Tomographic reconstruction Lecture 1: Radon transform, Filtered backprojection and Inverse Problems

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¹based on a previous lecture by Ozan Öktem

Formalizing the notion of an image

What is an image?

- User's viewpoint: A quantity spatially distributed in 2D/3D.
- Mathematical viewpoint: An image is a function in 2D/3D:
 - Grey-scale images: Real valued function in 2D/3D, *i.e.* $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ where n=2 for 2D images and n=3 for 3D images.
 - Colour images: Vector valued function in 2D/3D, i.e.
 f: ℝⁿ → ℝ^k where n = 2 or 3 and k is the number of colour channels (e.g. k = 3 for red, green & blue).

We will only work with grey-scale images.

- Support of an image: The set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ where the image is defined, usually a rectangular region.
- Dynamic range of an image: The range of values in \mathbb{R}^k that an image $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}^k$ can attain.

In many imaging applications, the image we seek is only indirectly observed. This is especially the case when we seek to observe a 3D image.

- 3D/2D tomography in medical imaging
- Geophysical exploration
- 3D microscopy
- Radar imaging

Image reconstruction as an inverse problem

$$m{g} = \mathcal{S}ig(\mathcal{A}(m{f}_{\mathsf{true}})ig) + m{g}_{\mathsf{noise}}.$$

- $f_{\text{true}} : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is the image that is to be recovered and \mathscr{X} (reconstruction space) is the set of feasible images.
- $g \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is the measured data, *i.e.*, the m numeric quantities recorded by the imaging device.
- A: X → Y is the forward operator and Y (data space) is the set of possible continuum data. A models the imaging device for continuum data in absence of noise and measurement errors.
- $S: \mathscr{Y} \to \mathbb{R}^m$ models how continuum data is digitized (sampling operator) during the imaging.
- $\mathbf{g}_{\text{noise}} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is the noise component of measured data.

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Reconstruction space $\mathscr X$

- Set of possible functions $f:\Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ (images)
- Usually some (infinite dimensional) vector space over \mathbb{R} , *i.e.*,

$$f+h\in\mathscr{X}$$
 and $\alpha f\in\mathscr{X}$ for any $f,h\in\mathscr{X}$ and $\alpha\in\mathbb{R}.$

Square integrable functions: $\mathscr{L}^2(\Omega)$ is infinite dimensional and

$$\int_{\Omega} ig|f(x)ig|^2 \, \mathrm{d}x < \infty \quad ext{whenever } f \in \mathscr{L}^2(\Omega).$$

 $\mathscr{L}^2(\Omega)$ has inner-product and norm (Hilbert space):

$$\langle f, h \rangle_{\mathscr{L}^2(\Omega)} := \int_{\Omega} f(x)h(x) dx \quad \text{for } f, h \in \mathscr{L}^2(\Omega)$$

$$\|f\|_2 := \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle_{\mathscr{L}^2(\Omega)}^2} := \left(\int_{\Omega} f(x)^2 dx\right)^{1/2}$$

Hilbert spaces: Generalizes the notion of an inner product to infinite dimensional vector spaces.

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Hilbert spaces: Generalizes the notion of an inner product to infinite dimensional vector spaces.

Discretization: Computers cannot handle elements in infinite dimensional vector spaces. Need to replace the infinite dimensional vector space with a finite dimensional counterpart.

Basis expansion

Assume $\mathscr X$ is a Hilbert space with norm $\|\cdot\|_{\mathscr X}$ and $\{\phi_j\}_j\subset\mathscr X$ is a fixed set (dictionary/frame). Define $\mathscr X_n\subset\mathscr X$ as the linear span of $\{\phi_1,\ldots,\phi_n\}$, so for any element $f\in\mathscr X_n$ then there exists real numbers $\alpha_j\in\mathbb R$ (that depend on f) such that

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \phi_j(x)$$
 for all $x \in \Omega$.

If $\{\phi_j\}_j$ are a basis (linearly independent), then \mathscr{X}_n is an n-dimensional vector space over \mathbb{R} .

Discretization – Finite dimensional representations

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How to construct α_j 's from a given f

Given $f \in \mathcal{X}$, it is natural to seek an element $\tilde{f} \in \mathcal{X}_n$ that is the "best approximation" to f.

Stated equivalently, given f we seek real numbers $\alpha_j \in \mathbb{R}$ (that depend on f) that minimizes the "difference" between f and

$$\tilde{f}(x) := \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_j \phi_j(x) \quad \text{for } x \in \Omega.$$

Solution: Choose \tilde{f} that minimizes $\|f - \tilde{f}\|_{\mathscr{X}}$. If $\{\phi_j\}_j$ is an orthonormal basis $(\langle \phi_i, \phi_j \rangle_{\mathscr{X}} = 0 \text{ if } i \neq j \text{ and } = 1 \text{ if } i = j)$, then this corresponds to choosing $\tilde{f} \in \mathscr{X}_n$ as the orthogonal projection of f onto \mathscr{X}_n , so

$$\alpha_j := \langle f, \phi_j \rangle_{\mathscr{X}} = \int_{\Omega} f(x) \phi_j(x) \, \mathrm{d}x.$$

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Sampling (uniform): Sub-divide (the rectangular) region $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ into n non-overlapping (rectangular) sub-regions, voxels, of equal size that cover Ω .

Voxel basis: Given a sampling, define the voxel basis as

$$\phi_j(x) := egin{cases} 1 & ext{if } x ext{ is in the } j ext{:th voxel}, \\ 0 & ext{otherwise}. \end{cases}$$

Then $\{\phi_j\}_j$ is a basis and the orthogonal projection \tilde{f} of f onto \mathscr{X}_n is given by

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Basic assumptions

- $\mathscr{X} \subset \mathscr{L}^2(\Omega)$ is a sub-space
- \bullet A sampling of the domain Ω into voxels
- ullet $\{\phi_j\}_j$ is a voxel basis based on the sampling

Discretization: To each image $f \in \mathcal{X}$ we can associate a unique vector (a finite dimensional representation) $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$ as follows:

$$\alpha := (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$
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Digital image

- A vector representing grey-scale intensities corresponding to a voxel.
- Grey-scale values are usually mapped to integers $\{0, \dots, 2^p 1\}$ where 0 is white and 1 is black (*p*-bit image).
 - 2-bit image (binary images) corresponds to two values.
 - 8-bit corresponds to 256 different values.
 - 16-bit corresponds to 65 536 different values.
 - 32-bit image corresponds to 4 294 967 296 different values.

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Discretization - Reformulating the reconstruction problem

 Accuracy: For inverse problems, the discretization must be accurate in both reconstruction and data spaces, i.e.,

$$f pprox \sum_{j=1}^n lpha_j \phi_j$$
 and $\mathcal{A}(f) pprox \mathcal{A}igg(\sum_{j=1}^n lpha_j \phi_jigg)$

for any $f \in \mathscr{X}$ where $\alpha_j := \langle f, \phi_j \rangle_{\mathscr{X}}$.

• Discretized forward operator: Define $A: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ as

$$A(\alpha) := S\left(A\left(\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \phi_j\right)\right) \quad \text{for } \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

• Linearity & measurement matrix: Assume $A : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ is linear (e.g., both $A : \mathscr{X} \to \mathscr{Y}$ and $S : \mathscr{Y} \to \mathbb{R}^m$ are linear). There exists an $(m \times n)$ -matrix **A** (measurement matrix) so that $A(\alpha) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha$.

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• Elements of the measurement matrix: When $A \colon \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ is linear, then

$$A(\alpha) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} S(A(\phi_{j})).$$

Hence, the measurement matrix **A** is given as

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

where

$$a_{i,j}:=i$$
:th component of $\mathcal{S}ig(\mathcal{A}(\phi_j)ig)=\mathcal{S}ig(\mathcal{A}(\phi_j)ig)_i\in\mathbb{R}$ for $i=1,\ldots,m$ and $j=1,\ldots,n$.

Remember: n is number of voxels and m is number of data points.

Different formulations of the reconstruction problem

Continuum noise-free formulation

Recover the image $f_{\mathsf{true}} \in \mathscr{X}$ from continuum data $g \in \mathscr{Y}$ assuming $g = \mathcal{A}(f_{\mathsf{true}})$. Here, $\mathcal{A} \colon \mathscr{X} \to \mathscr{Y}$ is the forward operator.

Original formulation (sampled noisy data)

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Fully discretized formulation

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• The data space: \mathscr{Y} is an infinite dimensional vector space of real-valued functions defined on a manifold M of lines in \mathbb{R}^3 , so continuum data $g \in \mathscr{Y}$ is a function

$$g: M \to \mathbb{R}$$
.

• The manifold of lines M: A line ℓ in \mathbb{R}^3 is uniquely determined by its direction ω (directional vector) and a point $\mathbf{x} \in \omega^{\perp}$ that lies on ℓ (ω^{\perp} is the 2D plane orthogonal to ω):

$$\ell: t \mapsto \mathbf{x} + t\omega$$
.

Hence, the pair (ω, x) corresponds to a unique line ℓ and vice versa, so M can be considered as a vector space of such pairs. Note: Each $x \in \omega^{\perp}$ corresponds to a unique point on the detector surface.

• Data acquisition geometry: The arrangement of the m lines in M that correspond to the measurements, i.e., the sampling of ω and $\mathbf{x} \in \omega^{\perp}$.

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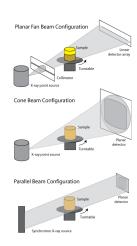
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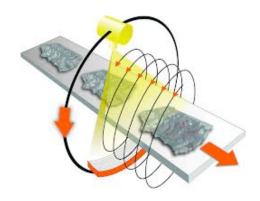
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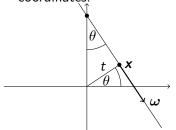


• Transmission tomography: Forward operator given by the ray transform:

$$\mathcal{A}(f)(\boldsymbol{\omega}, \boldsymbol{x}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\boldsymbol{x} + t \boldsymbol{\omega}) \, \mathrm{d}t \quad ext{for a line } (\boldsymbol{\omega}, \boldsymbol{x}) \in M.$$

Note that $g := \mathcal{A}(f)$ is a real-valued function defined on M a set of lines in \mathbb{R}^3 .

• Exact reconstruction in 2D: Write x and ω in polar coordinates:



$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} t \cos \theta \\ t \sin \theta \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{\omega} = \begin{pmatrix} -\sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

Filtered backprojection Ingredients

• Forward operator in polar coordinates:

$$\mathcal{A}(f)(t,\theta) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f \left[t \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta \\ t \sin \theta \end{pmatrix} + s \begin{pmatrix} -\sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \right] ds$$

for $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and $0 < \theta < \pi$

• Backprojection = average over all lines through one point:

$$\mathcal{B}(g)(x,y) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} g(x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta, \theta) d\theta.$$

The backprojection takes a sinogram (=image on M) and maps it back to an image in \mathbb{R}^2 . But it is **not** the inverse mapping of A.

Filtered backprojection Ingredients

 Fourier transform: We transform only with respect to the first variable

$$\mathcal{F}(g)(t, heta) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(s, heta) \exp(-ist) \, \mathrm{d}s$$
 $\mathcal{F}^{-1}(g)(t, heta) = rac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(s, heta) \exp(+ist) \, \mathrm{d}s$

Each of these transformations maps a function on M to another function on M, and \mathcal{F}^{-1} is the inverse of \mathcal{F} . There exist fast implementations for both CPU (e.g. (py)FFTW) and GPU (cuFFT).

Filtered backprojection The formula

$$f(x,y) = \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{F}^{-1}(|t|\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{A}f)(t,\theta)))(x,y)$$

Step by step:

- **1** Start with the sinogram $\mathcal{A}f$, which you obtain from the scanner.
- **2** Calculate the Fourier transform $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{A}f)$.
- Multiply by the absolute value of the first (radial) component. (This is the filtering).
- 4 Calculate the inverse Fourier transform. You still have a sinogram.
- Apply the (nonfiltered) backprojection. Here you obtain an image.
- O Divide by 2.

Filtered backprojection Challenges

- Requires full knowledge of all line integrals to give an exact reconstruction.,b
- The multiplication with the abolute value amplifies errors, in particular high frequencies. Solution: Use a different filter, which does not grow so rapidly.
- But it is fast in comparison with iterative and variational methods.

• Sampling operator: Given m data sampling points $(\omega_1, x_1), \ldots, (\omega_m, x_m)$ (which are lines) that correspond to actual measured data, define

$$\mathcal{S}(g) = \big(g(\omega_1, x_1), \dots, g(\omega_m, x_m)\big) \in \mathbb{R}^m \quad \text{for } g \in \mathscr{Y}.$$

In particular, the *i*:th measurement corresponding to the *i*:th line (ω_i, \mathbf{x}_i) is modeled by

$$\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{A}(f))_i = \mathcal{A}(f)(\boldsymbol{\omega}_i, \boldsymbol{x}_i) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\boldsymbol{x}_i + t\boldsymbol{\omega}_i) dt.$$

The reconstruction problem Tomography

• Measurement matrix: Fix a basis $\{\phi_i\}_i$ of $\mathscr X$ and a data acquisition geometry $(\omega_1, x_1), \ldots, (\omega_m, x_m)$. Then, the elements in the $(m \times n)$ -measurement matrix

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

are given as

$$\mathbf{a}_{i,j} = \mathcal{A}(\phi_i)(oldsymbol{\omega}_j, oldsymbol{x}_j) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi_i(oldsymbol{x}_j + toldsymbol{\omega}_j) \, \mathrm{d}t$$

for i = 1, ..., n and j = 1, ..., m.

 Voxel basis: The ray transform assumes the x-ray beam is one-dimensional (pencil beam), so

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

The reconstruction problem Tomography

 Voxel basis and x-ray with 2D-dimensional cross section: The lines are replaced by 3D strips, so

 $a_{i,j}$ = volume of part of *i*:th strip in *j*:th voxel.

More complicated beam profiles: Can be included by weighting different parts of the strips differently. The calculation of $a_{i,j}$ requires a lot of work and much of the literature on iterative methods discuss effects of using various schemes to approximate the measurement matrix.

Historical note: In the early approaches for 2D tomography by Hounsfield, one used

$$a_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if center of } j\text{:th pixel is in } i\text{:th strip,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

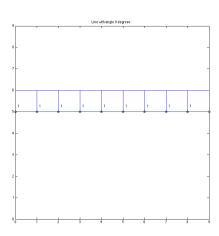
Then, values of $a_{i,j}$ can be computed at run time even with slow computers and do not have to be stored.

Tomography: Computing the measurement matrix for lines in 2D

Matrix element $a_{i,j}$ is the length of i:th line in j:th pixel.

Example: Calculating *i*:th row a_i for a line through a 9×9 pixel 2D grid where pixel size =1.

 $\begin{array}{ll} {\sf Angle} \ = \ 0^{\circ} \ \ {\sf with} \\ {\sf horizontal} \ {\sf axis} \end{array}$

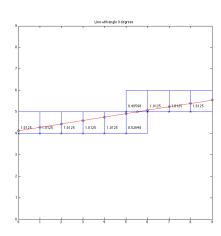


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Angle $= 9^{\circ}$ with horizontal axis

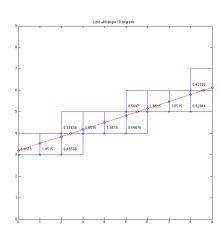


Tomography: Computing the measurement matrix for lines in 2D

Matrix element $a_{i,j}$ is the length of i:th line in j:th pixel.

Example: Calculating *i*:th row a_i for a line through a 9×9 pixel 2D grid where pixel size =1.

 $\begin{array}{l} {\rm Angle} = 18^{\circ} \ {\rm with} \\ {\rm horizontal} \ {\rm axis} \end{array}$

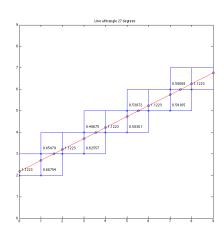


Tomography: Computing the measurement matrix for lines in 2D

Matrix element $a_{i,j}$ is the length of i:th line in j:th pixel.

Example: Calculating *i*:th row a_i for a line through a 9×9 pixel 2D grid where pixel size =1.

 $\begin{array}{l} {\rm Angle} = 27^{\circ} \ {\rm with} \\ {\rm horizontal} \ {\rm axis} \end{array}$

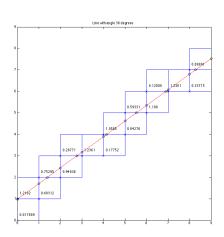


Tomography: Computing the measurement matrix for lines in 2D

Matrix element $a_{i,j}$ is the length of i:th line in j:th pixel.

Example: Calculating *i*:th row a_i for a line through a 9×9 pixel 2D grid where pixel size =1.

 $\begin{array}{l} {\rm Angle} = 36^{\circ} \ {\rm with} \\ {\rm horizontal} \ {\rm axis} \end{array}$

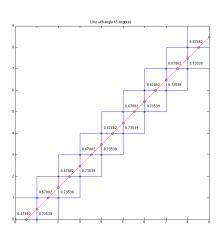


Tomography: Computing the measurement matrix for lines in 2D

Matrix element $a_{i,j}$ is the length of i:th line in j:th pixel.

Example: Calculating *i*:th row a_i for a line through a 9×9 pixel 2D grid where pixel size =1.

Angle $=45^{\circ}$ with horizontal axis

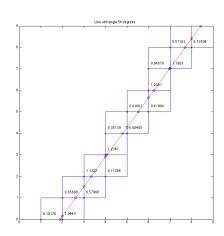


Tomography: Computing the measurement matrix for lines in 2D

Matrix element $a_{i,j}$ is the length of i:th line in j:th pixel.

Example: Calculating *i*:th row a_i for a line through a 9×9 pixel 2D grid where pixel size =1.

 $\begin{array}{l} {\rm Angle} = 54^{\circ} \ {\rm with} \\ {\rm horizontal} \ {\rm axis} \end{array}$

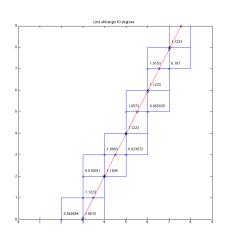


Tomography: Computing the measurement matrix for lines in 2D

Matrix element $a_{i,j}$ is the length of i:th line in j:th pixel.

Example: Calculating *i*:th row a_i for a line through a 9×9 pixel 2D grid where pixel size =1.

Angle $= 63^{\circ}$ with horizontal axis

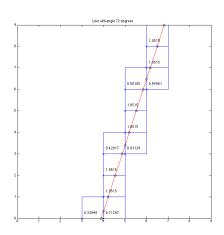


Tomography: Computing the measurement matrix for lines in 2D

Matrix element $a_{i,j}$ is the length of i:th line in j:th pixel.

Example: Calculating *i*:th row a_i for a line through a 9×9 pixel 2D grid where pixel size =1.

 $\begin{array}{l} {\rm Angle} = 72^{\circ} \ {\rm with} \\ {\rm horizontal} \ {\rm axis} \end{array}$

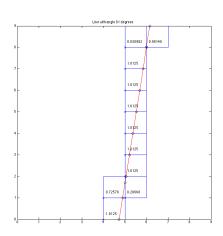


Tomography: Computing the measurement matrix for lines in 2D

Matrix element $a_{i,j}$ is the length of i:th line in j:th pixel.

Example: Calculating *i*:th row a_i for a line through a 9×9 pixel 2D grid where pixel size =1.

 $\begin{array}{l} {\sf Angle} = 81^{\circ} \; {\sf with} \\ {\sf horizontal} \; {\sf axis} \end{array}$

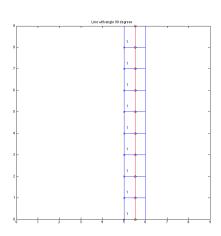


Tomography: Computing the measurement matrix for lines in 2D

Matrix element $a_{i,j}$ is the length of i:th line in j:th pixel.

Example: Calculating *i*:th row a_i for a line through a 9×9 pixel 2D grid where pixel size =1.

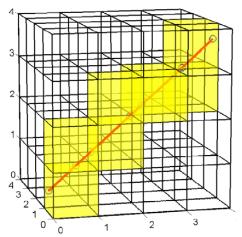
 $\begin{array}{l} {\rm Angle} = 90^{\circ} \ {\rm with} \\ {\rm horizontal} \ {\rm axis} \end{array}$



Tomography: Computing the measurement matrix for lines in $\ensuremath{\mathsf{3D}}$

Matrix element $a_{i,j}$ is the length of i:th line in j:th voxel.

Calculate the intersection of *i*:th line ℓ_i with *j*:th voxel.



Tomography: Computing the measurement matrix for lines in 3D

Matrix element $a_{i,j}$ is the length of i:th line in j:th voxel.

Calculate the intersection of *i*:th line ℓ_i with *j*:th voxel.

• Intersection with x_1 -planes: Consider the intersection point in \mathbb{R}^3 between a line ℓ and a hyperplane parallel to the x_1 -axis:

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3) \mapsto (p, x_2, x_3)$$
 where p is fix.

Assume ℓ is given by (ω, \mathbf{x}^0) , *i.e.*,

$$\ell_i: t \mapsto \mathbf{x}^0 + t\boldsymbol{\omega}.$$

Let $\mathbf{x}^* = (x_1^*, x_2^*, x_3^*)$ denote this intersection, so $x_1^* = p$ by definition and

$$x_2^* = x_2^0 + \frac{p - x_1^0}{\omega_1} \omega_2$$
 and $x_3^* = x_3^0 + \frac{p - x_1^0}{\omega_1} \omega_3$.

Tomography: Computing the measurement matrix for lines in 3D

Matrix element $a_{i,j}$ is the length of i:th line in j:th voxel.

Calculate the intersection of *i*:th line ℓ_i with *j*:th voxel.

- Intersection with x_2 and x_3 -planes: Similar equations for the planes $x_2 = q$ and $x_3 = r$.
- From these intersections it is easy to compute the ray length in voxel *j* and there are fast method for these computations:
 - R. L. Siddon. Fast calculation of the exact radiological path for a 3-dimensional CT array. Medical Physics, vol. 12, no. 2, pages 252–255, 1985.
 - H. Gao. Fast parallel algorithms for the X-ray transform and its adjoint. Medical Physics, vol. 39, no. 11, pages 7110–7120, 2012.

Tomography: Properties of the measurement matrix

- For most tomography problems, the measurement matrix A is very large and it cannot be stored in computer memory.
 Problem size in a modern 64-slice helical CT:
 - A single 2D cross-section
 - About 1 000 detector elements arranged along 64 (detector) slices, each roughly corresponding to a 2D slice through the object. Radiation source attains 800 different positions each second (two rotations/second)
 - $\Longrightarrow 1000 \cdot 800 \approx 800\,000$ data points.
 - \bullet 2D cross-section is 512 \times 512 pixels in size \Longrightarrow 260 000 pixels.

Total: 260 000 unknowns and 800 000 equations.

• A single 2D cross-section corresponds to a 1 mm thick slice in 3D, so 1 000 cross sections needed to cover 1 m: $\Rightarrow n \sim 260 \cdot 10^6$ and $m \sim 800 \cdot 10^6$.

• A is sparse since each ray only intersects a few voxels.

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Naive inversion and concept of ill-posedness

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

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

Here, **A** is the $(m \times n)$ -measurement matrix.

Existence: Naive inversion $\alpha_{\text{naive}} := \mathbf{A}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{g}$ is not possible when \mathbf{A} is not invertible (no solutions to (1)).

Generalized solution: Relax the notion of a solution to (1) to enforce existence. Define a data error function $E \colon \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}_+$ and look for a vector $\alpha^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ that solves

$$\min_{\alpha} E(\mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha - \mathbf{g}).$$

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 (1)

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• Least-squares solutions: Choose *E* as the 2-norm of the residual, *i.e.*, solve

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

 Maximum likelihood solution: Choosing E as the neglog of the data likelihood gives maximum likelihood solutions to (1).

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Ill-posedness: Generalized solutions handle the issue of existence (there is always a generalized solution to (1)). Two serious problems remain:

- Non-uniqueness: Infinitely many generalized solutions.
- Instability: Generalized solutions do not depend continuously on the data g.

The inverse problem (1) is ill-posed if any of these issues occur.

The reconstruction problem Naive inversion and concept of ill-posedness

very far from $\alpha_{\rm true}$.

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

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 (1)

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Condition number and ill-posedness:

Assume (1) has a solution for any $\mathbf{g}_{\text{noise}}$, let $\alpha_{\text{naive}} := \mathbf{A}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{g}$. Classical perturbation theory leads to the bound

$$\frac{\|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\mathsf{true}} - \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\mathsf{naive}}\|_2}{\|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\mathsf{true}}\|_2} \leq \mathsf{cond}(\mathbf{A}) \frac{\|\boldsymbol{g} - \boldsymbol{g}_{\mathsf{exact}}\|_2}{\|\boldsymbol{g}_{\mathsf{exact}}\|_2}$$

where $\mathbf{g}_{\text{exact}} := \mathbf{A} \cdot \alpha_{\text{true}}$ and $\text{cond}(\mathbf{A})$ is the condition number (ratio of the maximal and minimal singular values). $\text{cond}(\mathbf{A})$ large \implies naive inversion not useful since α_{naive} can be

The reconstruction problem Regularization

Regularization: Mathematical theory for handling III-posed problems. Stability and uniqueness is enforced by accounting for a priori knowledge about the true (unknown) image.

The main idea of regularization

Replace the original ill-posed reconstruction problem by a well-posed reconstruction problem (i.e., it has a unique solution that depends continuously on the data) that is convergent as the data error goes to zero.

Well-posedness: Guarantees stability

Convergence: The reconstructions obtained converge to a least squares solution when the data error approaches zero and the parameters in the reconstruction method (regularization parameters) are chosen appropriately.

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