# Tomographic reconstruction Lectures 2 and 3: Iterative reconstruction methods

Camille Pouchol<sup>1</sup> pouchol@kth.se

Department of Mathematics KTH, Stockholm

HL2027: 3D Image Reconstruction and Analysis in Medicine January/Februrary 2019

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>based on a previous lecture by Sebastian Banert, Ozan Öktem

#### Review from last lecture

The fully discretised reconstruction problem

#### Image reconstruction

Recover the digital image  $lpha_{\mathsf{true}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  from measured data  $g \in \mathbb{R}^m$  assuming

$$g = \mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_{\mathsf{true}} + g_{\mathsf{noise}}.$$
 (1)

Here, **A** is the  $(m \times n)$ -measurement matrix and  $g_{\text{noise}} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is the noise component of data,  $\alpha_{\text{true}} = \langle f, \phi_j \rangle_X$ .

#### Measurement matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} := egin{pmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & \dots & a_{1,n} \ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & \dots & a_{2,n} \ dots & dots & \ddots & dots \ a_{m,1} & a_{m,2} & \dots & a_{m,n} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Transmission tomography and using the voxel basis:

$$a_{i,i} = \text{length of } i:\text{th line through } i:\text{th voxel.}$$

One can show that  $lpha^\dagger \in \mathbb{R}^n$  solves

$$\min_{\alpha} \|\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha - g\|_2^2 \tag{2}$$

if it solves the normal equations:  $\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{t}} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\dagger} - g) = \mathbf{0}$ .

- If A is the matrix representing the discretised ray transform, then A<sup>t</sup> (the transpose of A) is the matrix representing the discretised backprojection.
- $\bullet$   $A^t \cdot A$  is not necessarily sparse even though A is.
- If there are infinitely many solutions to (2), then it is common to choose the one with least 2-norm.
- If columns of A are linearly independent, then A<sup>t</sup> · A is invertible and (2) has a unique solution.
- A solution to (2), there may be infinitely many, is often undesirable (overfitting).

# Reconstruction methods Kaczmarz method

Problem: A is huge and cannot be stored.

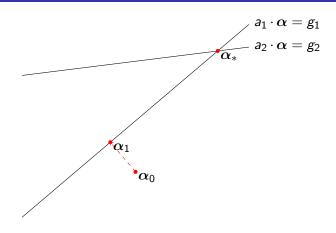
Stefan Kaczmarz (1895–1939), Polish mathematician active at University of Lviv (now in Ukraine).



Kaczmarz method: Solving linear systems of equations without needing to store the matrix.

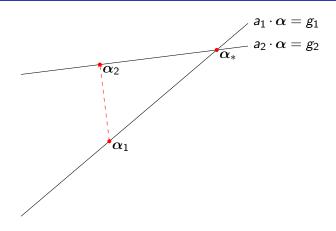
- Introduced by Stefan Kaczmarz in 1937.
- Rediscovered in 1970 by Richard Gordon, Robert Bender, and Gabor Herman, then under the name algebraic reconstruction technique (ART).

Kaczmarz method: The case n = m = 2



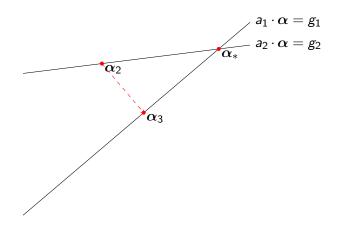
 $lpha_1:=$  projection of  $lpha_0$  into hyperplane  $a_1\cdot lpha=g_1.$ 

Kaczmarz method: The case n = m = 2



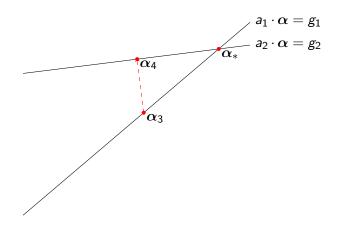
 $\alpha_2 :=$  projection of  $\alpha_1$  into hyperplane  $a_2 \cdot \alpha = g_2$ .

Kaczmarz method: The case n = m = 2



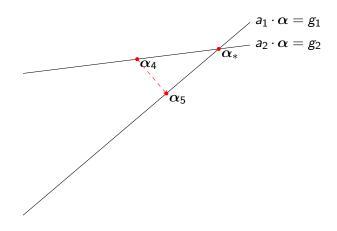
 $\alpha_3 :=$  projection of  $\alpha_2$  into hyperplane  $a_1 \cdot \alpha = g_1$ .

Kaczmarz method: The case n = m = 2



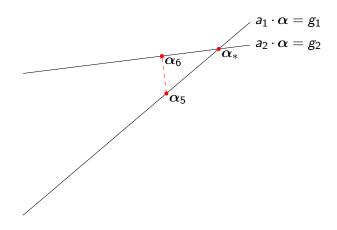
 $\alpha_4:=$  projection of  $\alpha_3$  into hyperplane  $a_2\cdot \alpha=g_2.$ 

Kaczmarz method: The case n = m = 2



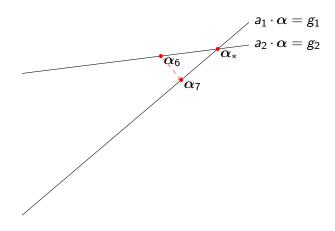
 $\alpha_5:=$  projection of  $\alpha_4$  into hyperplane  $a_1\cdot \alpha=g_1.$ 

Kaczmarz method: The case n = m = 2



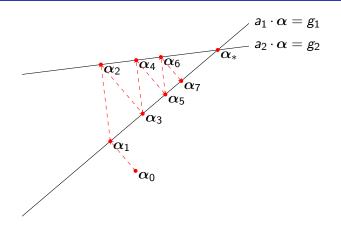
 $\alpha_6:=$  projection of  $\alpha_5$  into hyperplane  $a_2\cdot \alpha=g_2.$ 

Kaczmarz method: The case n = m = 2



 $\alpha_7:=$  projection of  $\alpha_6$  into hyperplane  $a_1\cdot \alpha=g_1.$ 

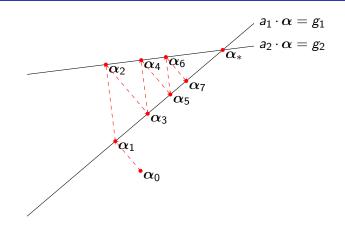
Kaczmarz method: The case n = m = 2



Iterative scheme: If  $\pi_i(\alpha)$  denotes the projection of  $\alpha$  into the i:th hyperplane  $a_i \cdot \alpha = g_i$  (i = 1, ..., m), then

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \pi_i(\alpha_k)$$
 where  $k$  sweeps through  $1, \ldots, m$ .

Kaczmarz method: The case n = m = 2



#### Iterative scheme:

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k + \frac{g_i - a_i \cdot \alpha_k}{\|a_i\|_2^2} a_i$$
, where  $k$  sweeps through  $1, \ldots, m$ .

Orthogonal projection of a vector into a hyperplane.

• The vector  $a_i$  is orthogonal to the hyperplane  $a_i \cdot \alpha = g_i$ .

The equation  $a_i \cdot \alpha = g_i$  is the scalar equation of a hyperplane with  $a_i$  as the normal, so  $a_i$  is orthogonal to all vectors in the hyperplane  $a_i \cdot \alpha = g_i$ .

• The orthogonal projection  $\pi(x)$  of a vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  onto  $a_i \cdot \alpha = g_i$  is found by subtracting a multiple of  $a_i$  from x:

$$\pi(x) = x - \gamma a_i$$
 for some  $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ .

ullet  $\gamma$  must satisfy

$$g_i = \pi(x) \cdot a_i = (x - \gamma a_i) \cdot a_i = x \cdot a_i - \gamma a_i \cdot a_i$$

ullet Solving this equation for  $\gamma$  gives

$$\gamma = \frac{a_i \cdot \alpha - g_i}{a_i \cdot a_i} \implies \pi(x) = x + \frac{g_i - a_i \cdot \alpha}{\|a_i\|_2^2} a_i$$

# Reconstruction methods Kaczmarz method: properties

- Convergence: let  $\alpha_k$  denotes the iterates generated by the Kaczmarz method for solving  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha = g$ .
  - If the linear system has a unique solution, then Kaczmarz iterates converge towards this solution.
  - For overdetermined systems, Kaczmarz method with initial vector  $\alpha_0=0$  converges to the least-squares solution.
  - For underdetermined systems,  $\alpha_k$  converges to the least-squares solution closest to the initial vector  $\alpha_0$  (Tanabe, 1971).
- Convergence rate: faster convergence when the angle between the hyperplanes is large. Extreme case is when hyperplanes are orthogonal, convergence in m+1 steps.
- Speed-up: often not worth doing Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization. Instead, most efficient approach is to project on random hyperplanes.
- Need a balance between accurately computing **A** and the inconsistencies that result from crude approximations.

# Examples of reconstructions

- Simulated parallel beam data of 2D phantom (true image).
- ullet Relative error (in %)  $:= 100 \cdot rac{\|oldsymbol{lpha} oldsymbol{lpha}_{\mathsf{true}}\|_2}{\|oldsymbol{lpha}_{\mathsf{true}}\|_2}$

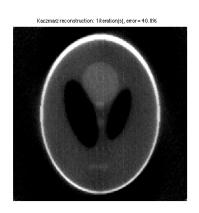
#### Simulation protocol

- Phantom:  $256 \times 256$  pixel 2D Shepp-Logan  $n = 256 \cdot 256 = 65536$
- Data: Full angular range  $[0^{\circ}, 180^{\circ}]$  with  $1^{\circ}$  step (180 directions) and 400 detector elements.  $m = 180 \cdot 400 = 72\,000$ .
- Noise component in data: Additive Gaussian noise with relative noise level 5%.

Overdetermined problem since m > n.

# Reconstruction methods Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

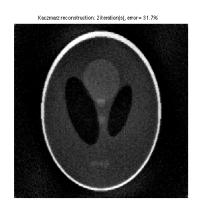




# of iterations = 1 Relative error = 40.8%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

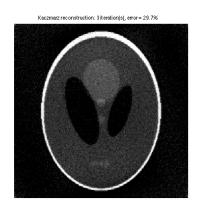




# of iterations = 2 Relative error = 31.7%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

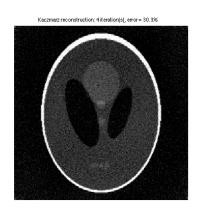




# of iterations = 3 Relative error = 29.7%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

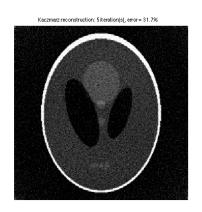




# of iterations = 4 Relative error = 30.3%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

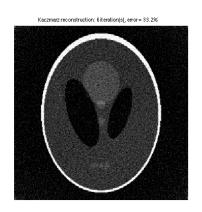




# of iterations = 5 Relative error = 31.7%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

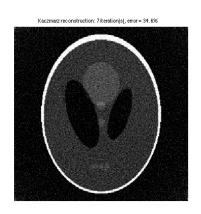




# of iterations = 6 Relative error = 33.2%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

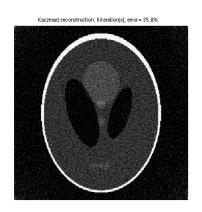




# of iterations = 7 Relative error = 34.6%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

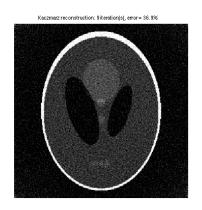




# of iterations = 8 Relative error = 35.8%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

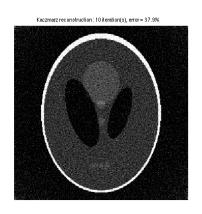




# of iterations = 9 Relative error = 36.9%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

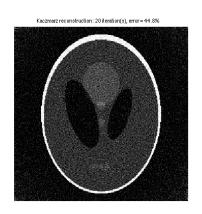




# of iterations = 10 Relative error = 37.9%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

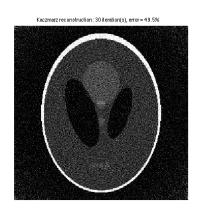




# of iterations = 20 Relative error = 44.8%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

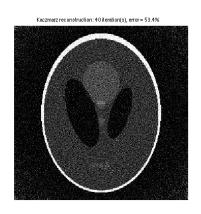




# of iterations = 30 Relative error = 49.5%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

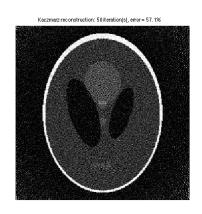




# of iterations = 40 Relative error = 53.4%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

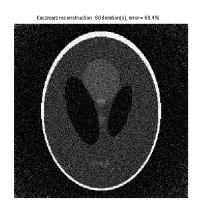




# of iterations = 50 Relative error = 57.1%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

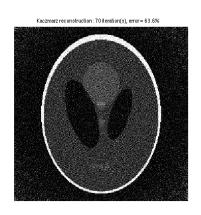




# of iterations = 60 Relative error = 60.4%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

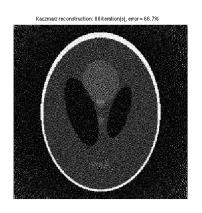




# of iterations = 70 Relative error = 63.6%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

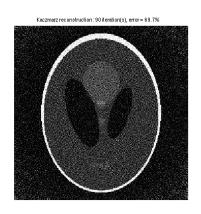




# of iterations = 80 Relative error = 66.7%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

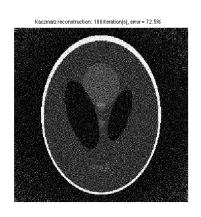




# of iterations = 90 Relative error = 69.7%

Kaczmarz method: impact of number of iterations

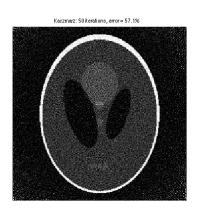




# of iterations = 100 Relative error = 72.5%

Kaczmarz method: impact of enforcing non-negativity

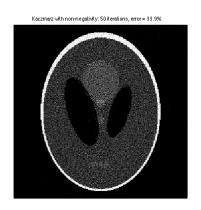




# of iterations = 50 Non-negativity not enforced Relative error = 57.1%

Kaczmarz method: impact of enforcing non-negativity





# of iterations = 50 Non-negativity enforced Relative error = 33.9%

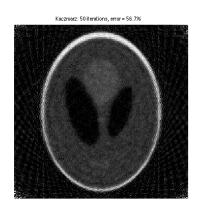
#### Simulation protocol

- Phantom:  $256 \times 256$  pixel 2D Shepp-Logan  $n = 256 \cdot 256 = 65536$
- Data: Full angular range  $[0^{\circ}, 180^{\circ}]$  with  $5^{\circ}$  step (36 directions) and 256 detector elements.  $m = 36 \cdot 256 = 9216$ .
- Noise component in data: Additive Gaussian noise with relative noise level 5%.

Underdetermined problem since m < n.

Kaczmarz method: impact of enforcing non-negativity

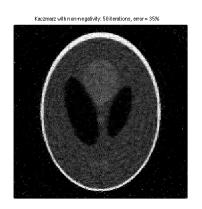




# of iterations = 50 Non-negativity not enforced Relative error = 56.7%

Kaczmarz method: impact of enforcing non-negativity





# of iterations = 50 Non-negativity enforced Relative error = 35.0%

Kaczmarz method: regularised variants

- Constraints: Enforce bound constraints, such as positivity, by projection techniques.
- Semi-convergence: Reconstruction improves during the first few iterates, then it begins to deteriorate (semi-convergence).
   In medical imaging only a few iterations are used.

or ART: Empirical observation, no theoretical backing:

 T. Elfving, P. C. Hansen, and T. Nikazad. Semi-convergence properties of Kaczmarz's method, Inverse Problems, vol. 30, no. 5 (055007), 2014.

Stopping rule: Rule for choosing the number of iterations.

Regularisation by relaxation: Modification of iterates

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k + \lambda_k \frac{g_i - a_i \cdot \alpha_k}{\|a_i\|_2^2} a_i$$
 where  $i = k \mod m + 1$ .

 $0 < \lambda_k < 2$  is a relaxation parameter

Kaczmarz method: regularised variants

- Constraints: Enforce bound constraints, such as positivity, by projection techniques.
- Semi-convergence: Reconstruction improves during the first few iterates, then it begins to deteriorate (semi-convergence).
   In medical imaging only a few iterations are used.

For ART: Empirical observation, no theoretical backing:

 T. Elfving, P. C. Hansen, and T. Nikazad. Semi-convergence properties of Kaczmarz's method, Inverse Problems, vol. 30, no. 5 (055007), 2014.

Stopping rule: Rule for choosing the number of iterations.

Regularisation by relaxation: Modification of iterates

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k + \lambda_k \frac{g_i - a_i \cdot \alpha_k}{\|a_i\|_2^2} a_i$$
 where  $i = k \mod m + 1$ .

 $0 < \lambda_k < 2$  is a relaxation parameter

Kaczmarz method: regularised variants

- Constraints: Enforce bound constraints, such as positivity, by projection techniques.
- Semi-convergence: Reconstruction improves during the first few iterates, then it begins to deteriorate (semi-convergence).
   In medical imaging only a few iterations are used.

For ART: Empirical observation, no theoretical backing:

 T. Elfving, P. C. Hansen, and T. Nikazad. Semi-convergence properties of Kaczmarz's method, Inverse Problems, vol. 30, no. 5 (055007), 2014.

Stopping rule: Rule for choosing the number of iterations.

Regularisation by relaxation: Modification of iterates

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k + \lambda_k \frac{g_i - a_i \cdot \alpha_k}{\|a_i\|_2^2} a_i$$
 where  $i = k \mod m + 1$ .

 $0 < \lambda_k < 2$  is a relaxation parameter.

Kaczmarz method: regularised variants

- Constraints: Enforce bound constraints, such as positivity, by projection techniques.
- Semi-convergence: Reconstruction improves during the first few iterates, then it begins to deteriorate (semi-convergence).
   In medical imaging only a few iterations are used.

For ART: Empirical observation, no theoretical backing:

 T. Elfving, P. C. Hansen, and T. Nikazad. Semi-convergence properties of Kaczmarz's method, Inverse Problems, vol. 30, no. 5 (055007), 2014.

Stopping rule: Rule for choosing the number of iterations.

Regularisation by relaxation: Modification of iterates

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k + \lambda_k \frac{g_i - a_i \cdot \alpha_k}{\|a_i\|_2^2} a_i$$
 where  $i = k \mod m + 1$ .

 $0 < \lambda_k < 2$  is a relaxation parameter.

Row-action methods

- Algebraic reconstruction technique (ART)
  - Based on vector multiplications: A single iterative update makes use of a single row of A.
  - Good semi-convergence observed (no theory explaining this).

Algorithms: Kaczmarz's method and variants of it.

- Simultaneous iterative reconstruction technique (SIRT)
  - Based on matrix multiplications: A single iterative update uses all the rows of A simultaneously.
  - Slower semi-convergence, but otherwise good understanding of convergence theory.

Algorithms: Landweber, Cimmino, CAV, DROP, and SART

 Krylov subspace methods: Class of iterative methods based on matrix multiplications where iterates are given as

$$\alpha_k = \alpha_{k-1} + \mathbf{K}^{-1} \cdot (g - \mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_{k-1}).$$

**K** is here a simple invertible matrix that is "close" to **A**. Algorithms: CGLS\_LSOR\_GMRES

Row-action methods

- Algebraic reconstruction technique (ART)
  - Based on vector multiplications: A single iterative update makes use of a single row of A.
  - Good semi-convergence observed (no theory explaining this).

Algorithms: Kaczmarz's method and variants of it.

- Simultaneous iterative reconstruction technique (SIRT)
  - Based on matrix multiplications: A single iterative update uses all the rows of A simultaneously.
  - Slower semi-convergence, but otherwise good understanding of convergence theory.

Algorithms: Landweber, Cimmino, CAV, DROP, and SART.

 Krylov subspace methods: Class of iterative methods based on matrix multiplications where iterates are given as

$$\alpha_k = \alpha_{k-1} + \mathbf{K}^{-1} \cdot (g - \mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_{k-1}).$$

**K** is here a simple invertible matrix that is "close" to **A**. Algorithms: CGLS, LSQR, GMRES, . . .

Row-action methods

- Algebraic reconstruction technique (ART)
  - Based on vector multiplications: A single iterative update makes use of a single row of A.
  - Good semi-convergence observed (no theory explaining this).

Algorithms: Kaczmarz's method and variants of it.

- Simultaneous iterative reconstruction technique (SIRT)
  - Based on matrix multiplications: A single iterative update uses all the rows of A simultaneously.
  - Slower semi-convergence, but otherwise good understanding of convergence theory.

Algorithms: Landweber, Cimmino, CAV, DROP, and SART.

• Krylov subspace methods: Class of iterative methods based on matrix multiplications where iterates are given as

$$\alpha_k = \alpha_{k-1} + \mathbf{K}^{-1} \cdot (g - \mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_{k-1}).$$

**K** is here a simple invertible matrix that is "close" to **A**. Algorithms: CGLS, LSQR, GMRES, . . .

Typical step: Update of iterate involves a single row of **A**:

$$oldsymbol{lpha}_{k+1} := oldsymbol{lpha}_k + \lambda_k rac{g_{i_k} - a_{i_k} \cdot oldsymbol{lpha}_k}{\|a_{i_k}\|_2^2} a_{i_k} \quad ext{where } k = 1, 2 \dots$$

and  $i_k \in \{1, ..., m\}$  is given by the row ordering.

- Relaxation parameter:  $0 < \lambda_k < 2$ , setting  $\lambda_k = 1$  implies projecting  $\alpha_k$  onto hyperplane  $g_i = a_i \cdot \alpha$  (original un-regularised Kaczmarz's method).
- Row ordering: How  $i_k \in \{1, \dots, m\}$  depends on k, *i.e.*, how the iterates sweep through the m rows  $a_1, \dots, a_m$ :
  - Classical Kaczmarz:  $i_k = 1, 2, \dots, m, 1, 2, \dots, m, \dots$
  - Symmetric Kaczmarz:  $i_k = 1, 2, ..., m-1, m, m-1, ..., 2, 1, ...$
  - Randomized Kaczmarz: At each k, let  $i_k$  be the i:th row  $a_i$
  - randomly with probability proportional to the row norm  $||a_i||_2$ .

- Semi-convergence: Not formally proved, only empirically observed
  - Fast initial convergence 
     method of choice when only a few iterations can be afforded.
  - After some initial iterations the convergence can be very slow.
- Convergence rate:
  - Estimates of convergence rates are based on quantities of A
    that are hard to compute and difficult to compare with
    convergence estimates of other iterative methods.
  - Need to exploit the analytic structure associated with the forward operator.
  - Rate of convergence depends on the ordering of the equations.

#### • Choosing relaxation parameter

For  $\lambda_k=1$  the high-frequency components (such as noise) show up early in the iteration, while overall features are determined later.

For  $\lambda_k \ll 1$ , say 0.1, the iterations first determine the smooth parts of the image and small details in later iterates  $\Longrightarrow$  suprprisingly small values of  $\lambda_k$  (e.g.,  $\lambda_k = 0.05$ ) are quite common in ART.

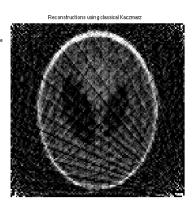
#### Stopping rules

- The discrepancy principle
- The L-curve
- Generalised cross-validation (GCV)
- Normalised cumulative periodogram (NCP)
- ...



Problem size & noise n = 16384 m=5400 noise level= 10%

Non negativity: No Lambda = 1 Figure of merits Rel. error = 145% MSE = 0.126 PSNR = 9

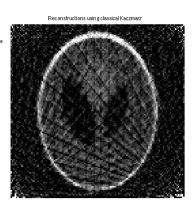


$$\lambda_k = 1.0$$



Problem size & noise n = 16384 m=5400 noise level= 10%

Non negativity: No Lambda = 0.9 Figure of merits Rel. error = 129% MSE = 0.0996 PSNR = 10

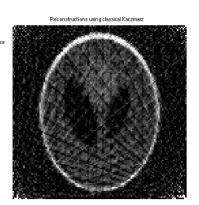


$$\lambda_k = 0.9$$



Problem size & noise n = 16384 m=5400 noise level=10%

Non negativity: No Lambda = 0.8 Figure of merits Rel. error = 115% MSE = 0.08 PSNR = 11

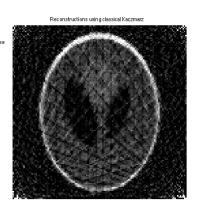


$$\lambda_{k} = 0.8$$



Problem size & noise n = 16384 m=5400 noise level=10%

Non negativity: No Lambda = 0.7 Figure of merits Rel. error = 104% MSE = 0.0648 PSNR = 11.9

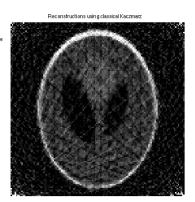


$$\lambda_k = 0.7$$



Problem size & noise n = 16384 m=5400 noise level= 10%

Non negativity: No Lambda = 0.6 Figure of merits Rel. error = 93.8% MSE = 0.0528 PSNR = 12.8



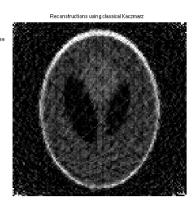
$$\lambda_k = 0.6$$



Problem size & noise n = 16384 m=5400 noise level=10%

Iterates: 5

Non negativity: No Lambda = 0.5 Figure of merits Rel. error = 84.5% MSE = 0.0428 PSNR = 13.7

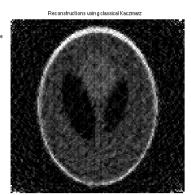


$$\lambda_k = 0.5$$



Problem size & noise n = 16384 m=5400 noise level= 10%

Non negativity: No Lambda = 0.4 Figure of merits Rel. error = 75.8% MSE = 0.0345 PSNR = 14.6

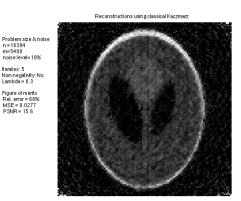


$$\lambda_k = 0.4$$



Problem size & noise n = 16384m=5400 noise level= 10%

Lambda = 0.3 Figure of merits Rel. error = 68% MSE = 0.0277 PSNR = 15.6



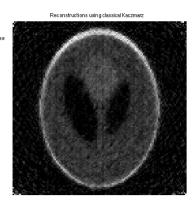
$$\lambda_{k} = 0.3$$



Problem size & noise n = 16384 m=5400 noise level=10%

Iterates: 5

Non negativity: No Lambda = 0.2 Figure of merits Rel. error = 61.9% MSE = 0.023 PSNR = 16.4



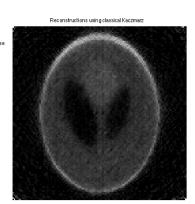
$$\lambda_{k} = 0.2$$



Problem size & noise n = 16384 m=5400 noise level=10%

Iterates: 5

Non negativity: No Lambda = 0.1 Figure of merits Rel. error = 60.4% MSE = 0.0219 PSNR = 16.6



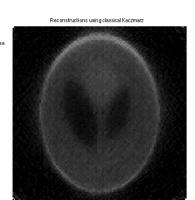
$$\lambda_k = 0.1$$



Problem size & noise n = 16384 m=5400 noise level=10%

Iterates: 5

Non negativity: No Lambda = 0.05 Figure of merits Rel. error = 64.4% MSE = 0.0249 PSNR = 16



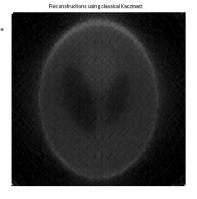
$$\lambda_{k} = 0.05$$



Problem size & noise n = 16384 m=5400 noise level=10%

Iterates: 5 Non negativity: No Lambda = 0.025

Figure of merits Rel. error = 70% MSE = 0.0294 PSNR = 15.3



$$\lambda_k = 0.025$$



Problem size & noise n = 16384 m=5400 noise level=10%

Iterates: 5

Non negativity: No Lambda = 0.01 Figure of merits Rel. error = 77.7% MSE = 0.0363 PSNR = 14.4



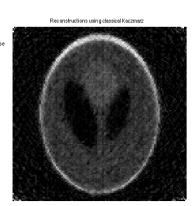
$$\lambda_{k} = 0.01$$

# Iterative reconstruction methods Influence of row ordering



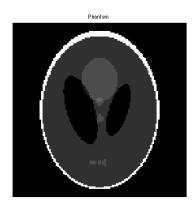
Problem size & noise n = 16384 m=5400 noise level=1096 Iterates: 5 Non negativity: No Lambda = 0.2

Figure of merits Rel. error = 61.9% MSE = 0.023 PSNR = 16.4



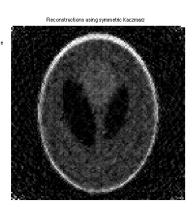
Classical

# Iterative reconstruction methods Influence of row ordering



Problem size & noise n = 16384 m=5400 noise level=10%

Iterates: 5 Non negativity: No Lambda = 0.2 Figure of merits Rel. error = 64.3% MSE = 0.0248 PSNR = 16.1



Symmetric

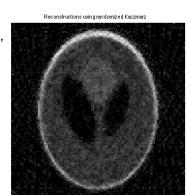
# Iterative reconstruction methods Influence of row ordering



Problem size & noise n = 16384 m=5400 noise level=10%

Iterates: 5 Non negativity: No Lambda = 0.2 Figure of merits Rel. error = 51.5% MSE = 0.0159

PSNR = 18



Random

Least-squares problem for the reconstruction problem:

$$\min_{oldsymbol{lpha} \in \mathbb{R}^n} Q(oldsymbol{lpha}) \quad ext{where} \quad Q(oldsymbol{lpha}) := rac{1}{2} \| \mathbf{A} \cdot oldsymbol{lpha} - g \|_2^2.$$

Gradient-descent method: Solve (3) by the iterative scheme

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k - \lambda_{k+1} \nabla Q(\alpha_k)$$
 for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ 

• The gradient of the quadratic form  $Q: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}_+$  is

$$\nabla Q(\alpha) = \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{t}} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha - g).$$

- Value of step size  $\lambda_k$  may change at every iteration.
- Convergence to a local minima of (3) can be guaranteed for certain methods for choosing  $\lambda_k$ .
- Serves as a basis for simultaneous iterative reconstruction technique (SIRT) methods.

Least-squares problem for the reconstruction problem:

$$\min_{oldsymbol{lpha} \in \mathbb{R}^n} Q(oldsymbol{lpha}) \quad ext{where} \quad Q(oldsymbol{lpha}) := rac{1}{2} \| \mathbf{A} \cdot oldsymbol{lpha} - g \|_2^2.$$

Gradient-descent method: Solve (3) by the iterative scheme

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k - \lambda_{k+1} \nabla Q(\alpha_k)$$
 for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ 

• The gradient of the quadratic form  $Q: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}_+$  is

$$abla Q(lpha) = \mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{t}} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot lpha - g).$$

- Value of step size  $\lambda_k$  may change at every iteration.
- Convergence to a local minima of (3) can be guaranteed for certain methods for choosing  $\lambda_k$ .
- Serves as a basis for simultaneous iterative reconstruction technique (SIRT) methods.

General form of iterates:

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k - \lambda_k \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{A}^t \cdot \mathbf{M} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_k - g)$$
 for  $k = 0, 1, 2, ...$ 

Iterates are stopped early and  $\lambda_k > 0$  is a relaxation parameter.

Methods vary depending on choices of the diagonal  $(n \times n)$ -matrix  $\mathbf{T}$  and the diagonal  $(m \times m)$ -matrix  $\mathbf{M}$ .

- Classical Landweber:  $T = I_n$  and  $M = I_m$ .
- Cimmino:  $T = I_n$  and M = D.
- CAV:  $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{I}_n$  and  $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{D}_S$ .
- DROP:  $\mathbf{T} = \operatorname{diag}(1/s_j)$  and  $\mathbf{M} = m\mathbf{D}$ .
- SART:  $\mathbf{T} = \operatorname{diag}\left(1/\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i,j}\right)$  and  $\mathbf{M} = \operatorname{diag}\left(1/\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{i,j}\right)$ .

General form of iterates:

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k - \lambda_k \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{A}^t \cdot \mathbf{M} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_k - g)$$
 for  $k = 0, 1, 2, ...$ 

Iterates are stopped early and  $\lambda_k > 0$  is a relaxation parameter.

Methods vary depending on choices of the diagonal  $(n \times n)$ -matrix  $\mathbf{T}$  and the diagonal  $(m \times m)$ -matrix  $\mathbf{M}$ .

- Classical Landweber:  $T = I_n$  and  $M = I_m$ .
- Cimmino:  $T = I_n$  and M = D.
- CAV:  $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{I}_n$  and  $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{D}_S$ .
- DROP:  $\mathbf{T} = \operatorname{diag}(1/s_j)$  and  $\mathbf{M} = m\mathbf{D}$ .

• SART: 
$$\mathbf{T} = \operatorname{diag}\left(1/\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i,j}\right)$$
 and  $\mathbf{M} = \operatorname{diag}\left(1/\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i,j}\right)$ .

Here

$$\mathbf{D} = \frac{1}{m} \operatorname{diag} \left( \frac{1}{\|a_i\|_2^2} \right)$$

General form of iterates:

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k - \lambda_k \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{A}^t \cdot \mathbf{M} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_k - g)$$
 for  $k = 0, 1, 2, ...$ 

Iterates are stopped early and  $\lambda_k > 0$  is a relaxation parameter.

Methods vary depending on choices of the diagonal  $(n \times n)$ -matrix **T** and the diagonal  $(m \times m)$ -matrix **M**.

- Classical Landweber:  $T = I_n$  and  $M = I_m$ .
- Cimmino:  $T = I_n$  and M = D.
- CAV:  $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{I}_n$  and  $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{D}_S$ .
- DROP:  $\mathbf{T} = \operatorname{diag}(1/s_j)$  and  $\mathbf{M} = m\mathbf{D}$ .

• SART: 
$$\mathbf{T} = \operatorname{diag}\left(1/\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i,j}\right)$$
 and  $\mathbf{M} = \operatorname{diag}\left(1/\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i,j}\right)$ .

Here

$$\mathbf{D} = \frac{1}{m}\operatorname{diag}\Bigl(\frac{1}{\|a_i\|_2^2}\Bigr) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{D}_S := \operatorname{diag}\Bigl(\frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^n s_j a_{i,j}^2}\Bigr)$$

 $s_i$  = number of non-zero elements in j:th column **A** 

## Iterative reconstruction methods SIRT

General form of iterates:

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k - \lambda_k \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{A}^t \cdot \mathbf{M} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_k - g)$$
 for  $k = 0, 1, 2, ...$ 

Iterates are stopped early and  $\lambda_k > 0$  is a relaxation parameter.

Methods vary depending on choices of the diagonal  $(n \times n)$ -matrix  $\mathbf{T}$  and the diagonal  $(m \times m)$ -matrix  $\mathbf{M}$ .

- Classical Landweber:  $T = I_n$  and  $M = I_m$ .
- Cimmino:  $T = I_n$  and M = D.
- CAV:  $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{I}_n$  and  $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{D}_S$ .
- DROP:  $\mathbf{T} = \operatorname{diag}(1/s_i)$  and  $\mathbf{M} = m\mathbf{D}$ .

• SART: 
$$\mathbf{T} = \operatorname{diag}\left(1/\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i,j}\right)$$
 and  $\mathbf{M} = \operatorname{diag}\left(1/\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i,j}\right)$ .

Here

$$\mathbf{D} = \frac{1}{m} \operatorname{diag} \left( \frac{1}{\|a_i\|_2^2} \right)$$

 $s_i$  = number of non-zero elements in j:th column **A** 

### Iterative reconstruction methods SIRT

General form of iterates:

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k - \lambda_k \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{A}^t \cdot \mathbf{M} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_k - g)$$
 for  $k = 0, 1, 2, ...$ 

Iterates are stopped early and  $\lambda_k > 0$  is a relaxation parameter.

Methods vary depending on choices of the diagonal  $(n \times n)$ -matrix  $\mathbf{T}$  and the diagonal  $(m \times m)$ -matrix  $\mathbf{M}$ .

- Classical Landweber:  $T = I_n$  and  $M = I_m$ .
- Cimmino:  $T = I_n$  and M = D.
- CAV:  $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{I}_n$  and  $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{D}_S$ .
- DROP:  $\mathbf{T} = \operatorname{diag}(1/s_j)$  and  $\mathbf{M} = m\mathbf{D}$ .
- SART:  $\mathbf{T} = \operatorname{diag}\left(1/\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i,j}\right)$  and  $\mathbf{M} = \operatorname{diag}\left(1/\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i,j}\right)$ .

## Iterative reconstruction methods SIRT

General form of iterates:

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k - \lambda_k \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{A}^t \cdot \mathbf{M} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_k - g)$$
 for  $k = 0, 1, 2, ...$ 

Iterates are stopped early and  $\lambda_k > 0$  is a relaxation parameter.

Methods vary depending on choices of the diagonal  $(n \times n)$ -matrix  $\mathbf{T}$  and the diagonal  $(m \times m)$ -matrix  $\mathbf{M}$ .

- Classical Landweber:  $T = I_n$  and  $M = I_m$ .
- Cimmino:  $T = I_n$  and M = D.
- CAV:  $T = I_n$  and  $M = D_S$ .
- DROP:  $\mathbf{T} = \operatorname{diag}(1/s_j)$  and  $\mathbf{M} = m\mathbf{D}$ .
- SART:  $\mathbf{T} = \operatorname{diag}\left(1/\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i,j}\right)$  and  $\mathbf{M} = \operatorname{diag}\left(1/\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{i,j}\right)$ .

Note: T and M are diagonal matrices  $\Rightarrow$  can be stored.

## Iterative reconstruction methods

General form of iterates:

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{k+1} := \boldsymbol{\alpha}_k - \lambda_k \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{t}} \cdot \mathbf{M} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha}_k - g)$$
 for  $k = 0, 1, 2, ...$ 

Iterates are stopped early and  $\lambda_k > 0$  is a relaxation parameter.

Methods vary depending on choices of the diagonal  $(n \times n)$ -matrix  $\mathbf{T}$  and the diagonal  $(m \times m)$ -matrix  $\mathbf{M}$ .

- Classical Landweber:  $T = I_n$  and  $M = I_m$ .
- Cimmino:  $T = I_n$  and M = D.
- CAV:  $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{I}_n$  and  $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{D}_S$ .
- DROP:  $\mathbf{T} = \operatorname{diag}(1/s_j)$  and  $\mathbf{M} = m\mathbf{D}$ .

• SART: 
$$\mathbf{T} = \operatorname{diag}\left(1/\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i,j}\right)$$
 and  $\mathbf{M} = \operatorname{diag}\left(1/\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{i,j}\right)$ .

Several stopping rules and approaches to choose the relaxation parameter  $\lambda_k$ .

#### Iterates:

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k - \lambda_k \cdot \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{t}} \cdot \left( \mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha - \mathbf{g} \right) = \alpha_k - \lambda_k \nabla Q(\alpha_k)$$

where 
$$Q(\alpha) := \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha - g\|_2^2$$
.

- Each step in Landweber's method is a step in the direction of steepest descent.
- Semi-convergence property well-established.
- $0 < \lambda_k < 2/\sigma^2$  where  $\sigma$  is an estimate of the largest singular value of **A**.

## Iterative reconstruction methods SIRT: Cimmino

Iterates:

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k - \lambda_k \cdot \mathbf{A}^t \cdot \mathbf{D} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha - g)$$
 for  $k = 0, 1, 2, ...$ 

where 
$$\mathbf{D} = \frac{1}{m} \operatorname{diag}\left(\frac{1}{\|a_i\|_2^2}\right)$$
, so

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k + \frac{\lambda_k}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{g_i - a_i \cdot \alpha_k}{\|a_i\|_2^2} a_i.$$

• Each step in Cimmino's method is the average of the projections onto the m hyperplanes  $a_i \cdot \alpha = g_i$  with  $i = 1, \ldots, m$  (compare with ART).

#### Iterative reconstruction methods

Non-negativity and box constraints

Assume one knows beforehand that  $\alpha_{\mathsf{true}} \in \mathcal{C} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  where  $\mathcal{C}$  is a known convex set. One can incorporate such a constraint into ART and SIRT iterations by projecting iterates onto  $\mathcal{C}$ :

Projected ART

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \mathcal{P}_C \left( \alpha_k + \lambda_k \frac{g_{i_k} - a_{i_k} \cdot \alpha_k}{\|a_{i_k}\|_2^2} a_{i_k} \right)$$

with  $i_k \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$  given by the row-ordering scheme.

Projected SIRT

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{C}} \Big( \alpha_k - \lambda_k \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{A}^t \cdot \mathbf{M} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha - g) \Big)$$

## Iterative reconstruction methods Non-negativity and box constraints

Assume one knows beforehand that  $\alpha_{\mathsf{true}} \in \mathcal{C} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  where  $\mathcal{C}$  is a known convex set. One can incorporate such a constraint into ART and SIRT iterations by projecting iterates onto  $\mathcal{C}$ :

Projected ART

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{C}}\left(\alpha_k + \lambda_k \frac{g_{i_k} - a_{i_k} \cdot \alpha_k}{\|a_{i_k}\|_2^2} a_{i_k}\right)$$

with  $i_k \in \{1, ..., m\}$  given by the row-ordering scheme.

Projected SIRT

$$oldsymbol{lpha}_{k+1} := \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{C}} \Big( oldsymbol{lpha}_k - \lambda_k \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{A}^{\!\! \mathrm{t}} \cdot \mathbf{M} \cdot ig( \mathbf{A} \cdot oldsymbol{lpha} - oldsymbol{g} \Big) \Big)$$

C can represent box-constraints  $a \le \alpha_i \le b$  in which case

$$\mathcal{P}_{C}(\alpha)_{i} = \begin{cases} \alpha_{i} & \text{if } a < \alpha_{i} < b \\ a & \text{if } \alpha_{i} \leq a \\ b & \text{if } \alpha_{i} \geq b \end{cases} \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n.$$

### Iterative reconstruction methods

Non-negativity and box constraints

Assume one knows beforehand that  $\alpha_{\mathsf{true}} \in \mathcal{C} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  where  $\mathcal{C}$  is a known convex set. One can incorporate such a constraint into ART and SIRT iterations by projecting iterates onto  $\mathcal{C}$ :

Projected ART

$$\alpha_{k+1} := \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{C}}\left(\alpha_k + \lambda_k \frac{g_{i_k} - a_{i_k} \cdot \alpha_k}{\|a_{i_k}\|_2^2} a_{i_k}\right)$$

with  $i_k \in \{1, \dots, m\}$  given by the row-ordering scheme.

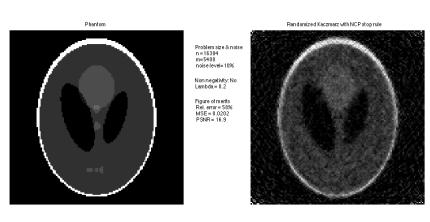
Projected SIRT

$$oldsymbol{lpha}_{k+1} := \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{C}} \Big( oldsymbol{lpha}_k - \lambda_k \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{A}^{\!\! \mathrm{t}} \cdot \mathbf{M} \cdot ig( \mathbf{A} \cdot oldsymbol{lpha} - g ig) \Big)$$

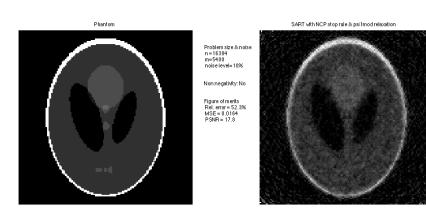
Projected iterates should converge to a least-squares solution in C, *i.e.*, to a solution of

$$\min_{\alpha \in C} \|\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha - g\|_2^2$$
.

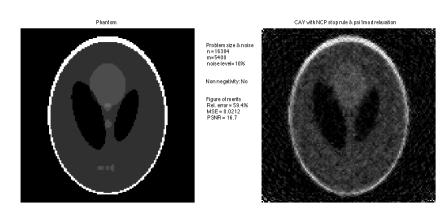
Projected SIRT converges to a solution of the above problem.



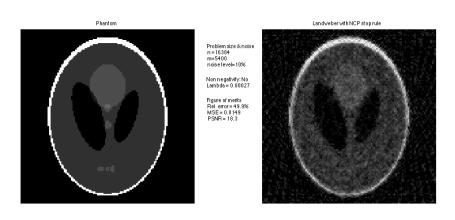
Randomized ART All iterative schemes make use of the same stopping rule.



**SART** 

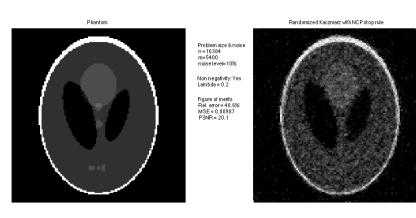


CAV

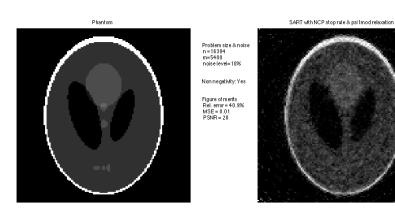


Landweber

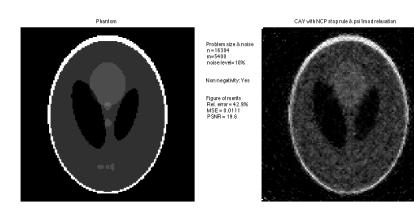
All iterative schemes make use of the same stopping rule.



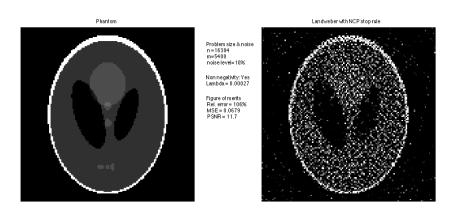
Randomized ART All iterative schemes make use of the same stopping rule.



**SART** 



CAV



Landweber

# The conjugate gradient (CG) method The basic algorithm

A Krylov subspace method – iterative scheme for finding a least-squares solution to the reconstruction problem:

$$\min_{oldsymbol{lpha} \in \mathbb{R}^n} Q(oldsymbol{lpha}) \quad ext{where} \quad Q(oldsymbol{lpha}) := rac{1}{2} \| \mathbf{A} \cdot oldsymbol{lpha} - g \|_2^2.$$

#### Basic CG algorithm for minimising a non-linear function Q

- 1:  $\alpha_0$  arbitrary,  $r_0 := \nabla Q(\alpha_0)$ ,  $d_0 := -r_0$ .
- 2: **for**  $k := 0, 1, \dots$  **do**
- 3:  $\alpha_{k+1} := \text{minima of } Q \text{ on half-line } t \mapsto \alpha_k + t d_k$
- 4:  $r_{k+1} := \nabla Q(\alpha_{k+1})$
- 5:  $\beta_{k+1} := \|r_{k+1}\|_2^2 / \|r_k\|_2^2$
- 6:  $d_{k+1} := -r_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1} d_k$
- 7: end for

# The conjugate gradient (CG) method The basic algorithm

A Krylov subspace method – iterative scheme for finding a least-squares solution to the reconstruction problem:

$$\min_{oldsymbol{lpha} \in \mathbb{R}^n} Q(oldsymbol{lpha}) \quad ext{where} \quad Q(oldsymbol{lpha}) := rac{1}{2} \| \mathbf{A} \cdot oldsymbol{lpha} - \mathbf{g} \|_2^2.$$

#### Basic CG algorithm for minimising a non-linear function Q

- 1:  $\alpha_0$  arbitrary,  $r_0 := \nabla Q(\alpha_0)$ ,  $d_0 := -r_0$ .
- 2: **for**  $k := 0, 1, \dots$  **do**
- 3:  $\alpha_{k+1} := \text{minima of } Q \text{ on half-line } t \mapsto \alpha_k + t d_k$
- 4:  $r_{k+1} := \nabla Q(\alpha_{k+1})$
- 5:  $\beta_{k+1} := \|r_{k+1}\|_2^2 / \|r_k\|_2^2$
- 6:  $d_{k+1} := -r_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1} d_k$
- 7: end for

Gradient of 
$$Q: \nabla Q(\alpha) = \mathbf{A}^{t} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha - g).$$

# The conjugate gradient (CG) method The basic algorithm

A Krylov subspace method – iterative scheme for finding a least-squares solution to the reconstruction problem:

$$\min_{oldsymbol{lpha} \in \mathbb{R}^n} Q(oldsymbol{lpha}) \quad ext{where} \quad Q(oldsymbol{lpha}) := rac{1}{2} \| \mathbf{A} \cdot oldsymbol{lpha} - g \|_2^2.$$

#### CGLS algorithm for solving (4)

1: 
$$\alpha_0$$
 arbitrary,  $r_0 := \mathbf{A}^t \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_0 - g)$ ,  $d_0 := -r_0$ .

2: **for** 
$$k := 0, 1, ...$$
 **do**  
3:  $t_{k+1} := -\langle r_k, d_k \rangle / \|\mathbf{A} \cdot d_k\|_2^2$ 

3: 
$$t_{k+1} := -\langle r_k, d_k \rangle / \| \mathbf{A} \cdot d_k \|_2^2$$
  
4:  $\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k + t_{k+1} d_k$ 

5: 
$$r_{k+1} := \mathbf{A}^t \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_{k+1} - g)$$

6: 
$$\beta_{k+1} := \|r_{k+1}\|_2^2 / \|r_k\|_2^2$$

7: 
$$d_{k+1} := -r_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1} d_k$$

## The conjugate gradient (CG) method The basic algorithm

A Krylov subspace method – iterative scheme for finding a least-squares solution to the reconstruction problem:

$$\min_{oldsymbol{lpha} \in \mathbb{R}^n} Q(lpha) \quad ext{where} \quad Q(lpha) := rac{1}{2} \| \mathbf{A} \cdot lpha - g \|_2^2.$$

#### CGLS algorithm for solving (4)

- 1:  $\alpha_0$  arbitrary,  $r_0 := \mathbf{A}^t \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_0 g)$ ,  $d_0 := -r_0$ .
- 2: **for**  $k := 0, 1, \dots$  **do**
- 3:  $t_{k+1} := -\langle r_k, d_k \rangle / \| \mathbf{A} \cdot d_k \|_2^2$
- 4:  $\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k + t_{k+1} d_k$
- 5:  $r_{k+1} := \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{t}} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_{k+1} g)$
- 6:  $\beta_{k+1} := \|r_{k+1}\|_2^2 / \|r_k\|_2^2$
- 7:  $d_{k+1} := -r_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1} d_k$
- 8: end for

All operations involve multiplication with  $\mathbf{A}$  or  $\mathbf{A}^{t}$ .

## The conjugate gradient (CG) method The basic algorithm

A Krylov subspace method – iterative scheme for finding a least-squares solution to the reconstruction problem:

$$\min_{oldsymbol{lpha} \in \mathbb{R}^n} Q(lpha) \quad ext{where} \quad Q(lpha) := rac{1}{2} \| \mathbf{A} \cdot lpha - g \|_2^2.$$

#### CGLS algorithm for solving (4)

- 1:  $\alpha_0$  arbitrary,  $r_0 := \mathbf{A}^t \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_0 g)$ ,  $d_0 := -r_0$ .
- 2: **for**  $k := 0, 1, \dots$  **do**
- 3:  $t_{k+1} := -\langle r_k, d_k \rangle / \| \mathbf{A} \cdot d_k \|_2^2$
- 4:  $\alpha_{k+1} := \alpha_k + t_{k+1} d_k$
- 5:  $r_{k+1} := \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{t}} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_{k+1} g)$
- 6:  $\beta_{k+1} := \|r_{k+1}\|_2^2 / \|r_k\|_2^2$
- 7:  $d_{k+1} := -r_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1} d_k$
- 8: end for

Need to regularise by early stopping.

Recover a least-squares solution to the ill-posed problem

$$g = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{lpha}_{\mathsf{true}} + g_{\mathsf{noise}}.$$

- ART and SIRT methods involve two regularisation parameters, the relaxation parameter and the number of iterates.
- CG methods have one regularisation parameter, the number of iterates.

Recover a least-squares solution to the ill-posed problem

$$g = \mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_{\mathsf{true}} + g_{\mathsf{noise}}.$$

- ART and SIRT methods involve two regularisation parameters, the relaxation parameter and the number of iterates.
- CG methods have one regularisation parameter, the number of iterates.

Two types of errors in regularisation of ill-posed problems:

Noise (perturbation) error: error in iterates due to "inverting" the noise  $g_{\text{noise}}$  in data.

Iteration (regularisation) error: errors in iterates that are due to semi-convergence (errors get amplified one iterates progress too far).

Both noise and iteration errors are always present in a regularised solution.

 $\implies$  their size depends on the regularisation parameter(s).

Recover a least-squares solution to the ill-posed problem

$$g = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{lpha}_{\mathsf{true}} + g_{\mathsf{noise}}.$$

- ART and SIRT methods involve two regularisation parameters, the relaxation parameter and the number of iterates.
- CG methods have one regularisation parameter, the number of iterates.

#### For iterative methods:

- The choice of the relaxation parameter mainly seeks to limit the noise error.
- The choice of number of iterates (stopping rule) mainly seeks to limit the iteration error.

## Choosing the regularisation parameter(s) The relaxation parameter

- ART and SIRT methods: Possible to estimate the noise and iteration errors for a fixed relaxation parameter. Albeit pessimistic, these estimates correctly describe the evolution of these errors as iterations progress.
- Choice of relaxation parameter  $\lambda_k \Longrightarrow$  limit the noise error

One possible strategy: Choose  $\lambda_0=\lambda_1=\sqrt{2}/\sigma^2$  and

$$\lambda_k = \frac{2}{\sigma^2} (1 - \zeta_k)$$
 or  $\lambda_k = \frac{2}{\sigma^2} \frac{1 - \zeta_k}{(1 - \zeta_k^k)^2}$  for  $k = 2, 3, ...$ 

Here,  $\sigma$  is an estimate of the largest singular value of **A** and  $0<\zeta_k<1$  is the unique root of the polynomial

$$p_{k-1}(\zeta) := (2k-1)\zeta^{k-1} - (\zeta^{k-2} + \ldots + \zeta + 1).$$

Leads to diminishing step-size

# Choosing the regularisation parameter(s) The relaxation parameter

- ART and SIRT methods: Possible to estimate the noise and iteration errors for a fixed relaxation parameter. Albeit pessimistic, these estimates correctly describe the evolution of these errors as iterations progress.
- Choice of relaxation parameter  $\lambda_k \Longrightarrow$  limit the noise error

One possible strategy: Choose  $\lambda_0=\lambda_1=\sqrt{2}/\sigma^2$  and

$$\lambda_k = \frac{2}{\sigma^2} (1 - \zeta_k)$$
 or  $\lambda_k = \frac{2}{\sigma^2} \frac{1 - \zeta_k}{(1 - \zeta_k^k)^2}$  for  $k = 2, 3, ...$ 

Here,  $\sigma$  is an estimate of the largest singular value of **A** and  $0<\zeta_k<1$  is the unique root of the polynomial

$$p_{k-1}(\zeta) := (2k-1)\zeta^{k-1} - (\zeta^{k-2} + \ldots + \zeta + 1).$$

Leads to diminishing step-size.

# Choosing the Regularisation Parameter Stopping rules

- Common to stop the iterations in iterative methods when the residual norm  $\|\mathbf{A} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha}_k g\|_2$  is "sufficiently small" since this may imply that  $\alpha_k$  is close to a least-squares solution.
- Not good for ill-posed problems since a least-squares solution is probably useless as it has overfitting artefacts.
- Stopping rules regulate the iteration error.

Stopping rules: The discrepancy criterion

Principle: Assume the residual norm decreases monotonically with the iterates. Then, stop iterates when the difference to data is smaller than size of the data noise.

- An estimate  $\delta > 0$  of the size of the noise component in data, i.e.,  $\|g_{\text{noise}}\|_2 < \delta$ .
- $\tau > 1$ , a safety factor.

Find k such that

$$\|\mathbf{A} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{k+1} - g\|_2 \le \tau \delta \le \|\mathbf{A} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha}_k - g\|_2.$$

- Unique solution for regularisation parameter *k* since residual norm varies monotonically with the iterates.
- Relies on a good estimate  $\delta$  of the size of the noise in data, which may be difficult to obtain in practice.
- Computed regularisation parameter k is very sensitive to the accuracy of the estimate  $\delta$ . A too small estimate can lead to dramatic under-smoothing (because k is chosen too large).

Stopping rules: The discrepancy criterion

Principle: Assume the residual norm decreases monotonically with the iterates. Then, stop iterates when the difference to data is smaller than size of the data noise.

- An estimate  $\delta > 0$  of the size of the noise component in data, i.e.,  $\|g_{\text{noise}}\|_2 < \delta$ .
- $\bullet$  au > 1, a safety factor.

Find k such that

$$\|\mathbf{A} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{k+1} - g\|_2 \le \tau \delta \le \|\mathbf{A} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha}_k - g\|_2.$$

- Unique solution for regularisation parameter *k* since residual norm varies monotonically with the iterates.
- Relies on a good estimate  $\delta$  of the size of the noise in data, which may be difficult to obtain in practice.
- Computed regularisation parameter k is very sensitive to the accuracy of the estimate  $\delta$ . A too small estimate can lead to dramatic under-smoothing (because k is chosen too large).

Stopping rules: The discrepancy criterion

Principle: Assume the residual norm decreases monotonically with the iterates. Then, stop iterates when the difference to data is smaller than size of the data noise.

- An estimate  $\delta > 0$  of the size of the noise component in data, i.e.,  $\|g_{\text{noise}}\|_2 < \delta$ .
- $\tau > 1$ , a safety factor.

Find k such that

$$\|\mathbf{A} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{k+1} - g\|_2 \le \tau \delta \le \|\mathbf{A} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha}_k - g\|_2.$$

- Unique solution for regularisation parameter *k* since residual norm varies monotonically with the iterates.
- Relies on a good estimate  $\delta$  of the size of the noise in data, which may be difficult to obtain in practice.
- Computed regularisation parameter k is very sensitive to the accuracy of the estimate  $\delta$ . A too small estimate can lead to dramatic under-smoothing (because k is chosen too large).

Stopping rules: The L-curve criterion

Principle: For small k smaller than some threshold, the iteration error dominates in  $\alpha_k$  so the 2-norm  $\|\alpha_k\|_2$  is expected to be small while the residual norm  $\|\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_k - g\|_2$  is large.

- $\|\alpha_k\|_2$  is almost a constant given by  $\|\alpha_{\text{true}}\|_2$  except for very small k where  $\|\alpha_k\|_2$  gets smaller as  $k \to 0$ .
- The residual norm  $\|\mathbf{A} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha}_k g\|_2$  increases as  $k \to 0$ , until it reaches its maximum value at k = 0.

For k larger than some threshold the noise error dominates  $\alpha_k$  leading to the following k dependency:

- $\|\alpha_k\|_2$  increases as k increases (overfitting).
- The residual norm  $\|\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_k g\|_2$  stays almost constant at the noise level in data.

Stopping rules: The L-curve criterion

The curve

$$k \mapsto \left(\|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_k\|_2, \|\mathbf{A} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha}_k - g\|_2\right)$$

is "L"-formed with two distinctly different parts:

- Part where it is quite flat (when the noise error dominates)
- Part that is more vertical (when the iteration error dominates)

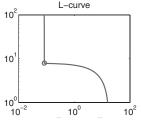
A log-log scale emphasizes the different characteristics of these two parts leading to the definition of the L-curve:

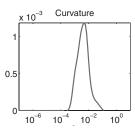
#### The L-curve:

$$k \mapsto \left( \left. \log(\|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_k\|_2), \log(\|\mathbf{A} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha}_k - g\|_2) \right) \right)$$

Stopping rules: The L-curve criterion

L-curve criterion: Choose k that corresponds to the corner (point with highest curvature) of the L-curve.





- Heuristic criteria with no guarantee that it will always produce a good regularisation parameter.
- Typically fails when the change in the residual and solution norms is small for two consecutive values of k.
- Computing the corner can be challenging, there may be many small local corners.

Stopping rules: the generalised cross-validation criterion

Principle: Remove data and select the value for the regularisation parameter that minimises the error in predicting the removed data. Consider the reduced problem:

$$\mathbf{A}^i \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha}_k^i = \mathbf{g}^i$$
 for fixed  $i = 1, \dots, m$ .

- $g^i \in \mathbb{R}^{m-1}$  is the data after we leave out the *i*:th data point.
- A<sup>i</sup> is the A with the i:th row left out
- $\alpha_k^i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the reconstruction obtained after k iterates when solving the reduced problem above.

Use  $\alpha_k^i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and the *i*:th row  $a_i$  of **A** to predict *i*:th data element:

$$g_i^{\text{predict}} := a_i \cdot \alpha_k^i$$
.

Prediction error =  $|g_i^{\text{predict}} - g_i| = |a_i \cdot \alpha_k^i - g_i|$ .

Stopping rules: the generalised cross-validation criterion

Principle: Remove data and select the value for the regularisation parameter that minimises the error in predicting the removed data. Consider the reduced problem:

$$\mathbf{A}^i \cdot \alpha_k^i = g^i$$
 for fixed  $i = 1, \dots, m$ .

- $g^i \in \mathbb{R}^{m-1}$  is the data after we leave out the *i*:th data point.
- A<sup>i</sup> is the A with the i:th row left out
- $\alpha_k^i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the reconstruction obtained after k iterates when solving the reduced problem above.

Choose the regularisation parameter k (number of iterations) such that the total prediction error is minimised, *i.e.*, solve

$$\min_{k} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( g_{i}^{\text{predict}} - g_{i} \right)^{2} = \min_{k} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( a_{i} \cdot \alpha_{k}^{i} - g_{i} \right)^{2}.$$

Computationally unfeasible since m different reconstruction problems are involved  $\implies$  need to simplify above minimisation.

Stopping rules: the generalised cross-validation criterion

Principle: Remove data and select the value for the regularisation parameter that minimises the error in predicting the removed data. Consider the reduced problem:

$$\mathbf{A}^i \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha}_k^i = \mathbf{g}^i$$
 for fixed  $i = 1, \dots, m$ .

- $g^i \in \mathbb{R}^{m-1}$  is the data after we leave out the *i*:th data point.
- A<sup>i</sup> is the A with the i:th row left out
- $\alpha_k^i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the reconstruction obtained after k iterates when solving the reduced problem above.

- Quite robust and accurate, as long as the noise is white.
- Occasional failure of GCV is well understood, and it often reveals itself by the ridiculous under-smoothing it leads to.
- Statistical and asymptotic properties is very well understood.
- Computationally demanding.

## Methods for choosing the regularisation parameter Summary

- The discrepancy principle is a simple method that seeks to reveal when the residual vector is noise-only. It relies on a good estimate of the size of the noise in data which may be difficult to obtain in practice.
- The L-curve criterion is based on an intuitive heuristic and seeks to balance the two error components via inspection (manually or automated) of the L-curve. This method fails when the solution is very smooth.
- The GCV criterion seeks to minimise the prediction error, and it is often a very robust method – with occasional failure, often leading to ridiculous under-smoothing that reveals itself.

## Methods for choosing the regularisation parameter Summary

- The discrepancy principle is a simple method that seeks to reveal when the residual vector is noise-only. It relies on a good estimate of the size of the noise in data which may be difficult to obtain in practice.
- The L-curve criterion is based on an intuitive heuristic and seeks to balance the two error components via inspection (manually or automated) of the L-curve. This method fails when the solution is very smooth.
- The GCV criterion seeks to minimise the prediction error, and it is often a very robust method – with occasional failure, often leading to ridiculous under-smoothing that reveals itself.

## Methods for choosing the regularisation parameter Summary

- The discrepancy principle is a simple method that seeks to reveal when the residual vector is noise-only. It relies on a good estimate of the size of the noise in data which may be difficult to obtain in practice.
- The L-curve criterion is based on an intuitive heuristic and seeks to balance the two error components via inspection (manually or automated) of the L-curve. This method fails when the solution is very smooth.
- The GCV criterion seeks to minimise the prediction error, and it is often a very robust method – with occasional failure, often leading to ridiculous under-smoothing that reveals itself.

# Reconstruction methods General properties

- Imaging, in particular 3D tomography, often leads to solving large-scale linear inverse problems.
- A useful reconstruction method must avoid factorisation of the measurement matrix:
  - The main "building blocks" must be matrix-vector multiplications, avoiding any factorization of the measurement matrix
  - Allow the user to select regularisation parameter(s) via a parameter-choice method that does not require solving the reconstruction problem from scratch for each new parameter.

# Reconstruction methods General properties

- Imaging, in particular 3D tomography, often leads to solving large-scale linear inverse problems.
- A useful reconstruction method must avoid factorisation of the measurement matrix:
  - The main "building blocks" must be matrix-vector multiplications, avoiding any factorization of the measurement matrix.
  - Allow the user to select regularisation parameter(s) via a parameter-choice method that does not require solving the reconstruction problem from scratch for each new parameter.

## Reconstruction methods General remarks

- Focus on a single application, or a specific and narrow class of applications; no reconstruction method is guaranteed to work for a broad class of problems.
- When implementing the reconstruction method, focus on modularity and clarity of the computer code; it is guaranteed that you need to go back and modify/expand the software at some point in time.
- Make sure you understand the performance of the implementation, including computing times, storage requirements, etc.

## Reconstruction methods General remarks

- When testing the reconstruction method, make sure to generate test problems that reflect as many aspects as possible of real, measured data.
- When testing, also make sure to model the noise as realistically as possible, and use realistic noise levels.
- Be aware of the concept of "inverse crime" (same ingredients are used to create synthetic data and to recover image):
  - As a "proof-of-concept" first use tests that commit inverse crime; if the reconstruction method does not work under such circumstances, it can never work.
  - 2 Next, in order to check the robustness to model errors, test the reconstruction method without committing inverse crime.

## Reconstruction methods General remarks

- Carefully evaluate the regularised solutions; consider which characteristics are important, and use the appropriate measure of the error (the 2-norm between the exact and regularised solutions is not always the optimal measure).
- Using the same exact data, create many realizations of the noise and perform a systematic study the robustness of the reconstruction method. Use histograms or other tools to investigate if the distribution of the errors has an undesired tail.

# Iterative reconstruction methods Summary

Iterative methods produce a sequence of digital images in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ 

$$\alpha_0 \rightarrow \alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_2 \rightarrow \dots$$

#### Important properties

- Iterates designed to converge to a least-squares solution of  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha = g$ .
- Semi-convergence, so initial convergence towards  $\alpha_{\text{true}}$  followed by (slow) convergence to least-squares solution.  $\Rightarrow$  Iteration number is a regularisation parameter.

# Iterative reconstruction methods Summary

Iterative methods produce a sequence of digital images in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ 

$$\alpha_0 \rightarrow \alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_2 \rightarrow \dots$$

#### Advantages

- Works with any linear forward problem.
- Only uses matrix-vector multiplications, so the matrix A is only accessed via matrix-vector multiplications and not explicitly required and never altered.
  - $\implies$  Enough to have a "black box" software component for computing the action of **A** and **A**<sup>t</sup>.
- Atomic operations in iterative methods (mat-vec product, norm) suited for high-performance computing.
- Often produce a natural sequence of regularised solutions;
   stop when the solution is "satisfactory" (parameter choice).