

HELSINGIN YLIOPISTO HELSINGFORS UNIVERSITET UNIVERSITY OF HELSINKI

Tomographic Reconstruction using NURBS and MCMC

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Department of Mathematics and Statistics











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NURBS-MCMC



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- Introduction
- Background
 - NURBS
 - Tomographic Measurement Model
 - Bayesian inversion
 - MCMC
- Sugar Reconstruction
- Corrosion Pipe Reconstruction
- Conclusion
- Revisited :NURBS

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CAD (Computer-Aided Design)



NURBS (Non Uniform Rational B-Splines) the standard tool to represent geometry in CAD systems, have been the building blocks of CAD modelling.





CNC (Computer Numerical Control) system, highly automated using CAD and CAM (Computer-Aided Manucfacturing).





Courtesy: www.aiblog.it

Early 1970s, Pierre Bezier





^{7?} Fast in computation (small parameters)



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Early 1970s, Pierre Bezier





Why? Fast in computation (small parameters) Efficient!



Courtesy: www.aiblog.it

Early 1970s, Pierre Bezier





• Take the transversal slice from the object.

■ Collect the X-ray projection data.
 In other words, we have access to a collection of line integrals of the function f : R² → R defined by

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} c & \text{for } (x,y) \in \Omega, \\ 0 & \text{for } (x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \Omega. \end{cases}$$
(1)



- The angular sampling of the X-ray data is very sparse, allowing for quick measurement process (low radiation dose/ few angle data).
- Our aim is to recover two things: the boundary $\partial \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ represented as a parameterized curve and the attenuation coefficient c.



Bayesian Inversion and NURBS

 \downarrow Recovering parameters

(Control Points and attenuation value)

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(Loading video)

Video is taken from http://geometrie.foretnik.net

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 $\begin{array}{l} \text{Consider an attenuation function } f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}, \\ f(x,y) \geq 0 \text{ and } \operatorname{supp}(f) \subset \Omega \text{ with bound} \\ \text{d} \subset \mathbb{R}^2. \end{array}$



$$\frac{dI(x)}{I(x)} = -f(x, b_1)dx,$$

where I(x) is the intensity of the X-ray at the point (x, b_1) while passing through the source to the detector.

Background



The radon function of the function f depends on the angular parameter α and on a linear parameter $s \in \mathbb{R}$ as follows:

$$\mathcal{R}f(s,\alpha) = \int_{\mathbf{x},\vec{\alpha}=s} f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}^{\perp},$$

where $d\mathbf{x}^{\perp}$ is the one dimensional Lebesgue measure along the line $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \mathbf{x} \cdot \vec{\alpha} = s\}$ and $\vec{\alpha} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha \\ \sin \alpha \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2$.



In the pixel-based model, the line integral is discretized using the standard pencil-beam model. We use the pixel-based Matlab routine radon.m for simulating parallel-beam tomographic data.

The measurement,

$$m_i = \int_{L_i} f(x, y) ds \approx \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} f_j,$$

where a_{ij} is the distance that L_i travels in the jth pixel.



The line integral is discretized by moving to pixel-based model using an operator $\mathcal{B}: \mathbb{R}^{2n+1} \to \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$.





 $\mathcal{B}(v) = \begin{cases} c, \text{ if the pixel center is inside the NURBS curve,} \\ 0, \text{ if the pixel center is outside the NURBS curve,} \end{cases}$ (2)
where $v \in \mathbb{R}^{2n+1}$.



Let $\mathcal{R}: \mathbb{R}^{N \times N} \to \mathbb{R}$ and $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$.

Consider the indirect measurement $\mathbf{m} = \Re f + \varepsilon$, where $\mathbf{m} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ and $f = \mathcal{B}(v)$.

The inverse problem is to find f which depends on v when the observation, **m** is given.

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We use probability theory to model our lack of information in the inverse problem. All the variables in the model are considered as random variables.

- Construct a prior density (information prior to the measurement)
- Construct likelihood function (the likelihood of different between the observation and the unknown)
- Explore the posterior probability density (what we know about the unknown given observation)



• Our model is $\mathbf{m} = \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{B}(v)) + \varepsilon$.

Let $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$, so then

 $(\mathbf{m} - \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{B}(v)) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2))$

Model of the measurement process:

$$\pi(\mathbf{m} \mid v) = C \exp(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{B}(v) - \mathbf{m}\|_2^2),$$

a likelihood function.

Construct a priori information

Construct a *priori* information in a quantitative form:

Let $v \sim \mathcal{N}(\tilde{v}, \sigma_2^2)$, so then

$$\pi(v) = \exp(-\frac{1}{2\sigma_2^2} \|v - \tilde{v}\|_2^2),$$
(3)

where

$$v = \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ \theta_1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \theta_n \\ r_n \\ c \end{bmatrix}, \tilde{v} = \mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{2n+1}.$$



The solution of the inverse problem is the posterior probability distribution:

$$\pi(v \mid \mathbf{m}) = \frac{\pi(v)\pi(\mathbf{m} \mid v)}{\pi(\mathbf{m})}$$

or

 $\pi(v \mid \mathbf{m}) \sim \pi(v) \pi(\mathbf{m} \mid v).$

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Consider integral

$$E[g(x)] = \int g(x)\pi(x)dx,$$

where $\pi(x)$ is a probability density and $g \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$.



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where $\pi(x)$ is a probability density, and $g \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$. In traditional Gaussian quadratures:

$$\int g(x)\pi(x)dx \approx \Sigma_i^K \omega^i g(x^i),$$

a weighted sum of function values at specified points within the domain of integration, where ω^i are the weights and $x^i, i = 1, ..., K$ are the grid points.



The Gaussian quadratures is infeasible in high dimensions. It requires K^n integrations points, so then it needs a good knowledge of $\pi(x)$.





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The law of large numbers :

$$\lim \frac{1}{K} \Sigma_i^K g(x^i) = E[g(x)] = \int g(x) \pi(x) dx.$$



Markov Chain Monte Carlo



Monte Carlo approximates expectations with a sample average:

 $E(\mathbf{p}) \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i,$

 p_i are i.i.d..

Markov chain Monte Carlo methods involve a Markov process in which a sequence of state p_i is generated.

Each sample p_i has a probability distribution that depend on the previous state p_{i-1} .



Our model is $\mathbf{m} = \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{B}(v)) + \varepsilon$.

- 1. Set l = 0 and initialize $v^{(0)}$.
- 2. Draw a random integer k from 1 to number of control points.
- 3. Set $v := v^k + \epsilon_k$.
- 4. If $\pi(v|\mathbf{m}) \ge \pi(v^{(l)}|\mathbf{m})$ then set $v^{(l+1)} := v$.
- 5. Draw a random number s from uniform distribution on [0,1]. If $s \leq \frac{\pi(v|\mathbf{m})}{\pi(v^l|\mathbf{m})}$ then set $v^{(l+1)} = v$, else set $v^{(l+1)} := v^{(l)}$.
- 6. l = L then stop; else set l := l + 1 and go to 2^{nd} step.



The CM (Conditional Mean) estimate is defined by

$$v^{\rm CM} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \mathbf{v} \pi(\mathbf{v} \,|\, m) d\mathbf{v} = E(\mathbf{v})$$

where $\mathbf{v} = \{v^{(l)}\}_{l=1}^{L}$.





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Using MCMC:

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Using MCMC:

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Then, we recover

$$f^{\rm CM}=\mathcal{B}(v^{\rm CM}).$$

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CT Data





Recover 12 control points \mathbf{p} and attenuation c using Metropolis Hasting algorithm with 8 angles.

















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Consider homogeneous simple corrosion pipe and set the attenuation is 1 for the pipe and $\frac{1}{30}$ inside the pipe.



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Recovering 20 control points and the attenuation value where N = 1000000 and 12 angles.







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- We have demonstrated that NURBS curves combining with MCMC can be used in computational inversion tomography.
- The result is automatically in CAD format (the building blocks of CAD modelling).
- The potential drawback MCMC computation is heavy (expensive) but it can be handle using parallel computing.



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THANK YOU FOR YOUR ATTENTION

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Parametric representation of a curve and surface.

Curve

 $\mathbf{S}:[0,1]\to\mathbb{R}^2.$

They are basically piecewise polynomial functions.



The general form of a NURBS curve is:

$$\mathbf{S}(t) = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{n} \mathbf{P}_{i} N_{i,p}(t) \omega_{i}}{\sum_{i=0}^{n} N_{i,p}(t) \omega_{i}} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \mathbf{P}_{i} R_{i,p}(t),$$

where $N_{i,p}(t)$ are B-splines basis function, \mathbf{P}_i are the control points, ω_i are the weights, and

$$R_{i,p}(t) = \frac{\omega_i N_{i,p}(t)}{\sum_{i=0}^n \omega_i N_{i,p}(t)},$$

are the rational B-splines basis function. The $\omega_i \geq 0$ for all values of i.



■ Control Point (**P**_i)

A set of points by which the **positions** can determine the NURBS curves.

• Knots (t)

Defines **how much information should be shared** by segments. This vector divides the curve into intervals. The knots are needed to get the curve to settle in the proper space. A knot vector in one dimension is a set of coordinates in the parametric space, written

 $\mathbf{t} = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{n+p+1}\},\$



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Basis Function $(N_{i,p}(t))$

A function which determines how strongly control point, P_i influences the curve at time t.

$$N_{i,0}(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t_i \leq t < t_{i+1} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
$$N_{i,p}(t) = \frac{t - t_i}{t_{i+p} - t_i} N_{i,p-1}(t) + \frac{t_{i+p+1} - t}{t_{i+p+1} - t_{i+1}} N_{1+i,p-1}(t).$$

• Order (p)

A positive whole number plus zero, refers to **the highest exponent in the polynomial basis function** used for NURBS. p = 0, 1, 2, 3, etc., refers to constant, linear, quadratic, cubic, etc., piecewise polynomials, respectively.



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Example of uniform knot vector: [0 0.25 0.5 0.75 1.0] Some examples of openuniform knot vector :

$$p = 2, \qquad [0 \quad 0 \quad \frac{1}{4} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{3}{4} \quad 1 \quad 1]$$

$$p = 3, \qquad [0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad \frac{1}{3} \quad \frac{2}{3} \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 1]$$

$$p = 4, \qquad [0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 1]$$



Formally, an open uniform knot vector is given by

$$\begin{aligned} t_i &= 0, & 0 \leq i \leq p \\ t_i &= i - p, & p + 1 \leq i \leq n + 1 \\ t_i &= n - p + 2, & n + 2 \leq i \leq n + p + 1 \end{aligned}$$

Non uniform knot vectors may have either spaced and/or multiple internal knot values. Here are the examples

 $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0.28 & 0.5 & 0.72 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$



- Set the same control point in the ends by using *open uniform* knot vector.
- Repeat the *p* − 1 control points by using *periodic uniform* knot vector.