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Medical image analysis tools


Image generation, processing, segmentation and registration

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Content

- Introduction, human and machine vision
- Medical image formation
- Basics of signal processing and discrete spaces
- Image reconstruction
- Image processing tools
- Image segmentation
- Image registration

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Computer vision

- Superiority of human vision
 - In many respects can hardly be outperformed in near future
 - Scene interpretation and understanding
 - Intuition
 - 3D stereo reconstruction
- Machine vision strength
 - Quantification
 - 3D reconstruction from image slices
 - Dealing with high dimensional and/or vectorial fields
 - Reproducibility
 - stamina

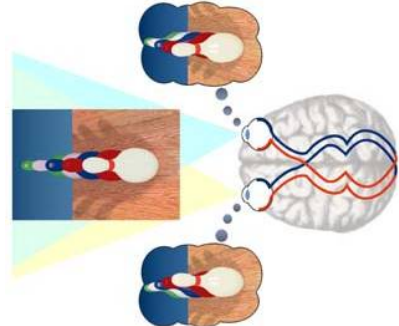
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The human visual system



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Machine vision systems


Luminance → Structure

- Goal: identification and delineation of object a complex, interconnected process
- Solution approaches: generic properties of objects
 - Homogeneity inside of the object
 - Distinction from the background
- Fundamental limitation
 - Not all information is contained in the image
 - The related problems are mathematically ill posed
 - Prior knowledge is used for solution
 - No dividing line between knowledge and prejudice

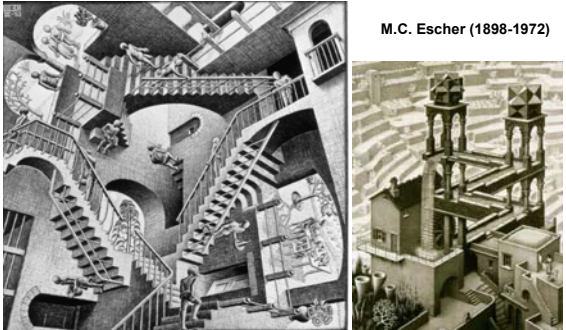
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Visual Illusions



M.C. Escher (1898-1972)

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Introduction

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The Paggendorf illusions

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Mueller-Lyer illusion

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Examples of image formation

- Human vision: 3D color scene → stereo 2D color image pair
- Remote sensing: 2D/3D scene, multiple physical properties → multi-channel 2D images
- Photographic camera: 3D color scene → 2D color/bw image
- Range images: 3D scene → 2D image with distance to observer

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Extraction of 3D information

Passiv: human eye

Activ: pattern projection

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Medical image formation

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Light as electromagnetic wave

Self-sustaining exchange of electric and magnetic fields

- wavelength
- direction
- amplitude E
- phase
- direction of polarisation

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The electromagnetic spectrum

Wavelength (nm)

400 500 600 700

Wavelength (m)

Radio broadcast bands
VHF
UHF
Radar
Microwaves
Infrared
Visible light
X rays
Gamma rays

THE ENERGY SPECTRUM

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Interaction of light and matter

phenomenon	example
absorption	blue water
scattering	blue sky, red sunset
reflection	coloured ink
refraction	dispersion by a prism

Dependent on wavelength
+ diffraction

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Transmission of EM waves

FIG. 1.1 Transmission of EM waves through 25 cm of soft tissue.

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Seeing through the human body I

- Using high frequency radiation: X-ray
- Design considerations
 - Sufficiently low wavelength for transparency
 - Sufficiently low frequency to remain selective contrast formation
 - Ionizing radiation
- Projective image formation
loss of depth information

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Seeing through the human body II

- Low frequency radiation: ultrasound
- Design considerations
 - Possibly low frequency for maximal penetration
 - Possibly high frequency to avoid diffraction effects
radiation wavelength at ~1.5MHz in tissue is ~1mm
wavelength should be significantly higher than the size of objects to be resolved
- Non-ionizing radiation

Frequency	2–15 MHz
Wavelength (in muscle)	0.78–0.1 mm
Penetration	12–16 cm
Spatial resolution	3.0–0.4 mm

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X-ray imaging

$$I = I_0 e^{-\int \mu(x) dx}$$

- Contrast based on tissue-dependent attenuation
- Problem: loss of depth

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CT imaging

- Goal: depth recovery
- Relying on Radon transform
- Absorption imaging

$$r(u, \varphi) = \mathcal{R}\{b(x)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} b(x) \delta(x^T e_\varphi - u) dx$$

$$\varphi \in [0^\circ, 180^\circ), \quad u \in \mathbb{R}, \quad e_\varphi = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \varphi \\ \sin \varphi \end{pmatrix}$$

- Two equivalent representations
- $b(x)$ can be reproduced from $r(u, \varphi)$

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Carrying out the Radon Transformation

A diagram illustrating the components of a CT scanner. An X-Ray Tube emits a beam through a Collimator onto a patient. Detectors on the opposite side capture the beam, which is then processed by a Computer and displayed on a Monitor.

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Multi-slice CT acquisition

A diagram showing a patient lying on a table inside a CT scanner. The gantry rotates around the patient, and the CT imaging process is shown as a series of slices. A Digital Image is produced.

$$CT(x, y) = 1000 \left[\frac{\mu(x, y) - \mu_{water}}{\mu_{water}} \right]$$

- We talk about image reconstruction later
- Complete 3D reconstruction possible
- Spiral acquisition
- Intensity: normalized absorption (Hounsfield)

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X-ray absorption in tissue

A bar chart showing the relative absorption of various tissues. The y-axis represents relative absorption from -1000 to 1000. The x-axis lists various tissues: bone, milk, pancreas, kidney, suprarenal gland, blood, heart, liver, tumor, bladder, water, breast, fat, lung, and air.

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CT practical realization

A photograph of a CT scanner with a patient lying on the table. To the right, a diagram shows the internal components of the scanner, including the Tube, Aperture, and Detectors.

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PET Imaging

- Intracorporal radiation source
- Physiological imaging: radiolabeled pharmaceuticals
- Positron emitting isotopes
 - Short lifetime: isotope must be locally produced (cyclotron)
 - detection of γ photons resulting from $e^+ + e^-$ annihilation
- Coincidence imaging to achieve reasonable SNR
- Same tomographic principle as by CT
- Transmission imaging

A diagram illustrating the PET imaging process. It shows a Nucleus (Proton + Neutrons) emitting a Positron, which then annihilates with an Electron, producing γ photons.

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PET imaging device

A diagram showing a patient lying on a table inside a PET scanner. The scanner consists of a ring of detectors. The data is processed by a Coincidence Processing Unit, which produces Sinogram/Listmode Data. This data is then used for Image Reconstruction.

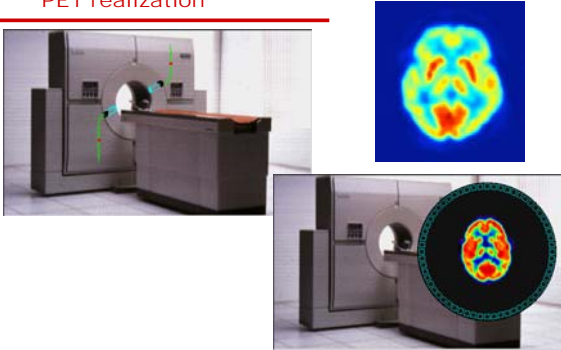
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PET realization



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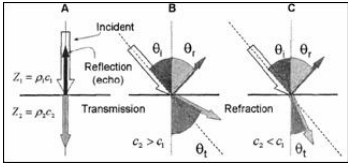
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Ultrasound imaging

- Acoustic Impedance, $Z = \rho c$
 ρ = density (kg/m³), c = speed of sound (m/sec)
- Large differences in Z cause reflection, small differences allow transmission
- Imaging principle: reflexion



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Sound behaviour on tissue boundaries

- The intensity reflection coefficient (normal incidence)
 $R = I_r/I_i = ((Z_2 - Z_1)/(Z_2 + Z_1))^2$
- The transmission coefficient $T = 1 - R$
 $T = (4Z_1Z_2)/(Z_1 + Z_2)$
- Determined basically by density difference
 very big between air and tissue: air is a problem

Tissue Interface	Pressure Reflection	Intensity Reflection
Liver-kidney	-0.006	0.00003
Liver-fat	-0.10	0.011
Fat-muscle	0.12	0.015
Muscle-bone	0.64	0.41
Muscle-lung	-0.81	0.65
Muscle-air	-0.99	0.99

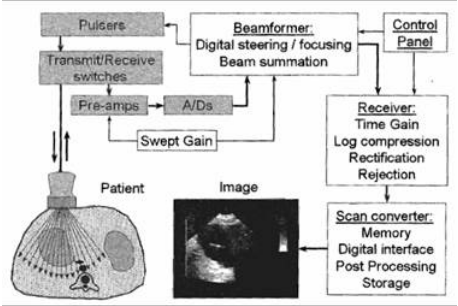
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US technical realization



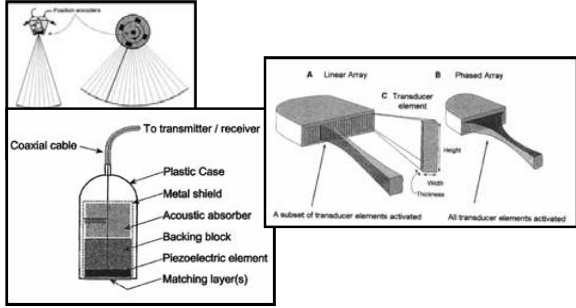
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US Transducers



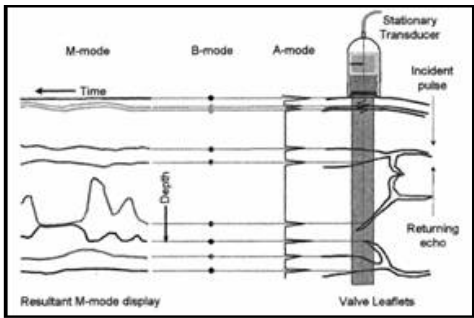
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US signal visualization




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B-mode US imaging



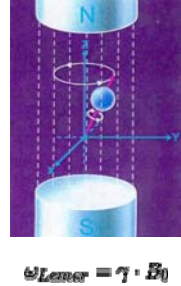
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Magnetic resonance imaging



- Absorption and emission of RF waves
- Emission imaging with external excitation
- Spins (protons) in magnetic field precession
- Two energy states
 - Difference in RF energy range
 - Can be excited by external radiation
 - Population difference is very small low sensitivity (SNR)
 - Relaxation after excitation terminated re-emitted RF energy can be detected
- Resonance frequency determined by local magnetic field

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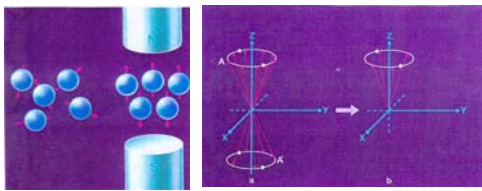
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Effects of RF absorption

- Absorption of energy (magnetization in z direction)
- Synchronization of precession (magnetization in xy plane)



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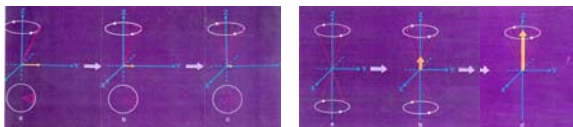
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Relaxation effects

- Longitudinal relaxation: loss of energy (T1)
- Transversal relaxation: loss of coherence (T2)
- Strong dependence on molecular environment
- Highly versatile contrast formation
- No known health risks

$$M_z(t) = M_0 \cdot \left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{T_1}}\right) \quad M_T(t) = M_T(0) \cdot e^{-\frac{t}{T_2}}$$


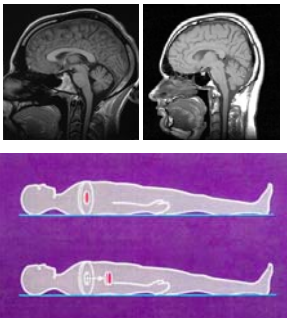
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Advanced MR imaging techniques



- Signal influenced by many parameters
- Very versatile tissue contrast
 - Perfusion imaging
 - MR angiography
 - fMRI
 - Diffusion imaging
 - Tissue tracking (MR tagging)
 - Diffusion imaging
 - MR elastography

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Comparison of achievable resolution

Modality	Δ (mm)	Comments
Screen film radiography	0.08	Limited by focal spot and detector resolution
Digital radiography	0.17	Limited by size of detector elements
Fluoroscopy	0.125	Limited by detector and local spot
Screen film mammography	0.03	Highest resolution modality in radiology
Digital mammography	0.05-0.10	Limited by size of detector elements
Computed tomography	0.4	About 1/2-mm pixels
Nuclear medicine planar imaging	7	Spatial resolution degrades substantially with distance from detector
Single photon emission computed tomography	7	Spatial resolution worst toward the center of cross-sectional image slice
Positron emission tomography	5	Better spatial resolution than with the other nuclear imaging modalities
Magnetic resonance imaging	1.0	Resolution can improve at higher magnetic fields
Ultrasound imaging (5 MHz)	0.3	Limited by wavelength of sound

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Formal characterization of image analysis systems

$f \rightarrow \boxed{\mathcal{F}} \rightarrow g \quad \mathcal{F}(f(t)) \rightarrow g(t)$

- Signal mapping
- Special case : linear shift invariant systems

$$\mathcal{F}(af(t) + bg(t)) = a\mathcal{F}(f(t)) + b\mathcal{F}(g(t))$$

$$\mathcal{F}(f(t)) = g(t) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(f(t - t_0)) = g(t - t_0)$$

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Characterization of LSI systems

- LSI system \equiv convolution
- Fully characterized by the point spread function (PSF) answer to Dirac $\delta(h(t))$
- Response can be calculated by convolution
- Harmonic waves are the eigenfunctions
- Intimate relationship with the Fourier-transform
- Convolution theorem

$$\mathcal{F}(f(t)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\tau)h(t - \tau)d\tau = f \otimes h(t)$$

$$F(v) = \mathcal{F}(f(x)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)e^{-2\pi i v x} dx \quad f(x) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(F(v)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(v)e^{2\pi i v x} dv$$

$$\mathcal{F}(f(x) \otimes g(x)) = F(v)G(v)$$

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Discretization of signals

- Sampling
 - Fourier pair of discrete signal
 - Problems of artifacts
 - Aliasing
 - Leakage
- Quantization
 - Finite number of intensity levels
 - Contouring artifacts if not sufficiently fine dithering techniques

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Discrete convolution

$$o(i,j) = c_{11}f(i-1,j-1) + c_{12}f(i-1,j) + c_{13}f(i-1,j+1) + c_{21}f(i,j-1) + c_{22}f(i,j) + c_{23}f(i,j+1) + c_{31}f(i+1,j-1) + c_{32}f(i+1,j) + c_{33}f(i+1,j+1)$$

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Structure of discrete image spaces

- Two issues: topology and distance closely coupled (otherwise problems)
- Three possible regular rasters in 2D
 - Cartesian
 - Hexagonal
 - Triangular
- Geometry is implicitly involved

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Discrete topology

- Defined by neighborhood relation
- several topologies can be selected for the same space
- 4/8 neighborhoods in 2D, 6/18/26 neighborhoods in 3D
- Induced topology: connectivity
- Equivalence relation: connected components (equivalence classes)

4-Neighbourhood $X \oplus Y$

8-Neighbourhood $X \oplus Y$

6-Neighbourhood

$$X, Y \in \Sigma, I(X) = I(Y) \quad X, Y \in S \quad X \sim_{\oplus} Y \Leftrightarrow \exists \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\} \subset S$$

$$X = X_1, \quad Y = X_n \quad \text{and} \quad X_i \oplus X_{i+1} \quad i = 1, \dots, n-1$$

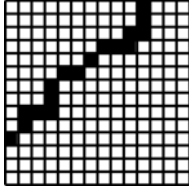
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Properties of discrete topological spaces



- Considering binary images
- Expected equivalence with continuous spaces problems with component connectivity (Jordan theorem)
- Solution: mixed topology (foreground 8, background 4)
- Typical operations
 - Thinning
 - Skeletonization

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Distance on discrete spaces

- Distance mapping (metric) $d(x,y): \mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{S} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^+$
 - Symmetric
 - Transitive
 - Triangle inequality
- Every topology induces a distance (minimal connected path)
- Regular distances (all induced by a neighbourhood)

Topology induced distance

$$d(X,Y) = \min \{l\{X_1, \dots, X_n\} \mid X = X_1 \odot X_2 \odot \dots \odot X_n = Y\}$$

Regular metric

$$\forall P, Q \in \Sigma, P \odot Q \text{ or } \exists R \in \Sigma, R \neq P \text{ and } R \neq Q \text{ such that } d(P,Q) = D(P,R) + D(R,Q)$$

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Properties of discrete distance metrics

- Regular distances show unnatural anisotropy
- D_4 circles are diamonds, D_8 circles are squares
- Usage of Euclidean distance necessary
 - Not regular on the discrete raster
 - Conflict with topology
 - Special algorithms needed for its estimation
- Alternative solution: approximation of the Euclidean distance by regular metrics
 - Chamfer metrics
 - Summing of the steps with different weights
 - Characterized by scale weights ($\langle 3,4 \rangle$, $\langle 5,7,11 \rangle$)
 - Neighborhood must be extended for larger environments
 - move of knight on a 5x5 environment

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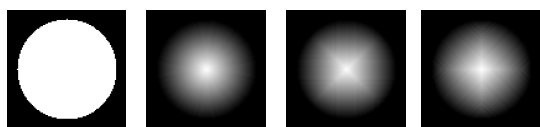
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Discrete distance transform

- Calculated usually by Euclidean distance approximation
- Usage
 - Robot path planning
 - Skeletonization
 - Morphological operations



Binary image DT D_{Euclid} DT D_8 DT D_4

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Mathematical morphology

- Structural processing of binary imaging
- Enforcing consistency within a neighbourhood (structuring element)
- Convolution-like operation but using non-linear (rank order) operators
- Structuring element is usually selected as diamond or square
- Iterative application of basic operators

$$\{I_1, I_2, \dots, I_n\} \xrightarrow{\text{sorting}} \{I_1^*, I_2^*, \dots, I_n^*\}$$

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Morphological operators

- Erosion, $E(I_c) = I'_1$
shrinking, one layer is eroded from the object
- Dilation $D(I_c) = I'_n$
thickening: one layer is added to the object
- Operator combination
 - Goal: morphological adjustments without size changes
 - Opening: erosion followed by dilation
breaking narrow bridges
deleting small components
 - Closing: dilation followed by erosion
filling small holes

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Examples dilation

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Signal processing and discrete spaces

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Examples erosion

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Signal processing and discrete spaces

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Examples opening

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Signal processing and discrete spaces

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Examples closing

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Image reconstruction

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Image reconstruction from projections

- Radon transform: representation as sinogram
- Inversion techniques
 - Straightforward: backprojection
 - Problem with the transfer function: $1/r$ filtering necessary
 - Alternative: central slice theorem

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Image reconstruction

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Filtered backprojection

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Image reconstruction

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Reconstruction by filtered backprojection

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Image reconstruction

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The central slice theorem

$$\mathcal{F}_u\{r(u, \varphi)\} = B(f_u \mathbf{e}_\varphi) \quad B(\mathbf{f}) = \mathcal{F}_x\{b(\mathbf{x})\}$$

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Image processing

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Image processing needs

- The acquired images are imperfect distortions disturb later processing
- Major problems
 - Noise
 - Spatial distortion
 - Non-homogeneous intensity (bias)
- Possible approaches
 - Pre-processing: correction before further analysis
prototypical example: noise reduction
 - Simultaneous processing and correction
prototypical example: bias correction

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Image processing

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Noise reduction

- Frequency characteristics of images and noise
- SNR is bad at high frequencies
- Lowpass filter is a straightforward solution
- Blurring edges, losing sharpness

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Image processing

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Linear noise reduction filters

Box filter
major problems

Binomial filter
filter family (Pascal Δ)

Gaussian filter
„optimal“
Limit of binomial filters
Continuous family (σ)

$$G(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}}; \quad G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

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Image processing

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Box filtering results

Box filter mit 8x8 support

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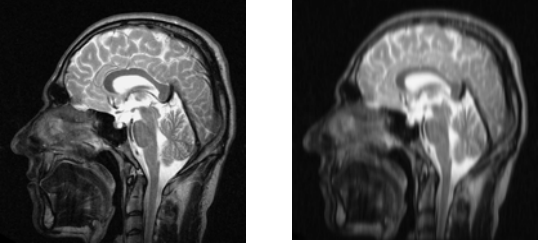
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Image processing

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Gauss filtering results

Gauss filter $\sigma = 5$ pixel



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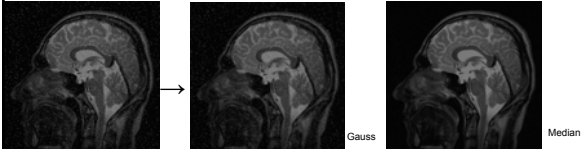
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Image processing

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Non-linear noise reduction: the median filter

- Noise vs. Sharpness tradeoff
- Linear filters cannot offer a solution: frequencies are handled in a structure-independent fashion (LSII)
- Traditional solution: median filter
- Yet another rank order operator, $M(I_c) = I_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}$ where $\lceil n/2 \rceil$ is the integer round-up operator



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Image processing

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Anisotropic diffusion

- The Gauss function is the Green function of the isotropic diffusion equation
- Perona & Malik: make the diffusion coefficient dependent on image content
- Stop diffusion at the boundaries: strong gradients

$$\frac{\partial f(\vec{x}, t)}{\partial t} = \text{div}(c(\vec{x}, t) \vec{\nabla} f(\vec{x}, t)) \quad \frac{\partial f(\vec{x}, t)}{\partial t} = c \Delta f(\vec{x}, t)$$

general diffusion isotropic diffusion (c constant)

general solution of the Homogeneous diffusion equation $o(\vec{x}) = i(\vec{x}) \otimes \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{(n/2)}\sqrt{ct}} e^{-\frac{\langle \vec{x}, \vec{x} \rangle}{4ct}}$

Initial condition $f(0, \vec{x}) = i(\vec{x})$

selection of c $c(|\vec{\nabla} f|) = e^{-\frac{|\vec{\nabla} f|^2}{2\kappa^2}} \quad c(|\vec{\nabla} f|) = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{|\vec{\nabla} f|}{\kappa}\right)^2}$

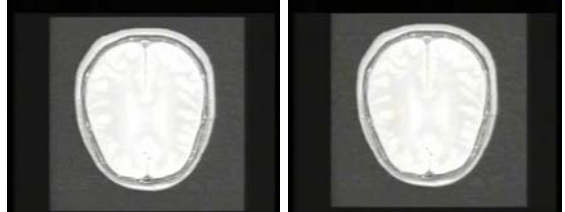
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Comparison between isotropic and anisotropic diffusion



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Image segmentation

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Homogeneity-based image segmentation

```

graph LR
    Object -->|Sensors| MeasurementData[Measurement data]
    MeasurementData -->|feature extraction| Features[features]
    Features -->|classifier| ObjectClasses[Object classes]
  
```

- Characterization of the object pixels by selected features
- Looking for areas with similar features
- Prototype: thresholding
- Threshold determination: Bayesian estimates
- Both for scalar and vectorial features

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Image segmentation

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The Bayesian framework

Object classes $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_s, \omega_r\}$

Features $\vec{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n) \in \mathbf{R}^n$

Joint probability density $p(\vec{v}, \omega_i)$

Marginal probability densities $p(\vec{v}) = \sum_i p(\vec{v}, \omega_i) \quad P(\omega_i) = \int p(\vec{v}, \omega_i) d\vec{v}$

Class specific Probability density $p(\vec{v}|\omega_i) = \frac{p(\vec{v}, \omega_i)}{P(\omega_i)}$ Prior probability

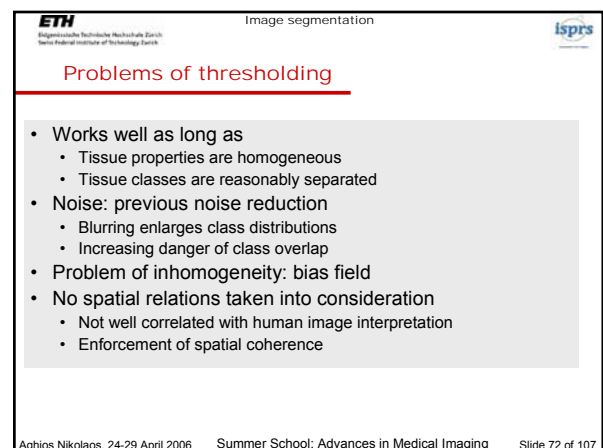
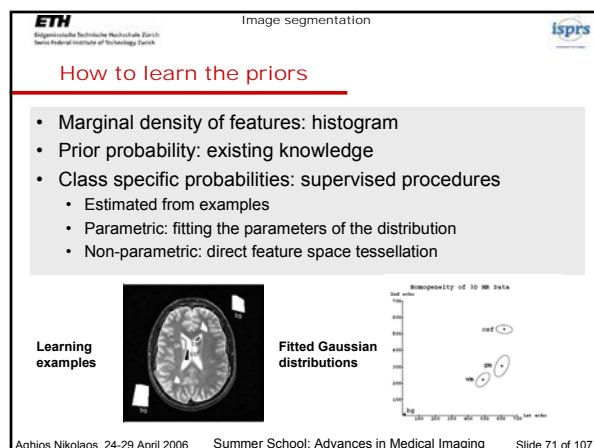
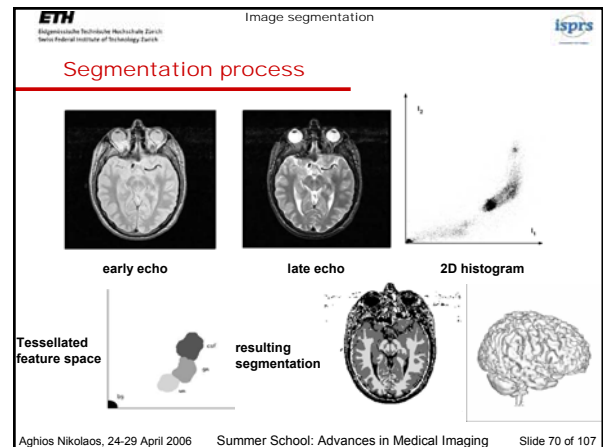
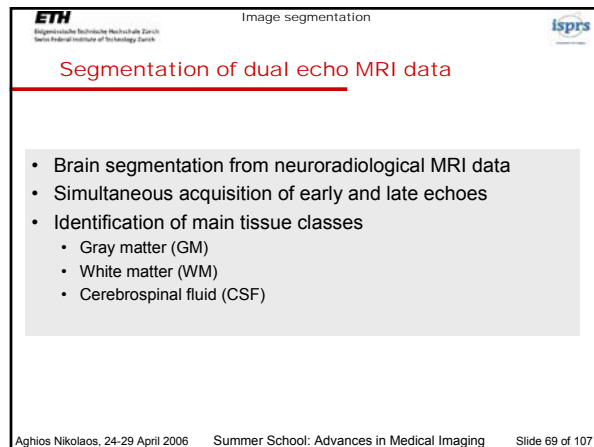
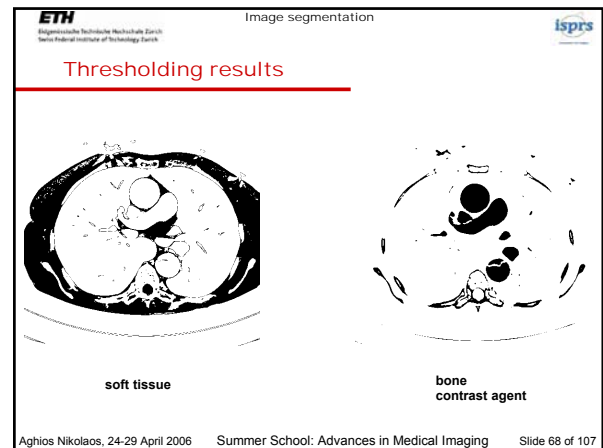
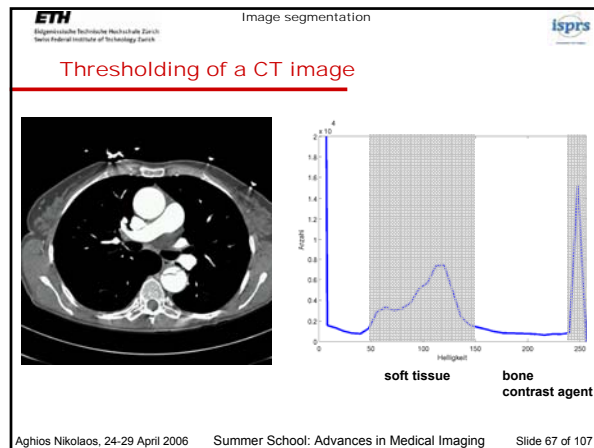
a posteriori probability $P(\omega_i|\vec{v}) = \frac{p(\vec{v}, \omega_i)}{p(\vec{v})}$

Class selection should maximize a posteriori probability

Estimation through the Bayes theorem

$$P(\omega_i|\vec{v}) = \frac{p(\vec{v}|\omega_i)P(\omega_i)}{p(\vec{v})}$$

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Image segmentation

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Bias field correction

- Simultaneous estimate of a posteriori probabilities and the bias field
- Iterative adjustment of the classification resp. the bias field
 - If the bias field is known, the thresholding can be done after correction
 - If the classification is known, the bias field can be estimated from class homogeneity conditions
 - The expectation maximization (EM) algorithm
 - Both steps rely on Bayesian estimate of a posteriori probabilities

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Image segmentation

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EM results

surface coil image gray matter probability bias field

white matter identification from gradient echo image

corrected image traditional thresholding bias correction with EM

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Image segmentation

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Spatial coherence by post-processing

- Similar behaviour of neighbouring pixels
- Morphological correction after segmentation
- Example: automatic brain extraction from gradient-echo MR images
- Problems
 - Noisy pixels: wrong components and holes
 - Wrong or undesired connectivity (brain to skull, eye nerves)

Thresholded component erosion connected component dilation

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Image segmentation

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Spatial coherence enforcement by Markov random field

- Modeling label (L) dependency from neighbourhood (Φ) as a Gibbs distribution
- The energy function (U) depends on the direct neighbours: MRF based on Potts (Ising) model
- ξ and v describe the cost of transition from label l_i to l_j
- Integration into the EM framework: estimating ξ and v with or without constraints

$$f(\mathbf{L} | \Phi) = Z(\Phi)^{-1} \exp[-U(\mathbf{L} | \Phi)]$$

$$Z(\Phi) = \sum_{\mathbf{L}} \exp[-U(\mathbf{L} | \Phi)]$$

$$U(\mathbf{L} | \Phi) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_j \left(\sum_{i' \in N_j^*} \xi_{l_i l_{i'}} + \sum_{j' \in N_j^*} v_{l_i l_{j'}} \right)$$

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Image segmentation

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Result of MRF/EM segmentation

WM/GM probabilities without MRF prior

WM/GM probabilities with MRF prior

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Image segmentation

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Boundary-based segmentation

- Identification of object boundaries
- Searching for strong changes in image features
 - Intensity
 - Texture
 - ...
- Edge detection
 - Tools of mathematical analysis
 - edges practically always modelled as 1D structures
 - intensity function orthogonal to boundary
 - Signal processing alternative: high pass filters
 - Practically identical results

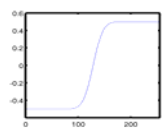
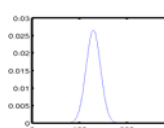
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Image segmentation

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Mathematical analysis of the intensity function

- Ideal edge as function $f(t) \leftrightarrow t$

- Change in the function $\frac{df(t)}{dt} \leftrightarrow t$

- Searching for extremal positions

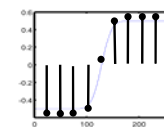
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Image segmentation

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Mathematical analysis on sampled functions

- The image is sampled
 
- Definition of derivative

$$\frac{df(t)}{dt} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t + \Delta t) - f(t)}{\Delta t}$$

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Image segmentation

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Discrete derivatives

- Finite difference approximation

$$\frac{df(t)}{dt} \approx \frac{f(t_{n+1}) - f(t_n)}{t_{n+1} - t_n}$$
- Problems with intensity differences
 - Noise amplification
 - Noise suppression necessary
 - Combination with low-pass filter: Gauss function
 - Resulting filter: first derivative of Gaussian

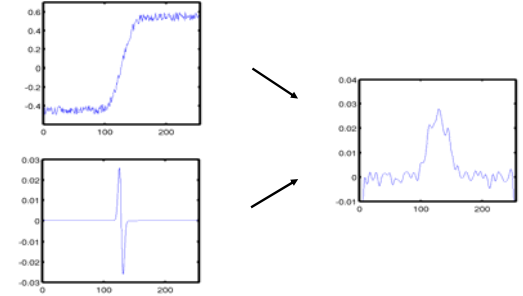
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Image segmentation

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1D detection example



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Image segmentation

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How to find edge direction

- Direction of steepest intensity change: gradient
- directional derivative with maximal magnitude
- Gradient direction: orthogonal to edge
- Gradient magnitude: edge strength
- Non-linear, but can be estimated through the partial derivatives $\partial f / \partial x$ and $\partial f / \partial y$

$$\nabla f(x, y) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) \quad |\nabla f(x, y)| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)^2}$$

$$\theta = \arctan\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} / \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)$$

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Image segmentation

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Estimate of partial derivatives

- High-pass filter in derivative direction
- Smoothing (low-pass filter) orthogonally improving SNR along the edge
- Most common implementations
 - Sobel masks
 - Partial derivatives of the Gauss function ($\partial G(x, y) / \partial x$, $\partial G(x, y) / \partial y$) sampled and cut off to a finite mask

Sobel masks

-1	0	1
-2	0	2
-1	0	1

-1	-2	-1
0	0	0
1	2	1

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Image segmentation

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The Canny edge detector

- Does not rely on gradient not necessarily compatible with the image raster
- Evaluation of directional derivatives
 - Noise reduction by Gauss-filtering
 - Discrete difference in all 4 directions defined by the 8-neighbourhood
 - Looking for direction channel with maximal magnitude value $r(x,y)$ is an estimate for gradient magnitude
 - Non maximum suppression deleting all responses which are smaller than any neighbour in the selected direction channel
 - Hysteresis thresholding with $t_{high} > t_{low}$
 - If $r(x,y) > t_{high}$ edge point is safe and kept
 - If $r(x,y) < t_{low}$ edge point is due to noise and neglected
 - For $t_{low} < r(x,y) < t_{high}$ edge point is only kept if connected to safe edge pixels

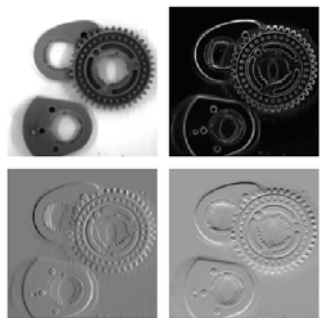
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Image segmentation

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Example of image gradient



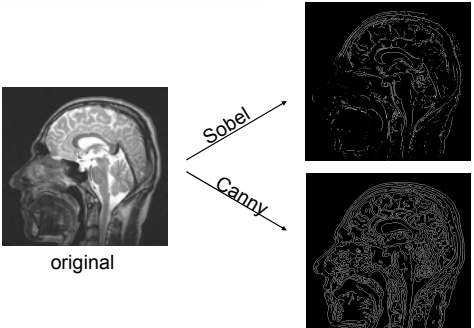
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Image segmentation

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Result of edge detection



original

Sobel

Canny

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Image segmentation

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Edge fragment grouping

- Boundary edges are hardly ever complete
- Gaps must be closed for object delineation
- Edge fragment grouping
 - One of the mysteries of human vision
 - Not much known about the underlying mechanisms
 - Prior knowledge plays a dominant role (Gestalt laws, e.g.)
- Grouping in computer vision
 - Relies also on image-independent assumptions
 - Two characteristic procedures
 - Hough transform
 - Elastically deformable models

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Image segmentation

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The Hough transform

- Detection of geometric objects with simple parameterization
- Original version identifies straight lines
- Processes binary edge images
- Building up an accumulator for the line parameters
- Every edge point votes for all possible lines which pass through it
- Looking for local maxima in the accumulator
 - Identifies potential lines
 - Intensity = number of votes (i.e. number of points on the line)
- Can be implemented for other structures (circles, ...)
- Advantage: closes arbitrary gaps (can also harm)
- Disadvantage: slow

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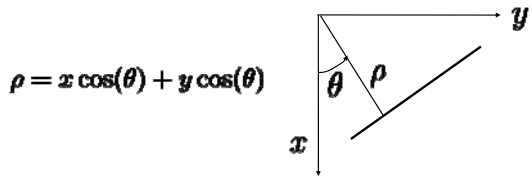
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Line parameterization

- Most straightforward: $y = a x + b$ problems with vertical lines (a becomes infinite)
- Alternative parameterization



$\rho = x \cos(\theta) + y \sin(\theta)$

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Image segmentation

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Line detection by Hough transform

$\rho = x \cos(\theta) + y \sin(\theta)$

ρ

θ

x

y

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Image segmentation

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Elastically deformable contour models

- An interactive approach to grouping
- The user provides a rough approximation of the contour
- The model deforms itself in order to adjust to nearby edge segments
- Deformation is based on physical analogy
- Behaviour of a rubber band (snake)
- Basic implementation: two energy terms
 - Potential (image, external) energy (attraction by image features, e.g. the gradient magnitude as a function graph)
 - Elastic (deformation, internal) energy (trying to avoid too much tension and keep the curve smooth)
- Searching for position minimizing the overall energy

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Image segmentation

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Simple snakes formulation

Evolving curve $\vec{v}(s, t) = (x(s, t), y(s, t)) \quad 0 \leq s \leq 1, \quad t \geq 0$

Initialization $\vec{v}(s, 0) = (x(s, 0), y(s, 0))$

Internal energy $E_I(\vec{v}) = - \int_0^1 P(\vec{v}(s, t)) ds$

Image potential $P(x, y) = \|\nabla I(x, y)\| \approx \sqrt{\Delta_x^2(I \otimes G_\sigma) + \Delta_y^2(I \otimes G_\sigma)}$

Deformation energy thin plate spline model punishing stretching and bending $E_D(\vec{v}) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \alpha(s) \left\| \frac{\partial \vec{v}(s, t)}{\partial s} \right\|^2 + \beta(s) \left\| \frac{\partial^2 \vec{v}(s, t)}{\partial s^2} \right\|^2 ds$

Total energy to be minimized $E(\vec{v}(s, t)) = E_D(\vec{v}(s, t)) + E_I(\vec{v}(s, t)) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \alpha(s) \left\| \frac{\partial \vec{v}(s, t)}{\partial s} \right\|^2 + \beta(s) \left\| \frac{\partial^2 \vec{v}(s, t)}{\partial s^2} \right\|^2 ds - \int_0^1 P(\vec{v}(s, t)) ds$

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Energy minimization

Direct minimization techniques

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \alpha(s) \left\| \frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial s} \right\|^2 + \beta(s) \left\| \frac{\partial^2 \vec{v}}{\partial s^2} \right\|^2 ds - \int_0^1 P(\vec{v}) ds \rightarrow \min$$

Variational calculus: Euler-Lagrange differential equation

$$-\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(\alpha(s) \frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial s} \right) + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \left(\beta(s) \frac{\partial^2 \vec{v}}{\partial s^2} \right) = -\nabla^2 P(\vec{v})$$

For constant α and β

$$-\alpha \frac{\partial^2 x}{\partial s^2} + \beta \frac{\partial^4 x}{\partial s^4} = -\frac{\partial P}{\partial x}$$

$$-\alpha \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial s^2} + \beta \frac{\partial^4 y}{\partial s^4} = -\frac{\partial P}{\partial y}$$

After finite difference discretization

$$\vec{v}^{[t]} = \mathbf{K}^{-1} P_T(\vec{v}^{[t-1]})$$

K is the stiffness matrix (pentadiagonal)
Can only be inverted if sufficient boundary conditions given

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Image segmentation

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Extension to full dynamic system

Additional energy term: kinetic energy $E_K(\vec{v}) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \mu(s) \left(\frac{\partial \vec{v}(s, t)}{\partial t} \right)^2 ds$

Total energy $E(\vec{v}) = E_K(\vec{v}) + E_I(\vec{v}) + E_D(\vec{v})$

Energy dissipation needed for Realistic behaviour Rayleigh functional $D(\vec{v}_t) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \gamma(s) |\vec{v}_t|^2 ds$

Non-conservative system Minimization by Hamilton principle $\int_0^1 E(\vec{v}) + D(\vec{v}_t) ds$

Euler-Lagrange differential Equation for constant $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \mu$

$$\mu \frac{\partial^2 x}{\partial t^2} + \gamma \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} - \alpha \frac{\partial^2 x}{\partial s^2} + \beta \frac{\partial^4 x}{\partial s^4} = -\frac{\partial P}{\partial x}$$

$$\mu \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2} + \gamma \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} - \alpha \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial s^2} + \beta \frac{\partial^4 y}{\partial s^4} = -\frac{\partial P}{\partial y}$$

Iterative solution after finite difference discretization and defining the boundary conditions

$$\vec{v}^{[t]} = [(\mu + \gamma)\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{K}]^{-1} \left(-P_T \Big|_{\vec{v}^{[t-1]}} + (2\mu + \gamma)\vec{v}^{[t-1]} - \mu \vec{v}^{[t-2]} \right)$$

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Image segmentation

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Snakes example

- Additional interactive forces for guiding the evolution (spring, volcano)
- Extension to 3D (deformable surfaces)

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Image registration

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Image registration

- Establishment of a dense mapping between two images
- Classification
 - Degrees of freedom of the applied transformation
 - Rigid
 - Similarity/affine/projective
 - Elastic or non-rigid
 - Targets used (extrinsic – marker based/intrinsic)
 - Correspondence establishment (feature, intensity based)
 - Dimensionality (2D/2D, 3D/3D, 2D/3D)
 - Modalities involved (mono/multi-modal)
 - Origin of the images (data from the same or different patients)
- The crucial point is correspondence establishment is there any and if yes, how to find it?

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Image registration

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Correspondence establishment

- Feature based
 - Points, curves or surfaces
 - Quality of fit measured by distance, minimizing the sum of squared distances
 - Correspondence between points and 1D/2D features: projection Iterative Closest Point (ICP) procedures
 - Straightforward and fast but needs reasonable feature detection and inherits all its errors
- Intensity based
 - Compares image intensities when applying transformations
 - Directly uses image information, no preprocessing needed
 - Similarity measure necessary

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Similarity measures for intensity-based registration

Measuring similarity between the reference image (A) and the floating image after applying transformation T (B^T) over the common domain Ω_{AB}^T containing N pixels

Sum of squared differences $SSD = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\vec{s}_A \in \Omega_{AB}^T} (A(\vec{s}_A) - B^T(\vec{s}_A))^2$

Sum of absolute differences $SAD = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\vec{s}_A \in \Omega_{AB}^T} |A(\vec{s}_A) - B^T(\vec{s}_A)|$

Both rely on identical contrast in A, B

Cross correlation: allows linear relationship between image intensities

$$CC = \frac{\sum_{\vec{s}_A \in \Omega_{AB}^T} (A(\vec{s}_A) - \bar{A}) \cdot (B^T(\vec{s}_A) - \bar{B})}{\left[\sum_{\vec{s}_A \in \Omega_{AB}^T} (A(\vec{s}_A) - \bar{A})^2 \cdot \sum_{\vec{s}_A \in \Omega_{AB}^T} (B^T(\vec{s}_A) - \bar{B})^2 \right]^{1/2}}$$

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Mutual information as similarity measure

- Based on information theory
- „Find as much as possible of the complexity that is in the separate datasets so that at the same time they explain each other well“

Shannon entropy $H = - \sum p(s) \log p(s)$

Mutual entropy of the images $H(A, B^T) = - \sum_{a \in \Omega_A^T} \sum_{b \in \Omega_B^T} p_{AB}^T(a, b) \log p_{AB}^T(a, b)$

Mutual information $I(A, B^T) = H(A) + H(B^T) - H(A, B^T)$

Marginal entropies $H(A) = - \sum_{a \in \Omega_A^T} p_A^T(a) \log p_A^T(a)$
 $H(B^T) = - \sum_{b \in \Omega_B^T} p_B^T(b) \log p_B^T(b)$

Mutual information from intensity probability distributions $I(A, B^T) = \sum_{a \in \Omega_A^T} \sum_{b \in \Omega_B^T} p_{AB}^T(a, b) \log \frac{p_{AB}^T(a, b)}{p_A^T(a) p_B^T(b)}$

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Estimation of MI for digital images

- Relying on 2D histograms
- Its dispersion is increasing with misregistration

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Image registration

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Components of the registration process

- Representation of the transformation
 - Critical for non-rigid registration
 - Physical analogies (elastic deformation, viscous fluid)
 - Hierarchical parametric control (spline, subdivision)
- Interpolation methods
 - Calculating image intensities
 - Generating dense deformation field
- Estimation of MI
 - Several deficiencies
 - Interpolation artefacts
 - Statistical inconsistency for few samples
- Search for solution
 - Solving the partial differential equation
 - Parametric optimization (sensitivity to local extrema)

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Image registration

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Rigid CT/MR registration results

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Nonrigid CT/CT registration results

CT/CT angiography image pair
vessel detection obstructed by
bone misregistration

Difference image after rigid
and non-rigid registration

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Nonrigid CT/MR registration

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Clinical applications of registration

- Intra-patient matching
 - Diagnostic follow-up
 - Time series analysis
 - Information fusion
 - Pre-operative planning
 - Intra-operative navigation
 - Fusion of pre- and intra-operative images
 - Registration of the patient with pre-operative images
- Inter-patient registration
 - Atlas matching: transfer of related information
 - Evaluation of patient collectives (fMRI)

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Summary

- A large number of image processing tools are available today
- Several standardization efforts
- Image registration is a broadly used clinical tool
 - Non-rigid matching is in its infancy
 - Feasible inter-patient matching has not even born
- Image segmentation is still unsolved
 - Key is the incorporation of prior knowledge
 - Several promising approaches exist (e.g. statistical shape and appearance modeling)
 - No generic solution can be expected in the near future
 - Hardly any solution in sight for scenes altered by complex pathologies

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