## Introduction to Medical Imaging

## Iterative Reconstruction Methods

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## Ideal Assumptions



## Dense and regular sampling of the Fourier domain $\rightarrow$ many projections



Noise free projections


Straight rays

## Non-Ideal Scenarios

## Projections might be:

- sparse
- acquired over less than $180^{\circ}$
- noisy


20 projections low-dose CT

SNR=10

$\uparrow$

Rays might be non-linear (curved, refracted, scattered,...)

- for example: refraction in ultrasound imaging


## Dealing With Non-Ideal Scenarios

Iterative methods are advantageous in these cases
They can handle:

- limited number of projections
- irregularly-spaced and -angled projections
- non-straight ray paths (example: refraction in ultrasound imaging)
- corrective measures during reconstruction (example: metal artifacts)
- presence of statistical (Poisson) noise and scatter (mainly in functional imaging: SPECT, PET)


## Specifics

## In medical imaging:

- Munknown voxels (depending on desired object resolution)
- $N$ known measurements (pixels in the projection images)
- represent voxels and pixels as vectors $V$ and $P$, respectively

$$
\begin{gathered}
w_{11} v_{1}+w_{12} v_{2}+\ldots w_{1 M} v_{M}=p_{1} \\
w_{21} v_{1}+w_{22} v_{2}+\ldots w_{2 M} v_{M}=p_{2} \\
\ldots \\
w_{N 1} v_{1}+w_{N 2} v_{2}+\ldots w_{N M} v_{M}=p_{N}
\end{gathered}
$$

- this gives rise to a system $W \cdot V=P$


## Solving for $V$

The obvious solution is then:

- compute $V=W^{-1} \cdot P$

The main problem with this direct approach:

- $P$ is not be consistent due to noise $\rightarrow$ lines do not intersect in solution
- This turns $W \cdot V=P$ into an optimization problem

2D case

$$
\begin{aligned}
& w_{11} v_{1}+w_{12} v_{2}=p_{1} \\
& w_{21} v_{1}+w_{22} v_{2}=p_{2} \\
& w_{31} v_{1}+w_{32} v_{2}=p_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$



## Optimization Algorithms

Algebraic methods

- Algebraic Reconstruction Technique (ART), SART, SIRT
- Projection Onto Convex Sets (POCS)

Sparse system solvers

- Gradient Descent (GD), Conjugate Gradients (CG)
- Gauss-Seidel

Statistical methods

- Expectation Maximization (EM)
- Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

All of these are iterative methods:

- predict $\rightarrow$ compare $\rightarrow$ correct $\rightarrow$ predict $\rightarrow$ compare $\rightarrow$ correct $\ldots$


## Big Picture: Iterative Reconstruction

## Before delving into details,

let's see an iterative scheme at work

## Iterative Reconstruction Demonstration: SART



## Iterative Reconstruction Demonstration: SART



## Foundations: Vectors

## Consider two vectors, $a$ and $b$



$$
\begin{array}{ll}
a=\vec{a}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
a_{1} & a_{2}
\end{array}\right], \quad|a|=\sqrt{a_{1}^{2}+a_{2}^{2}} \\
b=\vec{b}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
b_{1} & b_{2}
\end{array}\right], \quad|b|=\sqrt{b_{1}^{2}+b_{2}^{2}}
\end{array}
$$

## Foundations: Scalar Projection

Scalar projection of $a$ onto $b$ :

$$
|a| \cos \alpha=a \cdot \frac{b}{|b|}
$$

The dot product:


$$
\begin{aligned}
a \cdot b & =\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}^{T}=\left[a_{1} a_{2}\right] \cdot\left[b_{1} b_{2}\right]^{T}=a_{1} b_{1}+a_{2} b_{2} \\
& =|a| \cdot|b| \cos \alpha
\end{aligned}
$$

$\rightarrow$ the scalar projection is the dot product with $\mid b /=1$ (unit vector)

$$
|b|=\sqrt{b_{1}^{2}+b_{2}^{2}}=1
$$

## Foundations: Line Equation

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{1} x_{1}+a_{2} x_{2}=y \\
& |a|=\sqrt{a_{1}^{2}+a_{2}^{2}}=1
\end{aligned}
$$



The vector $a$ is the unit vector normal to the line $l_{a}$
The length $y$ is the perpendicular distance of $l_{a}$ to the origin
For any point $x$ :

- if $x$ is on $I_{a}$ then the scalar projection of $x$ onto $a$ will be:

$$
x \cdot a=y
$$

## Foundations: Distance From Line



For any other point $x^{\prime}$ not on $I_{a}$ the scalar projection of $x^{\prime}$ onto $a$ will be:

$$
x^{\prime} \cdot a=y^{\prime}=y+\Delta y
$$

## Foundations: Closest Point



The closest point to $x^{\prime}$ on $I_{a}$ is $x^{\prime \prime}$, computed by:

$$
\begin{aligned}
x^{\prime \prime} & =x^{\prime}-\Delta y \\
& =x^{\prime}-\left(x^{\prime} \cdot a-y\right) \\
& =x^{\prime}+\left(y-x^{\prime} \cdot a\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Foundations: Solving an Equation System

Assume you have two equations to solve for solution point $x_{s}=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$

- the intersection of the two lines

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{11} x_{1}+a_{12} x_{2}=y_{1} \\
& a_{21} x_{1}+a_{22} x_{2}=y_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$



## Foundations: Iterating to Solution

Of course, you could solve this equation via Gaussian elimination

- we shall take an iterative approach instead

Start with some point $\mathrm{x}^{(0)}=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$


## Foundations: Iterating to Solution

Pick an equation (line, say $I_{2}$ ) and find the closest point to $x^{(0)}$

- use the approach outlined before
- this gives a new point $x^{(1)}$



## Foundations: Iterating to Solution

## Iteratively

- pick alternate equations (lines) and project
- the solution will converge towards $x_{s}$
- the more iterations the closer the convergence



## Foundations: Extension to Higher Dimensions

## Three dimensions:

- 3 equations with 3 unknowns
$N$ dimensions:
- $N$ equations with $M$ unknowns
- $M$ can be less or greater than $N$
- inconsistent (most often) or not



## Specifics to Medical Imaging

## In medical imaging:

- M unknown voxels (depending on desired object resolution)
- $N$ known measurements (pixels in the projection images)
- represent voxels and pixels as vectors $V$ and $P$, respectively

$$
\begin{gathered}
w_{11} v_{1}+w_{12} v_{2}+\ldots w_{1 M} v_{M}=p_{1} \\
w_{21} v_{1}+w_{22} v_{2}+\ldots v_{2 M} v_{M}=p_{2} \\
\ldots \\
w_{N 1} v_{1}+w_{N 2} v_{2}+\ldots w_{N M} v_{M}=p_{N}
\end{gathered}
$$

- this gives rise to a system $W \cdot V=P$

Iterate either by

- ray by ray (Algebraic Reconstruction Technique, ART)
- image by image (Simultaneous ART, SART)
- all data at once (SIRT)


## Iterative Update Schedule: ART

## one pixel at a time



## Iterative Update Schedule: SART

## one projection at a time



## Iterative Update Schedule: SIRT

## all projections



Backproject


## Iterative Reconstruction Demonstration: SART



## Iterative Reconstruction Demonstration: SART



## SART

Iteratively solves $W \cdot V=P$

$$
v_{j}^{k+1}=v_{j}^{k}+\lambda \frac{\sum_{i} \frac{p_{i}-\sum_{j} v_{j}^{k} w_{i j}}{\sum_{j} w_{i j}} w_{i j}}{\sum_{i} w_{i j}}
$$

## SART

## Projection

## Projection (into pixel)



## SART

## Correction factor

## computation

Projection (into pixel)

Normalization at pixel $i$
Scanned pixel

$$
v_{j}^{k+1}=v_{j}^{k}+\lambda \frac{\sum_{i} w_{i j}}{}
$$



## SART

## Backprojection

Projection (into pixel)
Backprojection (into voxel)

Normalization at pixel $i$


$$
v_{j}^{k+1}=v_{j}^{k}+\lambda \frac{\sum_{i} w_{i j}}{\underset{\sum_{i}}{ }}
$$



## SART

## Voxel normalization



## SART

Voxel update

## Projection (into pixel)

Backprojection (into voxel)

Normalization at pixel $i$

New ( $k+1$ ) and previous ( $k$ ) values of voxel $j$

Normalization at voxel $j$

## SART

## Next projection



## Gradient Descent

Quadratic form of a vector:

$$
f(x)=\frac{1}{2} x^{T} A x-b^{T} x+c
$$

- this equation is minimized when $A \cdot x=b$
- this occurs when $f^{\prime}(x)=0$
- thus, minimizing the quadratic form will solve the reconstruction problem


Graph plot


Contour plot


Gradient plot

## Steepest Descent

Start at an arbitrary point and slide down to the bottom of the parabola

- in practice this will be a hyper-parabola since $x, b$ are high-dimensional
- choose the direction in which $f$ decreases most quickly

$$
-f^{\prime}\left(x_{(i)}\right)=b-A x_{(i)}
$$

where $x_{(i)}$ is the current (predicted) solution

- similar to ART but now looks at all equations simultaneously



## Steepest Descent

## Start at some initial guess $x_{(0)}$

- this will likely not find the solution
- need to follow $f^{\prime}\left(x_{(0)}\right)$ some ways and then change directions
- question is where do we change directions


## Some basics:



- error: how far are we away from the solution

$$
e_{(i)}=x_{(i)}-x
$$

- residual: how far are we away from the correct value of $b$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{r}_{(i)}=b-A x_{(i)} \\
& \mathrm{r}_{(i)}=A e_{(i)} \quad A \text { transforms } e \text { into the space of } b \\
& \mathrm{r}_{(i)}=-f^{\prime}\left(x_{(i)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Steepest Descent

Finding the right place to turn directions is called line search

$$
x_{(1)}=x_{(0)}+\alpha r_{(0)}
$$

To find $\alpha$ we can use the following requirements:

- the new direction of $r$ must be orthogonal to the previous:

$$
r_{(1)}{ }^{T} r_{(0)}=0
$$

- the residual at $x_{(1)} \quad f^{\prime}\left(x_{(1)}\right)=-r_{(1)}$



## Steepest Descent: Summary

$$
\begin{aligned}
& r_{(i)}=b-A x_{(i)} \\
& \alpha=\frac{r_{(i)}^{T} r_{(i)}}{r_{(i)}^{T} A r_{(i)}} \\
& x_{(i+1)}=x_{(i)}+\alpha r_{(i)}
\end{aligned}
$$



## Shortcoming:

- sub-optimal since some directions might be taken more than once
- this can be fixed by the method of Conjugant Gradients


## Conjugant Gradients

Picks a set of orthogonal search directions $d_{(0)}, d_{(1)}, d_{(2)}, \cdots$

- take exactly one step along each
- stop at exactly the right length for each to line up evenly with $x$

$$
x_{(i+1)}=x_{(i)}+\alpha_{(i)} d_{(i)}
$$

- to determine $\alpha_{(i)}$ use the fact that $e_{(i+1)}$ should be orthogonal to $d_{(i)}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& d_{(i)}^{T} e_{(i+1)}=0 \\
& d_{(i)}{ }^{T}\left(e_{(i)}+\alpha d_{(i)}\right)=0 \\
& \alpha_{(i)}=\frac{d_{(i)}{ }^{T} e_{(i)}}{d_{(i)}{ }^{T} d_{(i)}}
\end{aligned}
$$

- however, this requires knowledge of $e_{(i)}$ which we do not have


## Conjugant Gradients

## Solution:

- make the search direction $A$-orthogonal (or, conjugate)

$$
\alpha_{(i)}=\frac{d_{(i)}^{T} A e_{(i)}}{d_{(i)}{ }^{T} A d_{(i)}}=\frac{d_{(i)}{ }^{T} r_{(i)}}{d_{(i)}{ }^{T} A d_{(i)}}
$$

- A transforms a coordinate system such that two vectors are orthogonal

$$
d_{(i)}{ }^{T} A d_{(j)}=0 \quad i \neq j
$$




## Conjugant Gradients

## All directions taken are mutually orthogonal

- each new residual is orthogonal to all the previous residuals and search directions
- each new search direction is constructed (from the residual) to be $A$ orthogonal to all the previous residuals and search directions
Each new search direction adds a new dimension to the traversed sub-space
- the solution is a projection into the sub-space explored so far
- so after $n$ steps the full space is built and the solution has been reached
solution



## Conjugant Gradients: Summary

$$
\begin{gathered}
d_{(0)}=r_{(0)}=b-A x_{(0)}, \\
\alpha_{(i)}=\frac{r_{(i)}^{T} r_{(i)}}{d_{(i)}^{T} A d_{(i)}} \\
x_{(i+1)}=x_{(i)}+\alpha_{(i)} d_{(i)}, \\
r_{(i+1)}=r_{(i)}-\alpha_{(i)} A d_{(i)}, \\
\beta_{(i+1)}=\frac{r_{(i+1)}^{T} r_{(i+1)}}{r_{(i)}^{T} r_{(i)}}, \\
d_{(i+1)}=r_{(i+1)}+\beta_{(i+1)} d_{(i)} .
\end{gathered}
$$



## Statistical Techniques

Algebraic/gradient methods do not model statistical effects in the underlying data

- this is OK for CT (within reason)

However, the emission of radiation from radionuclides is highly statistical

- the direction is chosen at random
- similar metabolic activities may not emit the same radiation
- not all radiation is actually collected (collimators reject many photons)
- in low-dose CT, noise is also a significant problem
Need a reconstruction method that can accounts for these statistical effects
- Maximum Likelihood - Expectation Maximization (ML-EM) is one such method



## Foundations: The Poisson Distribution

Also called the law of rare events

- it is the binomial distribution of $k$ as the number of trials $n$ goes to infinity

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{Pr}(X=k)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\binom{n}{k} p^{k}(1-p)^{n-k}
$$

- with $p=\lambda / n$

$$
f(k ; \lambda)=\frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{k}}{k!}
$$

$\lambda$ : expected number of events (the mean) in a given time interval


Some examples for Poisson-distributed events:

- the number of phone calls at a call center per minute
- the number of spelling errors a secretary makes while typing a single page
- the number of soldiers killed by horse-kicks each year in each corps in the Prussian cavalry
- the number of positron emissions in a radio nucleotide in PET and SPECT
- the number of annihilation events in PET and SPECT


## Overall Concept of ML-EM

There are three types of variables
\#1: The observed data $\mathrm{y}(\mathrm{d})$ :

- the detector readings
\#2: The unobserved (latent) data $\times(b)$ :

- the photon emission activities in the pixels (the tissue), $x(b)$
- these give rise to the detector readings
- they follow a Poisson distribution
\#3: The model parameters $\lambda$ (b):
- these cause the emissions
- they are the metabolic activities (state) of interest
- the emissions only approximate those
$\rightarrow$ they represent the expectations (means, $\lambda$ ) of the resulting Poisson distribution causing the readings at the detectors


## Overall Concept of ML-EM

There is a many-to-one mapping of parameters $\rightarrow$ data
Since there is a many-to-one mapping, many objects are probable to have produced the observed data

- the object reconstruction (the image) having the highest such probability is the maximum likelihood estimate of the original object

Goal:

- estimate the model parameters using the observed data

Solution:

- EM will converge to a solution of maximum likelihood (but not necessarily the global maximum)


## Overall Concept of ML-EM

## Initialization step: choose an initial setting of the model parameters

Then proceed to EM, which has two steps, executed iteratively:

- E (expectation) step: estimate the unobserved data from the current estimate of the model parameters and the observed data
- M (maximization) step: compute the maximum-likelihood estimate of the model parameters using the estimated unobserved data
Stop when converged
Initialize model parameters $p$


Maximum Likelihood Expectation Maximization (ML-EM)

After combining the E-step and the ML-step:

$$
v_{j}^{k+1}=\frac{v_{j}^{k}}{\sum_{i} w_{i j}} \sum_{i} \frac{p_{i}}{\sum_{j} v_{j}^{k} w_{i j}}
$$

## Maximum Likelihood Expectation Maximization (ML-EM)

Maximizes the likelihood of the values of (object) voxels $j$, given values at (detector) pixels $i$

New ( $k+1$ ) and previous ( $k$ )


Normalization at voxel $j$
Projection (into pixel i)

## Algorithm Comparison

## SART:

- projection ordering important
- ensure that consecutively selected projections are approximately orthogonal
- random selection works well in practice

CG:

- much depends on the condition number of the (system) matrix A
- various pre-conditioning methods exist in the literature
- also, line search can be expensive and inaccurate
- various methods and heuristics for line search have been described in the literature

EM:

- convergence slow if all projections are applied before voxel update
- use OS-EM (Ordered Subsets EM): only a subset of projections are applied per iteration


## Inconsistent Equations

## Real life data (as mentioned earlier)

- typically equations (the data) are not consistent
- you may have more equations (data) than unknowns or not enough
- solution falls within a convex shape spanned by the intersection set
- need further criteria to determine the true solution (some prior model)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{11} x_{1}+a_{12} x_{2}=y_{1} \\
& a_{21} x_{1}+a_{22} x_{2}=y_{2} \\
& a_{31} x_{1}+a_{32} x_{2}=y_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$



## Determining the True Solution

Need further criteria to determine the true solution
Use some prior model

- smoothness, approximate shape, sharp edges, ...
- incorporate this model into the reconstruction procedure

Example:

- enforce smoothness by intermittent blurring
- but at the same time preserve edges

streak artifacts, good edges

smooth, good edges

