# Splitting with Near-Circulant Linear Systems: Applications to Total Variation CT and PET 

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Motivation and algorithm

## Imaging through optimization

Many medical imaging problems are solved via

$$
\underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}}{\operatorname{minimize}} g(A x-b)
$$

- $g$ convex function
- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ contains something like the Radon transform
- $b$ measurement
- $x$ image to recover

PDHG and ADMM/DRS are popular methods for solving large instances of this problem.

## ADMM/DRS

## ADMM/DRS

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x^{k+1}=x^{k}-\alpha^{-1}\left(A^{T} A\right)^{+} A^{T} u^{k} \\
& u^{k+1}=\operatorname{Prox}_{\alpha g^{*}}\left(u^{k}+\alpha\left(A\left(2 x^{k+1}-x^{k}\right)-b\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

converges for $\alpha>0$.

ADMM/DRS often requires relatively fewer iterations to converge, but the cost of computing $\left(A A^{T}\right)^{+}$can be prohibitively expensive.
Can't perform even a single iteration.

This isn't the usual form of ADMM. We performed a few change of variables. Motivation and algorithm

## Why can't we invert?

The $n \times n$ matrix

$$
A^{T} A
$$

is difficult to directly (pseudo) invert when, say, $n \geq 512^{2}$

If $A^{T} A$ were circulant (spatially invariant) we could use the FFT for the (pseudo) inversion. However, $A^{T} A$ is not circulant.

## PDHG

## PDHG

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x^{k+1}=x^{k}-\beta^{-1} A^{T} u^{k} \\
& u^{k+1}=\operatorname{Prox}_{\alpha g^{*}}\left(u^{k}+\alpha\left(A\left(2 x^{k+1}-x^{k}\right)-b\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

converges for $\beta / \alpha \geq \lambda_{\max }\left(A A^{T}\right)$.

While PDHG has small cost per iteration, it often requires prohibitively many iterations to converge to a good solution.
Requires too many iterations.

## Near-circulant matrix

Although $A^{T} A$ is not circulant, it is near-circulant.

In imaging applications, $R$ is a discretization of $\mathcal{R}$, a linear operator on a continuous image.

$$
\mathcal{R} \xrightarrow{\text { discretize }} R
$$

$\mathcal{R}^{*} \mathcal{R}$ is a linear spatially invariant operator, so the Fourier transform diagonalizes it:

$$
\mathcal{R}^{*} \mathcal{R} f=F^{-1}[\hat{k}(\omega) \hat{f}(\omega)]
$$

for some $\hat{k}(\omega)$ where $\hat{f}=\mathcal{F}[f]$.

## Near-circulant matrix

However, the discretization of $\mathcal{R}^{*} \mathcal{R}$ (in the Fourier domain) is only approximately equal to $R^{T} R$.

$$
\mathcal{R}^{*} \mathcal{R} \xrightarrow{\text { discretize }} F^{-1} \operatorname{diag}(h) F \neq R^{T} R
$$

Discretize then transpose $\neq$ Transpose then discretize.

(The diagram doesn't commute.)

## Near-circulant matrix

Nevertheless,

$$
\underbrace{F^{-1} \operatorname{diag}(h) F}_{\text {circulant }} \approx R^{T} R
$$

and $R^{T} R$ is a near-circulant matrix.

We can use

$$
F^{-1} \operatorname{diag}(h)^{+} F \approx\left(R^{T} R\right)^{+}
$$

as a computationally efficient approximation to $\left(R^{T} R\right)^{+}$.

## Why not circulant?

$A^{T} A$ is not circulant for 2 reasons.

Reason 1: Boundary conditions.

When we discretize, we move to a bounded domain. Since we do not use periodic boundary conditions, $A^{T} A$ is not circulant.

Reason 1 is less important. There are ways to resolve the issue (e.g. zero-padding).

## Why not circulant?

Reason 2: Spatial invariance is not preserved in the discretization.
The Radon transform $\mathcal{R}$ maps from Cartesian to polar coordinates, and $\mathcal{R}^{*}$ maps back to Cartesian coordinates. In continuous space, $\mathcal{R}^{*} \mathcal{R}$ is spatially invariant.

However, when discretized, the Cartesian $\rightarrow$ polar $\rightarrow$ Cartesian change of coordinates breaks spatial invariance.

There's no easy way to resolve this issue.

## Motivation of main algorithm

Leverage computationally efficient approximate (pseudo) inverse of $A^{T} A$. ADMM uses the exact inverse. PDHG uses no inverse.

We want something in between.

## Main method NCS

Near-Circulant Splitting (NCS)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x^{k+1}=x^{k}-M^{+} A^{T} u^{k} \\
& u^{k+1}=\operatorname{Prox}_{\alpha g^{*}}\left(u^{k}+\alpha\left(A\left(2 x^{k+1}-x^{k}\right)-b\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

converges for $M \succeq \alpha A^{T} A$.
$M=\alpha A^{T} A$ gives us ADMM.
$M=\beta I$ gives us PDHG.

## NCS

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x^{k+1}=x^{k}-M^{+} A^{T} u^{k} \\
& u^{k+1}=\operatorname{Prox}_{\alpha g^{*}}\left(u^{k}+\alpha\left(A\left(2 x^{k+1}-x^{k}\right)-b\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Choose

$$
M=\beta I+C
$$

where $C \approx \alpha A^{T} A$ is circulant and $\beta>0$ is small.

## Prior work

- Deng and Yin, JSC, 2016. (Posted 2012.) Briefly discusses a similar idea.
- O'Connor and Vandenberghe, SIIMS, 2014. Starts with a similar motivation and presents a variety of primal-dual methods.
- Bredies and Sun, J. Math. Imag. Vis. and SINUM, 2015. Starts with a similar motivation and presents "Preconditioned DRS".
- O'Connor and Vandenberghe, 2017.

Presented a reduction, which this work uses for the analysis.

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## Assumptions

$$
g \text { is convex and } \operatorname{Prox}_{\alpha g^{*}} \text { is well defined. }
$$

A primal-dual solution pair exists and strong duality holds.

$$
\begin{equation*}
M \succeq \alpha A^{T} A \tag{A3}
\end{equation*}
$$

(A1) and (A2) are very standard.

## Convergence

Theorem
Assume (A1) and (A2). Then $x^{k} \rightarrow x^{\star}$ and $u^{k} \rightarrow u^{\star}$, where $x^{\star}$ and $u^{\star}$ are primal and dual solutions.

## Rate of convergence

Theorem
Assume (A1) and (A2). Assume $g$ is L-Lipschitz. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& g\left(A x^{k+1}-b\right)-g\left(A x^{\star}-b\right) \\
& \leq \frac{1}{\alpha \sqrt{k+1}}\left(\left\|u^{0}-u^{\star}-\alpha A\left(x^{0}-x^{\star}\right)\right\|+\left\|u^{\star}\right\|+L\right. \\
& \\
& \left.\quad+\left\|x^{0}-x^{\star}\right\|_{\left(\alpha M-\alpha^{2} A^{T} A\right)}\right)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $x^{\star}$ and $u^{\star}$ are primal and dual solutions.

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## Total variation CT

In CT imaging with TV regularization, we solve

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { minimize } & (1 / 2)\|y\|^{2}+\lambda\|z\|_{1} \\
\text { subject to } & {\left[\begin{array}{l}
R \\
D
\end{array}\right] x-\left[\begin{array}{l}
b \\
0
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
y \\
z
\end{array}\right]}
\end{array}
$$

## Total variation CT

Use the circulant approximation,

$$
M=F^{-1} \operatorname{diag}(h) F \approx \alpha R^{T} R+\alpha D^{T} D
$$

where $\operatorname{diag}(h) \in \mathbb{R}^{N^{2} \times N^{2}}$ corresponds to the $N \times N$ mask defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{(j+1)(k+1)}=\gamma+C \alpha\left(\min \{j, N-j\}^{2}+\min \{k, N-k\}^{2}\right)^{-1 / 2} \\
&+4 \beta^{2} / \alpha\left(\sin ^{2}\left(\frac{j \pi}{N}\right)+4 \sin ^{2}\left(\frac{k \pi}{N}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

2nd term corresponds to the Radon transform's ramp filter and 3rd term corresponds to the periodic Laplacian's eigenvalues.

## Total variation CT

The method becomes

$$
\begin{aligned}
x^{k+1} & =x^{k}-F^{-1} \operatorname{diag}(h)^{-1} F\left(R^{T} u^{k}+D^{T} v^{k}\right) \\
u^{k+1} & =\frac{1}{1+\alpha}\left(u^{k}+\alpha R\left(2 x^{k+1}-x^{k}\right)-\alpha b\right) \\
v^{k+1} & =\Pi_{[-\lambda, \lambda]}\left(v^{k}+\alpha D\left(2 x^{k+1}-x^{k}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The computational bottleneck is multiplication by $R$ and $R^{T}$.

## Stastical Recon PET

In statistical reconstruction PET with TV regularization, we solve

$$
\underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^{z}}{\operatorname{minimize}} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell\left((E x)_{i} ; b_{i}\right)+\lambda\|D x\|_{1}
$$

$\ell(\mu ; b)$ is the negative log-likelihood for the Poisson distribution with mean $\mu$ and observation $b \in \mathbb{Z}$.

## Stastical Recon PET

The log-likelihood function is

$$
\ell(y ; b)=y-b \log y
$$

Although $\ell$ is a differentiable convex function, its domain is not closed and its gradient is not Lipschitz continuous. This makes gradient methods difficult to apply.

However, $\operatorname{Prox}_{\alpha \ell}$ has a closed-form solution.

## Stastical Recon PET

The main method becomes

$$
\begin{aligned}
x^{k+1} & =x^{k}-F^{-1} \operatorname{diag}(h)^{-1} F\left(E^{T} u^{k}+D^{T} v^{k}+s^{k}\right) \\
u^{k+1} & =S\left(u^{k}+\alpha E\left(2 x^{k+1}-x^{k}\right) ; \alpha b_{i}\right) \\
v^{k+1} & =\Pi_{[-\lambda, \lambda]}\left(v^{k}+\alpha D\left(2 x^{k+1}-x^{k}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
S(u ; c)=1+\frac{u-1-\sqrt{(u-1)^{2}+4 c}}{2} .
$$

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## CT: PDHG


$1024 \times 1024,300$ and 1,000 iterations, 4.67 s and 15.4 s on TITAN Xp

## CT: NCS


$1024 \times 1024,30$ and 100 iterations, 0.51 s and 1.59 s on TITAN Xp

## PET: PDHG and NCS


$512 \times 512,300$ iterations for PDHG and 30 iterations for NCS, 2.99s and 0.33 s on TITAN Xp

## Objective value suboptimality vs. iteration count




## GPU acceleration

|  | Intel Core i7-990X | TITAN Xp | Speedup |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CT $(128 \times 128)$ | 2.41 s | 3.86 s | 0.62 x |
| CT $(256 \times 256)$ | 8.51 s | 4.49 s | 1.90 x |
| CT $(512 \times 512)$ | 38.92 s | 5.32 s | 7.32 x |
| CT $(1024 \times 1024)$ | 198.53 s | 14.99 s | 13.2 x |
| PET $(128 \times 128)$ | 27.57 s | 4.07 s | 6.77 x |
| PET $(256 \times 256)$ | 109.68 s | 5.09 s | 21.5 x |
| PET $(512 \times 512)$ | 452.8 s | 9.39 s | 48.2 x |

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## Conclusion

NCS is a method that efficiently solves

$$
\text { minimize } g(A x-b)
$$

by leveraging a circulant approximation to $A^{T} A$.
Although the optimization problem and the approximate inverse assumption is seemingly very specific, it fits imaging applications very well.

Experiments on synthetic data are promising.

