

Kernel-based Image Reconstruction

Stefano De Marchi

Kernel-based Image Reconstruction from Radon data¹

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¹Work done in several years with various collaborators



Main references

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Radon transform

Back-P and Filtered Back-P

Kernel based methods

Numerical results

Part I

The problem and the first approach

Work with A. Iske, A. Sironi



Outline

Kernel-based Image Reconstruction

Image Reconstruction from СТ

1 Image Reconstruction from CT

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Back-P and Filtered Back-P

3 Alg. Rec. Tech. (ART), Kernel approach Numerical results



Description of CT How does it work?

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- Non-invasive medical procedure (X-ray equipment).
- X-ray beam is assumed to be:
 - monochromatic;
 - zero-wide;
 - not subject to diffraction or refraction.
- Produce cross-sectional images.
- Transmission tomography (emissive tomography, like PET and SPECT, are not considererd here)





CT

Description of CT How does it work?



- $\ell_{(t,\theta)} \longrightarrow$ line along which the X-ray is moving;
- $(t, \theta) \in \mathbb{R} \times [0, \pi) \longrightarrow$ polar coordinates of line-points;
- $f \rightarrow$ attenuation coefficient of the body;
- $I \longrightarrow$ intensity of the X-ray.



X-rays

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- Discovered by Wihelm Conrad Röntgen in 1895
- Wavelength in the range $[0.01,10]\times 10^{-9}~{\rm m}$
- Attenuation coefficient:

 $\begin{array}{rcl} A(\mathbf{x}) &\approx & " \# pho.s \ absorbed / 1 \ mm" \\ A : & \Omega \to [0,\infty) \end{array} \begin{array}{r} \mathsf{Figure} \\ \mathsf{Figure} \end{array}$



Figure : First X-ray image: Frau Röntgen left hand.



CT: people

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Computerized Tomography (CT)



Allan Mcleod Cormack



modern CT

Godfrey Newbold Hounsfield



both got Nobel Price for Medicine and Physiology in 1979



Computerized Axial Tomography



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- Numerical results



Figure : First generation of CT scanner design.

- A. Cormack and G. Hounsfield 1970
- Reconstruction from X-ray images taken from 160 or more beams at each of 180 directions
- Beer's law (loss of intensity):

 $\int_{x_0}^{x_1} A(x) \, dx = \ln \left(\frac{I_0}{I_1} \right)$

given by CT



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Lines in the plane

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Numerical results A line *l* in the plane, perpendicular to the unit vector $\mathbf{n} = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$ and passing through $p = (t \cos \theta, t \sin \theta) = t\mathbf{n}$, can be characterized (by the polar coordinates $t \in \mathbb{R}, \theta \in [0, \pi)$), i.e. $l = l_{t,\theta}$

$$I_{t,\theta} = \{ \mathbf{x} := (t \cos \theta - s \sin \theta, t \sin \theta + s \cos \theta) = (x_1(s), x_2(s)) \ s \in \mathbb{R} \}$$



Figure : A line in the plane.



Radon transform

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Numerical results The Radon transform of a given function $f : \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ is defined for each pair of real number (t, θ) , as line integral

$$Rf(t, heta) = \int_{I_{t, heta}} f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x_1(s), x_2(s)) ds$$



Figure : Left: image. Right: its Radon transform (sinogram)



Radon tranform

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Numerical results A CT scan measures the X-ray projections through the object, producing a sinogram, which is effectively the Radon transform of the attenuation coefficient function f in the (t, θ) -plane.





Radon transform: another example

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Figure : Shepp-Logan phantom.

Figure : Radon transform (*sinogram*).



Back projection

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Numerical results

- First attempt to recover *f* from *Rf*
- The back projection of the function $h \equiv h(t, \theta)$ is the transform

$$Bh(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} h(x_1 \cos \theta + x_2 \sin \theta, \theta) \, d\theta$$

i.e. the average of *h* over the angular variable θ , where $t = x_1 \cos \theta + x_2 \sin \theta = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{n}$.



Figure : Back projection of the Radon transform.



Important theorems

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Theorem (Central Slice Theorem)

For any suitable function f defined on the plane and all real numbers $\mathbf{r}, \boldsymbol{\theta}$

 $F_2f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta) = F(Rf)(r,\theta).$

(F₂ and F are the 2-d and 1-d Fourier transforms, resp.).

Theorem (*The Filtered Back-Projection Formula*)

For a suitable function f defined in the plane

 $f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} B\{F^{-1}[|r|F(Rf)(r,\theta))]\}(\mathbf{x}), \ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2.$



Fundamental question



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Fundamental question of image reconstruction.

Is it possible to reconstruct a function f starting from its Radon transform Rf?

Answer (Radon 1917).

Yes, we can if we know the value of the Radon transform for all r, θ .



Discrete problem

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Ideal case

- $Rf(t, \theta)$ known for all t, θ
- Infinite precision
- No noise

Real case

- $Rf(t, \theta)$ known only on a finite set $\{(t_j, \theta_k)\}_{j,k}$
- Finite precision
- Noise in the data



Fourier-based approach

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- Sampling: $Rf(t,\theta) \rightarrow R_Df(jd,k\pi/N)$
- Discrete transform: e.g.

$$B_D h(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h(x \cos(k\pi/N) + y \sin(k\pi/N), k\pi/N)$$

- Filtering (low-pass): $|r| = F\phi(r)$, with ϕ band-limited function
- Interpolation: $\{f_k: k \in \mathbb{N}\} \rightarrow If(x), x \in \mathbb{R}$



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Numerical results Back-Projection Formula

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2}B\{F^{-1}[|r| \cdot F(Rf(r,\theta))]\}(\mathbf{x})$$

• Filtering

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2}B\{F^{-1}[F(\phi(r)) \cdot F(Rf(r,\theta))]\}(\mathbf{x}) =$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}B\{F^{-1}[F(\phi * Rf(r,\theta))]\}(\mathbf{x})$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}B[\phi * Rf(r,\theta)](\mathbf{x})$$

• Sampling and interpolation

$$f(x_1^m, x_2^n) = \frac{1}{2} B_D I[\phi * R_D f(r_j, \theta_k)](x_1^m, x_2^n)$$



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Figure : Shepp-Logan phantom.



Figure : Reconstruction with linear interpolation and $180 \times 101 = 18180$ samples.



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Algebraic Reconstruction Techniques (ART)

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Numerical results Differently from Fourier-based reconstruction, we fix a set $\mathcal{B} = \{b_i\}_{i=1}^n$ of basis functions.

Example

A square image $(m = K^2)$ can be expressed as

$$I(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^m a_i b_i(\mathbf{x}),$$

where

- *a_i* is the color of the *i*-th pixel,
- b_i the pixel basis, for $i = 1, \ldots, m$ given as

$$b_i(\mathbf{x}) = \left\{egin{array}{cc} 1 & ext{if } \mathbf{x} ext{ lies in pixel } i \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{array}
ight.$$



Linear system

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Numerical results

• Asking

$$RI(t_j, \theta_j) = Rf(t_j, \theta_j), \quad j = 1, \dots, n$$

we obtain the linear system

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i Rb_i(t_j, \theta_j) = Rf(t_j, \theta_j), \quad j = 1, \dots, n$$

- Large but sparse linear system (usually rectangular)
- Solution by iterative methods (Kaczmarz, MLEM, OSEM, LSCG), or SIRT techniques (see also the Matlab package AIRtools by Hansen &Hansen 2012).



ART reconstruction: Example 1

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Figure : Bull's eye phantom.



Figure : $64 \times 64 = 4096$ reconstructed image with 4050 samples by Kaczmarz.



ART reconstruction: Example 2

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Figure : Shepp-Logan phantom.



Figure : The phantom reconstructed by MLEM in 50 iterations.



Hermite-Birkhoff (H-B) (generalized) interpolation

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Numerical results Let $\Lambda = \{\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n\}$ be a set of linearly independent linear functionals and $f_{\Lambda} = (\lambda_1(f), \ldots, \lambda_n(f))^T \in \mathbb{R}^n$. The solution of a general H-B reconstruction problem:

H-B reconstruction problem

find $g = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j g_j$ such that $g_{\Lambda} = f_{\Lambda}$, that is

$$\lambda_k(g) = \lambda_k(f), \quad k = 1, \dots, n.$$
 (1)

Being $\lambda_k := R_k f = Rf(t_k, \theta_k), \ k = 1, \dots, n$ the conditions (1)

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} c_j \lambda_k(g_j) = \lambda_k(f), \quad k = 1, \dots, n$$
(2)

that corresponds to the linear system $A\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{b}$ as before.



H-B interpolation: basis functions

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- Haar-Maierhuber-Curtis theorem (1904, 1956, 1959): In the multivariate setting, the well-posedness of the interpolation problem of scattered data is garanteed if we no longer fix in advance the set of basis functions.
- Thus, the basis g_j should depend on the data

$$g_j(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda_j^y(K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})) \ [= R^{\mathbf{y}}[K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})](t_k,\theta_k)], \quad j = 1,\ldots,n$$

chosing the kernel K such that the matrix

$$A = (\lambda_j^{\mathbf{x}}[\lambda_k^{\mathbf{y}}(K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}))])_{j,k}$$

is not singular $\forall (t_k, \theta_k)$.



Positive definite radial kernels

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We consider continuous kernels $K : \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ s.t.

- Symmetric $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = K(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})$
- Radial $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \Phi_{\epsilon}(\|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{y}\|_2), \ \epsilon > 0$
- Positive definite (PD)

$$\sum_{k,j=1}^{n} c_j c_k \lambda_j^{\mathbf{x}} \lambda_k^{\mathbf{y}} \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \geq 0$$

for all set of linear operators λ_j and for all $c \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$



Positive definite kernels: examples

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Gaussian

$$\Phi_{\epsilon}(\|\mathbf{x}\|) = e^{-(\epsilon \|\mathbf{x}\|)^2}, \ \ PD \ \forall \ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2, \epsilon > 0$$

• Inverse multiquadrics

$$\Phi_{\epsilon}(\|\mathbf{x}\|) = rac{1}{\sqrt{1+(\epsilon\|\mathbf{x}\|)^2}}, \ \ PD \ orall \ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2, \ \epsilon > 0$$

• Askey's compactly supported (or radial characteristic function)

$$\Phi_{\epsilon}(\|\mathbf{x}\|) = (1 - \epsilon \|\mathbf{x}\|)_{+}^{\beta} = \begin{cases} (1 - \epsilon \|\mathbf{x}\|)^{\beta} & \|\mathbf{x}\| < 1/\epsilon \\ 0 & \|\mathbf{x}\| \ge 1/\epsilon \end{cases}$$

which are PD for any $\beta > 3/2$.



A useful Lemma

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Lemma

Let $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \Phi(||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}||_2)$ with $\Phi \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$. Then for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ the Radon transform $R^{\mathbf{y}}K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ at $(t, \theta) \in \mathbb{R} \times [0, \pi)$ can be expressed

$$(R^{\mathbf{y}}K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}))(t,\theta) = (R^{\mathbf{y}}K(\mathbf{0},\mathbf{y}))(t-\mathbf{x}\cdot\mathbf{n},\theta).$$

 \longrightarrow shift invariant property of the Radon transform.



Problem

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Numerical results

• Inverse multiquadric kernel

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2}}.$$

Applying the previous Lemma we have

$$R^{\mathbf{y}}[\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{0},\mathbf{y})](t, heta) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} rac{1}{\sqrt{1+t^2+s^2}} \, ds = +\infty$$

Hence, the basis g_k and the matrix A are not well defined!



Regularization Window function

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Numerical results

- Multiplying the kernel K by a window function w such that
 R[K(x, y)w](t, θ) < ∞ ∀ (x, y), (t, θ).
- This corresponds to use the linear operator R_w in place of R

$$R_w[f](t,\theta) = R[fw](t,\theta).$$

• We consider w radial, $w = w(\|\cdot\|_2)$



Example of window functions

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• Characteristic function

$$w(\mathbf{x}) = \chi_{[-L,L]}(\|\mathbf{x}\|_2), \ L > 0$$

$$w(\mathbf{x}) = e^{-\nu^2 \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2}, \ \nu > 0$$

• Compactly supported (Askey's family)

$$w(\mathbf{x}) = (1 - \nu^2 \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2)_+, \ \nu > 0$$



Example: Gaussian kernel

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Numerical results • Gaussian kernel, shape parameter ε

$$\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})=e^{-arepsilon^2\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}\|_2^2},\,\,arepsilon>0$$

Basis function

$$g_j(\mathbf{x}) = R^{\mathbf{y}}[K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})](t_j,\theta_j) = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\varepsilon}e^{-\varepsilon^2(t_j-\mathbf{x}\cdot\mathbf{v}_j)^2}$$

with $v_j = (\cos \theta_j, \sin \theta_j)$ • Matrix $A = (a_{k,j})$

$$\mathsf{a}_{k,j} = \mathsf{R}[\mathsf{g}_j](t_k, heta_k) = +\infty, \quad ext{if } heta_j = heta_k$$



Example: Gaussian kernel (cont')

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Numerical results

- Considering the Gaussian window function $w({\bf x}) = e^{-\nu^2 \|{\bf x}\|_2^2}, \ \nu > 0$
- The matrix A becomes

$$a_{k,j} = R[g_j w](t_k, \theta_k) = \frac{\pi \exp\left[-\nu^2 (t_k^2 + \frac{\varepsilon^2 \beta^2}{\varepsilon^2 \alpha^2 + \nu^2})\right]}{\varepsilon \sqrt{\varepsilon^2 \alpha^2 + \nu^2}}$$

where $\alpha = \sin(\theta_k - \theta_j)$ and $\beta = t_j - t_k \cos(\theta_k - \theta_j)$


Example: Gaussian kernel (cont')

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Figure : Crescent-shaped phantom.



Figure : $256 \times 256 = 65536$ reconstructed image with n = 4050 samples.



A numerical experiment

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- Gaussian kernel Φ_ϵ and gaussian weight \textit{w}_ν
- Comparison with the Fourier-based reconstruction (relying on the FBP)
- Reconstructions from scattered Radon data and noisy Radon data
- Root Mean Square Error

$$\mathsf{RMSE} = rac{1}{J} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^J {(f_i - g_i)^2}}$$

J is the dimension of the image, $\{f_i\}, \{g_i\}$ the greyscale values at the pixels of the original and the reconstructed image.



Kernel-based vs Fourier based: I

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♦ Test phantoms



Figure : crescent shape





Figure : bull's eye

Figure : Shepp-Logan



Geometries

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Figure : Left: parallel beam geometry, 170 lines (10 angles and 17 Radon lines per angle). Right: scattered Radon lines, 170 lines.



Kernel-based vs Fourier based: II

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Numerical results • Using parallel beam geometry, i.e. $\theta_k = k\pi/N, \ k = 0, ..., N-1 \text{ and } t_j = jd, \ j = -M, ..., M,$ with sampling spacing $d > 0 \longrightarrow (2M+1) \times N$ regular grid of Radon lines. No noise on the data.

• With
$$N = 45, M = 40, \epsilon = 60$$
 we got

Phantom	optimal $ u$	kernel-based	Fourier-based
crescent	0.5	0.102	0.120
bull's eye	0.4	0.142	0.134
Shepp-Logan	1.1	0.159	0.177

Table : RMSE of kernel-based vs Fourier-based method



Kernel-based vs Fourier based: III

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- Using scattered Radon data, with increasing randomly chosen Radon lines n = 2000, 5000, 10000, 20000. No noise on the data.
- With $\epsilon = 50$ and $\nu = 0.7$ we got

Phantom	2000	5000	10000	20000
crescent	0.1516	0.1405	0.1431	0.1174
bull's eye	0.1876	0.1721	0.2102	0.1893

Table : RMSE of kernel-based vs different number n of Radon lines



Kernel-based vs Fourier based: IV

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- These experiments are with noisy Radon data, i.e. we add a gaussian noise of zero mean and variance $\sigma = 1.e 3$ to each of the three phantoms.
- $\bullet\,$ With same parallel beam geometry and same ϵ and ν

Phantom	kernel-based	Fourier-based
crescent	0.1502	0.1933
bull's eye	0.1796	0.2322
Shepp-Logan	0.1716	0.2041

Table : RMSE of kernel-based vs Fourier-based with noisy data

 \bullet With scattered Radon data and same ϵ and ν

Phantom	noisy	noisy-free
crescent	0.2876	0.1820
bull's eye	0.3140	0.2453

Table : RMSE with noisy and noisy-free data



Window function parameter

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Numerical results

• Gaussian kernel; Gaussian window function

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = e^{-\varepsilon^2 \|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}\|_2^2}$$
 $w(\mathbf{x}) = e^{-\nu^2 \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2}$



Figure : Bull's eye phantom, $\varepsilon = 30$.

• Trade-off principle (Schaback 1995)



Kernel shape parameter

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Numerical results • Multiquadric kernel, Gaussian window

$$\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \sqrt{1+
ho^2 \|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}\|_2^2} \, e^{-arepsilon^2 \|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}\|_2^2}$$



Figure : Optimal values depend on the data.



Comparison with FBP Formula



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Figure : FBP and Gaussian kernel reconstruction (with optimal parameters ε^*, ν^*).

Figure : Crescent-shaped: (a) FBP; (b) Gaussian kernel.



Comparison with FBP Formula

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- * *RMSE* of the same order (ok!)
- * More computational time and memory usage (not so well!)



Figure : Computational time.



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Part II

Fast implementation of ART

Work with F. Filbir, J. Frikel and M. Narduzzo



Inverse problem of CT ART-solution

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Algebraic Reconstruction Technique (ART): generality

• ART determines a solution in the recovery subspace

$$S_{\Upsilon} := \operatorname{span} \left\{ \Phi_{\epsilon}(\cdot - y_j) : 1 \leq j \leq J
ight\} \subseteq N_{\Phi}(\Omega) \, \Big|,$$

where $\Upsilon := \{y_1, \ldots, y_J\} \subseteq \Omega$ arbitrary, but fixed, set of reconstruction points and $\{\Phi_{\epsilon}(\cdot - y_j)\}_{j=1}^J$ translates of the basis function Φ (RBFs).

• Search solution for $R f = \bar{g}$ of the form

$$\widetilde{f}_{\Upsilon} = \sum_{j=1}^{J} lpha_j \Phi_{\epsilon}(\cdot - y_j) \in S_{\Upsilon}$$

with $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_J)^T \in \mathbb{R}^J$ to be determined.



Inverse problem of CT $_{\mbox{\scriptsize ART-solution}}$

Kernel-based Image Reconstruction

Stefano De Marchi

Numerical results Thanks to the linearity of the Radon transform ...

ART-problem

Search a solution $\widetilde{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}^J$ for the linear system

$$A\alpha = \bar{g}$$
,

where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{KL \times J}$ is the collocation matrix defined as

$$A_{i(k,l),j} := R\left(\Phi(\cdot - y_j)\right)(t_k, \theta_l)$$

for $1 \leq i(k, l) \leq KL$ and $1 \leq j \leq J$.



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Theorem

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{KL \times J}$ and $\bar{g} \in \mathbb{R}^{KL}$. Then,

1 There is <u>at least</u> one solution of the minimization problem

$$\min_{\alpha\in\mathbb{R}^J}|A\alpha-\bar{g}|\,.$$

There exists exactly one solution with minimal Euclidean norm (Moore-Penrose solution α^+).

② The solution comes from the system of normal equations

$$A^T A \alpha = A^T \bar{g} \ .$$



Inverse problem of CT $_{\mbox{\scriptsize ART-solution}}$





Inverse problem of CT Conjugate Gradient Method

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Theorem

Let $M \in \mathbb{R}^{J \times J}$ be a positive definite matrix. For any $\alpha^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^{J}$, the sequence $\{\alpha^{(k)}\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$, generated by the CGM, converges to the minimal norm solution α^{+} in at most J steps.

The matrix-vector product performed in $O(J \cdot KL)$ floating-points operations.



Fast implementation of ART Efficient choice of reconstruction points

Fast implementation

Choose a polar reconstruction grid

$$\Upsilon_{D_N,\Theta} := \left\{ y_{j(n,\tilde{l})} = r_n(\cos(\theta_{\tilde{l}}), \sin(\theta_{\tilde{l}}))^T : 1 \le j(n,\tilde{l}) \le NL \right\},$$

with

$$D_N := \{r_n \in [-r,r] : \Delta r > 0 \text{ for } 1 \le n \le N\}$$

and

$$\Theta := \left\{ heta_{ ilde{l}} \in [0,\pi) : \Delta heta > 0 \ \ ext{for} \ 1 \leq ilde{l} \leq L
ight\}$$

s.t. $\boldsymbol{\Theta}$ is the set of angular coordinates of the line-points.

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Fast implementation of ART

Efficient choice of reconstruction points

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× Radon data O Reconstruction points

Line-points with radius 1 (asterisks). Polar reconstruction grid in $B_1(0) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ (small circles).



Fast implementation of ART Efficient storage of the matrix

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Numerical results BLOCK CIRCULANT STRUCTURE for A $A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & \dots & A_{1N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{K1} & \dots & A_{KN} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{KL \times NL}$

where every block-matrix $A_{kn} \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times L}$ takes the form

$$A_{kn} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_{L-1} & a_L \\ a_L & a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_{L-1} \\ \vdots & a_L & a_1 & \dots & \vdots \\ a_3 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & a_2 \\ a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_L & a_1 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times L}$$



Fast implementation of ART Fast matrix-vector product using a circulant matrix

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Numerical results

Theorem (Main theorem, Narduzzo master's thesis)

Let $C \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times L}$ be a circulant matrix with first column $c \in \mathbb{R}^{L}$. Further, let $F_{L} \in \mathbb{C}^{L \times L}$ be the rescaled Fourier matrix $(F_{i,j} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} \mu_{L}^{(i-1)(j-1)}$ with $\mu_{L} := e^{-\frac{2\pi i}{L}})$. Let F_{L}^{*} be its conjugate transpose. Then, it holds

$$C v = F_L^*[(F_L c) \odot (F_L v)] \quad \forall v \in \mathbb{R}^L$$
 (3)

Here \odot is the component-wise multiplication operator: $x \odot y = (x_1y_1, \ldots, x_Ly_L), x, y \in \mathbb{R}^L$.

Matrix-vector product now performed in

 $O(NKL \lg (L))$ floating-points operations

through the use of **FFT** and **IFFT**.



Numerical results Entries of the collocation matrix

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Numerical results

Choice of the RBF

<u>RBF</u>: Gaussian with shape parameter $\epsilon > 0$ $\Phi_{\epsilon}(x - y) := e^{-\epsilon^2 ||x - y||^2} \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^2.$

Entries of the collocation matrix:

$$\begin{aligned} A_{i(k,l),j(n,\tilde{l})} &= R\Phi_{\epsilon}(\cdot - y_{j(n,\tilde{l})})(t_k,\theta_l) \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\epsilon} e^{-\epsilon^2 (t_k - r_n \cos(\theta_l - \theta_{\tilde{l}}))^2} \end{aligned}$$

for $1 \leq i(k, l) \leq KL$ and $1 \leq j(n, \tilde{l}) \leq NL$.



Fast implementation of ART

Experiment 1: Computational efficiency and accuracy of FCGM



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Numerical results



Shepp-Logan phantom.

$$\begin{split} L \times K &= 360 \times 569 \text{ (angular} \\ \times \text{ radial)} \\ N &= 150 \text{ (}\Delta r \text{ cost)}\text{;} \\ \epsilon &= 150\text{;} \\ iter &= 30\text{;} \\ R &= 400 \text{ (resolution)}\text{.} \end{split}$$

Experiment 1





Experiment 1: Computational efficiency and accuracy of FCGM

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Numerical results

Computational efficiency...







Experiment 1: Computational efficiency and accuracy of FCGM

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Numerical results $R = 400; L \times K = 360 \times 569.$











Original phantom



Experiment 1-Equispaced vs fast Leja radii

Kernel-based Image Reconstruction

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Numerical results *RMSE* = 0.076764 *max-err* = 1.045491 *CPU time* = 274.5 *sec*



Error plot (equispaced radii)

RMSE = 0.080900 *max-err* = 1.086950 *CPU time* = 284.9 *sec*



Error plot (fast Leja radii)



Experiment 2: Trade-off numerical stability vs accuracy

Kernel-based Image Reconstruction

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Numerical results

Experiment 2

 $\kappa(B) := \ell^2$ -condition number; $q_{\Upsilon} :=$ separation distance between reconstruction points; $h_{\mathfrak{X},\Delta} := fill-distance$ line-points \mathfrak{X} ; $q_{\mathfrak{X},\Upsilon} := separation \ distance$ between line-points and reconstruction points.

* From several experiments we obtained $(C > 0, \tau > \frac{d}{2})$

$$\|\widetilde{f}_{\Upsilon} - f\|_2 \leq C \left(h_{\mathfrak{X},\Delta} \cdot q_{\mathfrak{X},\Upsilon}\right)^{\tau} \left(1 + \sqrt{\kappa(B)}\right) \|f\|_{N_{\Phi_{\epsilon}(\Omega)}}$$

* From theoretical results on RBF we know ($C_d > 0$) [(cf. Fasshauer's book)]

$$\kappa(B) = \lambda_{\max}/\lambda_{\min}$$

 $egin{aligned} \lambda_{\mathsf{max}} \leq (\mathit{NL}) \cdot \Phi_\epsilon(\mathsf{0}) \ , (\mathit{\textit{Gerschgorin's theorem}}) \end{aligned}$

$$\lambda_{\min} \geq C_d \left(\sqrt{2}\epsilon\right)^{-d} e^{-40.71d^2/(q_{\Upsilon}\epsilon)^2} q_{\Upsilon}^{-d}$$



Experiment 2: Trade-off numerical stability vs accuracy (non stationary case)

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Numerical results *iter* = 30; R = 100.

Smiley phantom;

 $L \times K = 144 \times 171.$



N variable ($\Delta r \ cost$); $ar{\epsilon} = 60$

N	L ²	λ_{min}	$\kappa(B)$	
n.rec.circles	error	min.eigenvalue	cond.number	
40	41.081787	$1.081460 \cdot 10^{-19}$	5.032868·10 ²⁰	
50	35.247683	$3.592425 \cdot 10^{-30}$	$1.948570 \cdot 10^{31}$	
55	36.214269	$1.998062 \cdot 10^{-30}$	$7.207981 \cdot 10^{31}$	
60	33.359540	$1.292076 \cdot 10^{-31}$	6.739194·10 ³²	
65	33.087770	$4.161096 \cdot 10^{-32}$	3.469419·10 ³³	
80	33.476398	$9.725620 \cdot 10^{-33}$	1.276718·10 ³⁴	



Experiment 2: Trade-off numerical stability vs accuracy (stationary case)

Kernel-based Image Reconstruction

> Stefano De Marchi

Numerical results iter = 30;R = 100.

Smiley phantom;

 $I \times K = 144 \times 171$

 $\epsilon >$ 0 variable;

 $\bar{N} = 30 \ (\Delta r \ cost)$

ϵ	L^2	λ_{min}	$\kappa(B)$
shape par.	error	min.eigenvalue	cond.number
30	43.746117	$2.792255 \cdot 10^{-31}$	3.054914·10 ³²
35	44.580586	$4.402922 \cdot 10^{-31}$	$1.616392 \cdot 10^{32}$
40	45.708660	$9.237581 \cdot 10^{-28}$	6.632798·10 ²⁸
45	47.903512	$2.764322 \cdot 10^{-25}$	$1.950951 \cdot 10^{26}$
50	52.583766	$2.059636 \cdot 10^{-24}$	2.341632·10 ²⁵



Experiment 3: Choice of reconstruction parameters



Stefano De Marchi

Numerical results



Smiley phantom; $L \times K = 360 \times 811.$

R = 600; $\epsilon = ?;$ N = ?;iter = ?.

Experiment 3





Experiment 3: Choice of best shape parameter



RMSE as a function of ϵ for equispaced reconstruction radii N = 75 (left) and N = 150 (right).



Kernel-based

Image Reconstruction

Numerical results

Experiment 3: Choice of best shape parameter

...Heuristic rule.. $(\Delta r := \frac{1}{N})$

150 140 130 120 shape 110 100 90 0.007 0.008 0.009 0.011 0.013 0.014 distance

 $\epsilon \approx -9828 \cdot \Delta r + 216$

Numerical results



Experiment 3: Choice of number of reconstruction points

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Numerical results

2) Best number of reconstruction circles...

iter = 20; $\Delta r \ cost$

N	N·L	ε	RMSE	maximal	CPU time
n. rec.circles	n. rec.points	shape param.		error	(seconds)
50	18 000	19.440	0.408572	4.053001	101.7
75	27 000	84.960	0.317973	4.409125	134.0
100	36 000	117.720	0.300916	4.237258	181.8
125	45 000	137.376	0.295240	3.958031	237.7
150	54 000	150.480	0.297035	4.309017	309.1
175	63 000	159.840	0.296148	3.543423	384.0
200	72 000	166.860	0.295511	3.624649	486.0
225	81 000	172.320	0.295141	3.512590	594.3
250	90 000	176.688	0.296305	3.638046	668.8

RMSE and CPU time for increasing larger sets of reconstruction points.

for R = 600, from N = 150 to N = 200



Experiment 3: Choice of number of iterations

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Numerical results



 $N = 200 \ (\Delta r \ cost); \quad \epsilon = 160$











Experiment 3: Choice of number of iterations

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Numerical results

RMSE = 0.291745 *max-err* = 3.614396 *CPU time* = 527.8 sec



Error plot for iter = 28.



Experiment 3: Choice of number of iterations

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Numerical results

...Stopping condition...

 $N = 200 \ (\Delta r \ cost); \quad \epsilon = 160$



Convergence history of residual and RMSE respect to the number of iterations.

 $tol = 10^{-3}$ for the residual decrease


Numerical results Experiment 4: Noisy data

Kernel-based Image Reconstruction

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Numerical results

> Shepp-Logan phantom; $L \times K = 360 \times 711$. $N = 150 (\Delta r \ cost);$ $\epsilon = 150.48;$ *iter* = 25;

R = 500.

Experiment 4

10% white Gaussian noise





Numerical results Experiment 4: Noisy data

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Numerical results

RMSE = 0.101538residual-decrease $= 10^{-2}$

max-err = 1.310516 *CPU time* = 298.3 sec





Reconstructed phantom

Cross-section (line 120)



Numerical results

Experiment 5: Real experimental data



Stefano De Marchi

Numerical results



Experiment 5



Data provided by Department of Diagnostic and Interventional Radiology at TUM



Numerical results

Experiment 5: Real experimental data

Kernel-based Image Reconstruction

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Numerical results $NRMSE(A\alpha^{(k)}, \bar{g}) = 0.034964$ *iter* = 22 residual-decrease = 10^{-3} CPU time = 14027.2 sec



Reconstructed image



Kernel-based Image Reconstruction

Numerical results

Conclusions





MORE COMPUTATIONAL EFFICIENCY! SAME IMAGE RECONSTRUCTION CAPABILITY!



Kernel-based Image Reconstruction

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Numerical results

Thank you for your attention!

