Medical image analysis: Refresher Just pointers and reminders

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Outline

- Basic notation
- Probabilistic modeling
- Optimization, cost function and regularization
- Linear basis models and function parameterizations
- Spatial transformations
- Derivative approximations

Continuous version

A volumetric grayscale image is a function $I: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}, \ \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ is the image domain I(x) is the intensity at point $x \in \Omega$, $x = [x_1, x_2, x_3]$

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 $\Omega \subset \mathbb{Z}^3$ is the discrete image domain, i.e. Cartesian grid I(x) is the intensity at $x \in \Omega$, x = [i, j, k]

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- For dynamic images with temporal information $I: \Omega \times \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^N$

I(x, t) is the intensity at point x and time t

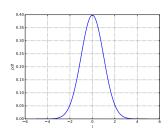
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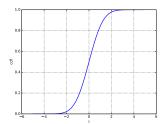
- Basic notation
- Probabilistic modeling
 - PDF, CDF, PMF
 - Histogram of an image
 - Conditionals and the Bayes' Rule
 - Posterior distribution, MAP and MLE
- Optimization, cost function and regularization
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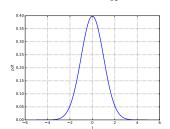
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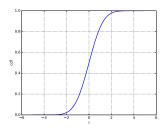
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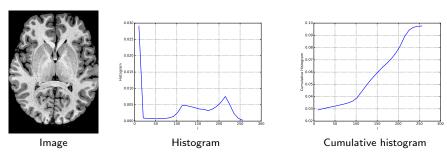
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For discrete random variables, L, we define p(I) = p(L = I) as its probability mass function (PMF) PMF can be seen as a PDF is often named as PDF in scientific articles

Histogram of an image



If we consider each pixel intensity as an independent realization of the random variable $\it I$ then the histogram is an approximation to the PDF and cumulative histogram is an approximation to the CDF

Conditionals and the Bayes' Rule

When we have two variables such as I and L p(i,I): joint distribution $p(i) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} p(i,l)$ and $p(l) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(i,l)di$: marginal distributions p(i|I) and p(I|i): conditional distributions p(i,I) = p(i|I)p(I) = p(I|i)p(i)

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■ In a large variety of problems one of them is observed and the other not. Assume *i* is observed in that case

p(i|I): likelihood p(I): prior distribution p(I|i): posterior distribution

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p(i) requires summing over all I (or integration over all I if continuous), which can be infeasible. The alternative is to determine the I that maximizes the posterior, i.e. Maximum-A-Posteriori (MAP) estimate

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$$arg_I max p(i|I)$$

■ MLE is the same as MAP when the prior is uniform, i.e. p(I) = c, $\forall I$





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 - Data term and regularization
 - Optimization
 - Calculus of variation
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■ Image registration: Determine *T* between images *I* and *J*

$$\arg_T \min \int (I(x) - J(T(x)))^2 dx + \int \|\alpha \Delta T(x) + \beta \nabla (\nabla \cdot T(x)) - \gamma T(x)\|_2^2 dx$$

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The MAP estimate is also in the same form

$$arg_{\theta} \max \log p(i|\theta) + \log p(\theta) = arg_{\theta} \min - \log p(i|\theta) - \log p(\theta)$$

Regularizers can be thought of as priors with $-\log p(\theta) \propto \mathcal{R}(\theta)$



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- Some references
 - Convex Optimization, Boyd and Vandenberghe, Cambridge University Press, 2004.
 - Nonlinear Programming, Bertsekas, Athena Scientific, 2016.

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- Reference: The Calculus of Variations, Bruce van Brunt, Springer, 2004.

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- Linear basis models and function parameterizations
 - Basics
 - Function parameterizations with linear basis models
 - Kernel-based parameterization
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- In finite vector spaces

$$\vec{\mathbf{v}} = \mathbf{a}_1 \vec{\mathbf{b}}_1 + \mathbf{a}_2 \vec{\mathbf{b}}_2 + \dots + \mathbf{a}_d \vec{\mathbf{b}}_d = \mathbf{B} \vec{\mathbf{a}}$$

 $ar{b_i}$ are the basis functions and a_i coefficients. if $ar{b_i}$ are orthogonal, i.e. $ar{b_i}^T ar{b_j} = 0, \ \forall i \neq j$ then $a_i = \vec{v}^T ar{b_i} / \| ar{b_i} \|_2$. if not then Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression must be performed

$$\arg_{\vec{a}} \min \|\vec{v} - \mathbf{B}\vec{a}\|_2^2 = (\mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{B})^{-1} \mathbf{B}^T \vec{v}$$

For known \vec{b}_i , \vec{a} can be a parameterization for \vec{v}

Function parameterizations with linear basis models

Global parameterizations

$$f(x) = \sum_{i}^{d} a_{i}b_{i}(x)$$

where $b_i(x)$ are smooth basis functions.

- The parameterization is \vec{a}
- To determine \vec{a} , the space is discretized and a **B** matrix is formed.
- Note that this parameterization cannot represent all functions.
- Examples:
 - polynomials: bias-field correction in MRI
 - splines: non-linear registration

Kernel-based parameterization

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{d} a_i K(x, x_i)$$

where x_i are the control points and $K(x, x_i)$ is a kernel function

- Radial basis functions are often used: $K(x, x_i) = K(||x x_i||_2)$
- Popular radial basis functions:
 Gaussian

$$K(||x - x_i||_2) = \exp{-\frac{||x - x_i||_2^2}{\sigma^2}}$$

Thin-plate spline

$$K(||x-x_i||_2) = ||x-x_i||_2^2 \ln(||x-x_i||_2)$$

 Example: landmark based registration, linear/non-linear registration, kernel density estimation

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 - Non-linear transformations
 - Transformation related identities
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- Affine transformation
 - 6 dof in 2D
 - 12 dof in 3D
 - Often not used in full dof
 - Instead, 9 dof transformation (3 translation + 3 rotation + 3 scale) may be preferred.

$$\mathbf{T} = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} s_X & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_Y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & s_Z \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ 0 & \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{ccc} \cos(\phi) & 0 & \sin(\phi) \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\sin(\phi) & 0 & \cos(\theta) \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{ccc} \cos(\gamma) & \sin(\gamma) & 0 \\ -\sin(\gamma) & \cos(\gamma) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] + \left[\begin{array}{c} t_X \\ t_y \\ t_Z \end{array} \right]$$
 scale rotation around x-axis rotation around y-axis rotation around z-axis translation

Non-linear transformations

$$T(\vec{x}) = \vec{x} + \underbrace{\vec{u}(\vec{x})}_{\text{displacement field}}$$

- Used in non-linear registration.
- Different models are used.
- Linear basis function models additive
- More advanced techniques based on composition of transformations

$$T(\vec{x}) = T_n \circ T_{n-1} \circ \cdots \circ T_1(\vec{x})$$

where o is basic function composition Allows modeling diffeomorphisms see Computational Anatomy

Transformation related identities

$$T(\vec{x}) = [T_1(\vec{x}), T_2(\vec{x}), T_3(\vec{x})]^T$$

Jacobian

$$\boldsymbol{J} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial T_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial T_1}{\partial x_2} & \frac{\partial T_1}{\partial x_3} \\ \frac{\partial T_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial T_2}{\partial x_2} & \frac{\partial T_2}{\partial x_3} \\ \frac{\partial T_3}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial T_3}{\partial x_2} & \frac{\partial T_3}{\partial x_3} \end{bmatrix}$$

Jacobian determinant quantifies local volumetric change. $\det(\mathbf{J})=1\text{: no change, }\det(\mathbf{J})<1\text{: compression, }\det(\mathbf{J})>1\text{: expansion}$

- Divergence: $\nabla \cdot T$ trace of the Jacobian. Gives information about the amount of compression and expansion as well.
- lacktriangle Curl abla imes T information on the amount of infinitesimal rotation

Outline

- Basic notation
- Probabilistic modeling
- Optimization, cost function and regularization
- Linear basis models and function parameterizations
- Spatial transformations
- Derivative approximations

Derivative approximations

- Finite difference approximations is used the most often
- First order derivative at a grid point x_0 with grid spacing Δx

$$\frac{df}{dx}|_{x_0} \approx \frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x) - f(x_0)}{\Delta x}$$

$$\approx \frac{f(x_0) - f(x_0 - \Delta x)}{\Delta x}$$

$$\approx \frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x) - f(x_0 - \Delta x)}{2\Delta x}$$

■ Second order derivative at a grid point x_0 with grid spacing Δx

$$\frac{d^2f}{dx^2}|_{x_0} \approx \frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x) - 2f(x_0) + f(x_0 - \Delta x)}{\Delta x^2}$$

■ Many different approximations exist