Registration of images

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Courtesy: Presentations of A. Brun, M. Brady, J. Kybic, Aiming Lu

Image registration, the lecture plan



Image registration: What is it? Motivation.

- Medical imaging examples.
- Image registration, (ill-posed) task formulation, flowchart, 3 steps, rigid vs. non-rigid registration.
- Image registration: intensity-based; landmark-based, feature-based.
- Image similarity measure.
- Practical optimization (covered elsewhere).

Motivation to the image registration (1)





Motivation to the image registration (2)





Registration – What is it?



Matching – "Two regions in the image (two instances of the object) resembling or corresponding one to the another."

- Matching is a core of all three following concepts.
- Corresponding regions have to be found in the source and target data.

Registration - "To adjust so as to be properly aligned."

- Geometric (and possibly photometric) alignment of one image with another, i.e. process of transforming different sets of data into one coordinate system.
- Images may be of same or different modalities (e.g. MR, CT).
- It is needed to be able to compare or integrate the data obtained from different measurements.

Fusion – "Something new is created by a mixture of qualities, ideas, or things."

Warping – "Become or cause to become bent or twisted out of shape, typically as a result of the effects of heat or dampness."

Courtesy: Centre for Image Analysis, Uppsala University

Registration – Where is it used?



- Photography Stitching photos together, panoramic images
- Astronomy Stitching photos together and fusion of different wavelengths, modalities, e.g. optical, radar.
- Chemistry Finding similar images of molecules



Signature comparison



- Human motion analysis temporal alignment of prototypical postures, e.g. gesture understanding
- Stereo and shape from motion correspondence between key point
- Video stabilization correspondence between key point

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Registration in medical imaging



- Study skin changes over time
- Colonoscopy
- Pre surgery vs. post surgery
- Fusion of different modalities as
 - CT-MRI,
 - CT ultrasound,
 - PET-CT, etc.
- ... and many more

Courtesy, images: Centre for Image Analysis, Uppsala University



Holmberg et al. 2008





Nain et al. 2002



Brain imaging, modalities to be registered





- CT Computer Tomography
- PET Positron Emission Tomography
- MRI Magnetic Resonance Imaging
- Cryo Cryogenic Electron Microscopy
- fMRI functional MRI
- OIS Ophthalmic Imaging Systems

Registration domains in medical imaging

Outer dimension = different spatial and temporal dimensions

- 1-D (e.g. colonoscopy)
- 2-D (photos, MRI slices, ultrasound, ...)
- ◆ 3-D (MRI-, PET- and CT volumes, ...)
- ♦ 4-D (Volumes + time, e.g. a beating heart)
- 5-D (Volume + beating heart + breathing)

Inner dimensions = inside each pixel/voxel

- Grayscale or color and other wavelengths
- Feature images (edges, corners, ...)



Registration cues in medical imaging



- + Edgels, corners, eyes, interest points, ...
- Color, texture, similarity measures, ...
- Fiducials and frames, screws needed
- Skin markers less painful
- 🔶 Anatomical landmarks
- Expert knowledge



MRI, same patient, different time (1)



Two brain MRI images of the same patient (3 orthogonal views).

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One of the images is taken prior to the operation, in order to plan it; the second while the patient is having the operation: the 6 white dots are the stereotactic frame screwed into the patient's skull.

In this case, a rigid transform suffices

MRI, same patient, different time (2)



This shows the situation after the pre-op and inter-op images have been aligned.

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Typically, a rigid registration algorithm applied to brain images will be accurate to 1/10 of a voxel and 0.1 degrees of rotation

MRI-CT image fusion





MRI image volume: soft tissue – show presence of a tumour

Computed tomography (CT), shows bony structures – very accurate

MRI + SPECT fusion





MR SPECT registered

Image alignment, example





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Image registration is an ill-posed task



Reminder:

An ill-posed problem has more degrees of freedom compared to available data.

In registration:

If the reference image I_a has a total number of N pixels and the target image I_b has M pixels, then we need to find 2 * N coordinate values given N + M values of input data.

• Consequently finding the best correspondence function φ (i.e. the transformation)

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_b \\ y_b \end{bmatrix} = \varphi \left(\begin{bmatrix} x_a \\ y_a \end{bmatrix} \right) \text{ is an III-posed problem!}$$

• Solution: Restrict the set of admissible transformations φ .

Image registration flowchart





How to perform image registration?



- 1. Understand the deformation model. Define the set of allowed transformations (correspondence functions, deformations) φ .
- 2. Define a useful functional to measure similarity (also matching criteria, objective function) in a consequent optimization.
- 3. Find and perform a practical optimization procedure.



Deformation model illustration (1)







Deformation model illustration (2)



Estimated shifts per correspondence



Estimated deformation field



What is (2D) image registration?



- It is assumed that two images are given, the reference image $I_a(x, y)$ and the target image $I_b(x, y)$, where x, y are coordinates of pixels.
- The known correspondences among pixels assumed to be known too.
- $\varphi()$ is a 2D spatial (geometric) transformation.
- g() is a 1D intensity transformation.
- The goal is to find such $\varphi()$ and g() that the images are best matched,

$$I_b(x,y) \doteq g(I_a(\varphi(x,y)))$$



Rigid vs. non-rigid registration



Rigid registration

- Landmark based
- Edgels / surface based
- Pixel / voxel intensity based
- Information theory based

Non-rigid registration (also deformable registration)

- Registration using basis functions
- Registration using curves surfaces (e.g. splines)
- Physics based, e.g. elastic, fluid, optical flow, etc.

Non-rigid (deformable) image registration

Non-linear.

- Many different parameterizations.
- Too much flexibility in the transformation and its parameters can lead to undesirable results.

- Fundamental task in medical image processing
- Typical uses:
 - Longitudinal studies, where temporal structural or anatomical changes are investigated.
 - Matching of images from different patients.
 - Multi-modal registration, i.e. matching images of the same patient acquired by different imaging technologies.





$$\left[\begin{array}{c} x_b \\ y_b \end{array}\right] = \varphi \left(\left[\begin{array}{c} x_a \\ y_a \end{array}\right] \right)$$



Image warping, illustration, 0 %



Deformation grid





Image warping, illustration, 25 %



Deformation grid





Image warping, illustration, 50 %



Deformation grid





Image warping, illustration, 75 %



Deformation grid





Image warping, illustration, 100 %



Deformation grid





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Intensity-based image registration methods



- Prior preprocessing of the images as denoising, edge filters, interest point filters can be used where appropriate.
- Correspondence is based on (di)similarity measures as
 - Mean squared error (MSE) = Sum of squared differences (SSD). *Dissimilarity.*
 - Normalized cross-correlation. *Similarity.*
 - Mutual information. *Similarity.*





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Practitioner's advice, if possible



I will not register images in pixel space I will not register images in pixel space

Landmark-based image registration methods

- Manually defined landmarks serve to infer the deformation.
- Landmarks
 - Extrinsic landmarks, artificial objects attached to, e.g., a patient.
 - Intrinsic landmarks, e.g. obvious anatomical structures.
- Translation is estimated from landmark centroids shifts.





Feature-based image registration methods



- Correspondence is sought automatically between image features as interest points, regions, lines, contours.
- Similarity metric between feature values is needed.



Free-form deformations



- The general idea is to deform an image by manipulating a regular grid of control points that are distributed across the image at an arbitrary mesh resolution.
- Control points can be moved and the position of individual pixels between the control points is approximated from the positions of surrounding control points.



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Mean squared error



• Mean squared error
$$MSE = \sum_{x,y} (I_a(x,y) - I_b(x,y))^2$$

• Advantages:

- Simple and intuitive.
- Positive differences do not cancel negative differences.
- Ensures exact intensity matching.
- Disdvantages:
 - Sensitivity to outliers.
 - Linear mean squares will not be the best fit for data that is not linear.
 - Images must have almost the same brightness and contrast.
 - Does not work if modalities differ.

Correlation coefficient (1)



• How can this template be found in the image?





Linear intensity changes are common in practice.

• Mean squared error (MSE) may not work in such cases. The correlation does.

Correlation coefficient (2)



The (Pearson's) correlation coefficient ρ of the two random variables is the covariance of two variables divided (normalized) by their standard deviations σ .

In the case of images I_a (the reference image) and I_b (the target image),

$$\rho = \frac{E((I_a - \mu_a)(I_b - \mu_b))}{\sigma_a \, \sigma_b},$$

where E expresses the expectation of a probability distribution and μ is the population mean. If f is the discrete probability density of the distribution X then

$$E(X) = \sum_{x \in X} x f(x)$$



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Examples of scattered diagrams with different values of the correlation coefficient σ . Source Wikipedia.



Correlation coefficient (4)



Several sets of (x, y) points, with the correlation coefficient of x and y for each set. Note that the correlation reflects the non-linearity and direction of a linear relationship (top row), but not the slope of that relationship (middle row), nor many aspects of nonlinear relationships (bottom row).

N.B.: The figure in the center column has a slope of 0 but in that case the correlation coefficient is undefined because the variance of Y is zero.

Source Wikipedia.

Correlation coefficient (5)



Advantages:

- Corrects for linear intensity changes, which is common in practice.
- It is efficient to evaluate.
- Can be generalized to non-scalar signals using the "Canonical Correlation Analysis", see overview paper, tutorial.

Disdvantages:

- There is the underlying assumption about Gaussian distributions due to the Central limit theorem.
- Does not work for (very) different modalities.

Mutual information (1)



- The mutual information of two discrete random variables X and Y is based on the joint probability distribution p(X, Y), which is approximated by the joint histogram in practice.
- The mutual information is defined as

$$I(X;Y) = \sum_{y \in Y} \sum_{x \in X} p(x,y) \log \left(\frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)}\right) ,$$

where p(x), p(y) are marginal probability density functions.

The mutual information measures the information that X and Y share. It tells how much knowing one of these variables reduces uncertainty about the other.

Mutual information (2), use for alignment

• The MI registration criterion states that the images I_a , I_b are geometrically aligned when I(a, b) is maximal.

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For example, let I_a be an MR-scan (left in the figure) and I_b a SPECT-scan (right in the figure). If we know the MR intensities, the uncertainty of the SPECT intensities is minimal when the scans are aligned.





Mutual information (4)



• Advantages:

- Rather general approach.
- Works for different modalities.
- Works for non-scalar signals, e.g. RGB images.
- Disdvantages:
 - Can be tricky to implement.
 - Slower evaluation as compared to MSE and correlation.

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- Practical optimization (covered elsewhere). Most commonly, the gradient descent method.