

Models for biomedical image reconstruction based on Newton-Cotes formulae for integral approximations

Thesis Defense

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Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Description of the model
- 3 Implementation
- 4 Experimental results
- 5 Conclusions and Future Work

Introduction

Problem Definition

Approximation of line integral of function using sampled data

Framework

Tomographic image reconstructions using projection data

CT, PET, Electron tomography, etc..

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The Reconstruction Problem

The intensity after traversal of Ray_i is

$$I_i = \sum_j |Ray_i \cap p_j| \cdot \rho_j$$

- p_j - j'th pixel
- ρ_j - value of the attenuation function in p_j

This is a system of linear equations $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$

where $x_j = \rho_j$, $b_i = I_i$ and $a_j^i = |Ray_i \cap p_j|$

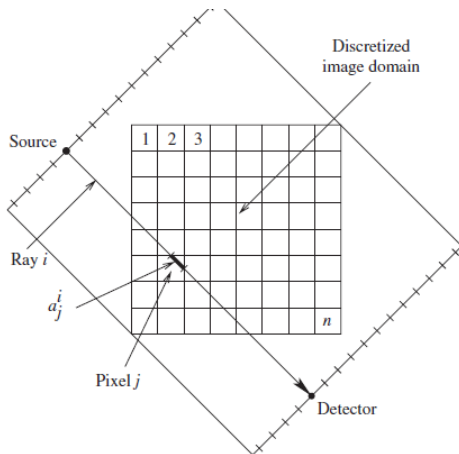


Image basis functions for image reconstruction

Goal

- Find some approximating function $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ such that
 - $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ is represented as a linear combination of certain basis functions
 - The line integrals are a “good” approximation to the measurements

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Most used Basis functions

PBF Pixel basis function

Blob Radially symmetric modifications of the
Kaiser-Bessel window functions

	PBF	Blob
Computation	cheap	expensive
Model's complexity	simple	complex
Usage	trivial	complex tuning
Geometry	voxels	hexagons
Side effects	salt&pepper	smoothed images
Noise situation	very sensitive	reasonable
Contrast	low	high

1D approximations for quadratures of sampled functions

Target

Approximate $\int_a^b \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$ using blending functions $\mathbf{g}_i(\mathbf{x})$, and a set of sampling points

$$f(x) \approx g(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \alpha_i g_i(x)$$

1D approximations for quadratures of sampled functions

If $a = a_0 < a_1 < \dots < a_n = b$ is a partition of the interval $[a, b]$ then

$$\int_a^b g(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \alpha_i \int_{a_i}^{a_{i+1}} g_i(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \alpha_i (a_{i+1} - a_i) \int_0^1 g_i \left(\frac{x - a_i}{a_{i+1} - a_i} \right)$$

so we may consider functions

$$\ell(x) = g_i \left(\frac{x - a_i}{a_{i+1} - a_i} \right)$$

defined for x on interval $[0, 1]$

1D approximations and the corresponding models

Rectangle rule: Sample value taken at $x = \frac{1}{2}$

$$\ell(\mathbf{x}) = s_1(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(a_i + \frac{h_i}{2}) s_1(\frac{x - a_i}{h_i})$$

Trapezoidal rule: Sample values taken at $x = 0$ and $x = 1$

$$\ell_0(x) = 1 - x \text{ and } \ell_1(x) = x$$

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left[f(a_i) \ell_0\left(\frac{x - a_i}{h}\right) + f(a_{i+1}) \ell_1\left(\frac{x - a_i}{h}\right) \right]$$

quadratic rule (Simpson) : Samples taken at $x = 0, 1, 2$

Newton-Cotes

The blending functions are chosen as interpolation polynomials for the points 0, 1, etc

- $n = 2$
 - $x_1 = 0, x_2 = 1$
 - $\ell_0(x) = x, \ell_1(x) = 1 - x, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1$
- $n = 3$
 - $x_1 = 0, x_2 = 1, x_3 = 2$
 - $q_0(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2 - \frac{3}{2}x + 1, \quad q_1(x) = -x^2 + 2x,$
 $q_2(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{2}x, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 2$

Extension to 2D interpolation

- **rectangle:** $g_{ij}(x, y) = f(i + \frac{1}{2}, j + \frac{1}{2})s_1(x - i)s_1(y - j)$

- **trapezoid:**

$$g_{ij}(x, y) = f(i, j)\ell_{00}(x - i, y - j) + f(i + 1, j)\ell_{10}(x - i, y - j) + f(i, j + 1)\ell_{01}(x - i, y - j) + f(i + 1, j + 1)\ell_{11}(x - i, y - j)$$

- $\ell_{00}(x, y) = (1 - x) \cdot (1 - y)$, $\ell_{01}(x, y) = (1 - x) \cdot y$,
 $\ell_{10}(x, y) = x \cdot (1 - y)$, $\ell_{11}(x, y) = x \cdot y$

- **quadratic (Simpson):** 9 basis functions defined over $[0, 2] \times [0, 2]$: $q_{ij}(x, y) = q_i(x)q_j(y) \quad i, j \in \{0, 1, 2\}$
 - adjacent pixels **overlapping** interpolation range

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Computation of line integrals

For the integral of the *blending functions*

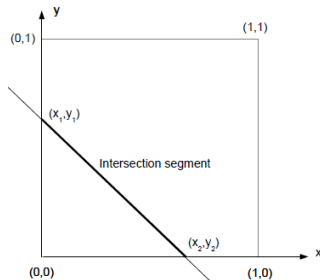
$$\mathbf{c}_{ij} = \int_{P_1}^{P_2} \ell_{ij}(x, y) ds = \int_{(x_1, y_1)}^{(x_2, y_2)} \ell_{ij}(x, y) ds$$

use the parametrization

$$(x(t), y(t)) = (1 - t) \cdot P_1 + t \cdot P_2 \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1$$

Then:

$$\mathbf{c}_{ij} = \|P_2 - P_1\| \cdot \int_0^1 \ell_{ij}(x(t), y(t)) dt$$



Computation of line integrals(continued)

If we denote

$$dx = x_2 - x_1 \quad dy = y_2 - y_1$$

$$\tilde{x}_1 = 1 - \tilde{x}_1 \quad \tilde{y}_1 = 1 - \tilde{y}_1$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{c}_{00} &= +\frac{1}{3} \cdot dx \cdot dy & -\frac{1}{2} \cdot \tilde{x}_1 \cdot dy & -\frac{1}{2} \cdot dx \cdot \tilde{y}_1 & +\tilde{x}_1 \cdot \tilde{y}_1 \\ \mathbf{c}_{10} &= -\frac{1}{3} \cdot dx \cdot dy & -\frac{1}{2} \cdot x_1 \cdot dy & +\frac{1}{2} \cdot dx \cdot \tilde{y}_1 & +x_1 \cdot \tilde{y}_1 \\ \mathbf{c}_{01} &= -\frac{1}{3} \cdot dx \cdot dy & +\frac{1}{2} \cdot \tilde{x}_1 \cdot dy & -\frac{1}{2} \cdot dx \cdot y_1 & +\tilde{x}_1 \cdot y_1 \\ \mathbf{c}_{11} &= +\frac{1}{3} \cdot dx \cdot dy & +\frac{1}{2} \cdot x_1 \cdot dy & +\frac{1}{2} \cdot dx \cdot y_1 & +x_1 \cdot y_1 \end{aligned}$$

Calculation of weights

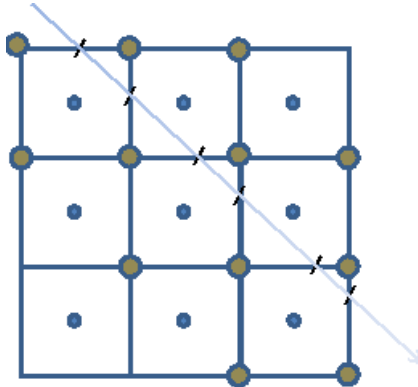
Input: (ρ, θ) - ray parameters
 G - grid definition

Output: w_{ij} - weights in sparse representation

- General interface for any order of the Newton-Cotes basis functions
- Pure computational geometry routine (depends only on the grid and rays configuration)

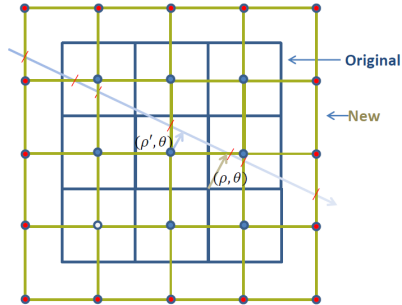
Model's Geometry

Problem: Linear (and higher order) interpolation on the grid corners will produce biased weights



Model's Geometry (continued)

Solution: Define a new grid



- **Edge pixels** requires special handling
- Frame of reference changed

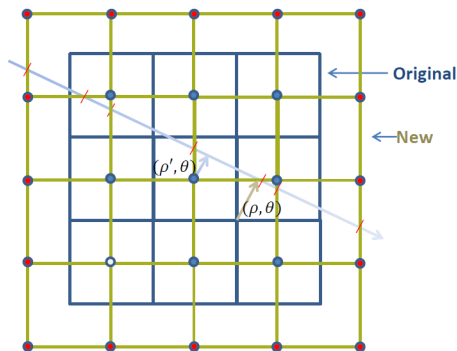
Grid traversal algorithms

DDA (Digital Differential Analyzer)

- sequential
- accumulates errors (truncation, round-off)
- rays are translated

Our proposed algorithm

- parallel
- no error accumulation
- grid is translated



Ray translation

- Normal form: $\mathbf{x} \cos \theta + \mathbf{y} \sin \theta = \rho$
- Vector form: $\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{u} = \rho, \mathbf{r}' \cdot \mathbf{u} = \rho' \quad \mathbf{u} = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$
- The translation is $\mathbf{r}' - \mathbf{r} = \Delta \mathbf{r} = (\Delta x, \Delta y)$
- Line-normal intersection points: $\mathbf{a} = \rho \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{a}' = \rho' \mathbf{u}$
- For $(\Delta x, \Delta y) = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$

$$\Delta \mathbf{a} = -\frac{1}{2}(\cos \theta + \sin \theta)(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$$

Our proposed algorithm

Schema:

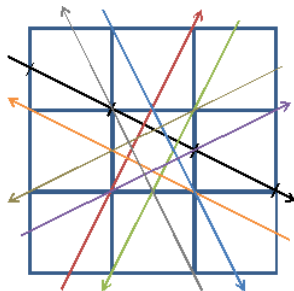
- Ray: $\mathbf{P}_t = \mathbf{P}_0 + t \cdot \mathbf{dir}$
- Grid: $\mathbf{x} = t_{x_i}, \mathbf{y} = t_{y_j}$
- Determine bounding box in $t : [t_{x_{low}}, t_{x_{high}}], [t_{y_{low}}, t_{y_{high}}]$
- Collect the 2 lists of t values of the ray intersections with grid lines
- *Merge the 2 ordered lists, and get the pixels and their intersection length*

Weights calculation

- A pixel may sum weights from 1 to 3 intersections
- For sparse representation, **efficient** summation is non-trivial (requires tracking previous calculated pixels)
- Blending function integration involves additional arithmetic operations
- Handling outlier pixels

Symmetry

- Symmetry groups of order 8 (in 2D)
- Computation reduction is factor of group's order, but depends on selection of projection angles
- Weights mapping is simple (coordinates substitutions, linear transformations)
- Mapping LUT



Weights storage

- In iterative reconstruction, ray projection usually applied numerous times
- Weights re-calculation in each projection drastically degrades performance
- For an almost determined system over $\mathbf{M} \times \mathbf{N}$ image:
 $\mathbf{O}(\mathbf{MN}(\max(\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{N})))$
- Symmetry usage
- May be infeasible in strip rays, higher dimensions, polynomial order, resolution

Parallel ray-detector CT simulation

- The linear model (**LBF**) was implemented in 2D in SNARK09 . Additional implementation - grid traversal, storage
- Tested and compared to pixel model (**PBF**) and **Blob**
 - Mathematical phantoms (Shepp-Logan, Herman's Head and others)
 - Configuration such as noise, detector and projection resolution, and phantom contrast
 - Quantitative measurement
 - 2 Reconstruction algorithms

Tested reconstruction algorithms

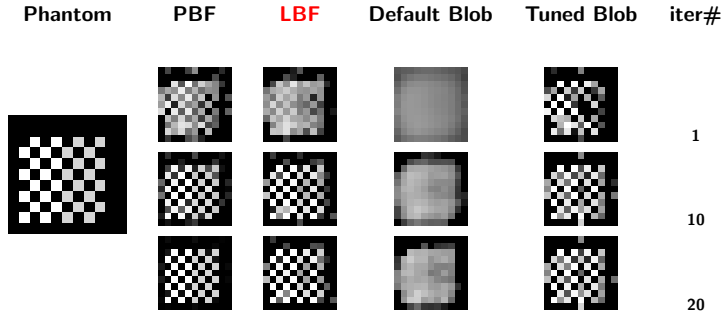
ART - Algebraic reconstruction technique

- Least square minimization

EMAP - Expectation maximization with log likelihood

- Regularization
- ART is not well suited to underdetermined system and noisy data
 - selective smoothing was used in some cases

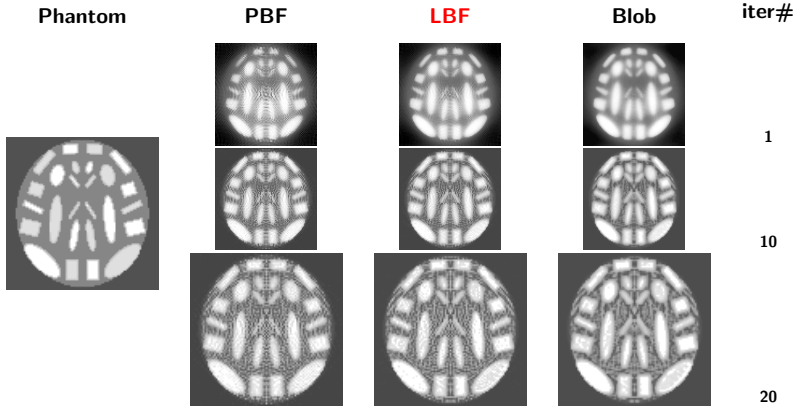
Spatial aliasing



- Blob can be destructive in highly detailed images

Low contrast

Identify region's **activity** (white or grey)



Low projection resolution

- Test for $N \times N$ image

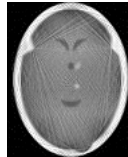
- $|projections| = \frac{N}{2}$
- $|equations| = \frac{N^2}{2}$

PBF

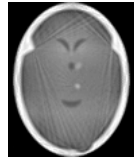


LBF

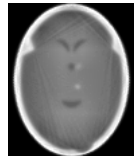
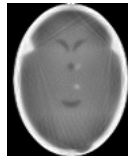
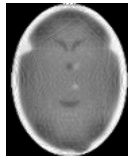
ART - iter 20



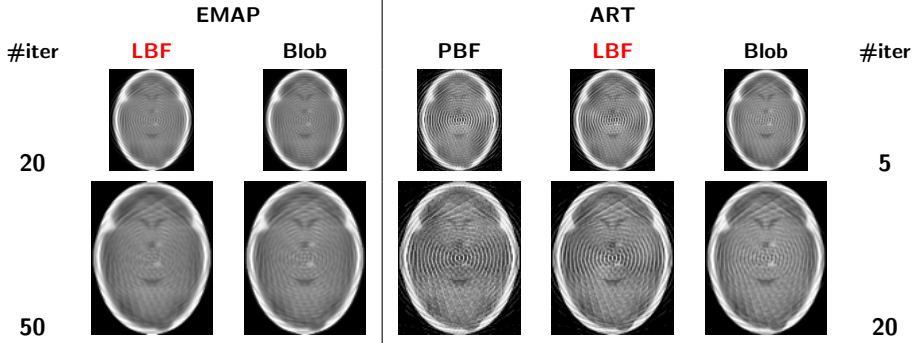
Blob



EMAP - iter 40



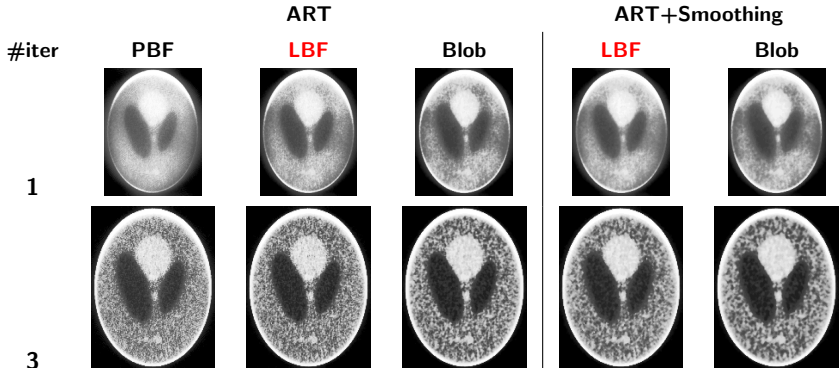
Low ray-detector resolution



- Regularization is essential
- LBF is competitive to Blob

Multiplicative noise

- by-product of signal amplification
- simulation: $P_{new} = P_{old} \text{gauss}(\hat{\sigma}, \hat{\rho})$



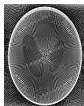
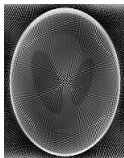
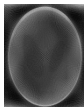
Scatter noise (Compton effect)

- Main artifacts: streaks and reduced contrast

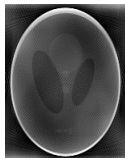
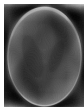
Shepp-Logan



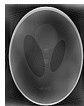
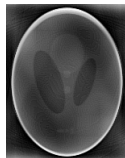
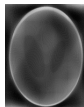
PBF



LBF



Blob

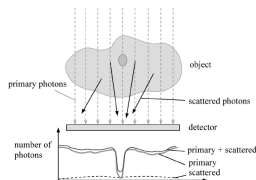


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Conclusions

- In almost any situation, the LBF produced better reconstruction then PBF
- LBF vs Blob: In underdetermined system and noise, some reconstruction algorithm will gain more from using LBF, while others more from Blob
- Computational complexity: $\text{PBF} < \textbf{LBF} < \text{Blob}$

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Future Work

- Test clinical sinograms
- Experiment more reconstruction algorithms
- Computation optimization
- Super-resolutions grids
- Quadratic model
- Fully 3D reconstructions
- Applications to PET and electron tomography
- Experiment other approximation methods
- Other types of ray integrals

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