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Jon Nielsen, Gopal Nataraj, Il Yong Chun, Xuehang Zheng, ...

Declaration: No relevant financial interests or relationships to disclose

Introduction

Deep-learning approaches

Adaptive regularization

- Patch-based adaptive regularizers

- Convolutional adaptive regularizers

- Blind dictionary learning

- Iterative NN with momentum

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Most obvious place for machine learning is in post-processing (image analysis). Numerous special issues and surveys in medical imaging journals, e.g., [1–9].



Machine learning for scan design

Choose best k-space phase encoding locations based on training images

Hot topic in MRI recently [10–15].

Precursor by Yue Cao and David Levin, MRM Sep. 1993 [16–18].



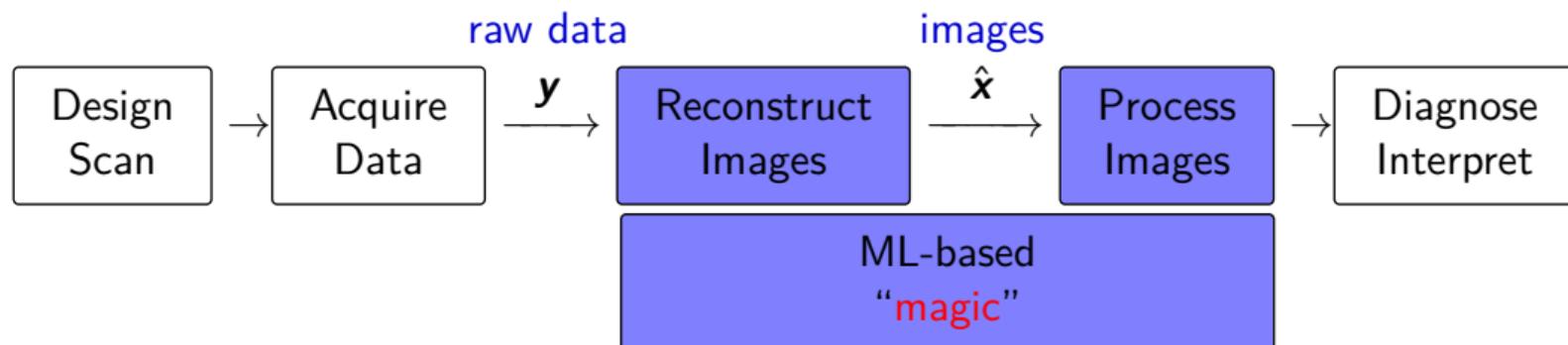
Machine learning in medical image reconstruction

June 2018 special issue of IEEE Trans. on Medical Imaging [19].

Surveys: [20–27]

Possibly easier than diagnosis due to lower bar:

- current reconstruction methods based on simplistic image models;
- human eyes are better at detection than at solving inverse problems.



A holy grail for machine learning in medical imaging?

- ▶ CT sinogram to vessel diameter [28, 29]
- ▶ k-space to ???

Generations of medical image reconstruction methods

1. 70's "Analytical" methods (integral equations)
FBP for SPECT / PET / X-ray CT, IFFT for MRI, ...
2. 80's Algebraic methods (as in "linear algebra")
Solve $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{Ax}$
3. 90's Statistical methods
 - LS / ML methods based on imaging physics ("model based")
 - Bayesian methods (Markov random fields, ...)
 - regularized methods
4. 00's Compressed sensing methods
(mathematical sparsity models)
5. 10's **Adaptive / data-driven** methods
machine learning, deep learning, ...

- Model-based image reconstruction (MBIR)

FDA approved circa 2012 [30]



- Deep-learning image reconstruction

FDA approved 2019 [31, 32]

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Deep-learning approaches to image reconstruction

Overview:

- ▶ image-domain learning [33–35]...
- ▶ k-space or data-domain learning
e.g., [36], [37], [38]
- ▶ transform learning (direct from k-space to image)
e.g., AUTOMAP [39], [40–42]
- ▶ hybrid-domain learning (unrolled loop, e.g., variational network)
alternate between denoising/dealiasing and reconstruction from k-space
e.g., [37, 43–47] ...

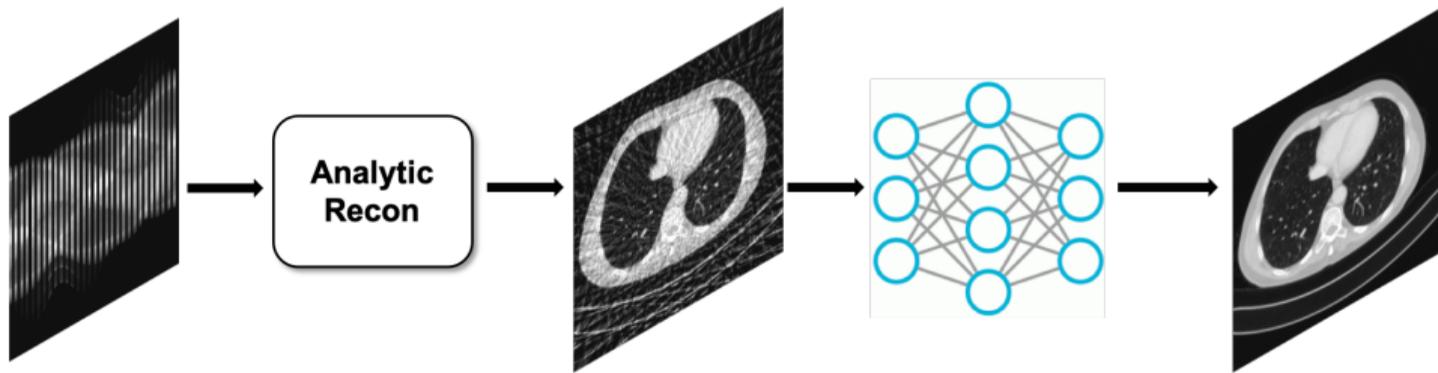


Figure courtesy of Jong Chul Ye, KAIST University.

- + simple and fast
- aliasing is spatially widespread, requires deep network

Investigating Robustness to Unseen Pathologies in Model-Free Deep Multicoil Reconstruction

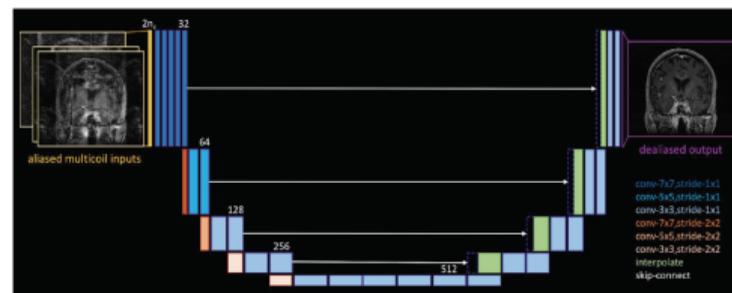
Gopal Nataraj¹ and Ricardo Otazo^{1,2}

¹Dept. of Medical Physics, Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center

²Dept. of Radiology, Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center

Introduction

Speed is often claimed as a key advantage of deep learning (DL) for undersampled parallel MRI reconstruction [1]. However, the only DL approach that to our knowledge has studied generalizability to pathologies unseen in training [2] requires repeated application of the MR acquisition model and its adjoint, just as in iterative methods. In contrast, model-free DL reconstruction has the potential to be much faster. Prior model-free DL work [3] proposes to learn a mapping directly from k-space, but with



[48] ISMRM 2020 Workshop on Data Sampling & Image Reconstruction

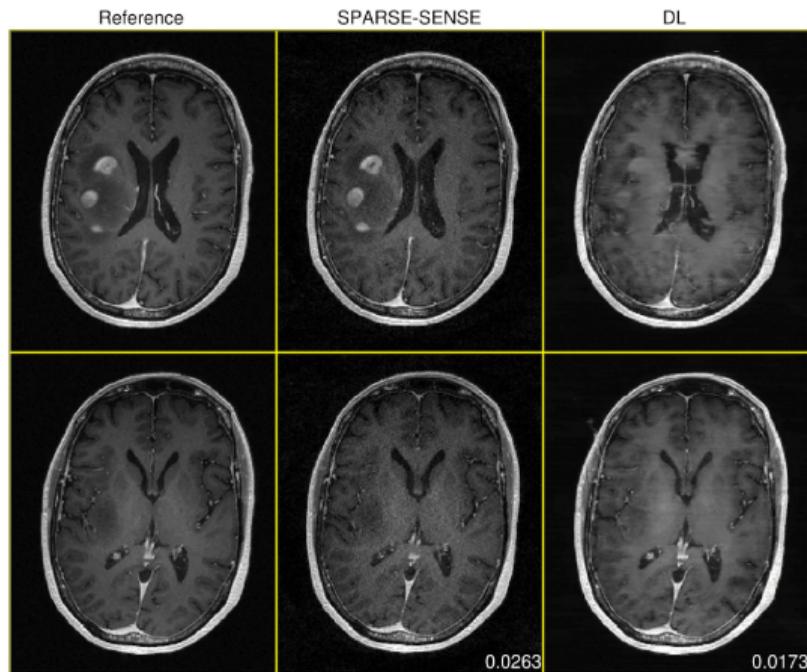


Figure 3: Reconstructions in a case of anaplastic astrocytoma, a rare malignant brain tumor. SPARSE-SENSE and DL reconstructions are from the same 4x-accelerated retrospectively undersampled acquisition. DL achieves lower whole-volume MAE than SPARSE-SENSE, but fails to properly reconstruct regions near the tumor.

- ▶ Use NN output as a “prior” for iterative reconstruction [33, 49]:

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{\beta} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \beta \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{\text{NN}}\|_2^2 = (\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A} + \beta\mathbf{I})^{-1}(\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{y} + \beta\mathbf{x}_{\text{NN}})$$

- ▶ For single-coil Cartesian case:
 - no iterations are needed (solve with FFTs)
 - $\lim_{\beta \rightarrow 0} \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{\beta}$ replaces missing k-space data with FFT of \mathbf{x}_{NN}
- ▶ Iterations needed for parallel MRI and/or non-Cartesian sampling (PCG)

- ▶ Learn residual (aliasing artifacts), then subtract [50, 51]

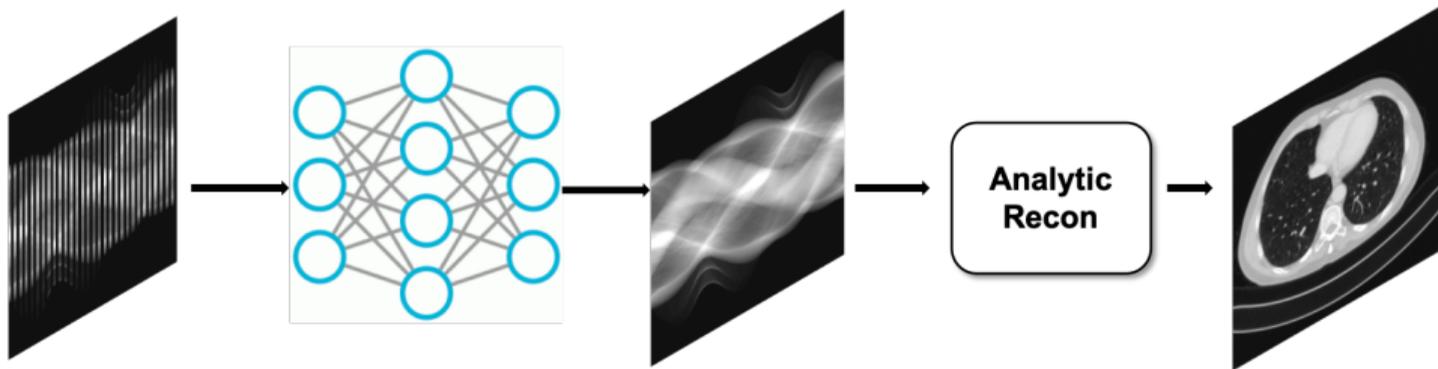


Figure courtesy of Jong Chul Ye, KAIST University.

- + simple and fast (“nonlinear GRAPPA”)
- + “database-free” : learn from auto-calibration data
- perhaps harder to represent local image features?

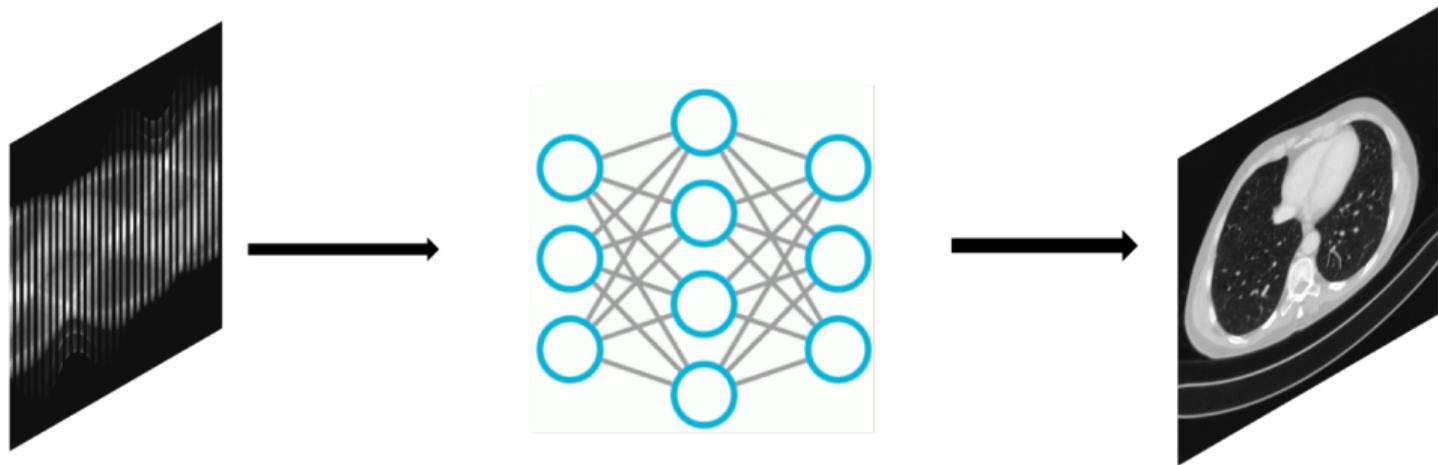


Figure courtesy of Jong Chul Ye, KAIST University.

- + in principle, purely data driven; potential to avoid model mismatch
- high memory requirement for fully connected layers

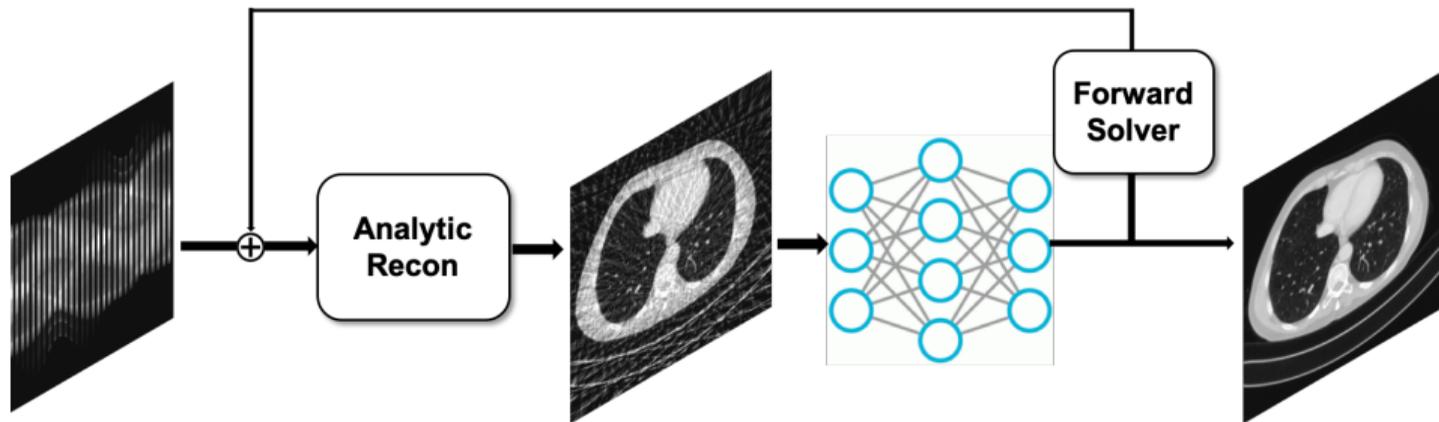


Figure courtesy of Jong Chul Ye, KAIST University.

- + physics-based use of k-space data & image-domain priors
- + interpretable connections to optimization approaches
- more computation to due to “iterations” (layers) and repeated \mathbf{Ax} , $\mathbf{A}'r$

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 - ▶ Patient adaptive methods (e.g., dynamic MRI?)
- ▶ Spatial structure
 - ▶ Patch-based models
 - ▶ Convolutional models
- ▶ Regularizer formulation
 - ▶ Synthesis (dictionary) approach
 - ▶ Analysis (sparsifying transforms) approach

Many options...

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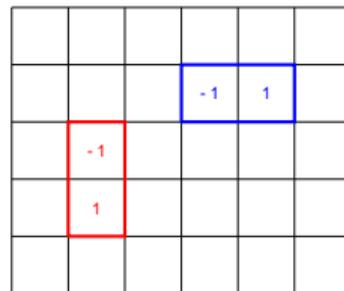
Bibliography

Anisotropic discrete TV regularizer:

$$R(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{T}\mathbf{x}\|_1$$

where \mathbf{T} is finite-differences

\equiv patches of size 2×1 .

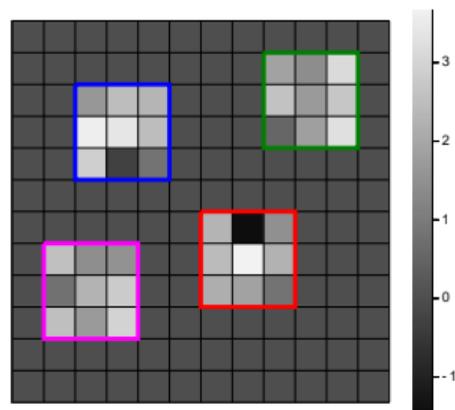


Larger patches provide more context for distinguishing signal from noise.

cf. CNN approaches

Patch-based regularizers:

- synthesis models
- analysis methods



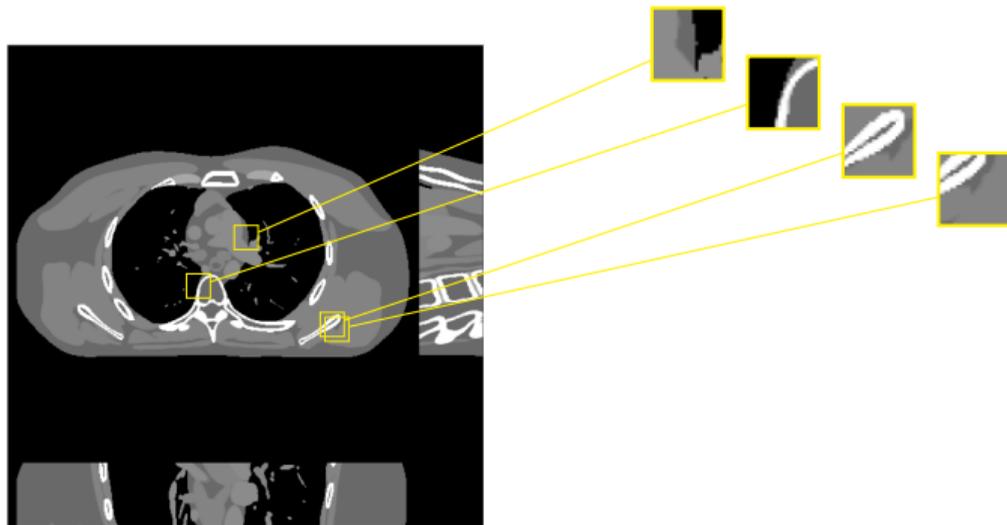
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Patch-wise transform sparsity model

Assumption: if \mathbf{x} is a plausible image, then each patch transform $\mathbf{TP}_m\mathbf{x}$ is sparse.

- ▶ $\mathbf{P}_m\mathbf{x}$ extracts the m th of M patches from \mathbf{x}
- ▶ \mathbf{T} is a (often square) sparsifying transform matrix.

What \mathbf{T} ?



Sparsifying transform learning (population adaptive)

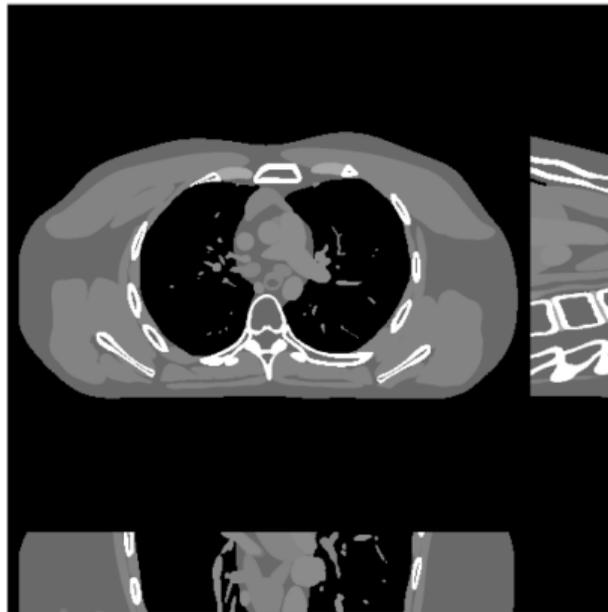
Given training images $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_L$ from a representative population, find transform \mathbf{T}_* that best sparsifies their patches:

$$\mathbf{T}_* = \arg \min_{\mathbf{T} \text{ unitary}} \min_{\{\mathbf{z}_{l,m}\}} \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{m=1}^M \|\mathbf{T}\mathbf{P}_m\mathbf{x}_l - \mathbf{z}_{l,m}\|_2^2 + \alpha \|\mathbf{z}_{l,m}\|_0$$

- ▶ Encourage aggregate sparsity, not patch-wise sparsity (cf K-SVD [52])
- ▶ Non-convex due to unitary constraint and $\|\cdot\|_0$
- ▶ Efficient alternating minimization algorithm [53]
 - \mathbf{z} update : simple hard thresholding
 - \mathbf{T} update : orthogonal Procrustes problem (SVD)
 - Subsequence convergence guarantees [53]

Example of learned sparsifying transform

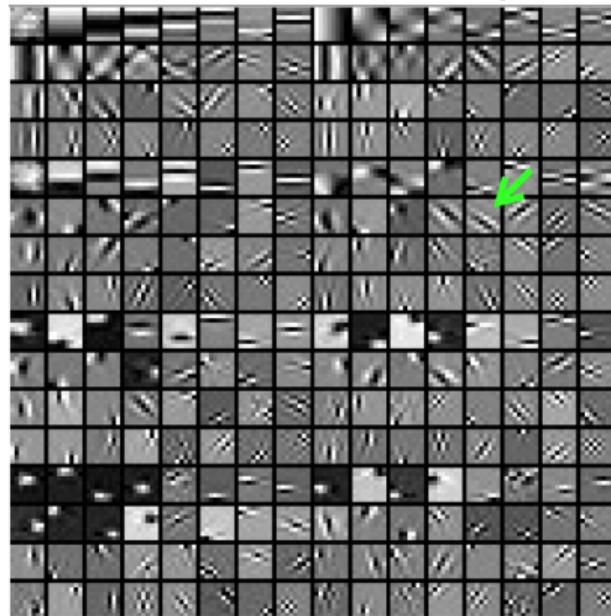
3D X-ray training data (XCAT phantom)



(2D slices in x-y, x-z, y-z, from 3D image volume)

$8 \times 8 \times 8$ patches $\implies T_*$ is $8^3 \times 8^3 = 512 \times 512$

Parts of learned sparsifier T_*



top 8×8 slice of 256 of the 512 rows of T_* \uparrow

Regularizer based on learned sparsifying transform

Regularized inverse problem [54]:

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y}\|_{\mathbf{W}}^2 + \beta R(\mathbf{x})$$

$$R(\mathbf{x}) = \min_{\{\mathbf{z}_m\}} \sum_{m=1}^M \|\mathbf{T}_* \mathbf{P}_m \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z}_m\|_2^2 + \alpha \|\mathbf{z}_m\|_0.$$

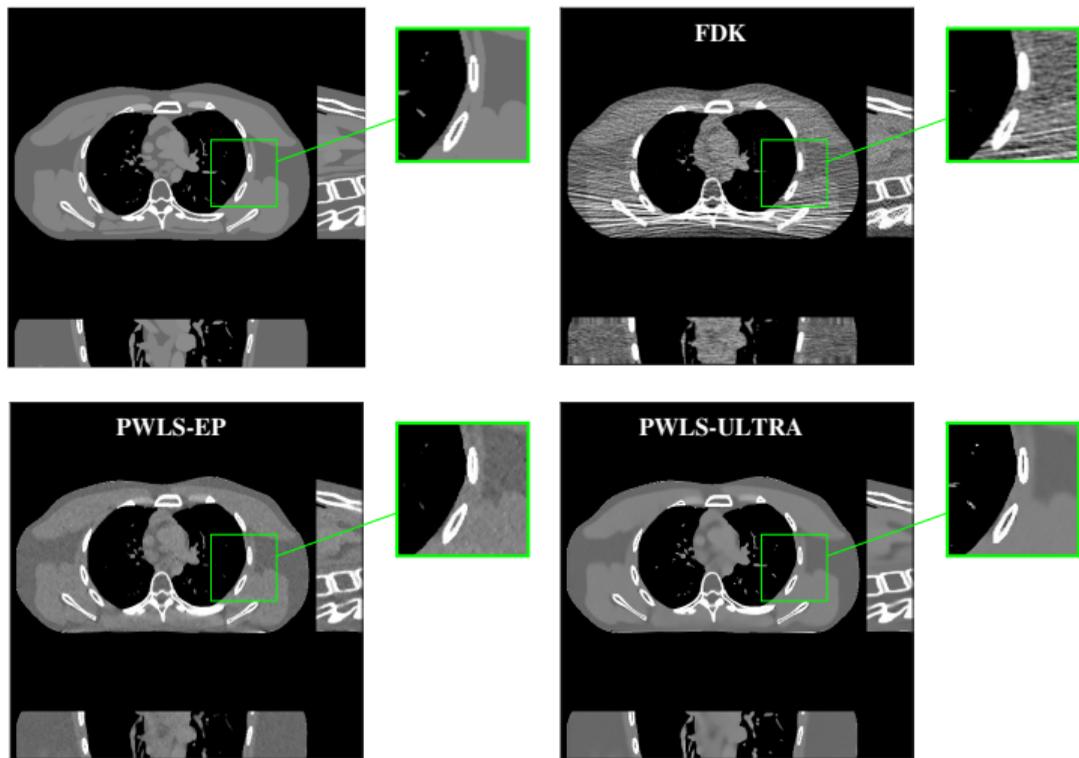
\mathbf{T}_* adapted to population training data

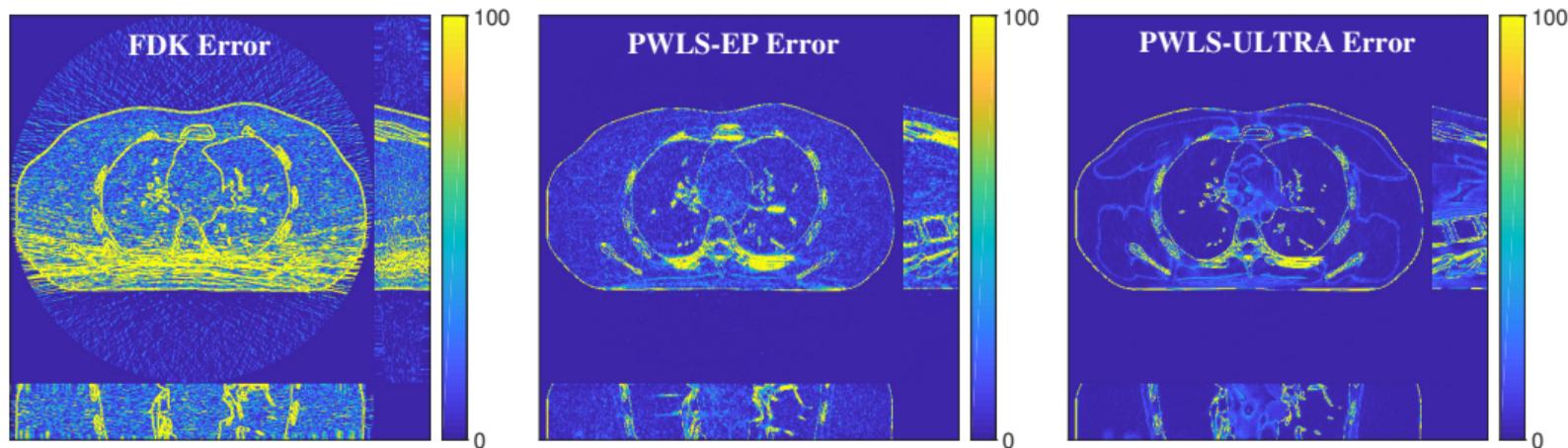
Alternating minimization optimizer:

- ▶ \mathbf{z}_m update : simple hard thresholding
- ▶ \mathbf{x} update : quadratic problem (many options)

Linearized augmented Lagrangian method (LALM) [55]

X. Zheng, S. Ravishankar,
Y. Long, JF:
IEEE T-MI, June 2018 [54].





	X-ray Intensity	FDK	EP	ST T_*	ULTRA	ULTRA- $\{\tau_j\}$
RMSE in HU	1×10^4	67.8	34.6	32.1	30.7	29.2
	5×10^3	89.0	41.1	37.3	35.7	34.2

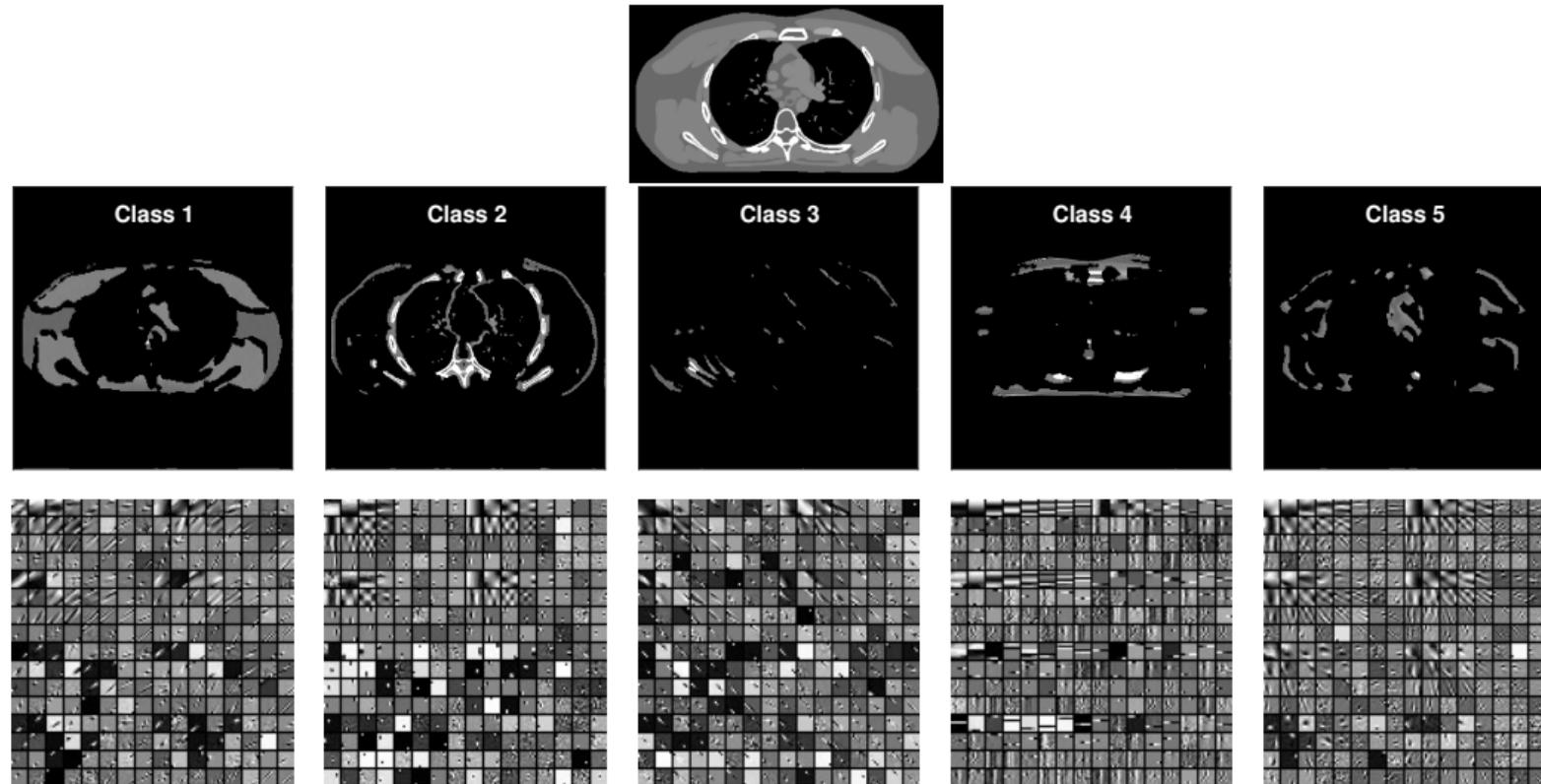
- ▶ Physics / statistics provides dramatic improvement
- ▶ Data adaptive regularization further reduces RMSE

Union of Learned TRAnsforms (ULTRA)

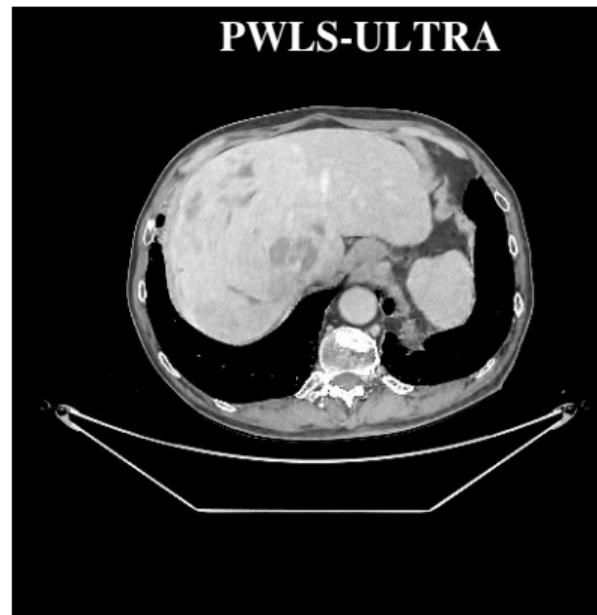
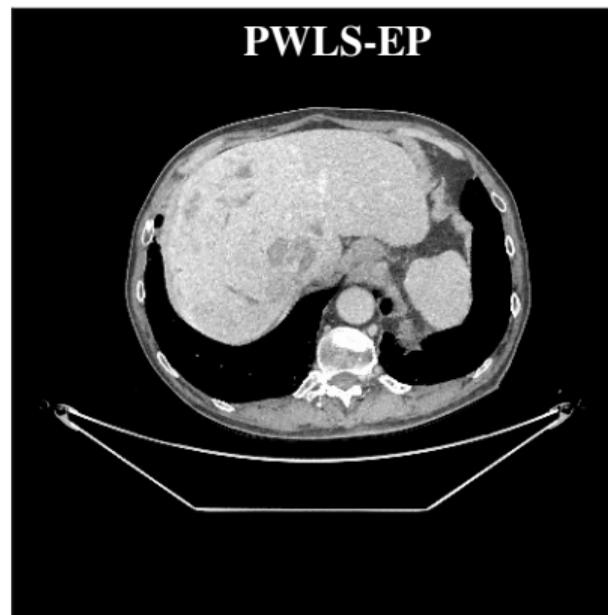
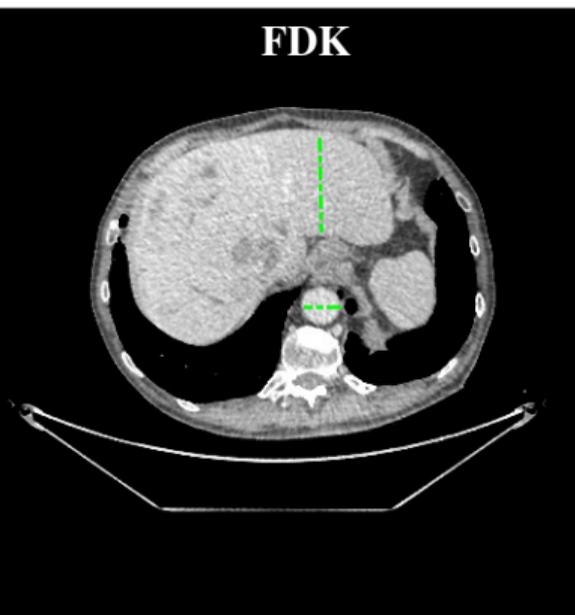
Given training images $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_L$ from a representative population, find a set of transforms $\{\hat{\mathbf{T}}_k\}_{k=1}^K$ that best sparsify image patches:

$$\{\hat{\mathbf{T}}_k\} = \arg \min_{\{\mathbf{T}_k \text{ unitary}\}} \min_{\{\mathbf{z}_{l,m}\}} \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{m=1}^M \left(\min_{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}} \|\mathbf{T}_k \mathbf{P}_m \mathbf{x}_l - \mathbf{z}_{l,m}\|_2^2 + \alpha \|\mathbf{z}_{l,m}\|_0 \right)$$

- ▶ Joint unsupervised clustering / sparsification
- ▶ Further nonconvexity due to clustering
- ▶ Efficient alternating minimization algorithm [56]



X. Zheng, S. Ravishankar, Y. Long, JF: IEEE T-MI, June 2018 [54]



Zheng et al., IEEE T-MI, June 2018 [54] (Special issue on machine learning for image reconstruction)

Matlab code: <http://web.eecs.umich.edu/~fessler/irt/reproduce/>

<https://github.com/xuehangzheng/PWLS-ULTRA-for-Low-Dose-3D-CT-Image-Reconstruction>

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Drawback of basic patch-based methods:

$512 \times 512 \times 512$ 3D X-ray CT image volume

$8 \times 8 \times 8$ patches

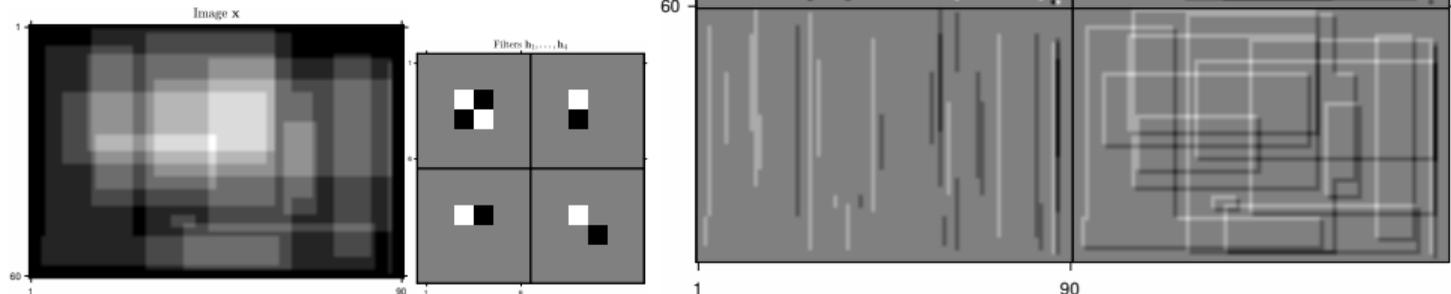
$\implies 512^3 \cdot 8^3 \cdot 4 = 256$ Gbyte of patch data for stride=1

Convolutional sparsity: analysis model

Assumption: For a plausible image \mathbf{x} , the filter outputs $\{\mathbf{h}_k * \mathbf{x}\}$ are sparse, for some filters $\{\mathbf{h}_k\}_{k=1}^K$ [57]

- ▶ For more plausible images, the outputs $\{\mathbf{h}_k * \mathbf{x}\}$ are more sparse.
- ▶ $*$ denotes convolution
- ▶ Inherently shift invariant and no patches

Example (hand crafted filters):



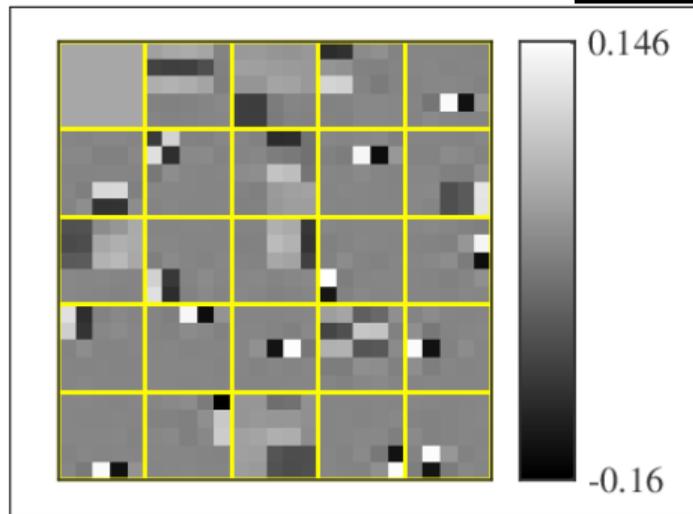
Sparsifying filter learning (population adaptive)

Given training images $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_L$ from a representative population, find filters $\{\hat{\mathbf{h}}_k\}_{k=1}^K$ that best sparsify them:

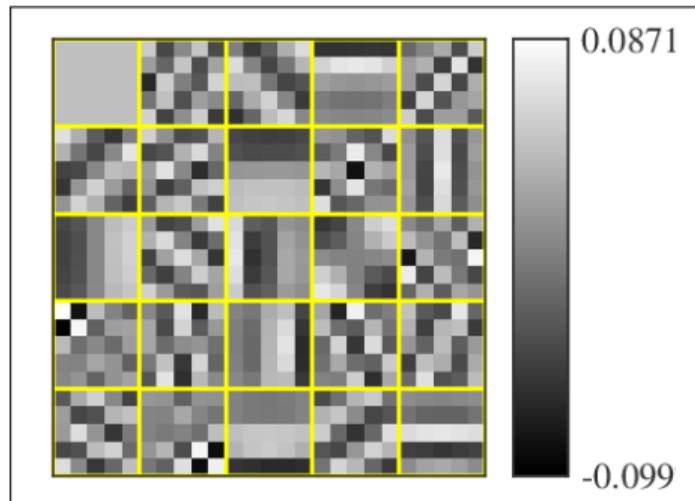
$$\{\hat{\mathbf{h}}_k\} = \arg \min_{\{\mathbf{h}_k\} \in \mathcal{H}} \min_{\{\mathbf{z}_{l,k}\}} \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{k=1}^K \|\mathbf{h}_k * \mathbf{x}_l - \mathbf{z}_{l,k}\|_2^2 + \alpha \|\mathbf{z}_{l,k}\|_0$$

- ▶ To encourage filter diversity:
 - $\mathcal{H} = \{\mathbf{H} : \mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}' = \mathbf{I}\}$, $\mathbf{H} = [\mathbf{h}_1 \dots \mathbf{h}_K]$
 - cf. tight-frame condition $\sum_{k=1}^K \|\mathbf{h}_k * \mathbf{x}\|_2^2 \propto \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$
- ▶ Encourage aggregate sparsity, period
- ▶ Non-convex due to constraint \mathcal{H} and $\|\cdot\|_0$
- ▶ Efficient alternating minimization algorithm [58]
 - \mathbf{z} update is simply hard thresholding
 - Filter update uses diagonal majorizer, proximal map (SVD)
 - Subsequence convergence guarantees [58]

2D X-ray CT training data and learned 5×5 sparsifying filters $\{\hat{h}_k\}$ [58]:



$$\alpha = 10^{-4}$$



$$\alpha = 2 \times 10^{-3}$$

Regularizer based on learned sparsifying filters

Regularized inverse problem [58]:

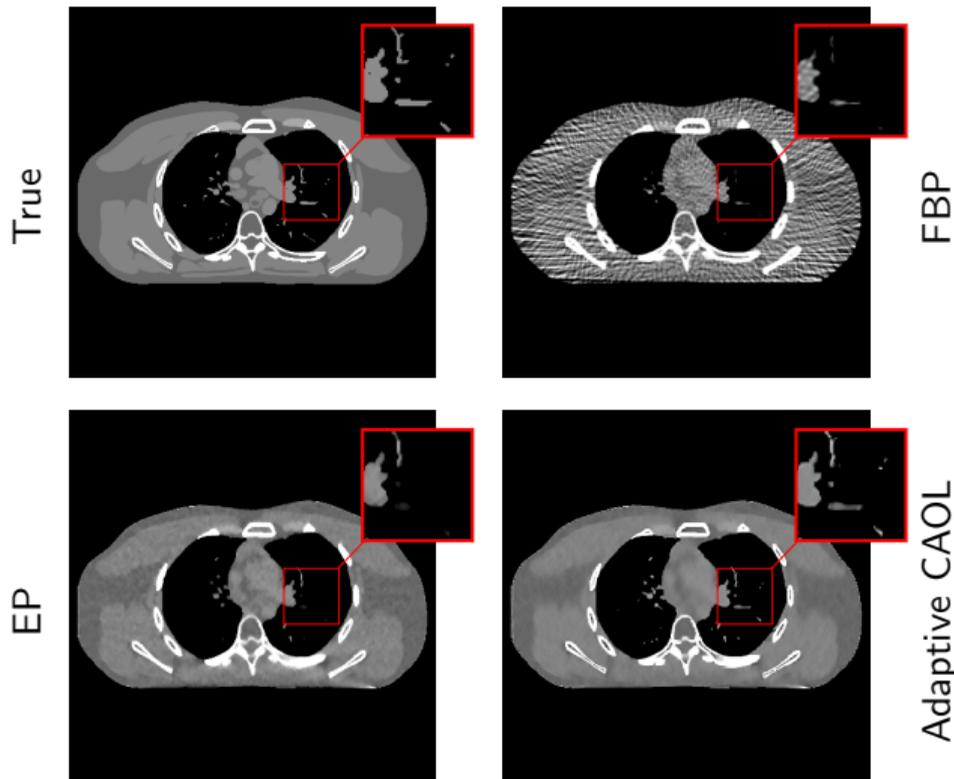
$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x} \succeq \mathbf{0}} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_{\mathbf{W}}^2 + \beta R(\mathbf{x})$$
$$R(\mathbf{x}) = \min_{\{\mathbf{z}_k\}} \sum_{k=1}^K \left\| \hat{\mathbf{h}}_k * \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z}_k \right\|_2^2 + \alpha \|\mathbf{z}_k\|_0.$$

$\{\hat{\mathbf{h}}_k\}$ adapted to population training data

Block proximal gradient with majorizer (BPG-M) optimizer:

- ▶ \mathbf{z}_k update is simple hard thresholding
- ▶ \mathbf{x} update is a quadratic problem: diagonal majorizer

I. Y. Chun, JF, 2018, arXiv 1802.05584 [58]



123 views
 (out of usual 984)
 $\implies 8\times$ dose reduction
 25 filters 5×5

RMSE (in HU):

FBP	82.8
EP	40.8
Adaptive filters	35.2

- ▶ Physics / statistics provides dramatic improvement
- ▶ Data-adaptive regularization further reduces RMSE, improves fine details

Extension to multiple layers (cf CNN) I

Convolutional sparsity model: $\mathbf{h}_k * \mathbf{x}$ is sparse for $k = 1, \dots, K_1$

Learning 1 “layer” of filters:

$$\{\hat{\mathbf{h}}_k^{[1]}\} = \arg \min_{\{\mathbf{h}_k^{[1]}\} \in \mathcal{H}} \min_{\{\mathbf{z}_{l,k}^{[1]}\}} \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{k=1}^{K_1} \left\| \mathbf{h}_k^{[1]} * \mathbf{x}_l - \mathbf{z}_{l,k}^{[1]} \right\|_2^2 + \alpha \left\| \mathbf{z}_{l,k}^{[1]} \right\|_0$$

Extension to multiple layers (cf CNN) II

Learning 2 layers of filters [58]:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\{\hat{\mathbf{h}}_k^{[1]}\}, \{\hat{\mathbf{h}}_k^{[2]}\}) = & \arg \min_{\{\mathbf{h}_k^{[1]}\}, \{\mathbf{h}_k^{[2]}\} \in \mathcal{H}} \min_{\{\mathbf{z}_{l,k}^{[1]}\}} \min_{\{\mathbf{z}_{l,k}^{[2]}\}} \\
 & \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{k=1}^{K_1} \left\| \mathbf{h}_k^{[1]} * \mathbf{x}_l - \mathbf{z}_{l,k}^{[1]} \right\|_2^2 + \alpha \left\| \mathbf{z}_{l,k}^{[1]} \right\|_0 \\
 & + \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{k=1}^{K_2} \left\| \mathbf{h}_k^{[2]} * (\mathbf{P}_k \mathbf{z}_l^{[1]}) - \mathbf{z}_{l,k}^{[2]} \right\|_2^2 + \alpha \left\| \mathbf{z}_{l,k}^{[2]} \right\|_0
 \end{aligned}$$

Here \mathbf{P}_k is a pooling operator for the output of first layer

Block proximal gradient with majorizer (BPG-M) optimizer

I. Y. Chun, JF, 2018, arXiv 1802.05584 [58]

Use multi-level learned filters as (interpretable?) regularizer for CT.

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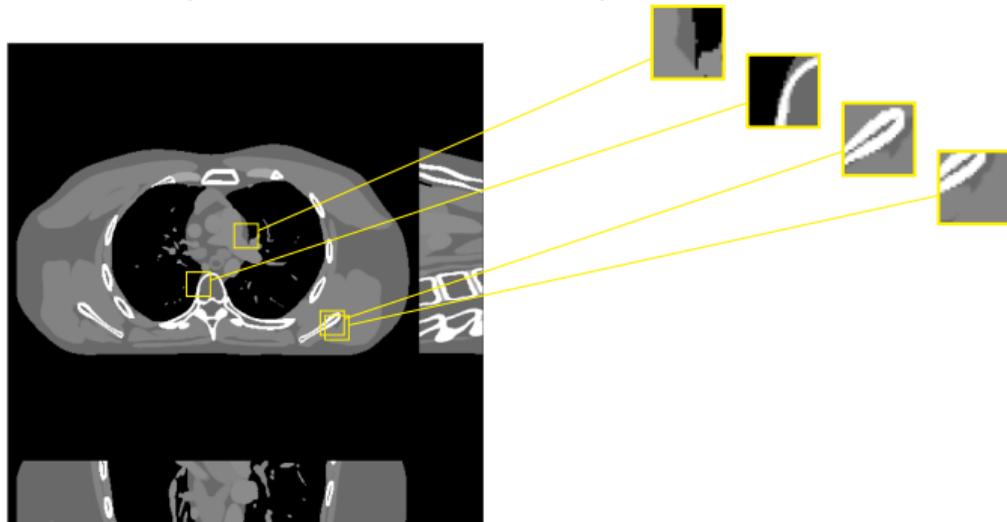
Patch-wise dictionary sparsity model

Assumption: if \mathbf{x} is a plausible image, then each patch has

$$P_p \mathbf{x} \approx \mathbf{D} \mathbf{z}_p,$$

for a sparse coefficient vector \mathbf{z}_p . (Synthesis approach.)

- ▶ $P_p \mathbf{x}$ extracts the p th of P patches from \mathbf{x}
- ▶ \mathbf{D} is a (typically overcomplete) dictionary for patches



MR reconstruction using adaptive dictionary regularizer

Dictionary-blind MR image reconstruction:

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \beta \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x})$$

$$\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}) = \min_{\mathbf{D} \in \mathcal{D}} \min_{\mathbf{Z}} \sum_{m=1}^M \left(\|\mathbf{P}_m \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{D} \mathbf{z}_m\|_2^2 + \lambda^2 \|\mathbf{z}_m\|_0 \right)$$

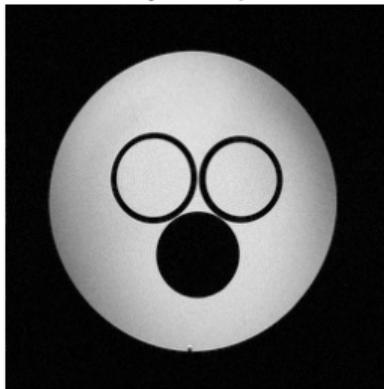
where \mathbf{P}_m extracts m th of M image patches.

In words: of the many images...

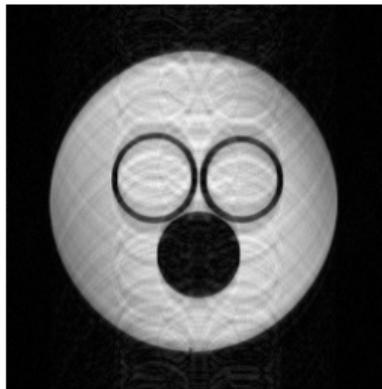
Alternating (nested) minimization:

- ▶ Fixing \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{D} , update each row of $\mathbf{Z} = [\mathbf{z}_1 \ \dots \ \mathbf{z}_M]$ sequentially via hard-thresholding.
- ▶ Fixing \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{Z} , update \mathbf{D} using SOUP-DIL [59].
- ▶ Fixing \mathbf{Z} and \mathbf{D} , updating \mathbf{x} is a quadratic problem.
 - Efficient FFT solution for single-coil Cartesian MRI.
 - Use CG for non-Cartesian and/or parallel MRI.
- ▶ Non-convex due to \mathcal{D} , $\mathbf{D}\mathbf{z}_m$, 0-norm, but monotone decreasing and some convergence theory [59].

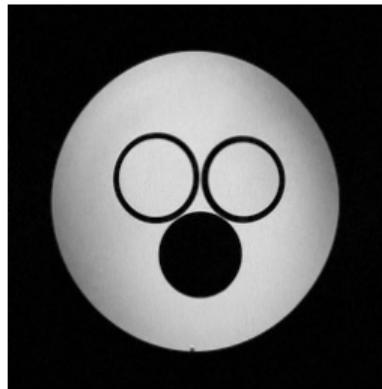
Fully Sampled



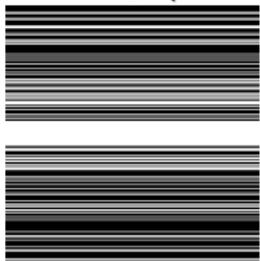
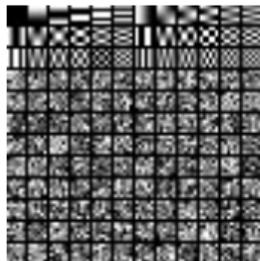
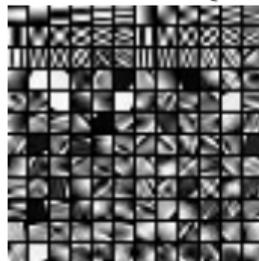
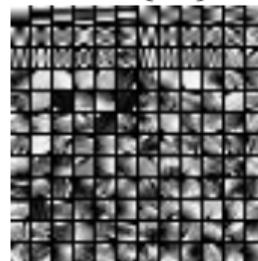
Zero-Filled



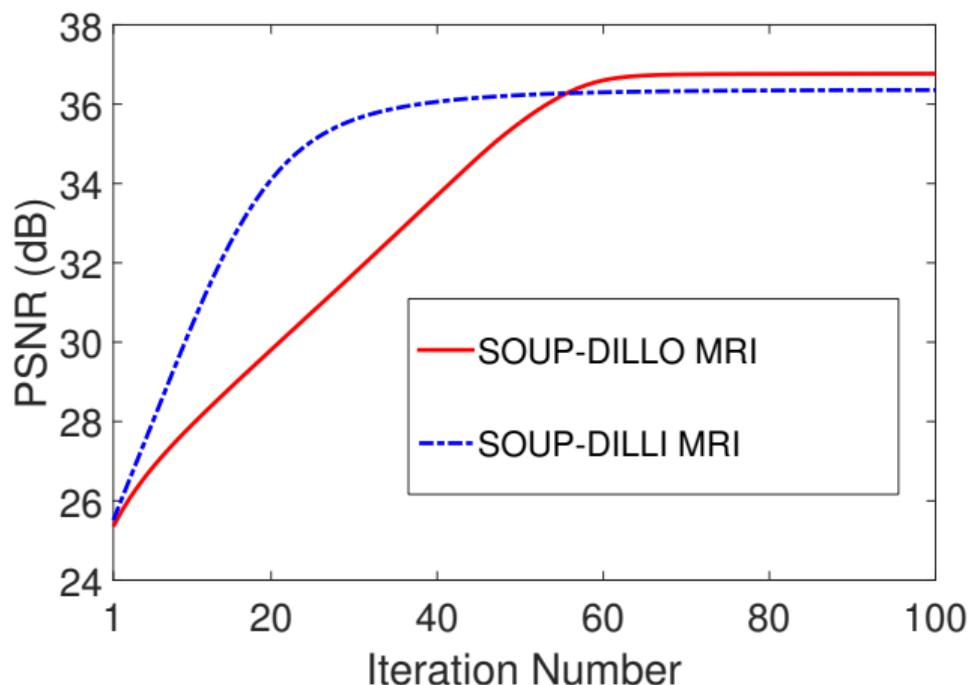
SOUP-DILLO-MRI



6×6 patches
 $D \in \mathbb{C}^{6^2 \times 144}$
 D_0 : [DCT | random]
 [59]

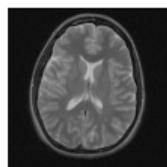
Sampling ($2.5\times$)Initial D Learned real $\{D\}$ imag $\{D\}$ 

todo: Would be interesting to see which atoms are most used.

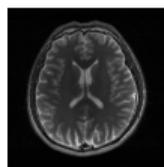


(SNR vs fully sampled image.)
Using $\|\mathbf{z}_m\|_0$ leads to higher SNR than $\|\mathbf{z}_m\|_1$.
Adaptive case is non-convex anyway...

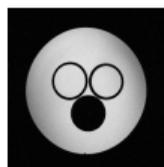
Matlab code: <http://web.eecs.umich.edu/~fessler/irt/reproduce/>
https://gitlab.eecs.umich.edu/fessler/soupdil_dinokat



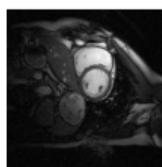
(a)



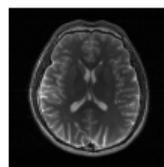
(b)



(c)



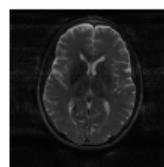
(d)



(e)



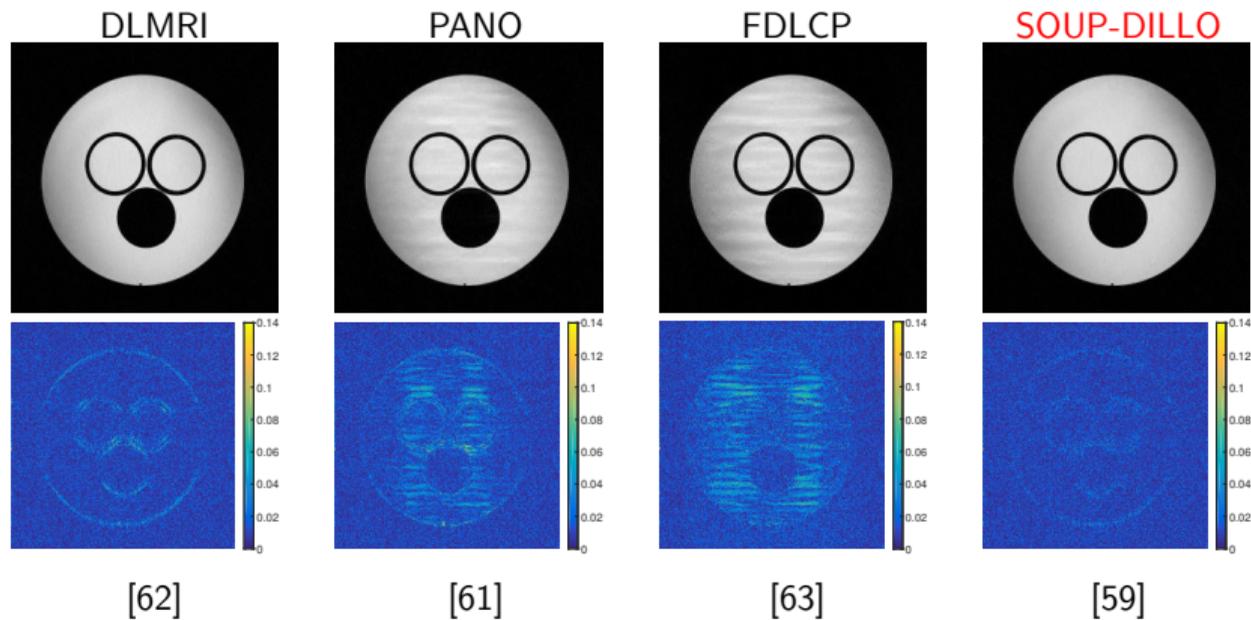
(f)



(g)

PSNR:

Im.	Samp.	Acc.	0-fill	Sparse MRI	PANO	DLMRI	SOUP-DILLI	SOUP-DILLO
a	Cart.	7x	27.9	28.6	31.1	31.1	30.8	31.1
b	Cart.	2.5x	27.7	31.6	41.3	40.2	38.5	42.3
c	Cart.	2.5x	24.9	29.9	34.8	36.7	36.6	37.3
c	Cart.	4x	25.9	28.8	32.3	32.1	32.2	32.3
d	Cart.	2.5x	29.5	32.1	36.9	38.1	36.7	38.4
e	Cart.	2.5x	28.1	31.7	40.0	38.0	37.9	41.5
f	2D rand.	5x	26.3	27.4	30.4	30.5	30.3	30.6
g	Cart.	2.5x	32.8	39.1	41.6	41.7	42.2	43.2
Ref.				[60]	[61]	[62]	[59]	[59]



Summary: 2D static MR reconstruction from under-sampled data with adaptive dictionary learning and convergent algorithm, faster than K-SVD approach of DLMRI.

Summary of patch-based, data-driven adaptive regularizers

Use training data to learn:

- dictionary \mathbf{D} (for patches)
- sparsifying transform(s) \mathbf{T} (for patches)
- or convolutional versions thereof [57, 64]

ML-based regularized optimization problem using M image patches:

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \beta R_{\text{ML}}(\mathbf{x})$$

$$R_{\text{ML-DL}}(\mathbf{x}) = \min_{\{\mathbf{z}_m\}} \sum_{m=1}^M \|\mathbf{P}_m \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{D} \mathbf{z}_m\|_2^2 + \alpha \|\mathbf{z}_m\|_0$$

$$R_{\text{ML-ST}}(\mathbf{x}) = \min_{\{\mathbf{z}_m\}} \sum_{m=1}^M \|\mathbf{T} \mathbf{P}_m \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z}_m\|_2^2 + \alpha \|\mathbf{z}_m\|_0$$

Alternative: blind adaptive learned dictionary [62] or learned sparsifying transform [65].
 Double minimization (so very “deep?”) More interpretable than CNNs?

Introduction

Deep-learning approaches

Adaptive regularization

- Patch-based adaptive regularizers

- Convolutional adaptive regularizers

- Blind dictionary learning

- Iterative NN with momentum

Summary

Bibliography

Cost function for convolutional sparsity regularization:

$$\arg \min_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y}\|_{\mathbf{W}}^2 + \beta \left(\min_{\zeta} \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{h}_k * \mathbf{x} - \zeta_k\|_2^2 + \alpha \|\zeta_k\|_1 \right)$$

Alternating minimization, aka block coordinate descent (BCD), updates:

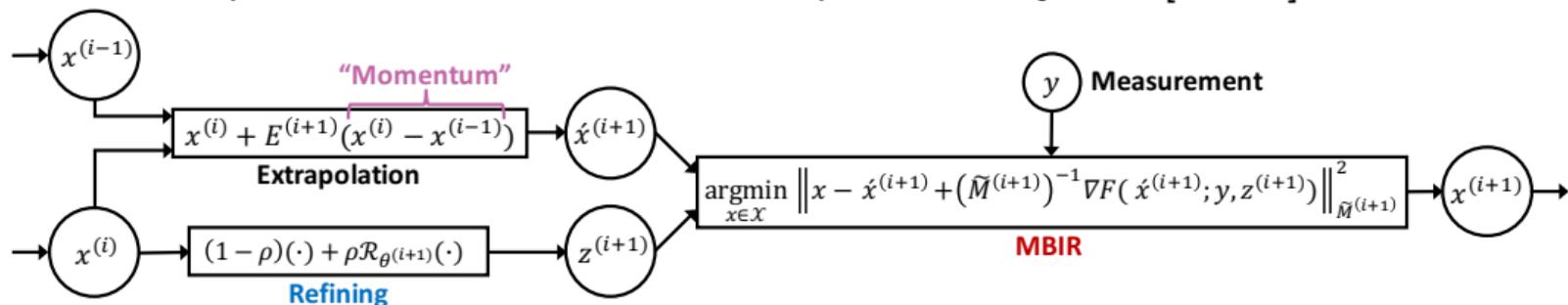
$$\text{Sparse code: } \zeta_k^{(n+1)} = \text{soft}\{\mathbf{h}_k * \mathbf{x}^{(n)}, \alpha\}$$

$$\text{Image: } \mathbf{x}^{(n+1)} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x}} F(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}^{(n)})$$

$$\begin{aligned} F(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}^{(n)}) &\triangleq \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y}\|_{\mathbf{W}}^2 + \beta \left(\sum_{k=1}^K \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{h}_k * \mathbf{x} - \zeta_k^{(n+1)}\|_2^2 + \alpha \|\zeta_k^{(n+1)}\|_1 \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y}\|_{\mathbf{W}}^2 + \beta \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z}^{(n)}\|_2^2 \quad (\text{quadratic but } large \implies \text{majorize}) \\ \mathbf{z}^{(n)} &= \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{z}^{(n)}) = \sum_{k=1}^K \text{flip}(\mathbf{h}_k) * \text{soft}\{\mathbf{h}_k * \mathbf{x}^{(n)}\} \quad (\text{denoise} \implies \text{learn}) \end{aligned}$$

Momentum-Net overview

Unrolled loop network with momentum and quadratic majorizer [68, 69]:



- ▶ Diagonal majorizer for CT: $\mathbf{M} = \text{Diag}\{\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{1}\} + \beta\mathbf{I} \succeq \mathbf{A}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{A} + \beta\mathbf{I}$
- ▶ **Learn** image mapper (“refiner”) \mathcal{R} from training data (supervised).
cf CNN: filter \rightarrow threshold \rightarrow filter

- ▶ Image mapper \mathcal{R} is **shallow**
 \implies less risk of over-fitting / hallucination
- ▶ Momentum accelerates convergence \implies fewer “layers” (outer iterations)
- ▶ First unrolled loop approach to have convergence theory
(under suitable assumptions on \mathcal{R})
- ▶ Image update uses original measurements \mathbf{y} and imaging physics \mathbf{A}

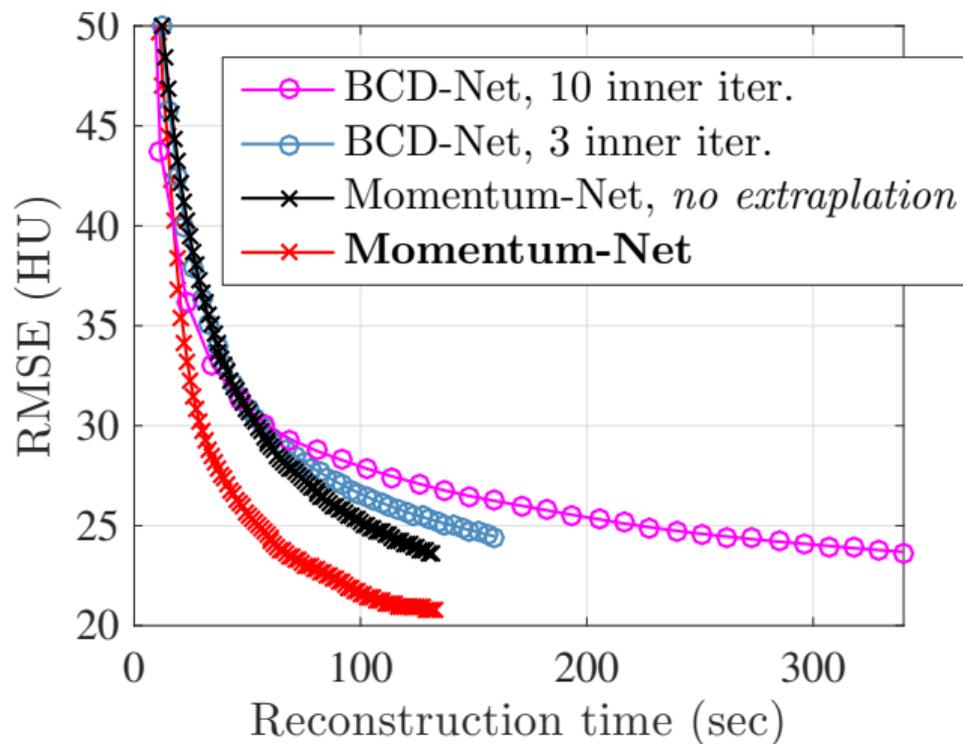
[68, 69] Il Yong Chun, Zhengyu Huang, Hongki Lim, J A Fessler

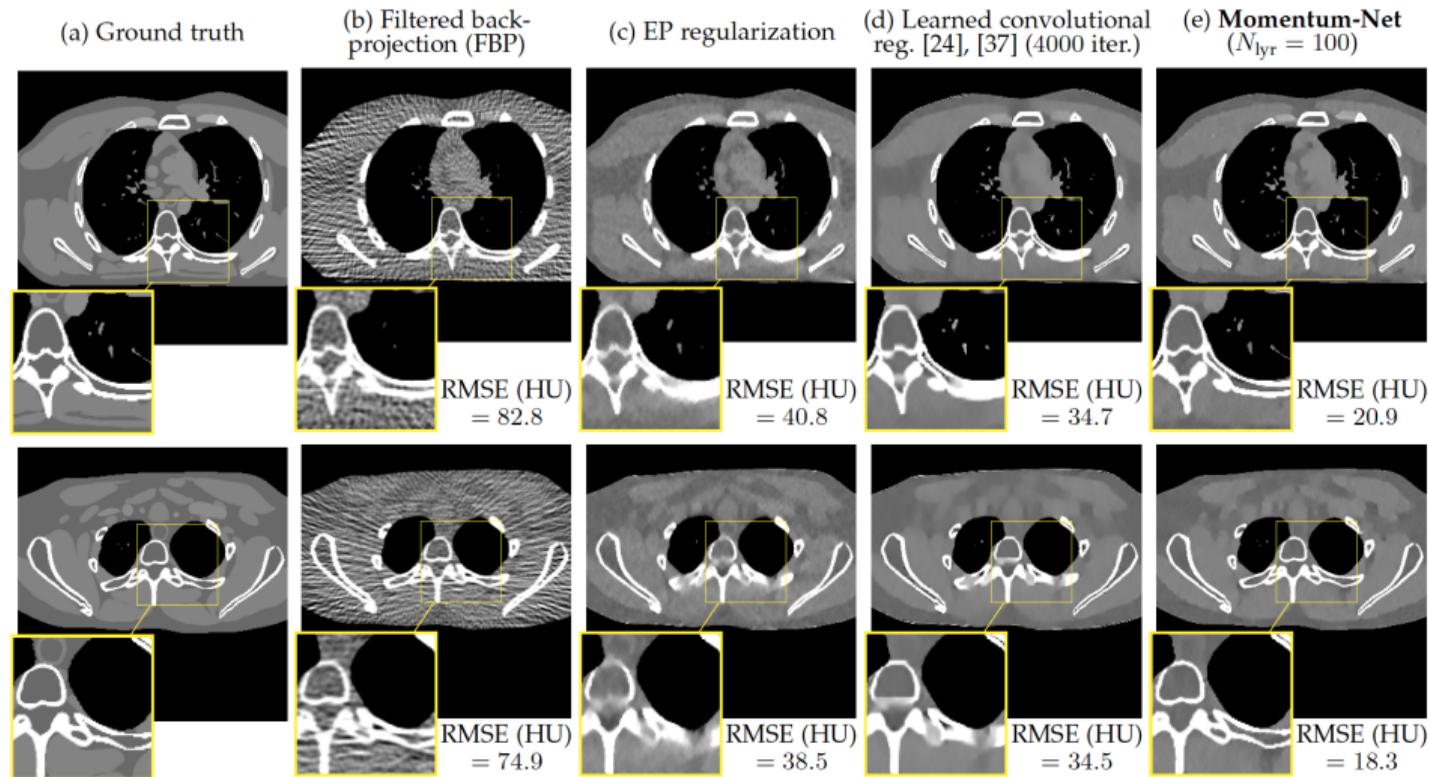
Momentum-Net: Fast and convergent iterative neural network for inverse problems

<http://arxiv.org/abs/1907.11818>,

IEEE Tr. on PAMI, 2020 <http://doi.org/10.1109/TPAMI.2020.3012955>

Illustration of benefits of momentum:





Sparse-view CT with 123/984 views, $l_0 = 10^5$, 800-1200 mod. HU display.

Introduction

Deep-learning approaches

Adaptive regularization

Summary

Bibliography

- ▶ CT image reconstruction has evolved greatly in the 50+ years since Allan Cormack's seminal papers [70, 71]
 - ▶ physics
 - ▶ statistics
 - ▶ regularization and optimization
 - ▶ data adaptive methods inspired by machine learning
- ▶ Machine learning has great potential for medical imaging
- ▶ Much excitement but many challenges
- ▶ Image reconstruction seems especially suitable for ML ideas
- ▶ Data-driven, adaptive regularizers beneficial for low-dose CT
- ▶ More comparisons between model-based methods with adaptive regularizers and CNN-based methods needed

Talk and code available online at
<http://web.eecs.umich.edu/~fessler>



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