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Declaration: No relevant financial interests or relationships to disclose

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Image reconstruction

Adaptive regularization

Deep-learning approaches

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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].



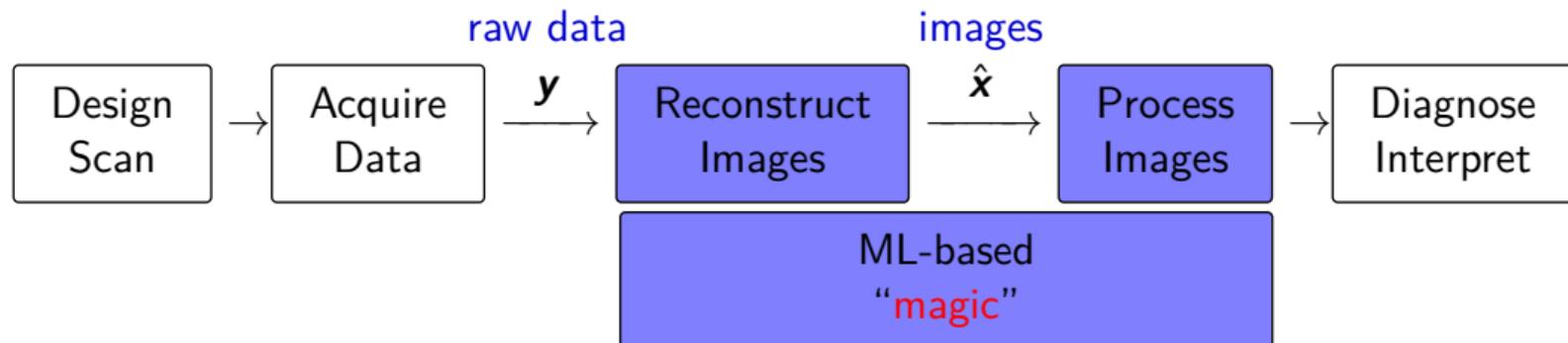
Machine learning in medical image reconstruction

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 ???

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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]

- ▶ Learn models (sparsifying transform or dictionary) for image patches from training data
 - interpretable (?) optimization formulations
 - local prior information only (patch size)
 - perhaps slower computation due to optimization iterations
- ▶ Train neural network (aka **deep learning**)
 - less interpretable
 - possibly more global prior information
 - slow training, but perhaps faster computation after trained

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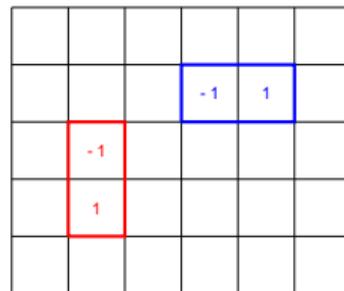
Bibliography

Anisotropic discrete TV regularizer:

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

where \mathbf{T} is finite-differences

\equiv patches of size 2×1 .

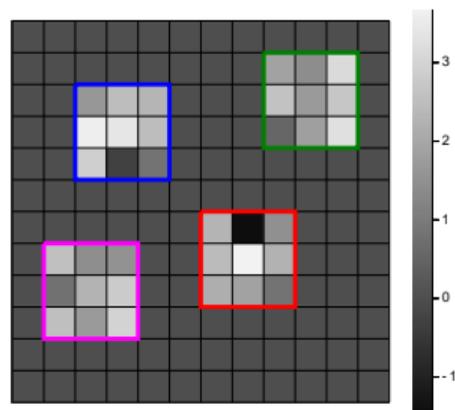


Larger patches provide more context
for distinguishing signal from noise.

cf. CNN approaches

Patch-based regularizers:

- synthesis models
- analysis methods

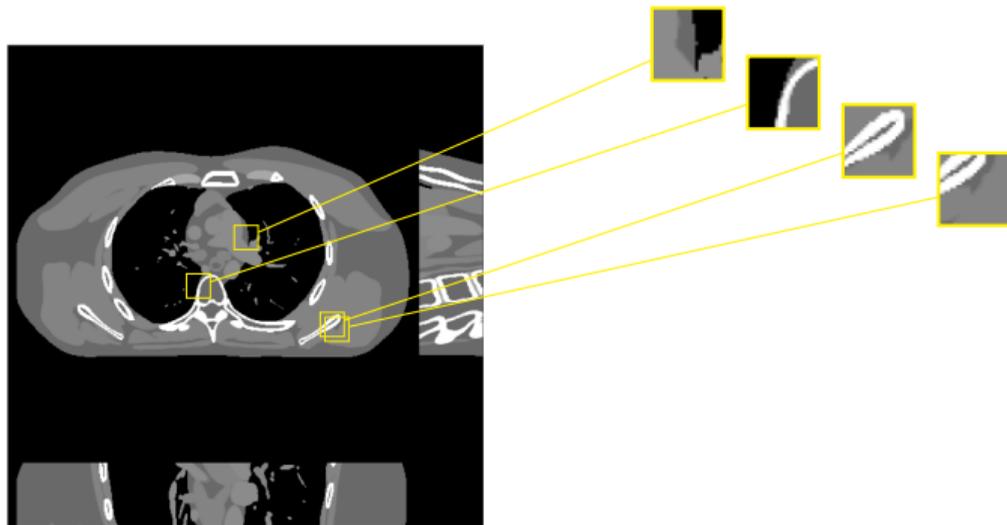


- ▶ Data
 - ▶ Population adaptive methods
 - ▶ Patient adaptive methods
- ▶ Spatial structure
 - ▶ Patch-based models
 - ▶ Convolutional models
- ▶ Regularizer formulation
 - ▶ Synthesis (dictionary) approach
 - ▶ Analysis (sparsifying transform) approach

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} ?

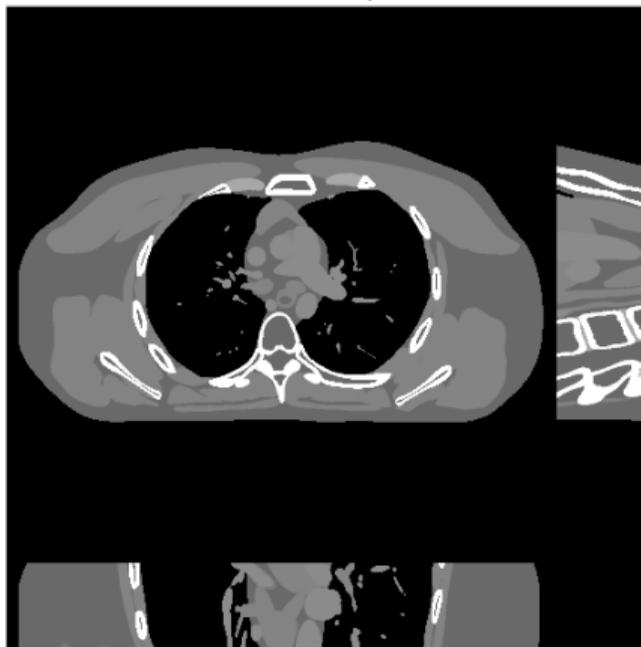


Given training images $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_L$ from a representative population, find transform \mathbf{T}_* that best sparsifies their patches:

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

- ▶ Encourage aggregate sparsity, not patch-wise sparsity (cf K-SVD [33])
- ▶ Non-convex due to unitary constraint and $\|\cdot\|_0$
- ▶ Efficient alternating minimization algorithm [34]
 - \mathbf{z} update : simple hard thresholding
 - \mathbf{T} update : orthogonal Procrustes problem (SVD)
 - Subsequence convergence guarantees [34]

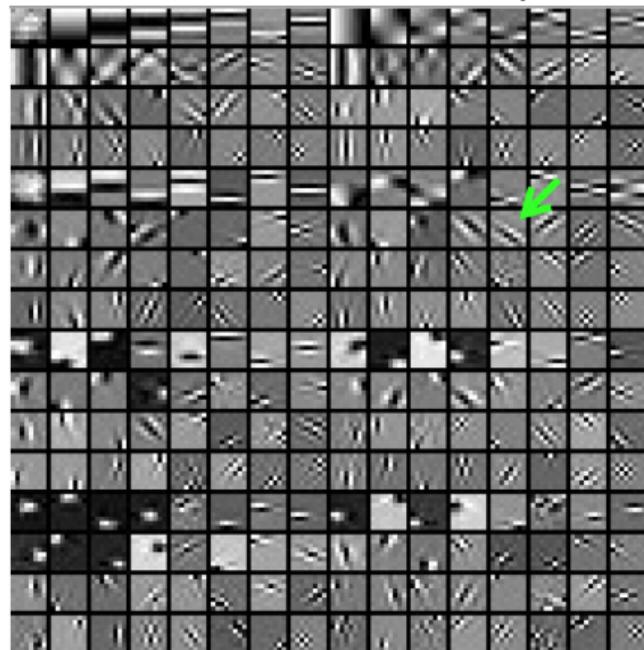
3D X-ray training data (XCAT phantom)



(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 14 / 43

Regularized inverse problem [35]:

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

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

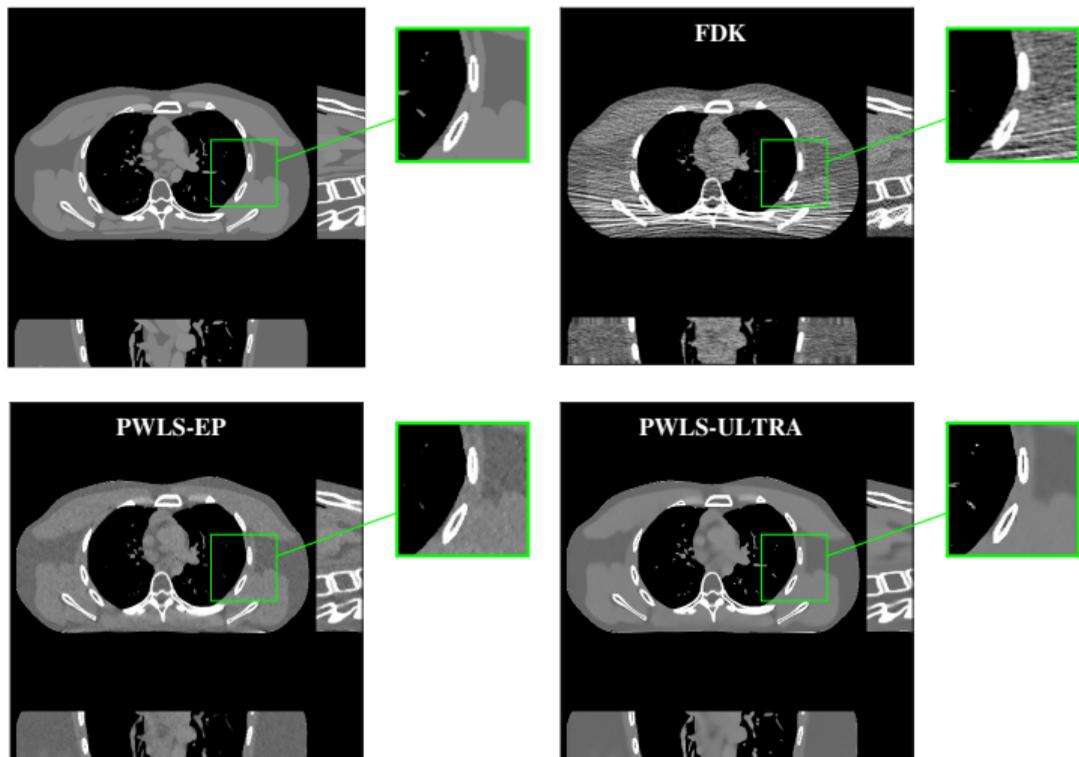
\mathbf{T}_* adapted to population training data

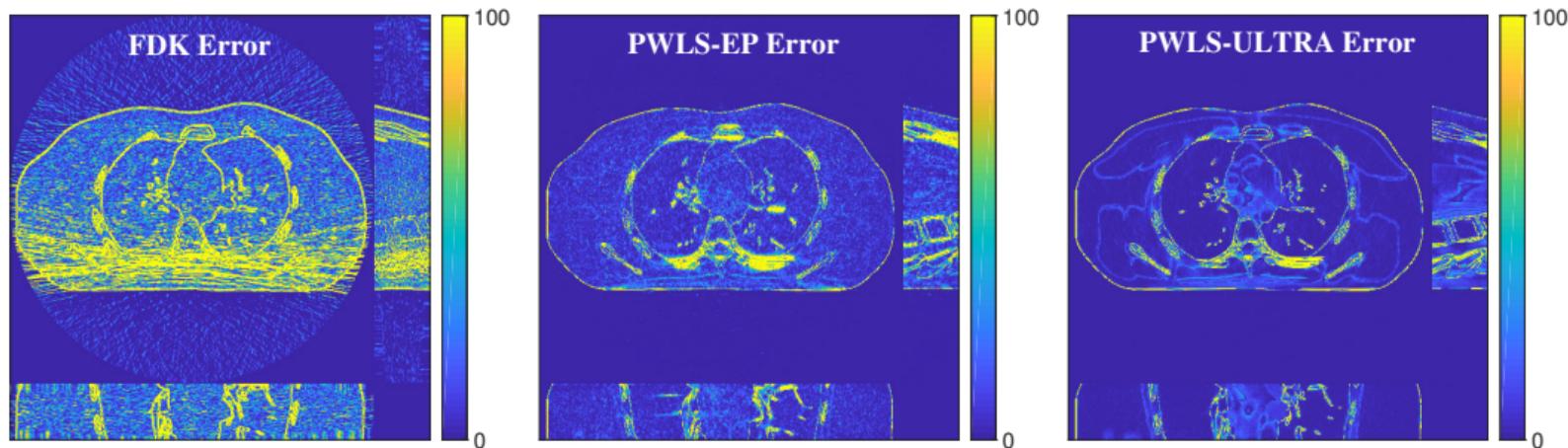
Alternating minimization optimizer:

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

Linearized augmented Lagrangian method (LALM) [36]

X. Zheng, S. Ravishankar,
Y. Long, JF:
IEEE T-MI, June 2018 [35].





	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

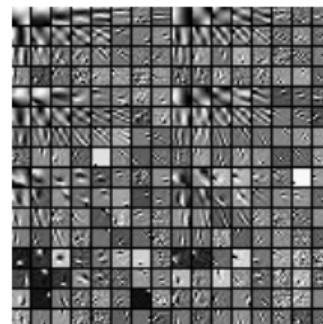
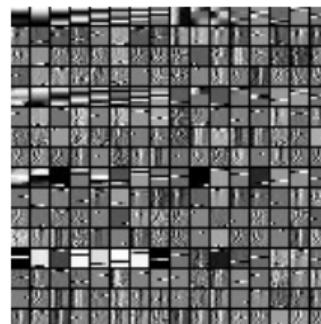
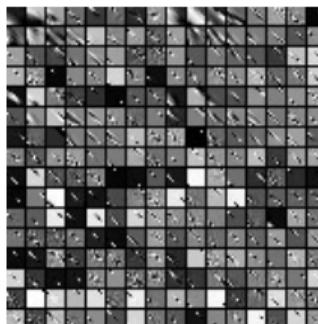
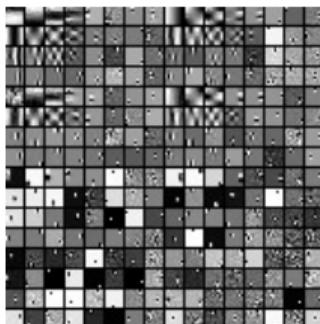
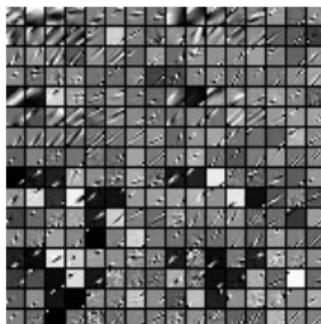
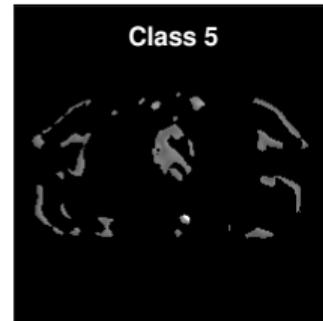
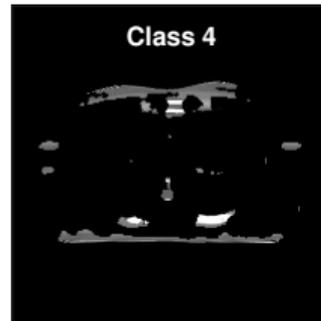
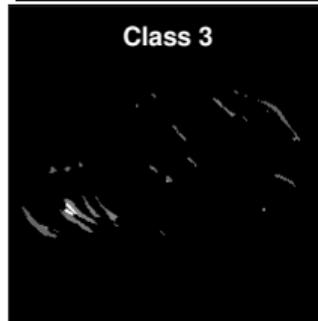
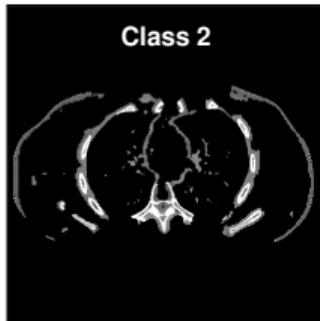
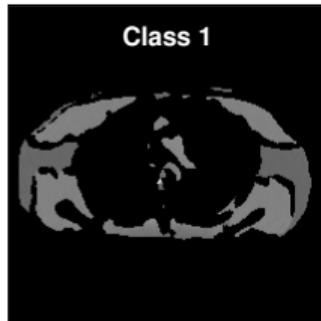
- ▶ Physics / statistics provides dramatic improvement
- ▶ Data adaptive regularization further reduces RMSE

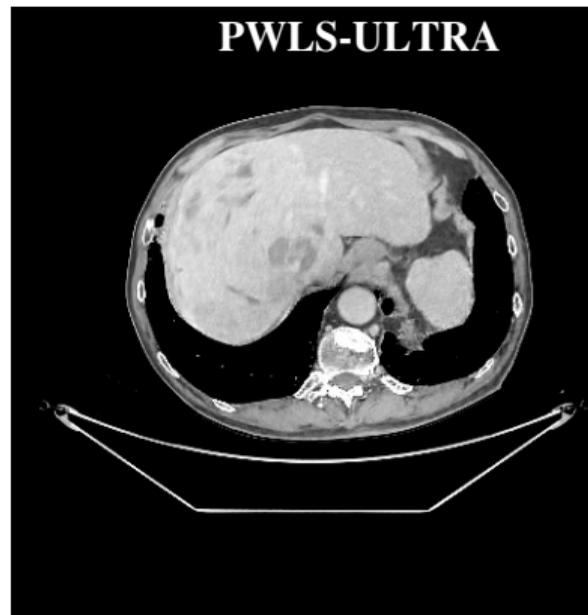
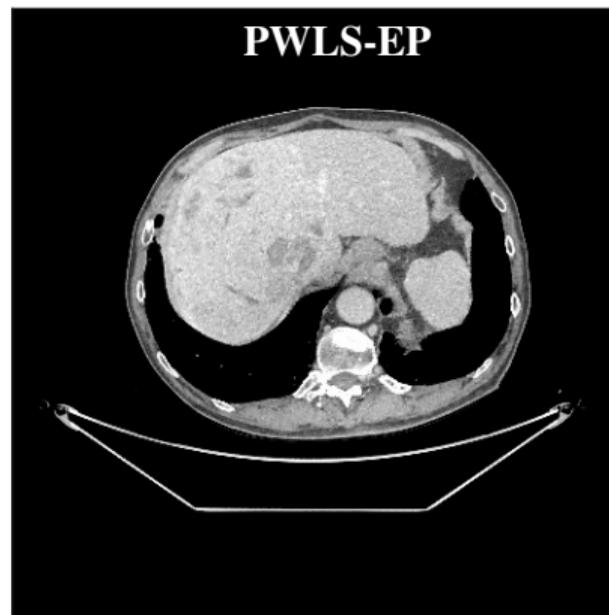
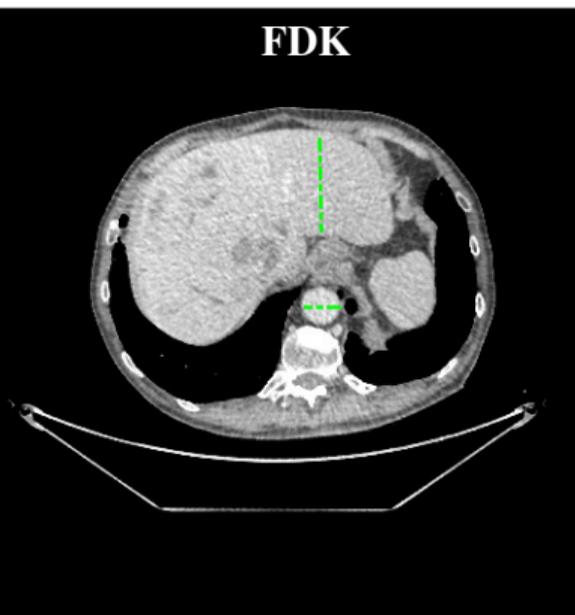
Given training images $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_L$ from a representative population, find a set of transforms $\{\hat{\mathbf{T}}_k\}_{k=1}^K$ that best sparsify image patches:

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

- ▶ Joint unsupervised clustering / sparsification
- ▶ Further nonconvexity due to clustering
- ▶ Efficient alternating minimization algorithm [37]

Example: 3D X-ray CT learned set of transforms





Zheng et al., IEEE T-MI, June 2018 [35] (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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Overview:

- ▶ image-domain learning [38–40]...
- ▶ k-space or data-domain learning
e.g., [41], [42], [43]
- ▶ transform learning (direct from k-space to image)
e.g., AUTOMAP [44], [45–47]
- ▶ hybrid-domain learning (unrolled loop, e.g., variational network)
alternate between denoising/dealiasing and reconstruction from k-space
e.g., [42, 48–52] ...

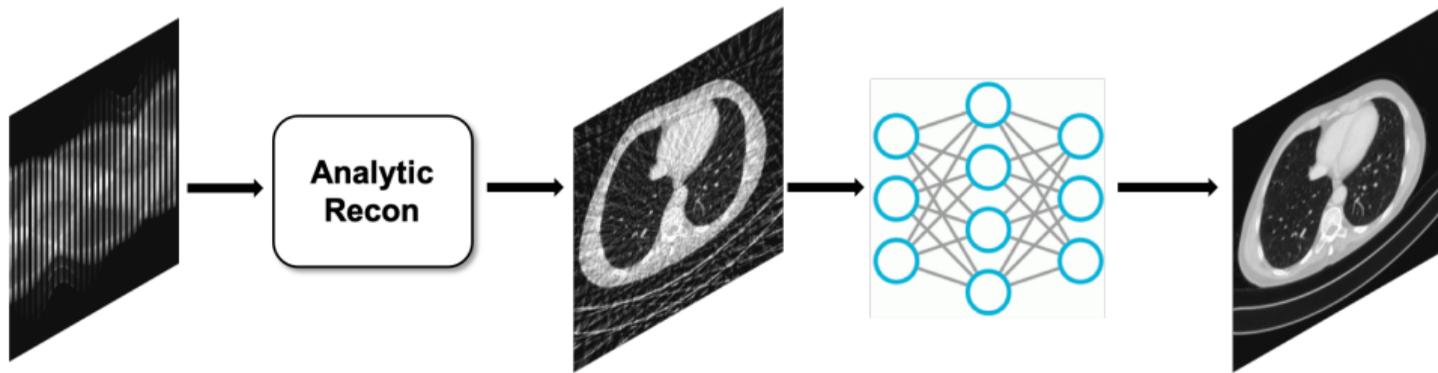


Figure courtesy of Jong Chul Ye, KAIST University.

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

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

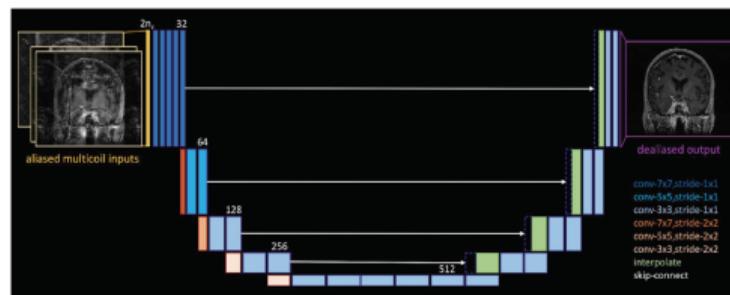
Gopal Nataraj¹ and Ricardo Otazo^{1,2}

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



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

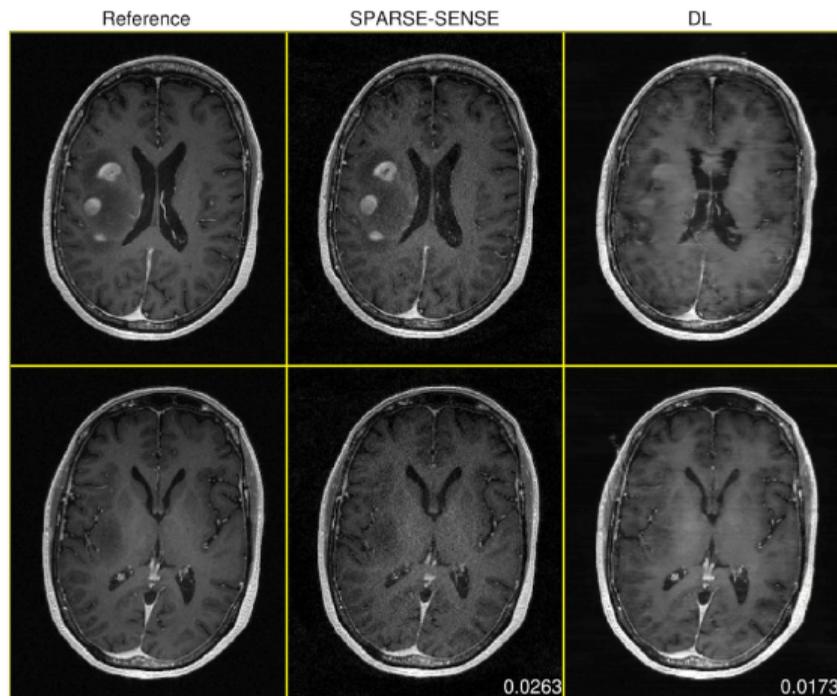


Figure 3: Reconstructions in a case of anaplastic astrocytoma, a rare malignant brain tumor. SPARSE-SENSE and DL reconstructions are from the same 4x-accelerated retrospectively undersampled acquisition. DL achieves lower whole-volume MAE than SPARSE-SENSE, but fails to properly reconstruct regions near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

- ▶ Use NN output as a “prior” for iterative reconstruction [38, 54]:

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

- ▶ 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 [55, 56]

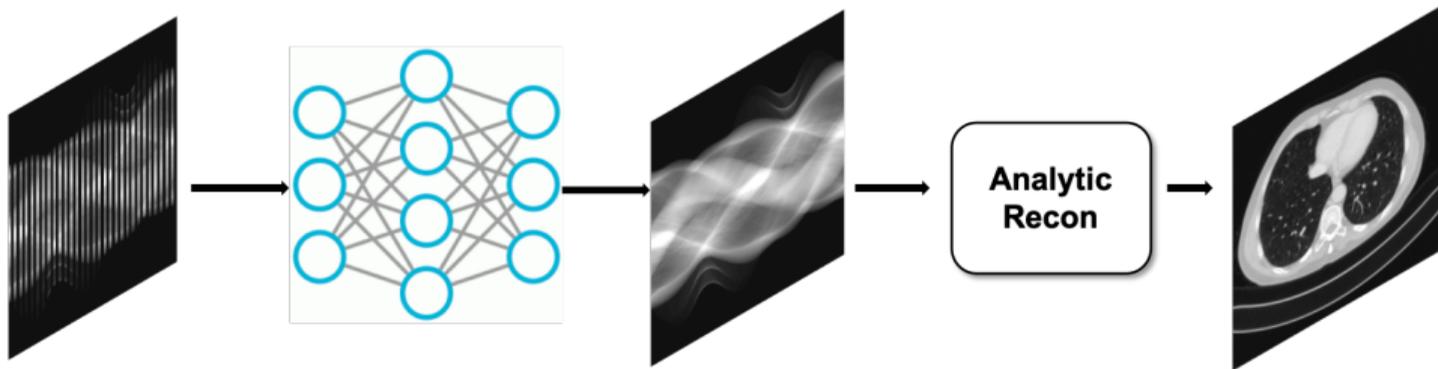


Figure courtesy of Jong Chul Ye, KAIST University.

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

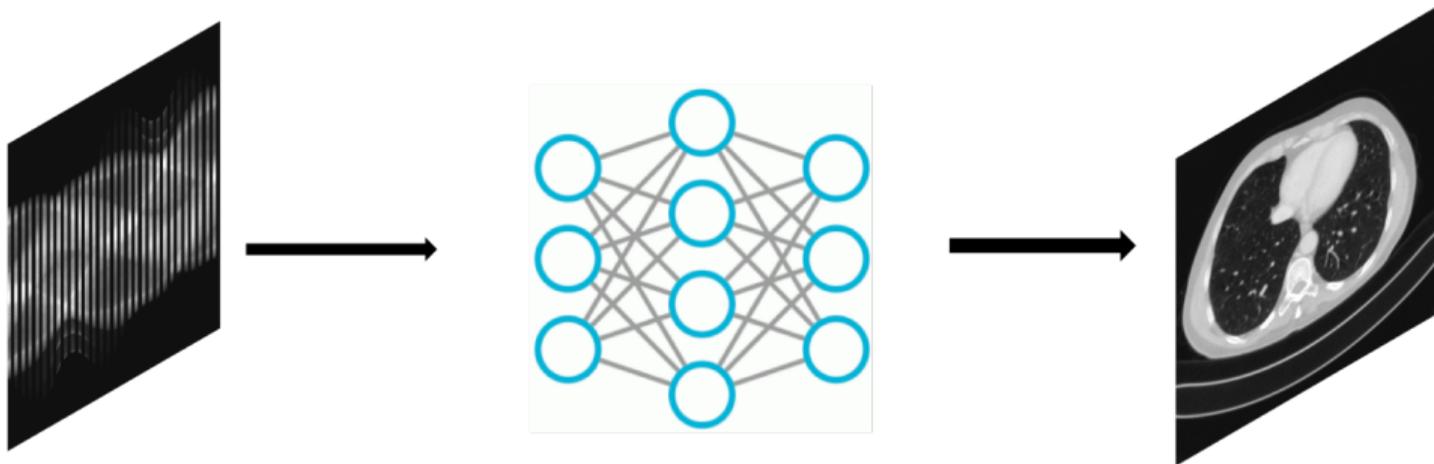


Figure courtesy of Jong Chul Ye, KAIST University.

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

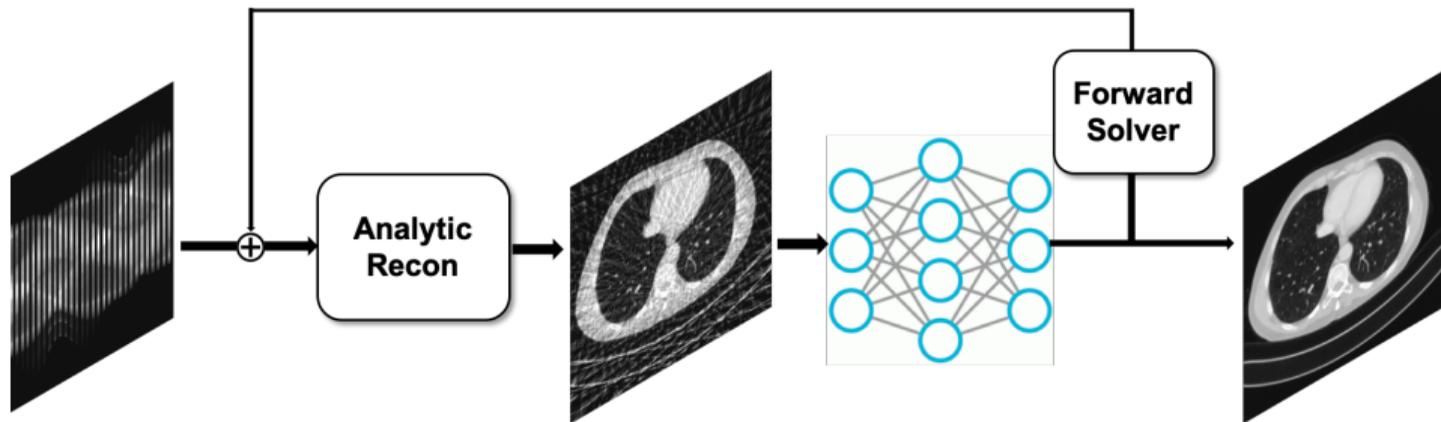


Figure courtesy of Jong Chul Ye, KAIST University.

- + 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} , $\mathbf{A}'r$

Cost function for convolutional sparsity regularization:

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

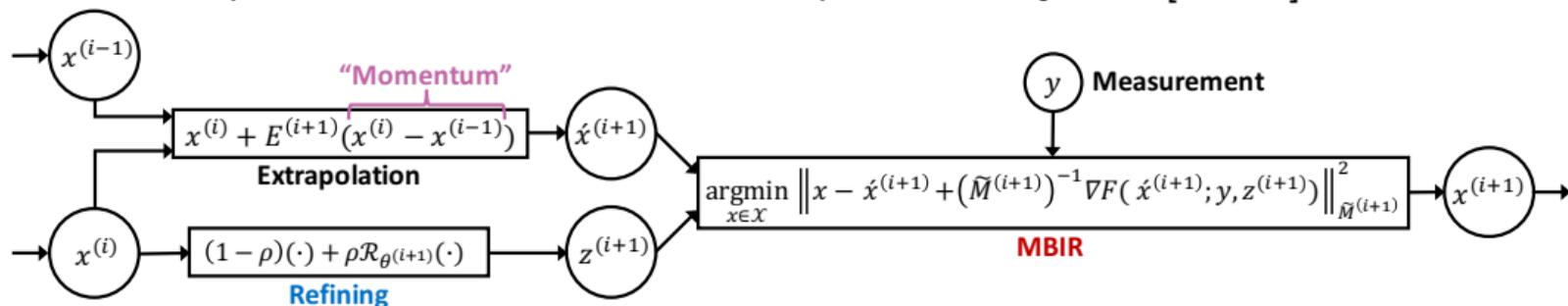
Alternating minimization, aka block coordinate descent (BCD), updates:

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

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

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

Unrolled loop network with momentum and quadratic majorizer [57, 58]:

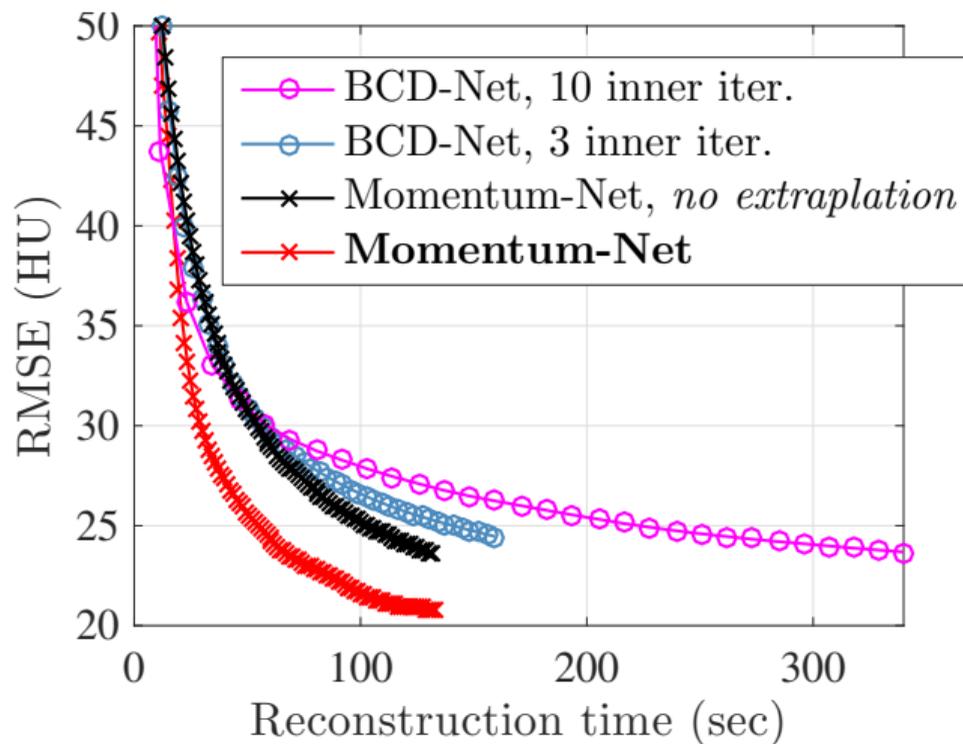


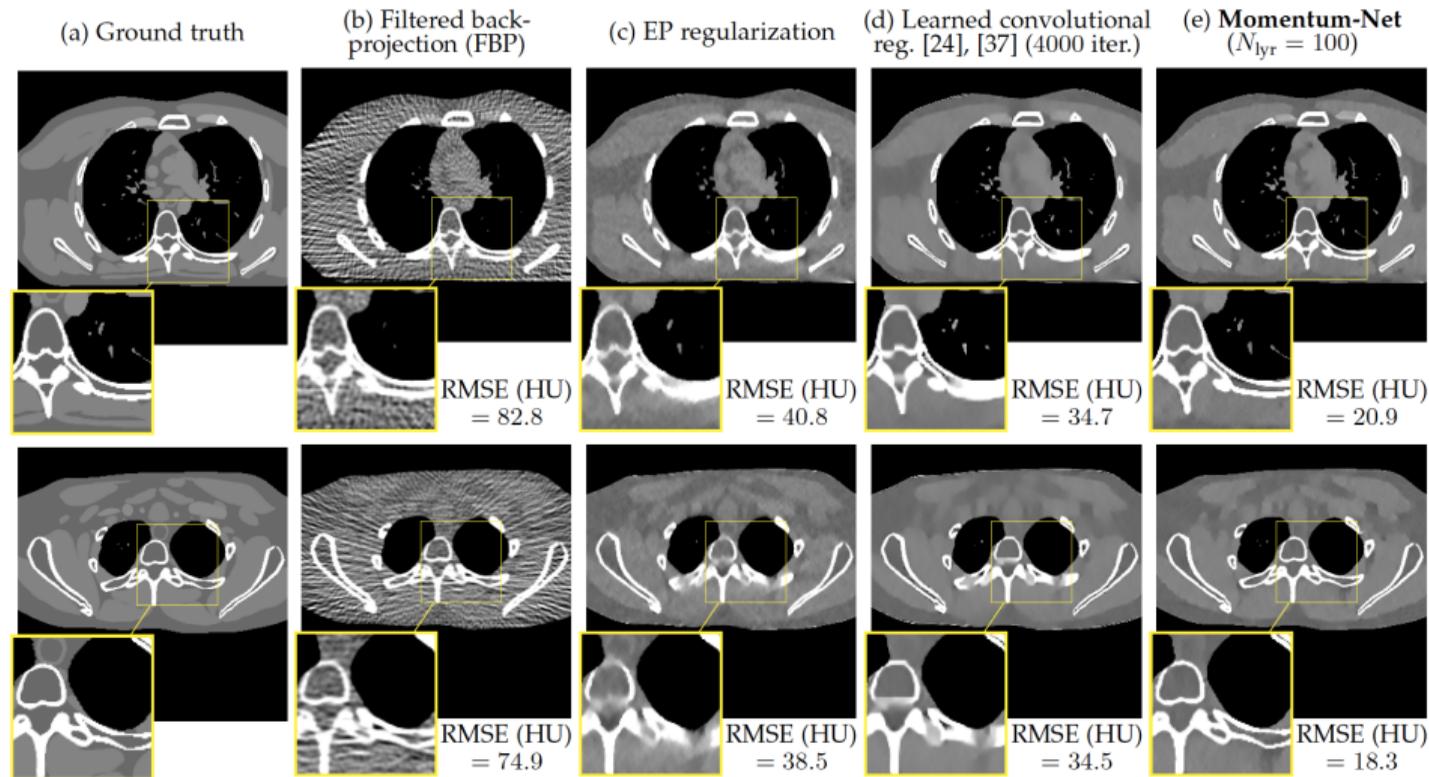
- ▶ Diagonal majorizer for CT: $\mathbf{M} = \text{Diag}\{\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{1}\} + \beta\mathbf{I} \succeq \mathbf{A}'\mathbf{W}\mathbf{A} + \beta\mathbf{I}$
- ▶ **Learn** image mapper (“refiner”) \mathcal{R} from training data (supervised).
cf CNN: filter \rightarrow threshold \rightarrow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

[57, 58] 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.

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- ▶ CT image reconstruction has evolved greatly in the 50+ years since Allan Cormack's seminal papers [59, 60]
 - ▶ 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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