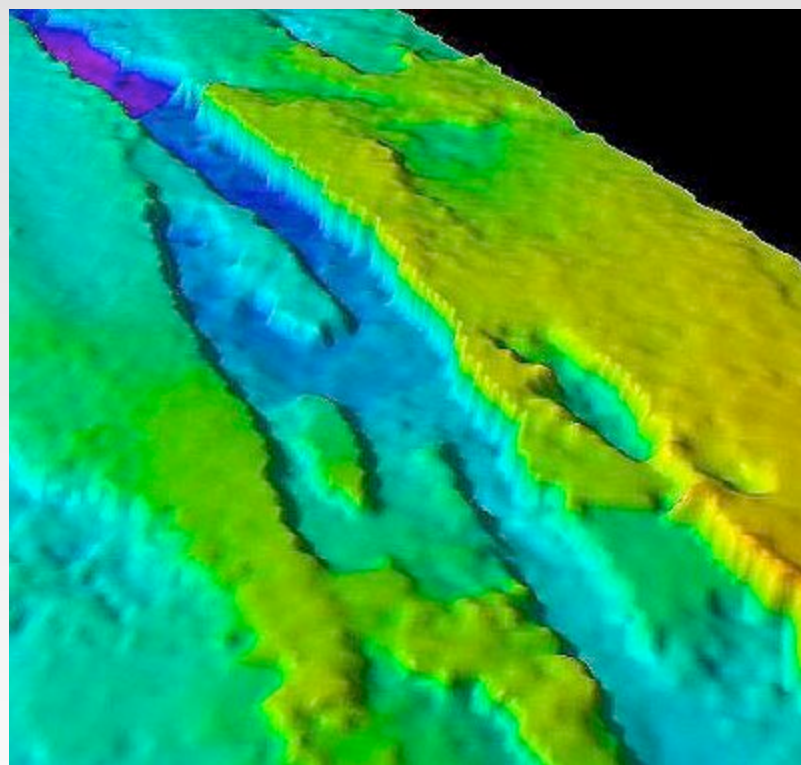
- n The scientific study of earthquakes and the propagation of elastic waves through the Earth
- n Also includes studies of earthquake effects
- n Earthquakes, and other sources, produce different types of seismic waves that travel through rock, and provide an effective way to image both sources and structures deep within the Earth
- n ,Related' subjects: helio- and asteroseismology



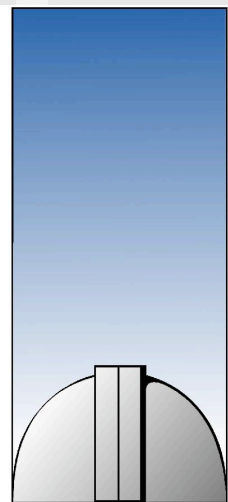


Seismic surveys

- n For locating ground water
- n Investigating locations for landfills
- n Characterizing how an area will shake during an earthquake
- n For oil and gas exploration.



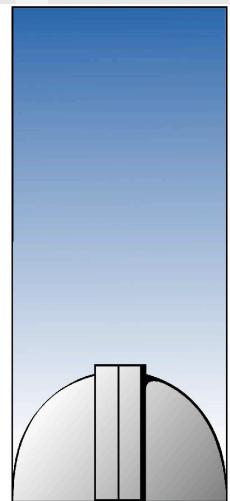
3D model of the top reservoir structure of an oilfield (Leeds University)



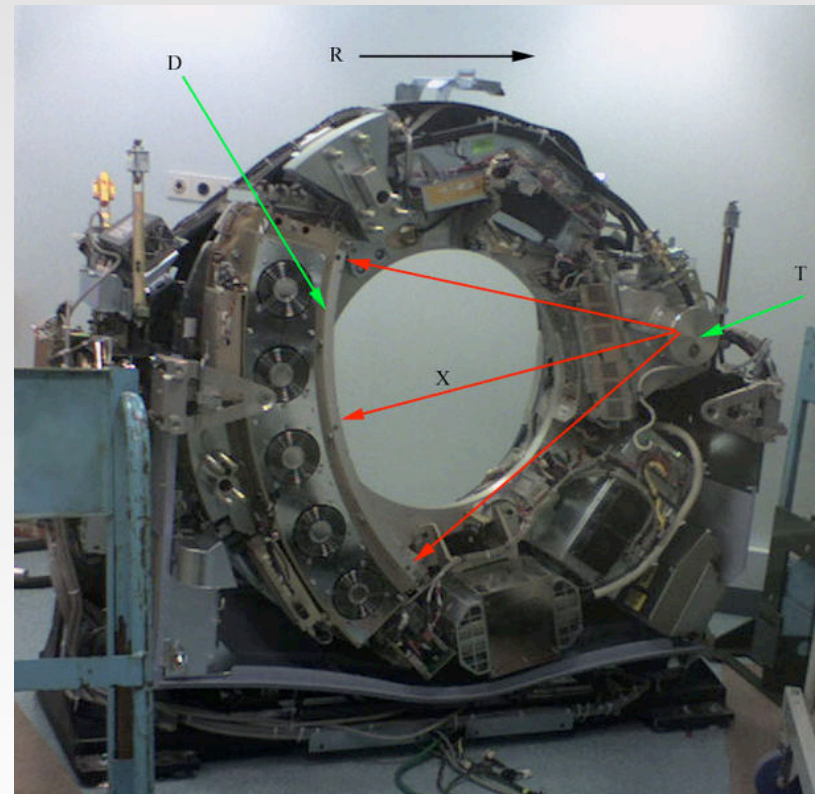


Computerized Tomography (CT Scan)

- n Method employing tomography
- n Digital geometry processing is used to generate a three-dimensional image of the internals of an object
- n From a large series of two-dimensional X-ray images taken around a single axis of rotation.



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CT scanner

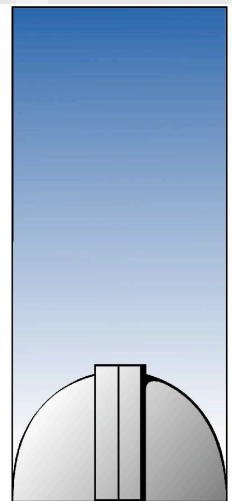


Other applications

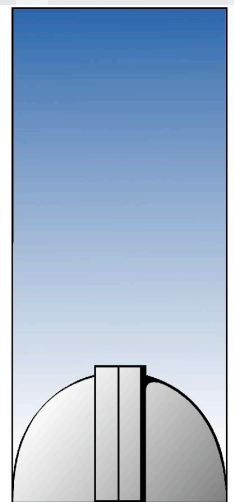
- n Airport security
- n Industrial process monitoring
- n Photoelasticity - visualisation of the stress inside a transparent object
- n Electromagnetic monitoring of molten metal flow
- n X-ray tomography in material science
- n Numerous applications in physics and astronomy
- n etc



From Fotosearch©

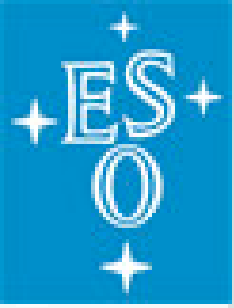


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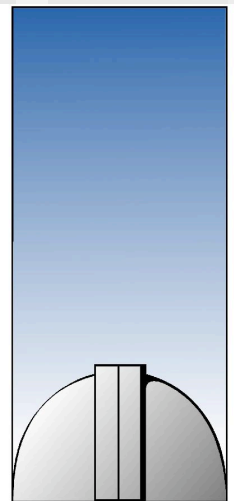
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Solving inverse
problems



Three fundamental questions

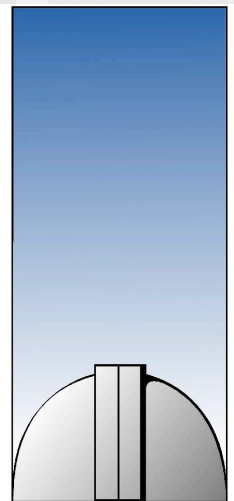
- n How accurately are the data known?
- n How accurately can we model the response of the system?
- n What is known about the system independent of the data?





A priori information

- n Often very important
- n For any sufficiently fine parameterization of a system there will always be unreasonable models that fit the data too
- n Prior information is the means by which the unreasonable models are rejected or down-weighted



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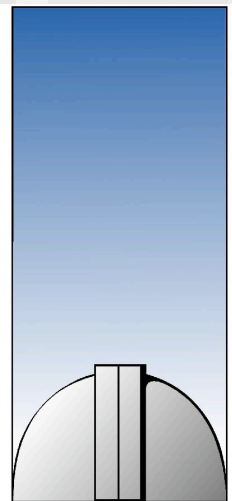


General formulation

- n Inverse problem can be formulated:

$$d=G(m)$$

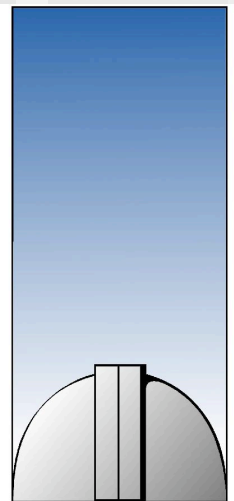
- n where G is an operator describing the explicit relationship between data (d) and model parameters (m)
- n G is a representation of the physical system
- n For linear problems d and m are vectors and G a matrix

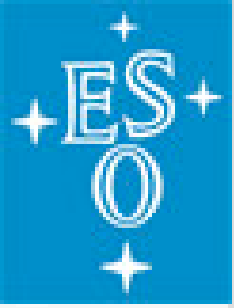




Well-posed problem

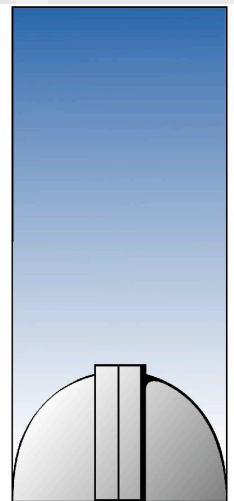
- n Stems from a definition given by Hadamard
 - u A solution exists
 - u The solution is unique
 - u The solution depends continuously on the data, in some reasonable topology
- n Problems that are not well-posed in the sense of Hadamard are termed **ill-posed**
- n Inverse problems are often ill-posed.





Regularisation

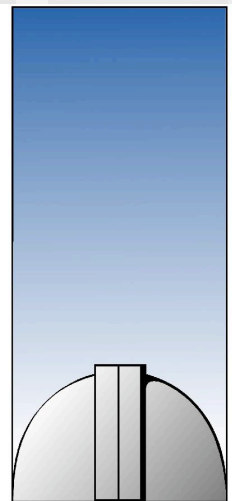
- n If a problem is well-posed, then it stands a good chance of solution on a computer using a stable algorithm
- n If it is not well-posed, it needs to be reformulated for numerical treatment
- n Typically this involves including additional assumptions, such as smoothness of solution
- n This process is known as **regularisation**





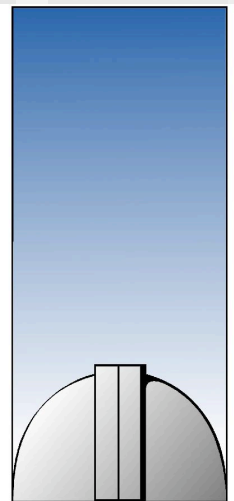
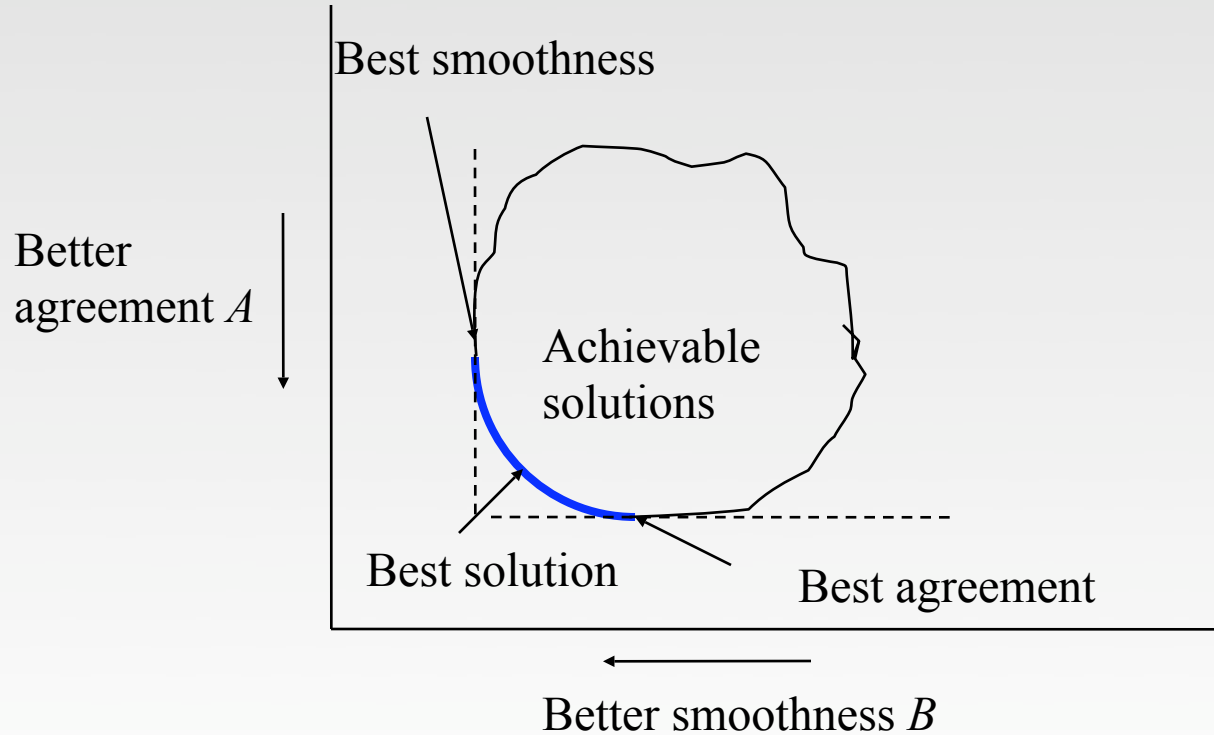
Regularisation II

- n In general ill-posed inverse problem can be thought to consist of two positive functionals A and B
- n A measures agreement of the model to the data. If A alone is minimised the agreement becomes impossibly good, but the solution is unstable or unrealistic
- n B measures ‘smoothness’ of the desired solution. Minimising B gives a solution that is ‘smooth’ or ‘stable’ or ‘likely’ – and has nothing to do with the measurements





Agreement vs. smoothness

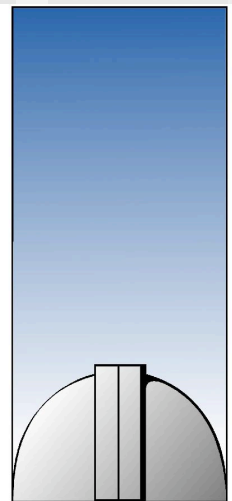




Maximum Entropy Principle

$$r(X(M)) = \iint_M X(M) \log(X(M)) dM$$

- n Provides uniqueness of the solution and minimum correlation between the elements
- n This way we get the $X(M)$ with the highest possible informational entropy



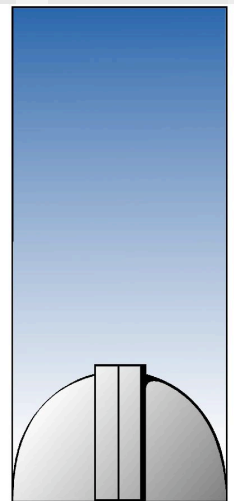
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Tikhonov regularisation

$$r_T(X) = \iint_M |\text{grad } X(M)|^2 dM$$

- n With this regularisation we are looking for the smoothest possible solution that still produces the observations
- n Used in the cases where strong correlation between neighbouring points is expected





Student exercise

I_1	I_4
I_2	I_3

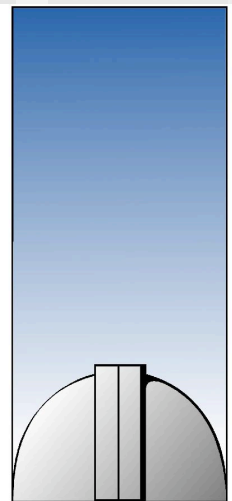
Observations:

$$I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4 = 36$$

$$I_1 + I_2 = 12$$

$$I_1 + I_4 = 12$$

Calculate I_1 , I_2 , I_3 and I_4 using both Tikhonov regularisation and Maximum Entropy Principle



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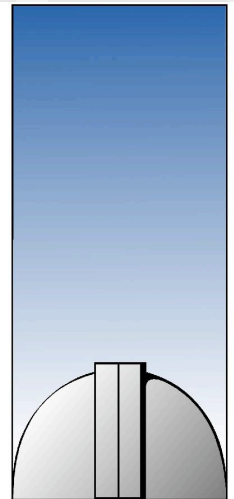


Some hints

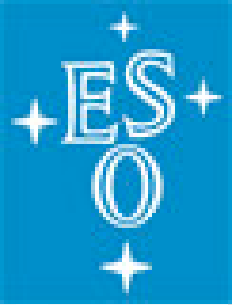
Tikhonov: $r_T = (I_1 - I_2)^2 + (I_2 - I_3)^2 + (I_3 - I_4)^2 + (I_4 - I_1)^2$

MEP: $r_{MEP} = I_1 \log(I_1) + I_2 \log(I_2) + I_3 \log(I_3) + I_4 \log(I_4)$

Express I_2 , I_3 and I_4 in respect to I_1 and then
differentiate



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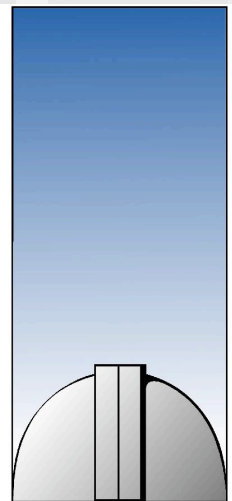


Results

Tikhonov: $I_1=3$, $I_2=I_4=9$, $I_3=15$

MEP: $I_1=4$, $I_2=I_4=8$, $I_3=16$

- n Tikhonov regularisation produces plane brightness distribution ($I_3-I_2=I_2-I_1$)
- n Maximum Entropy Principle produces a bright spot in the lower corner ($I_3=I_2+I_4$)

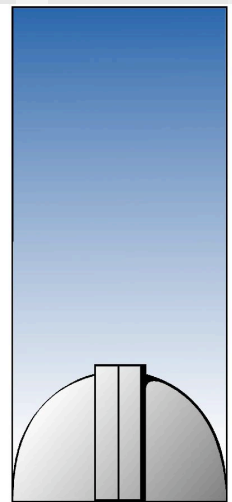


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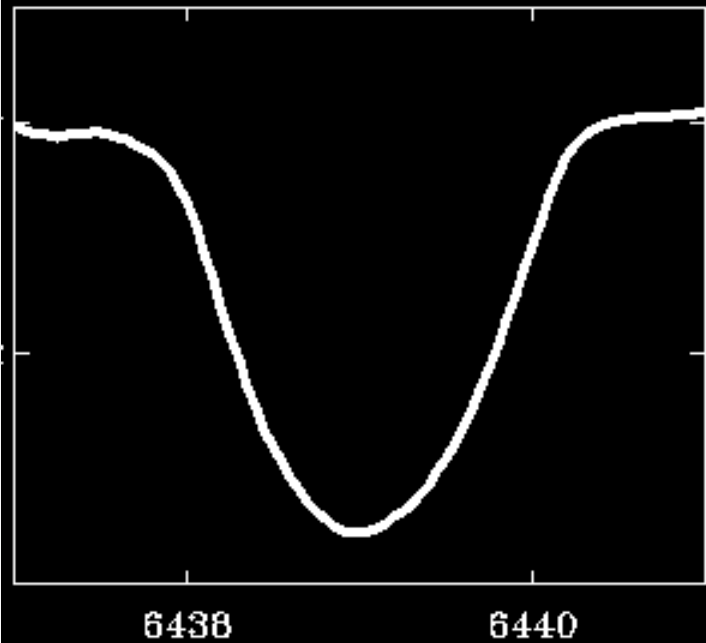
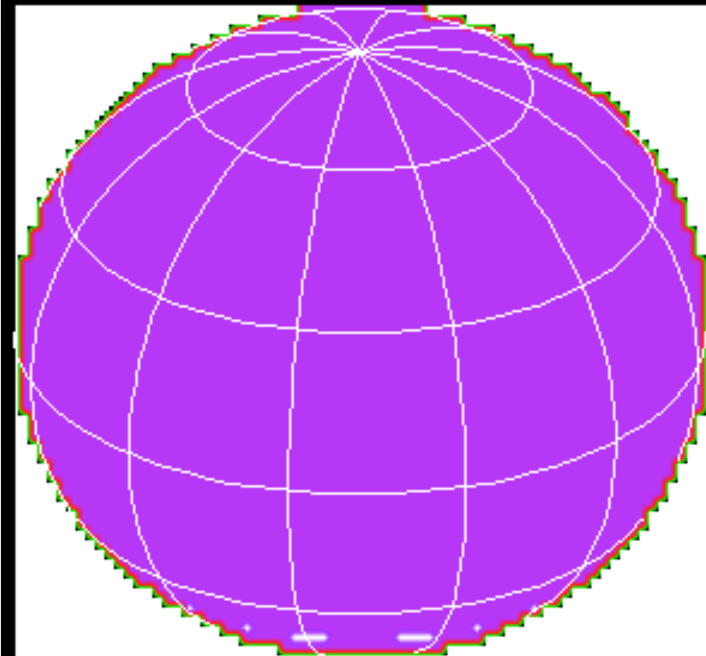


Doppler imaging

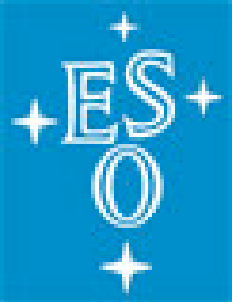
- n Used for making spatially resolved maps of the stellar surface
- n Mapped characteristic can for example be:
 - u Effective temperature
 - u Elemental abundance
 - u Magnetic field
- n Invented by Deutsch (1958) and developed further by Deutsch (1970), Falk & Wehlau (1974), Goncharsky et al. (1977) and many others



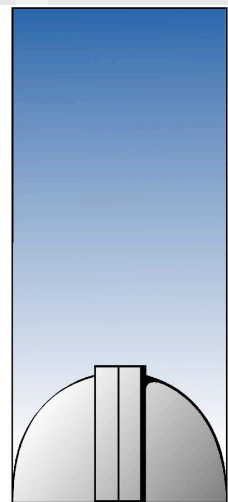
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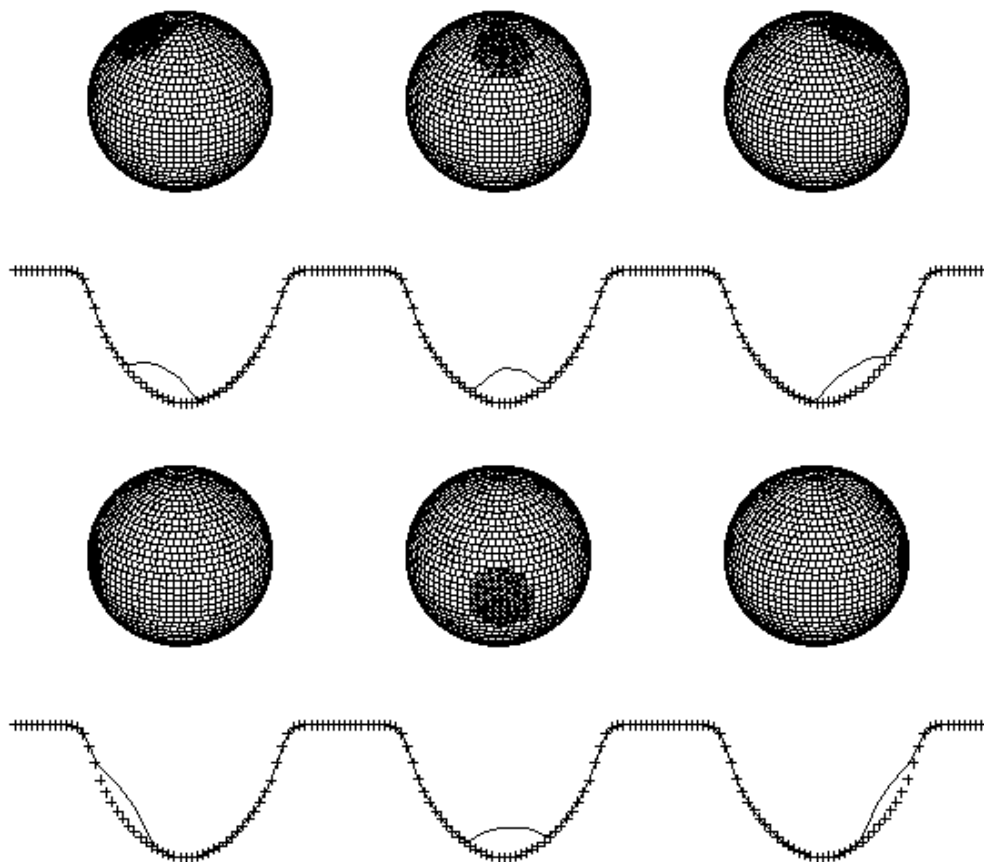
From Berdyugina



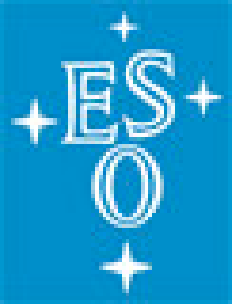
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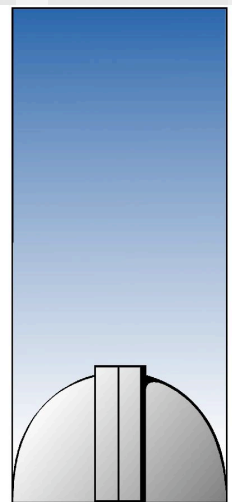
From Hatzes



Formulation of the problem I

- n $X(M)$ characterises the strength of the spectral line originating from the surface point M
- n $X(M)$ can be temperature, abundance, etc
- n The residual lineprofile at some phase (θ) can be calculated by:

$$R_{obs}(\lambda, \varphi) = \frac{\int \int I_c(\lambda, X(M), M) R_{loc}(\lambda - \Delta\lambda(M), X(M), M) dS(M)}{\int \int I_c(\lambda, X(M), M) dS(M)}$$





M
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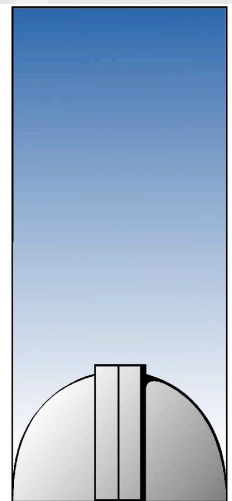
Formulation of the problem II

- n The inverse problem amounts to finding the surface parameter $X(M)$ from the observed profiles such that

$$D_{\lambda}(\varphi) = \frac{1}{n_{\varphi}n_{\lambda}} \sum_{\varphi=1}^{n_{\varphi}} \sum_{\lambda=1}^{n_{\lambda}} g(\varphi, \lambda) [R_{obs}(\varphi, \lambda) - R_{th}(\varphi, \lambda)]^2 \leq \sigma^2$$

- n As this is an ill-posed problem we need regularisation

$$F(X) = D + \Lambda r(X(M)) = \text{minimum}$$



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Requirements

n Models

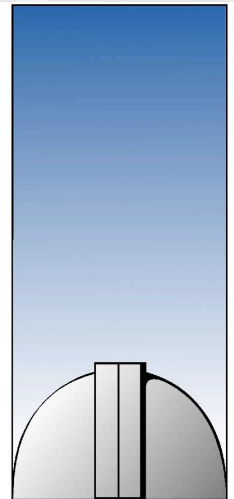
- u Accurate line profile modelling

n Instrumentation

- u High spectral resolution
- u High signal-to-noise ratio

n Object

- u Good phase coverage (convenient rotation period)
- u Rapid rotation
- u Not too long exposure time (bright)
- u Something to map!



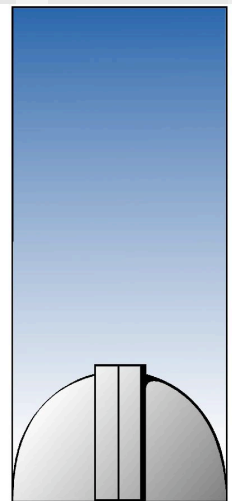


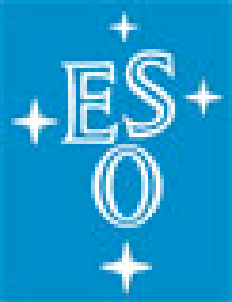
Resolution

- n The best resolution on the stellar surface is achieved when:

$$\text{FWHM}_{instr} \leq \text{FWHM}_{line}$$

- n The intrinsic line profile is significantly broadened even if the star would not rotate. For a solar-type star with $T_{eff}=5000$ K the thermal line width is 1.2 km/s
- n Instrumental resolution $\lambda/\Delta\lambda \approx 35000-120000$ corresponds to 8-3 km/s





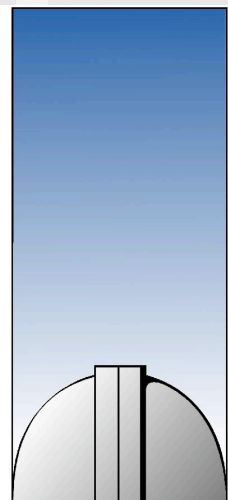
Signal-to-noise of the observations

INSTRUMENT

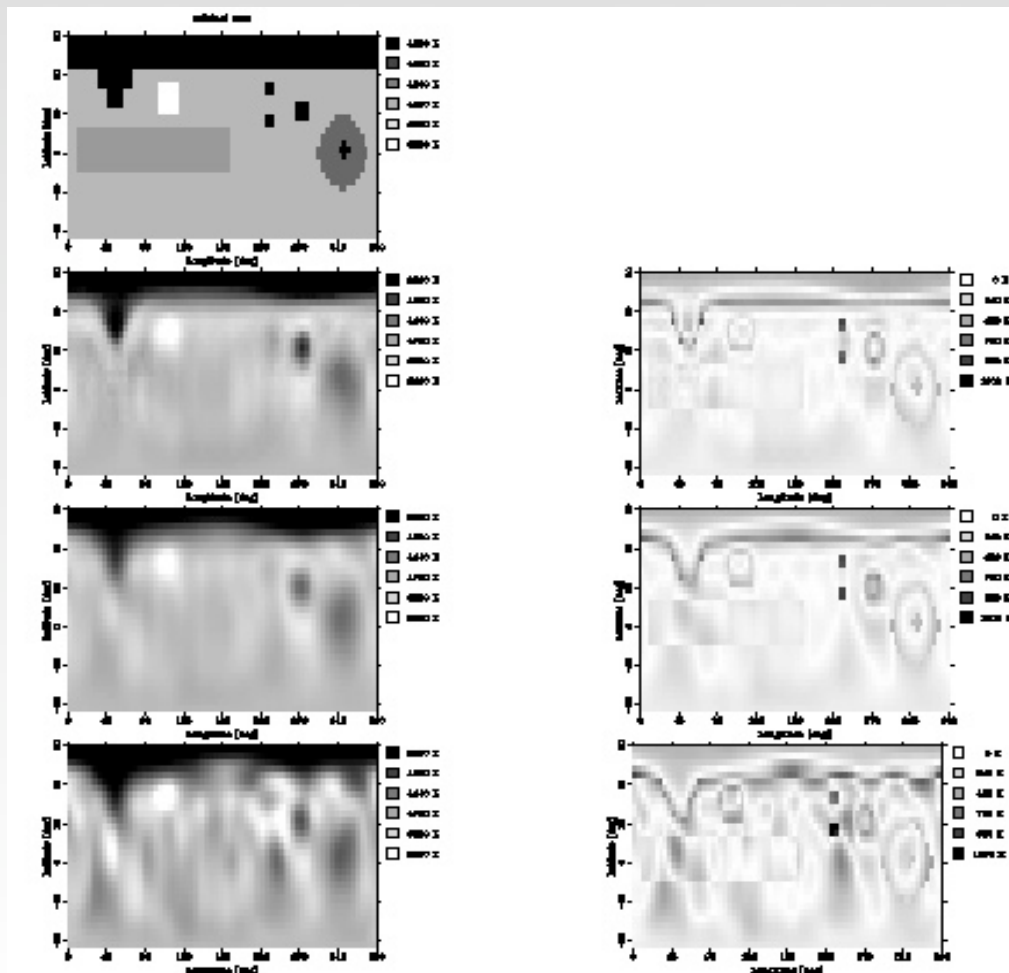
$S/N = 3000$

$S/N = 300$

$S/N = 75$



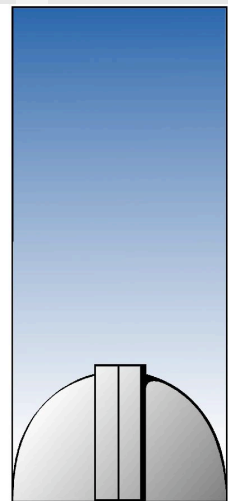
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Phase coverage

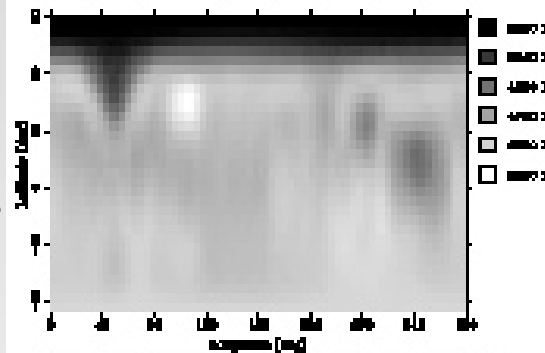
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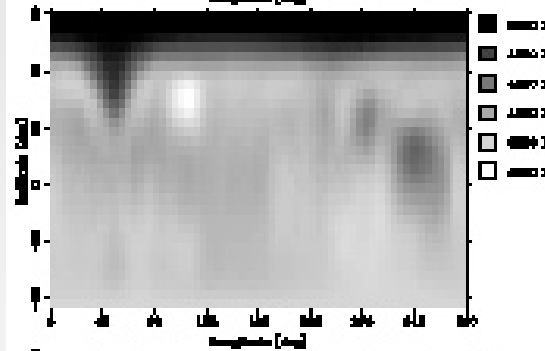
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GAP

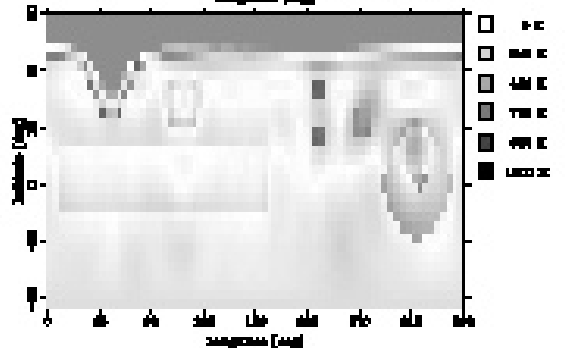
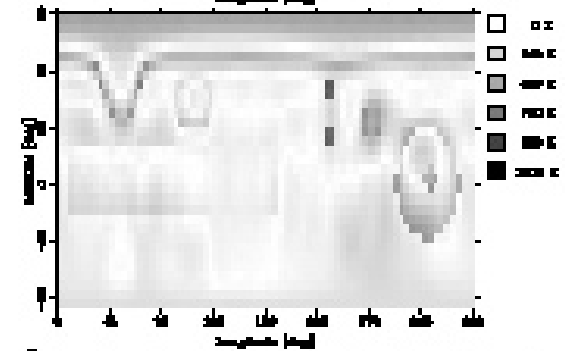
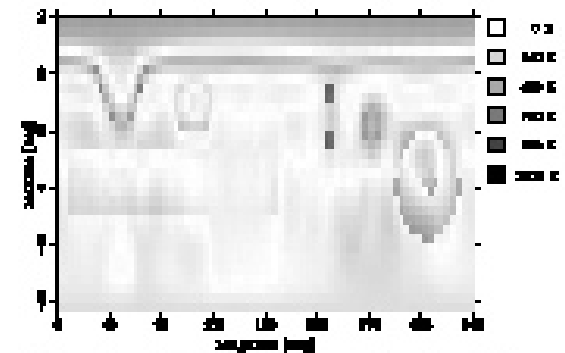
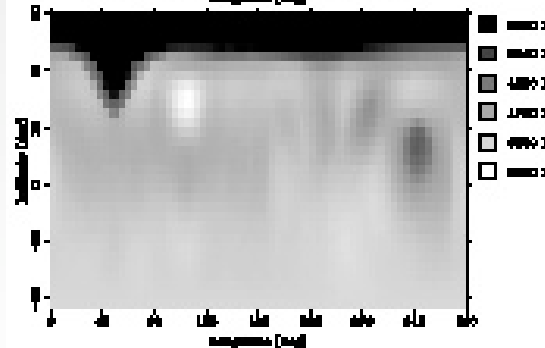
$\text{lon} = 305^\circ - 5^\circ$

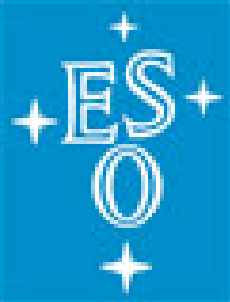


$\text{lon} = 285^\circ - 5^\circ$

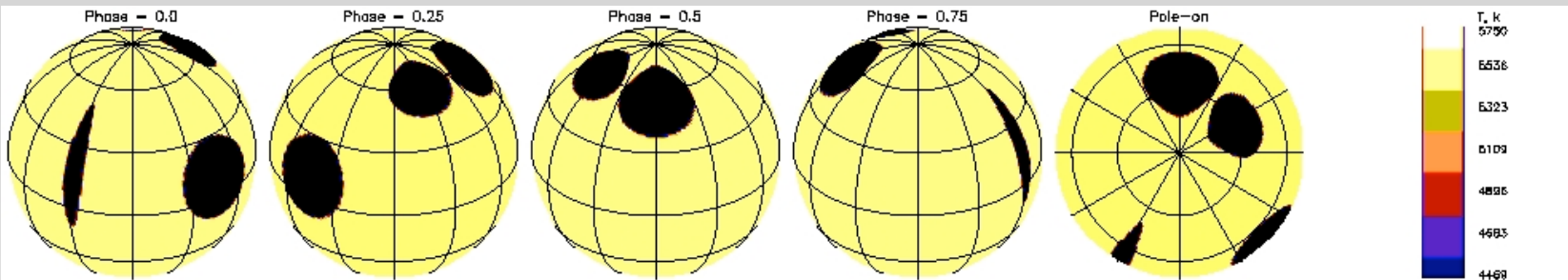


$\text{lon} = 265^\circ - 5^\circ$





OBJECT



$V \sin i = 45 \text{ km/s}$

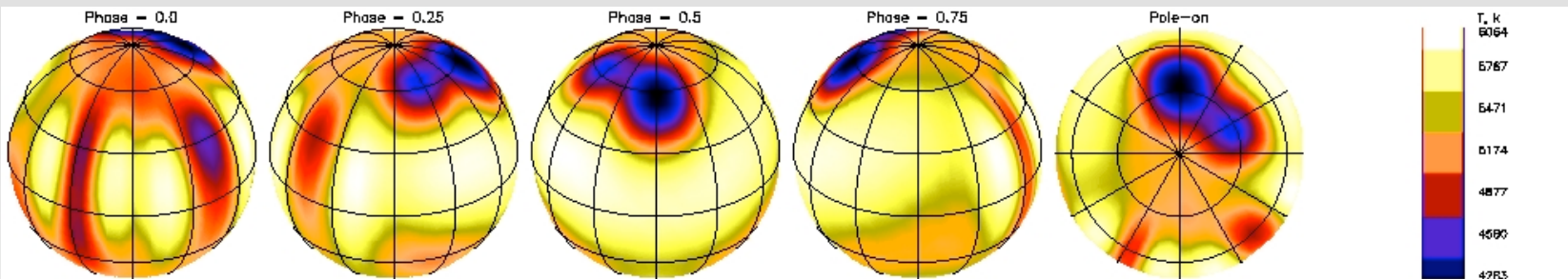
$v \sin i$

i

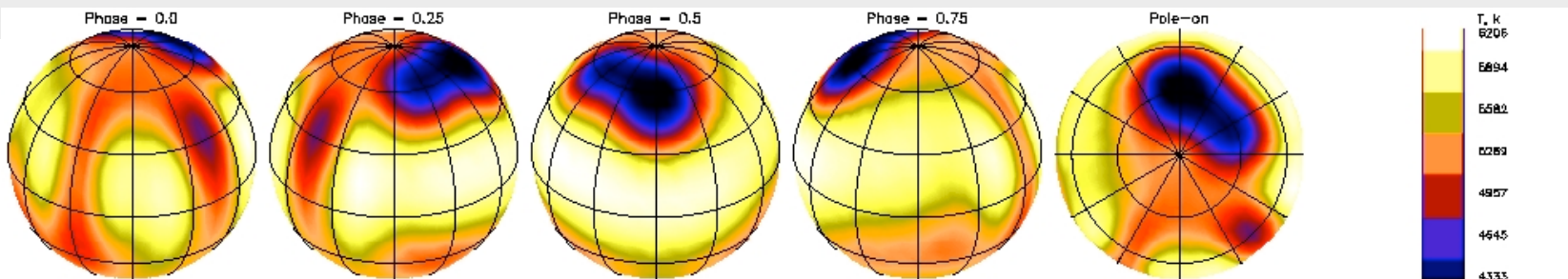
Resolution: 250 000

S/N: infinite

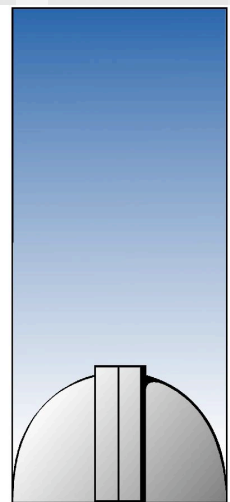
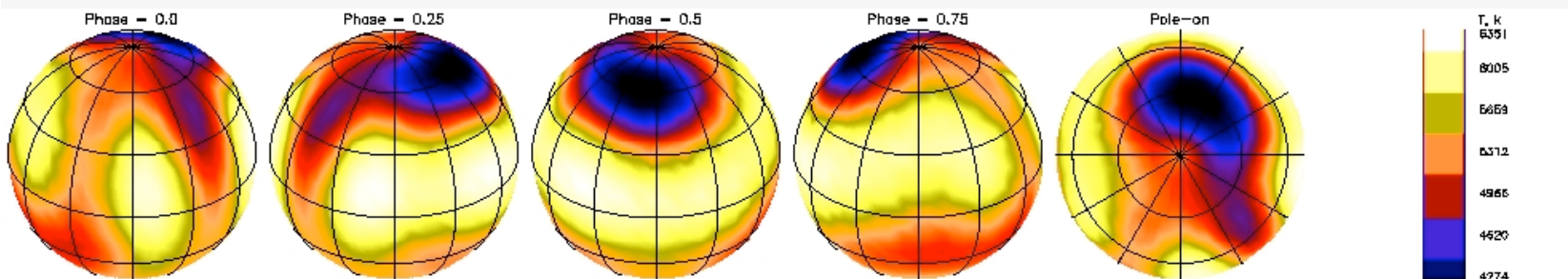
Phases: 20



$V \sin i = 30 \text{ km/s}$



$V \sin i = 17 \text{ km/s}$

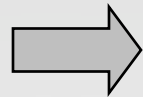


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Phase smearing

- n During the observations the star rotates and the bump moves in the lineprofile



The bump signal will be smeared

- n Integration time should be as short as possible:

$$\Delta t \leq 0.01 P_{rot}$$

Examples:

$$P_{rot} = 20 \text{ days}$$

$$\Delta t > 4.5 \text{ hours}$$

$$P_{rot} = 5 \text{ days}$$

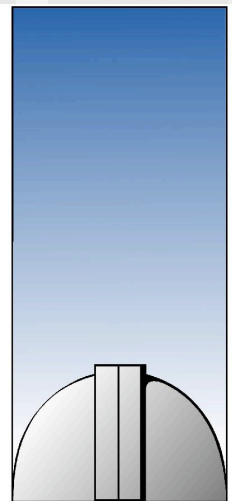
$$\Delta t \approx 70 \text{ minutes}$$

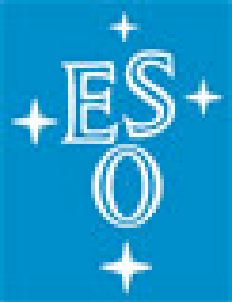
$$P_{rot} = 2 \text{ days}$$

$$\Delta t \approx 30 \text{ minutes}$$

$$P_{rot} = 0.5 \text{ days}$$

$$\Delta t \approx 7 \text{ minutes}$$

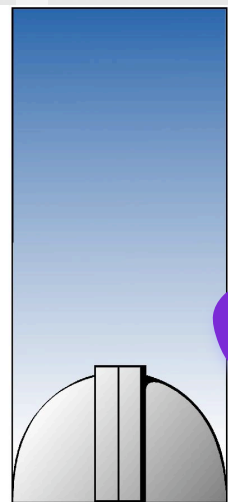




Spot size

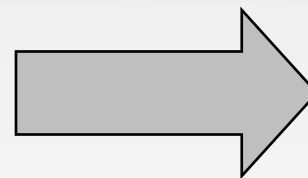
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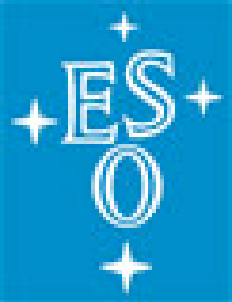
- n Largest observed sunspot groups extend about 5° degrees (radius)
- n What effects would they have in the lineprofiles?



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Simulations





10° spot (radius)

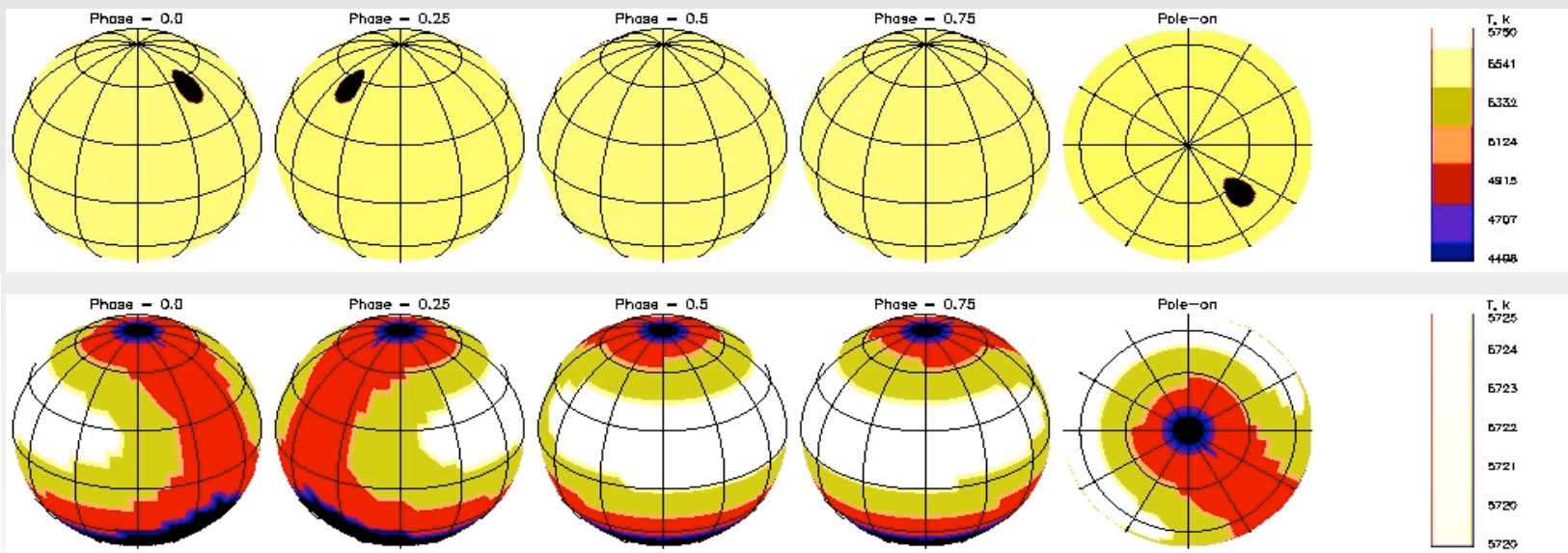
Resolution: 250 000

S/N: infinite

Phases: 20

O
B
J
E
C
T

With Doppler imaging:



Simulations by Silva Järvinen

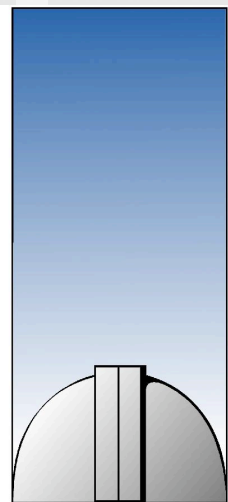
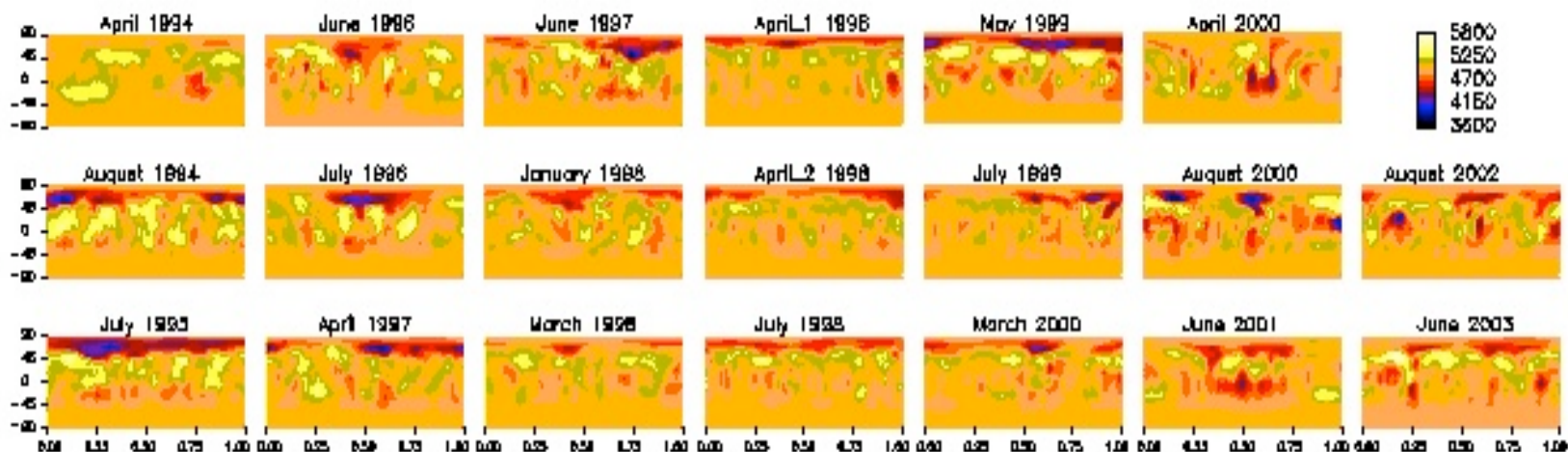
Doppler imaging cannot be used for studying solar type spot groups

AIP





Temperature maps of FK Com for 1994-2003



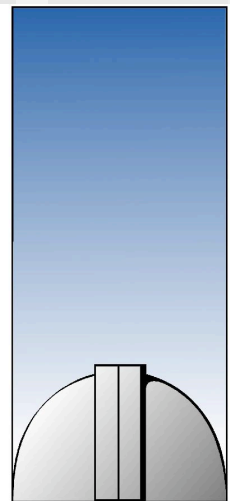


Ending note

Inversion methods are powerful tools BUT

- n Take great care when obtaining observations
- n Take time to understand your observations and their limitations
- n Your model is crucial, so think carefully that you have included all the necessary physics

When all these points are taken into account you can produce very interesting science



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