COMPUTED TOMOGRAPHY (CT) IMAGE RECONSTRUCTION USING MATLAB PROGRAMMING

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ABSTRACT

X-ray computed tomography (CT) has been playing an important role in current medical practice for diagnostic procedure. Beside its delicate technology, the ‘hidden’ software of CT image reconstruction has contributed almost half of total cost of a CT-scanner unit. Since Algebraic Reconstruction Technique (ART) is a basic to understand an iterative method of CT image reconstruction algorithm, and since it is difficult to find a clear description of fan beam ART algorithm in university literatures, it is important to develop an own algorithm and to begin a basic systematic research of this iterative method. After a long term of trial and error work, the research had succeeded in developing an ART algorithm for third generation CT image reconstruction. By comparing the result of the research with more popular technique like Filtered Back Projection (FBP), the algorithm has been proved applicable to reconstruct a low dimension object matrix (32x32 and 64x64). By the resulted computer program, then basically a simple and low cost third generation CT-scanner can be designed for medical physics or biomedical imaging research. Finding a way of shortening the massive number of iterations process then, will be able to open the possibility of using the software for higher object matrix dimensions.

Keywords: Iterative method, Algebraic Reconstructive Technique (ART) reconstruction algorithm, Filtered Back Projection (FBP) technique, matrix dimension, Matlab program.
CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Background

In the early 1930s the Italian radiologist Alessandro Vallebona proposed a method to represent a single slice of the body on the radiographic film. This method was known as tomography (tomos means slice). The first commercially CT scanner was invented by Sir Godfrey Newbold Hounsfield in Hayes, United Kingdom at EMI (Electric and Musical Industries) Central Research Laboratories using X-rays. Hounsfield introduced his idea in 1967, and it was announced in 1972. Allan McLeod Cormack of Tufts University, Massachusetts, USA independently invented a similar process, and both Hounsfield and Cormack shared the 1979 Nobel Prize in Medicine.

Figure 1.1. A historic EMI-Scanner [22]

Questions of The Research

The questions of the research are:

1. How to develop a complete algorithm of image reconstruction from a third generation CT-Scanner projection based on simultaneous linear equations solving (simple backprojection technique)? How to create an efficient computer program based on the algorithm?

2. What are the optimal value of input parameters of the program to achieve an efficient reconstruction process and best resulting image?
3. How is the quality of the resulting image reconstructed by Algebraic Reconstructive Technique (ART) compared to those reconstructed by more popular Filtered Back Projection (FBP) technique.

**Purpose of The Research**

To answer the questions of the research, the purposes of the research are:

1. To create an efficient computer program for CT image reconstruction that based on Algebraic Reconstructive Technique (ART) using Matlab programming.

2. To optimize main parameters value for the program. The parameters are:
   i. Beam shape (parallel and fan)
   ii. Angular width (beam and ray)
   iii. Reconstruction time
   iv. Number of iterations (filtering process)

3. To conduct an experiment to implement the optimized parameters of CT image reconstruction using Algebraic Reconstructive Technique (ART) and then comparing the result with Filtered Back Projection (FBP) technique.

**Originality of the Research**

The originalities of the research are:

1. Development of ART algorithm based on a quadrant rotation technique for fan beam projection.

2. Matlab programming of CT image reconstruction based on ART algorithm.

3. Conducting simulations to provide optimized parameters for CT fan beam projections and experiments to know the performance of the computer program.
CHAPTER II
THEORY

II.1. Physical Interpretation of CT Projection

A photon of intensity $I_0$ that emerges when a narrow beam of monoenergetic photons with energy $E$ passes through a homogeneous absorber of thickness $x$ can be expressed as [1]:

$$I = I_0 \exp \left[-\mu(\rho, Z, E)x\right]$$

Where $\mu$, $\rho$ and $Z$ are the linear attenuation coefficient, density of the absorber and atomic number, respectively. In the energy region there most commercial X-ray CT system are existing for medical tomography ($\approx 70$ keV), two types of interaction are dominant. They are photoelectric absorption and Compton scattering.

In photoelectric interaction the X-ray photon is completely absorbed by transferring all of its energy to an element. In Compton scattering, scattered X-rays undergo both a directional and energy change. By directing a monochromatic X-ray beam in the $y$ direction, for instance, the output X-ray intensity $I(x)$ can be written as:

$$I(x) = I_0(x) \exp \left[-\int \mu(x, y)dy\right]$$

Where $I_0$ and $\mu(x, y)$ are the incident X-ray intensity and X-ray attenuation coefficient, respectively. By taking the logarithm from above equation, projection data $p(x)$ can be obtained:

$$p(x) = -\ln \left[\frac{I(x)}{I_0(x)}\right]$$

$$= \int \mu(x, y)dy$$

Where $p(x)$ is equivalent to a simple integration or summation of the total attenuation coefficient along the X-ray path (i.e., $y$ direction). In digital form, above equation becomes:

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{i=N} \mu_i(x, y), \quad N = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, N$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{i=N} \mu_i(x, y), \quad N = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, N$$

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In X-ray CT the contrast is associated with the different attenuation coefficient of the material involved. Since each set of projection data represents the integral value of the attenuation coefficients along the path, the projection data taken at different views are the basic for tomographic image reconstruction. An example of a projection of four voxels in \textbf{x direction} can be seen below:

\[ I_1 = I_0 \cdot e^{-\left(\mu_1 + \mu_2 + \mu_3 + \mu_4\right)} \]

Figure 2.1. Attenuation process from initial intensity \((I_0)\) to final intensity \((I_1)\) of photons passing a slice of four voxels of total length \(x\) and attenuation constants \(\mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3\) and \(\mu_4\) respectively. Since the voxels thickness are the same, each \(\mu\) will be the value of a pixel.

\textbf{II.2. Radon Transform}

The mathematical principles of CT were first developed by Radon in 1917. Radon transform has proved that an image of an unknown object could be produced if one had an infinite number of projections through the object, we can understand the basic idea behind tomographic imaging with an example taken from radiography.

Projection function in Radon transform is interpreted as a set of line integrals of straight lines \((y')\) that projecting the object area by angle \(\varphi\). Each line integral, in practice, represents a physical property of a strip with a finite width which is determined mainly by the detector width. At each view a set of line-integral data is obtained. Complete projection data sets can be obtained by repeated assessment of the data round 180° or 360° with a specified angular indices.
The Radon transform equation is:

\[ P_\phi(x') \equiv R \left[ f(x,y) \right] \]

\[ = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x,y) \delta(x \cos \phi + y \sin \phi - x') \, dx \, dy \]  

\[ = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x' \cos \phi - y' \sin \phi, x' \sin \phi + y' \cos \phi) \, dy' \]  

Where coordinate \((x',y')\) resulted from rotating coordinate \((x,y)\) by \(\phi\) is:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
X' \\
Y'
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
\cos \phi & \sin \phi \\
-\sin \phi & \cos \phi
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
X \\
Y
\end{bmatrix}
\]  

\[ (2-7) \]

So, the initial \((x,y)\) coordinate related to coordinate \((x',y')\) will be:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
X \\
Y
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
\cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\
\sin \phi & \cos \phi
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
X' \\
Y'
\end{bmatrix}
\]  

\[ (2-8) \]

Since an object is a set of points in \((x,y)\) coordinate, Radon transform will map all points projected by \(y'\) into a new coordinate \((\phi,x')\). The result is a sinusoidal graphic which is a characteristic of a projection set of an object.
II.2.1. Parallel Beam Projection

If the projection line is replaced by a parallel beam, and the object is a matrix of pixels, then a pixel can be assumed as a big point with diameter similar as the beam width. In the sinusoidal graphic the parallel beam is now represented by a thin sinusoidal line, and the projection (y’) data value is represented by the scaled contrast of the line. The resulting sinusoidal graphic will be a set of multicontrast sinusoidal thin lines. This graphic is a projection data record of a CT projection onto an object, known as a Sinogram. Then, by backprojecting the Sinogram, a resulting image of the object can be achieved.

Since in Radon transform, each pixel identity is determined only by its distance to central point (k), then for easier interpretation, a rectangular object matrix can also be imagined as a circular matrix. A specific distance of pixels to the central point will be represented by a circle line. So the resulting imaginary matrix will be a set of circles with radius k, projected by $P(\phi, k)$.

Because in practical modern CT, thousands of both projections and matrix pixels will need massive computation of matrix operations, it will be inefficient to solve the Radon transform in spatial domain. Therefore the spatial domain coordinate $(x, y)$ is usually transformed first into a frequencial domain coordinate $(k_x, k_y)$. The symbol $k$ is popular as a unit in frequencial domain, where:

$$k = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \text{ (mm}^{-1} \text{)}$$

(2-9)

where: $\Delta x$ = a spatial distance unit (mm)
II.2.2. Fan Beam Projection

For fan beam projection used in the research, the Radon transform is not able to be applied directly because of two reasons:

i. A fan beam can not be directly assumed as a line projection.

ii. The reconstruction technique used in this research is Algebraic Reconstructive Technique (ART) which based on matrix operations where the object matrix is kept as a rectangular geometry in a Cartesian coordinate system.

To answer the first problem, with a set of mathematic details, Cho [1] had suggested a definition of a specified positioned fan beam of direction $\phi$ as a parallel beam. According to Cho, all projection rays of the fan beam can be defined as a function of the fan beam axis (a radius line between source and central point $(0,0)$). Then all the function of rays can be integrated as a single beam function. By the function, the beam of direction $\phi$ can be defined as a parallel beam which then by using Radon transform can be generated to all beam directions. Since they are beyond the scope of the research, the details are not mentioned here. However the idea of defining fan beam as a basic projection before generating it using Radon transform is very useful to simplify the algorithm developed in this research.

Related to the second problem, it is understood that Radon transform can generate projections only if the object matrix is transformed first into a circular shape. By this transformation, all intersection shapes formed between projection beam and the object will be the same and only one integral formula is needed for all beam directions. But for a rectangular object matrix, the intersection shape between projection beam and the object will much depend on the projection direction ($\phi$). There is no general integral formula that can stand for all $\phi$.

To solve the two problems of fan beam projection, the research suggested to use the symmetrical properties of a square matrix. If a square matrix was rotated by a factor of $90^0$, the shape of matrix would have repetition every $90^0$, where ever the rotation starting point was. So by defining a quadrant ($90^0$) part of a full circle projection ($360^0$) that projecting a rectangular matrix, the matrix then can be assumed as a circular object. This quadrant part is called here as a quadrant.
projections. After defining all possible intersection shape between all fan beam located in the initial quadrant projections, a general integral formula can be generated for other three quadrants. An example of the initial quadrant projections can be seen in figure below:

![Figure 2.4. A quadrant projections](image)

The quadrant projections will be the main technique of the reconstruction algorithm developed in this research to generate projection function for all directions.

II.3. Reconstruction Method

II.3.1. Filtered Back Projection (FBP) Technique

The Filtered Back Projection (FBP) or convolution backprojection algorithm is the most popular reconstruction method so far and is used in both transmission and emission CT. Its simple procedure of generating the initial projection for all projection angles, makes the reconstruction time relatively very short.

II.3.1.1. Projection Data: Unfiltered Sinogram

As described before, by using the Radon transform to generate an initial projection of \( y' = f(x') \) for all projection angle, \( \varphi \), a CT projection data function,
P(s, φ), is resumed as a sinusoidal graphic called a sinogram, which then can be backprojected to get the reconstructed image.

Since in FBP technique the initial domain of a sinogram is frequencial, direct backprojection of the sinogram will inverse the domain to be spatial. The domain transformation will cause a slight mathematical distortion which will be accumulated to become a blurring in the reconstructed image, called as a 1/r blurring. In FBP technique this problem is solved by adding first a filter function to the sinogram before it is backprojected. General equation of the estimated object function, f(x, y), in FBP can be written down as:

\[
f(x, y) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_s(x', h) \cdot \sin \phi \cdot \cos \phi \, dx' \, d\phi.
\]

where \( h(x) \) is the filter function.

II.3.1.2. Filtered Sinogram

In frequencial domain the 1/r blurring is interpreted as a function of frequencial distance unit (k = 0,1,2,3,..K) of the object points position to the center. Since the blurring function is divided in three categories of k value (zero, even or odd), Ramachandran-Lakhsmirayan [2] suggested an alternative filter function which will add different negative value for each of the three categories of k value. This filter function is called as a Ram-Lak filter. By applying the Nyquist sampling criteria with uniformly spaced \( \Delta x = 1/(2B) \), the sampled (discrete) version of Ram-Lak filter is:

\[
\begin{align*}
    h_{RL}(0) &= B^2 = 1/(4 \Delta x^2) \quad \text{(if k=0)} \quad (2.11a) \\
    h_{RL}(k) &= 0 \quad \text{(if k even)} \quad (2.11b) \\
    h_{RL}(k) &= -4B^2/(\pi^2 k^2) = -1/(\pi^2 k^2 \Delta x^2) \quad \text{(if k odd)} \quad (2.11c)
\end{align*}
\]

By convoluting this filter function with the projection function, then it can be safely generated for all projection angle, \( \phi \), to get a filtered projection data function, \( P_f(s, \phi) \), which is represented in a filtered sinogram. The sinogram then can be safely backprojected to a filtered reconstructed image. Although in the FBP technique, the Ram-Lak filter is simple and very effective to decrease general 1/r blurring, it can not completely solve the blurring caused by small density difference of two neighbouring object mediums (eq: tumour and tissue). Other
filter functions then can be used to solve this problem, like Shepp-Logan or Hamming filter function. So in medical application of CT imaging, the choice of filter function to be used in the FBP technique also considering the diagnostic priority of the CT scanning. A series of figures of a sinogram, its Ram-Lak filter and filtered sinogram can be seen below.

Using this filtered sinogram, a backprojection process can directly be conducted without any added filter. This direct backprojection process is a benefit of the FBP since the filtering process has been conducted along with projection function.
II.3.2. Algebraic Reconstruction Technique (ART)

The ART is one of some iterative techniques used in CT image reconstruction. Iterative techniques are often used in image reconstruction as an alternative reconstruction method. The ART was first of its kind based on the iterative procedures and was first used in the EMI brain scanner developed by Hounsfield. Currently the ART algorithm is used only in some specific application, such as the case of limited view angle reconstruction. Its relatively clear resulting image can compensate the drawback of its inefficiency computing operations. Therefore it is suitable enough for research and educating experiments which involve limited object matrix dimensions.

II.3.2.1. Projection Matrix

In an EMI scanner a parallel beam which determine a view (direction) of the projection will be measured by a detector array consisting of a number of detectors, which will determine the number of samplings of the beam. Each detector of the array will have its own projection data according to a part of the beam (photon intensity) that succeeded in passing the object medium of its path and strike the detector window. Since the X-ray source can be assumed as a point, each part of the beam that pass a small fan shaped track can be assumed as a small beam itself. A small beam here is simply called as a ray. So a projection beam (view) consists of many projection rays (samplings). A figure of three views of parallel beam projection of an EMI scanner can be seen below:
Since the research uses fan beam projection, a fan beam consisting of rays can also be figured from the above parallel beam description, as can be seen below.

Figure 2.7. A fan beam consisting of rays

A complete CT projection will have a total number of sampling data resulted from total number of projection rays (M). So there will be M known values of sampling data. Since a CT projection is meant to solve N pixels value of an object matrix, then there will be M known data used to solve N unknown pixels value. A matrix operation of a complete CT projection can be shown as below:

\[
W_{(M \times N)} \cdot A_{(N \times 1)} = P_{(M \times 1)}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
w_{11} \mu_1 + w_{12} \mu_2 + w_{13} \mu_3 + \ldots + w_{1k} \mu_k + \Lambda + w_{1N} \mu_N \\
w_{21} \mu_1 + w_{22} \mu_2 + w_{23} \mu_3 + \ldots + w_{2k} \mu_k + \Lambda + w_{2N} \mu_N \\
w_{31} \mu_1 + w_{32} \mu_2 + w_{33} \mu_3 + \ldots + w_{3k} \mu_k + \Lambda + w_{3N} \mu_N \\
\vdots \\
K \\
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\mu_1 \\
\mu_2 \\
\mu_3 \\
\vdots \\
\mu_k \\
\vdots \\
\mu_N \\
\end{bmatrix}
= 
\begin{bmatrix}
P_1 \\
P_2 \\
P_3 \\
\vdots \\
P_m \\
\vdots \\
P_M \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Computed tomography..., Ferdinan Manuel Siahaan, FMIPA UI, 2008
Where: \( W \) = projection matrix as the projection function (line integrals)
\( A \) = reshaped object matrix as the object function \( f(x,y) \)
\( P \) = projection data matrix of projection data function \( p(x) \)

Since projection data, \( P \), is a measured data matrix and object matrix, \( A \), is unknown, from the above matrix operation it is then understood that the projection matrix, \( W \), will be the main key of CT image reconstruction using the ART. An ART algorithm then must be started by solving the definition of projection matrix, \( W \), before a backprojection process can be conducted. And since there is still no ART algorithm of fan beam projection, the research must start all the ART algorithm development by solving first the definition of projection matrix, \( W \), as can be seen in the Chapter IV.

II.3.2.2. Backprojection: Initial Guess

From the matrix operation above, it can be interpreted as a simultaneous linear equations where there are \( M \) equations with \( N \) variables. But direct solving of the simultaneous linear equations with a simple backprojection:

\[
A_r = W^{-1}P
\]  

(2-13)

where \( A_r \) is the resulting image value, will yield a very noisy resulting image and is very inefficient for a massive matrix operation. Therefore in an iterative reconstruction technique, the direct inverting backprojection is replaced with a more ‘step to step’ reconstruction process which is started with a nearest initial guess of \( A_r \).

Since an inverse of \( W \) (=\( W^{-1} \)) consists of a matrix determinant and \( W \)-transpose (=\( W^T \)) and since the determinant is a complex parameter which will determine the gradient (difference) between \( W^T \) and \( W^{-1} \), the initial guess used in the research are taken by simply replacing the \( W^{-1} \) with its transpose \( (W^T) \). Then by filtering the first resulting image value, resulted from initial guess, in an iterative process, the final resulting image value \( A_r \), will be achieved. This filtering process is a converging process of adjusting the closest gradient of \( W^T \) to \( W^{-1} \), resulting closest value of \( A_r \) to its origin value \( A \). So if the initial guess of \( A_r \) is \( A_{r0} \), then:


\[ A_{r0} = W^T \cdot P \]  

(2-14)

where \( A_{r0} \) is an initial guess of image matrix value and \( W^T \) is the transpose of projection matrix \( W \).

### I.3.2.3. Blurring and Iterative Filtering Technique

Like the FBP technique, CT image reconstruction using the ART will suffer blurring in its resulting image. The blurring is naturally existing as a consequence of mathematical inverse when backprojection is started. Since in the ART, a backprojection process involved an inverse of projection matrix \( (W^{-1}) \), and since \( W \) is a spatial domain value, then inversing it will automatically change the domain to be frequencial. The changing of domain will cause a slight difference between resulting value and its origin, and when \( W^{-1} \) is used to solved the image value, the value will also suffer distortion from its origin. The accumulation of this distortion will be displayed as a blurring of the resulting image. So, like in FBP technique, the ART also suffer \( 1/r \) blurring.

Physical interpretation of the blurring function can be explained by a figure below:

![Figure 2.8.a. Four fan beam projecting a cylindrical rod.](image)

b. Backprojection of (a) will cause a star like blurring around the rod boundary

If the object value is defined as \( A \) and the resulting image is \( A_r \), then the blurring function \( f(b) \), can be written down as:

\[ f(b) = (A-A_r) \]  

(2.15)
Since original object value is unknown, in physical measurement, this $1/r$ blurring value exists as a difference between measured data and first simulated data values:

$$f(b) = \lambda(P - P_1) \quad (2.16)$$

Where:

- $f(b)$ = blurring function
- $A$ = initial object value
- $A_r$ = resulting object value after backprojection process
- $P$ = measured projection data
- $P_1$ = first simulated data
- $\lambda$ = an adjusted parameter

And from both above definitions of blurring function, the filtering process can be written down as:

$$A_r_1 - A_r_2 = \lambda(P_1 - P_2) \quad (2.17)$$

$$A_r_2 = A_r_1 - \lambda(P_1 - P_2) \quad (2.18)$$

And since from projection operation it is known that $P = W.A$, then:

$$A_r_2 = A_r_1 - \lambda(W.A_1 - P_2) \quad (2.19)$$

For general number of $j$ iteration, it will be:

$$A_r_{j+1} = A_r_j - \lambda(W.A_j - P_{j+1}) \quad (2.20)$$

This is the iterative operation for solving filtered image value, but above equation cannot be solved if $W$ is not a square dimension projection matrix (views $\neq$ samplings). To solve the problem, Van Cittert [10] suggested a ‘reblurred’ multiplier $W^T$ (W-transpose) to bringback the dimension of resulting matrix $\Delta P$ to be the same with dimension of the initial matrix $A_r$, and adjust a new $\lambda$ value. So the equation then can be generalized for any dimension of projection matrix $W$, as:

$$A_r_{j+1} = A_r_j - \lambda W^T(W.A_j - P_{j+1}) \quad (2.21)$$

This is the general iterative equation to achieve a filtered image started from initial guess value where $j = 0$. The $\lambda$ value will determine the convergence speed and stability of the process. A too small value of $\lambda$ will lead to slow convergence and too many iterations needed, while a very large value of $\lambda$ will make the process unstable with a wide range among successive iterations. By adjusting the right $\lambda$ value, a more converging value of $A_r$ will be gained without
too many iterations. The initial guess of image value, λ adjustment and the number of iterations needed are the main parameters of an iteration operation.

This iterative filtering process has been the main issue of CT imaging. Since a filtering function is an iterative process and the iterations number can reach thousands to achieve an optimal resulting image, the duration of a filtering process will play a major part of the whole reconstruction process. The duration of a filtering process will mostly determine the reconstruction time. So beside its benefit in image filtering process, an iterative technique will suffer a drawback of longer reconstruction time than another technique like Filtered Back Projection (FBP) which doesn’t need to conduct an iterative process.

II.4. Image Quality: Mean Square Error (MSE)

Since the research used simulated objects, to know the performance of the computer program, it can be analysed from both qualitative and quantitative point of view. Qualitatively, the analysis is conducted by simply observing blurring level of the resulting images and comparing the look of important small objects in the images. However as compared images are almost similarly blurred, then they will also need a quantitative value as a comparing parameter. A popular quantitative value in simulated CT imaging is Mean Square Error (MSE)/pixel which can tell relative error level of the resulting image. MSE can be counted from difference between image pixels value (ar) and object pixels value (a), as:

\[ \Delta a_k = a_k - ar_k \]  

(2-22)

Where:

- \( \Delta a_k \) = difference between k-pixel values of object and image matrix.
- \( a_k \) = k-pixel value of object matrix
- \( ar_k \) = k-pixel value of resulting image matrix

and Mean Square Error (MSE)/pixel will be:

\[ \text{MSE/pixel} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} | \Delta a_k |^2 \]  

(2-23)

where:

- \( \text{MSE/pixel} \) = Mean Square Error
- \( N \) = Number of object pixels
- \( k \) = pixels number = 1, 2, 3, ..., N
CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

To achieve the purpose of the research mentioned in the introduction, the methodology consists of:

1. Matlab 6.0 Programming:
   1.1. Algorithm: to develop the algorithm of a third generation CT image reconstruction based on Algebraic Reconstructive Technique (ART).
   1.2. Programming: to automate the reconstruction using Matlab programming based on the developed algorithm.

2. Parameter Optimization
   Conducting image reconstructions of a simulated object to optimize input parameters for best performance of the computer program. All simulations were processed by: a notebook computer, processor: Intel Core(TM)2 Duo CPU T7300@2.00 GHz, RAM 1014 MB. All projections based on a Third (3rd) generation CT projection design as figured below:

![Projection design of a third generation CT-Scanner](image)

Figure 3.1. Projection design of a third generation CT-Scanner

Simulations was conducted on four main parameters, which are:

2.1. Beam shape
Changing parameter: beam shape

i. Parallel beam of $M=20\times20$ projecting object of $N=20\times20$

ii. Fan beam of $M=16\times16$ projecting object of $N=16\times16$

2.2. Angular width

i. Beam: $(m_\beta, \Delta \beta) = 2 \cdot \arctan \left( \frac{a_0}{R + a_0} \right)$ \hspace{1cm} (3-1)

where:

$m_\beta =$ number of rays per beam

$\Delta \beta =$ angular width of a ray

$a_0 =$ half width of square object matrix

$R =$ radius of CT system

Changing parameter: $m_\beta$

- $m_\beta = 16$
- $m_\beta = 32$

![Figure 3.2. Angular width of a beam $(m_\beta, \Delta \beta)$ based on matrix width](image)

ii. Ray: $\Delta \beta = \arctan \left( \frac{d}{R + (a_0 - f \cdot d)} \right)$ \hspace{1cm} (3-2)

where:
\( \Delta \beta = \) angular width of a ray
\( a_0 = \) half width of a simulated square object matrix
\( R = \) radius of CT system
\( d = \) width of a pixel
\( f = \) a changing integer

Changing parameter = \( f \)
- Object of \( N = 16 \times 16 \) was projected for \( f = 0; 1; 2; 3; 4 \) and 5
- Object of \( N = 32 \times 32 \) was projected for \( f = 1 \) and \( f = 8 \)
- Object of \( N = 64 \times 64 \) was projected for \( f = 1 \)

![Figure 3.3 Angular width of a ray (\( \Delta \beta \)) based on a pixel width](image)

2.3. Reconstruction time \(( \bar{t} )\)

Reconstruction time \(( \bar{t} )\) was measured by a timer which is started as the backprojection program was runned and stopped as the resulting image had been displayed on the screen.

Changing parameter: number of pixels (\( N \)) and number of projections (\( M \))
i. \( N = 16 \times 16 \) and
• M = 16 x 16  
• M = 32 x 32

ii. N= 32 x32 and  
• M = 32 x 32  
• M = 64 x 64

iii. N = 64 x 64 and M = 64 x64

2.4. Number of iterations ( j )
Changing parameter: j = 0; 10; 100; 1000; 10.000 and 20.000

3. Experiment
3.1. Implementation of the optimized parameters to reconstruct an image of a Shepp-Logan phantom of:
i. N = 32 x 32 using M = 64 x 64 projections

Figure 3.4. A Shepp-Logan phantom of N = 32 x32

Changing parameters:
• Convergence speed (λ)
• Number of iterations (j)

ii. N = 64 x 64 using M = 128 x 64 projections
Changing parameters:
- Convergence speed ($\lambda$)
- Number of iterations ($j$)

3.2. Comparison of Algebraic Reconstruction Technique (ART) with Filtered Back Projection (FBP) technique.
Comparison parameter:
- Qualitative: blurring level
- Quantitative: Mean Square Error (MSE) / pixel

3.3. Comparison of Algebraic Reconstruction Technique (ART) with another iterative technique with different initial guess method (from [10]).
CHAPTER IV
ALGEBRAIC RECONSTRUCTIVE TECHNIQUE (ART)
ALGORITHM

IV.1. Third Generation CT-Scanner Projection Plan

In a simplified projection mechanism of a third generation CT, a wave of high energy electron ($\approx 70$ keV) emitted by the cathode of an X-ray tube is struck into the anode (made of heavy atomic number medium, eq. Tungsten). The physical interaction will cause the emission of a wave of X-ray (photon) beam with straight direction to a detector array that consists of a number of detectors ($m_\beta$). This photon beam is first shaped by a hole, called as a focal spot, producing a wide fan shape photon beam with a specific angle ($30^\circ - 60^\circ$). The fan beam produced from the focal spot then shaped again by a collimator to limit the thickness ($3^{rd}$ dimension side) of the target slice.

![Figure 4.1. A Third Generation CT-Scanner][22]

If succeeded in passing the target, the fan beam will be measured by a detector array. The measured data of the non projecting part of the fan beam will become a reference intensity of photon beam ($I_0$) while the measured data of the projecting part will become a projection data ($I_1$). The length of each detector of
the detector array are the same and will determine the angular width of a projection ray ($\Delta \beta$).

A position of the source-detector couple for one projection is identified as a projection direction/view ($\alpha$). After measured by the detector array and a projection data array is processed and saved, then the position of source-detector couple is shiftly turned by a small angle ($\Delta \alpha$) to get another projection data array. This shifting process is then repeated several times to get total number of projection direction from $0^0$ to $360^0$ ($m_\alpha$), and all saved array data will become total projection data (sampling data) of the target slice. A computer program of image reconstruction can be executed after all sampling data is completed.

**IV.2. Projection Data Matrix (P)**

All resulting data arrays are simultaneously put into a total data array, $P_{(M \times 1)}$, with $M$ is the total number of sampling data, where:

$$M = m_\alpha \cdot m_\beta$$

where: $m_\alpha$ = total number of views (beam projection directions)

$m_\beta$ = total number of samplings (ray projection directions in a beam)

Each sampling data is a logarithmic function of the relative photon intensity of m-projection ray.

$$P_{(M \times 1)} = \begin{bmatrix}
P_1 = \ln \frac{I_0}{I_{\text{beam-ray}_1}} \\
P_2 = \ln \frac{I_0}{I_{\text{beam-ray}_2}} \\
\vdots \\
\vdots \\
P_m = \ln \frac{I_0}{I_{\text{beam-ray}_M}} \\
P_M = \ln \frac{I_0}{I_{\text{ray}_m\text{-ray}_M}}
\end{bmatrix}$$

(4-1)

where: $P_{(M \times 1)}$ = a projection data array of $M$ samplings

$P_m$ = a projection data of sampling $m$

$I_0$ = initial photon intensity (measured by reference detector)
\[ I_{\text{beam-i ray-j}} = \text{measured photon intensity of beam-i and ray-j} \]

\[ i = \text{counter for beams (views)} = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, m \]

\[ j = \text{counter for rays (samplings) in a beam} = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, m_b \]

\[ m = \text{counter for total samplings} = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, M \]

IV.3. Object Matrix (A)

The target object is divided into many slices depending on the prior target size and diagnostic need. Every slice is put exactly at the center of an imaginary table that also put at the center of the source-detector circle. The table is divided by \( n \) rows and \( n \) columns forming a square matrix \((n \times n)\) consisting of \( N \) pixels. The CT system is then assumed to be a Cartesian coordinate system.

Each pixel of the matrix is a square resulted from intersection between four lines, which are: \( Y = y_s, Y = y_{s+1}, X = x_r \), and \( X = x_{r+1} \), with:

\[ d = \text{pixel width} = x_{r+1} - x_r \quad (r = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, M), \]

\[ = \text{pixel height} = y_{s+1} - y_s \quad (s = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, N) \]

IV.3.1. Pixel Numbering

Since in CT projection, the object matrix consists of pixels, identification of each pixel is the basic definition of an object function. The numbering order of pixel-1 to \( N \) can be figured as below:

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccc}
1 & 2 & 3 & \ldots & k & \ldots & n & \ldots & N \\
1 & 2 & 3 & \ldots & k & \ldots & n & \ldots & N \\
1 & 2 & 3 & \ldots & k & \ldots & n & \ldots & N \\
1 & 2 & 3 & \ldots & k & \ldots & n & \ldots & N \\
1 & 2 & 3 & \ldots & k & \ldots & n & \ldots & N \\
1 & 2 & 3 & \ldots & k & \ldots & n & \ldots & N \\
1 & 2 & 3 & \ldots & k & \ldots & n & \ldots & N \\
1 & 2 & 3 & \ldots & k & \ldots & n & \ldots & N \\
\end{array}
\]

Figure 4.2. A matrix of \( N \) pixels, \( k \) is the pixel number, \( k=1,2,3,\ldots,N \)
To identify each pixel position in the Cartesian coordinate system, first the pixel number \( k \) must be defined as a function of its row \( r \) and column \( s \) number, and a definition of \( k \) is:

\[
k = (n-1).r + s
\]

where:  
- \( r \) = column number of pixels in object matrix  
  \( = 1,2,3,\ldots, n \)  
- \( s \) = row number of pixels in object matrix  
  \( = 1,2,3,\ldots, n \)  
- \( n \) = number of rows or columns of the object matrix

In Matlab programming, an alternative definition of \( k \) is used. A short syntax using ‘round’ function has been effective to number matrix pixels. The short syntax is:

```matlab
for k=1:N
    r=round(k/n-0.5001)+1;
    s=rem(k,n);
    if s==0
        s=r-1;
        s=n;
    end
end
```

Here the 0.5001 constant instead of 0.5 is used to make sure that all non-integer \( k \) values will be rounded down to smaller integer.

Although this Matlab syntax is already effective, the previous definition of \( k \) as \( f(r,s) \) is very important because later it will be the key of object matrix back rotation method used in the research.

If the width of a square matrix is \( 2a_0 \) and the width of a pixel is \( d \) then the coordinate of pixels can be defined as:

\[
X(r) = -a_0 + d.(r-1)
\]
\[
Y(s) = -a_0 + d.(s-1)
\]
IV.4. Projection Function

IV.4.1. Ray Linear Equation

A beam is emitted by a point source (S) which distance from central point 0\((0,0)\) is \(\overline{OS}\) (radius). The beam direction is \(\alpha\) which is defined as the angle between line \(\overline{OS}\) and \(\overline{OY}\). The beam consists of rays which each is shaped by two lines, defined as \(Y_1 = f(x_1)\) and \(Y_2 = f(x_2)\). The direction of a ray is \(\beta\), defined as the angle between \(\overline{OS}\) and \(Y_1\). Figure of a ray projecting a pixel can be seen below.

![Diagram of a ray projecting a pixel](image)

Figure 4.3. A ray projecting a pixel

The general equation of \(Y_1\) and \(Y_2\) are:

\[
Y_1 = m_1 x + y_{01} \quad \text{and} \quad Y_2 = m_2 x + y_{02},
\]

where:

\[
m_1 = - \cotg (\alpha + \beta) = - \cotg (\varphi)
\]

and:

\[
m_2 = - \cotg ((\alpha + \beta) + \Delta\beta) = - \cotg (\varphi + \Delta\beta)
\]
And if
\[ \overline{OS} = R, \]
then:
\[ y_{01} = R.(\cos(\alpha) + m_1.\sin(\alpha)) \]
\[ y_{02} = R.(\cos(\alpha) + m_2.\sin(\alpha)) \]

where:
\[ y_{01} \text{ ordinate of intersection point between } Y_1 \text{ and } X=0 \]
\[ y_{02} \text{ ordinate of intersection point between } Y_2 \text{ and } X=0 \]

IV.4.2. Intersection Points

The position of intersection points (a,b,c,d,e,f,g and h) will determine the
intersection shape, where:
- \(a (x_{\text{a}},y_{s+1})\) : intersection point between \(Y_1\) and \(Y = y_{s+1}\)
- \(b (x_{\text{b}},y_{s+1})\) : intersection point between \(Y_2\) and \(Y = y_{s+1}\)
- \(c (x_{\text{c}},y_{s})\) : intersection point between \(Y_1\) and \(X = x_r\)
- \(d (x_{\text{d}},y_{s})\) : intersection point between \(Y_2\) and \(X = x_r\)
- \(e (x_{\text{e}},y_{s})\) : intersection point between \(Y_1\) and \(Y = y_r\)
- \(f (x_{\text{f}},y_{s})\) : intersection point between \(Y_2\) and \(Y = y_r\)
- \(g (x_{r+1},y_{g})\) : intersection point between \(Y_1\) and \(X = x_{r+1}\)
- \(h (x_{r+1},y_{h})\) : intersection point between \(Y_2\) and \(X = x_{r+1}\)

And definition of intersection points can be solved as:
\[ x_{\text{a}} = \frac{1}{m_1}(y_{s+1} - y_{01}) \]
\[ x_{\text{b}} = \frac{1}{m_2}(y_{s+1} - y_{02}) \]
\[ x_{\text{c}} = \frac{1}{m_1}(y_{s} - y_{01}) \]
\[ x_{\text{f}} = \frac{1}{m_2}(y_{s} - y_{01}) \]
\[ y_{\text{c}} = m_1 x_{\text{c}} + y_{01} \]
\[ y_{\text{d}} = m_2 x_{\text{d}} + y_{02} \]
\[ y_{\text{g}} = m_1 x_{r+1} + y_{01} \]
\[ y_{\text{h}} = m_2 x_{r+1} + y_{02} \]
IV.4.3. Intersection Shape

The most important step of defining a projection function is the identification of all possible intersection shapes between a ray and a pixel. Since it is the ray direction that will determine the shape and since the direction of a ray is a combination of beam direction ($\alpha$) and ray direction referenced to the beam ($\beta$), so the direction of ray will be determined by the addition of both angle ($\varphi = \alpha + \beta$). So the ray direction is identical with $\varphi$ and it will be categorized by the angle.

Since for each quadrant, the most complete ray directions of a beam is existing for beam direction of $\alpha = 0^0$, $90^0$, $180^0$ and $270^0$, then one of these four beam direction will be able to represent all ray directions. For practical reason, the beam direction of $\alpha = 90^0$ is taken here as the reference to categorize ray directions, as seen in figure below:

![Figure 4.4. A beam direction of $\alpha = 90^0$, with three categories of ray direction](image)

As seen in above figure there are three ray direction categories of:

1. $0 < \varphi < (\pi/2 - \Delta\beta)$
2. $(\pi/2 - \Delta\beta) \leq \varphi \leq (\pi/2)$
3. $(\pi/2) < \varphi < (\pi - \Delta\beta)$

Each category can be seen clearly in three separated figures below:
Figure 4.5a. Direction category 1: $0 < \Phi < (\pi/2 - \Delta\beta)$

Figure 4.5b. Direction category 2: $(\pi/2 - \Delta\beta) \leq \Phi \leq (\pi/2)$
Each direction of ray will determine the slope of the ray which then can be used to define the position of intersection points. As can be seen in above figures, the intersection points of a, b, e and f respectively will have three possible positions referenced to range of \( x = x(r) \rightarrow x(r+1) \), which are:

a. \( x_n = x_1 \), if \( x_n < x(r) \)

b. \( x_n = x_2 \), if \( x(r) < x_n < x(r+1) \)

c. \( x_n = x_3 \), if \( x(r+1) < x_n \)

By combining all possible positions of the four intersection points, then total number of all possible combinations will be:

\[
x_{a1-3}; x_{b1-3}; x_{e1-3}; x_{f1-3} = x_{an} \cap x_{bn} \cap x_{en} \cap x_{fn} = 3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 = 81 \text{ combinations}
\]

Then by implementing slope conditions to each direction category, these combinations can be sorted to get final combinations of the intersections points position that fulfill the conditions. An example for the resulting tables of the sorting for category 1 can be seen in the table A1 at Appendices. Using this tables, all intersection shapes of the three categories can be defined. By illustrating the shapes figures from their definitions, the area of the shapes then
can be solved as described in the next section. All resulting shapes illustration figures and their area for each category can be seen in table A2 at Appendices.

IV.4.4. Intersection Area

The area of intersection shape of figure 4.3 can be solved by subtracting the main area \((w_U)\) by both top and under rest area \((w_a\) and \(w_b\) respectively):

\[
\begin{align*}
  w_U &= \int_{x_{r1}}^{x_{r2}} (Y_2 - Y_1) \, dx = \int_{x_{r1}}^{x_{r2}} \{(m_2x + y_{02}) - (m_1x + y_{01})\} \, dx \\
  &= \frac{1}{2} (m_2 - m_1)(x_{r2}^2 - x_{r1}^2) + (y_{02} - y_{01})(x_{r2} - x_{r1})
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
  w_a &= \int_{x_{s1}}^{x_{s2}} (Y_2 - Y_{s+1}) \, dx = \int_{x_{r1}}^{x_{s2}} \{(m_2x + y_{02}) - y_{s+1}\} \, dx \\
  &= \frac{1}{2} (m_2)(x_{s2} - x_{s1}^2) + (y_{02} - y_{s+1})(x_{s2} - x_{s1})
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
  w_b &= \int_{x_{e1}}^{x_{e2}} (Y_1 - Y_{1i}) \, dx = \int_{x_{e1}}^{x_{e2}} \{y_{s} - (m_1x + y_{01})\} \, dx \\
  &= \frac{1}{2} (m_1)(x_{e2}^2 - x_{e1}^2) + (y_{s} - y_{01})(x_{e2} - x_{e1})
\end{align*}
\]

And the projection function element of a ray projecting a pixel can be solved as the intersection area between the two as:

\[
w = w_U - (w_a + w_b)
\]

Since intersection shape of a hexagonal geometry is the most complex shape with top and bottom rest area, this shape will become the reference shape for solving a general area integral formula. Other intersection geometry will be less complete. So from the resulting area integral formula above, a general formula can be solved by simply changing all area integral limits to general limits. And the general area integral formula in definitive form will be:

\[
\begin{align*}
  w_U &= \frac{1}{2} (m_2 - m_1)(x_{2U}^2 - x_{1U}^2) + (y_{02} - y_{01})(x_{2U} - x_{1U}) \\
  w_a &= \frac{1}{2} (m_2)(x_{2a}^2 - x_{1a}^2) + (y_{02} - y_{s+1})(x_{2a} - x_{1a}) \\
  w_b &= \frac{1}{2} (m_1)(x_{2b}^2 - x_{1b}^2) + (y_{s} - y_{01})(x_{2b} - x_{1b})
\end{align*}
\]

And

\[
w = w_U - (w_a + w_b)
\]

Where:
\[ x_{1U} = \text{first integral limit of } w_U \]
\[ x_{2U} = \text{second integral limit of } w_U \]
\[ x_{1a} = \text{first integral limit of } w_1 \]
\[ x_{2a} = \text{second integral limit of } w \]
\[ x_{1b} = \text{first integral limit of } w_1 \]
\[ x_{2b} = \text{second integral limit of } w_U \]

By defining the area integral limits of all possible intersection shapes of the three projection direction categories (1, 2 and 3 respectively), this general area integral formula becomes a general projection function for the three categories.

**IV.5. Initial Quadrant Projections**

Since a square matrix has four symmetrical properties (horizontal, vertical and two diagonals), then by dividing the matrix to four quadrants, it can be assumed as a circle consisting of four equal shape geometries. Then by solving the definition of all projections in the initial quadrant, it can be generated for other three quadrants. The question is which part of the projection circle will be the initial quadrant with minimal number of definitions.

To answer the question, the reference parameter used here is the beam direction. By choosing a right beam direction of any quadrant, the ray directions of the chosen beam should be able to represent all ray directions existing in a quadrant. This is the representative requirement of the beam. This represented quadrant then will become the initial quadrant.

By a simple logic it can be found that the representative requirement is met by four beam directions of \( \alpha = 0^0, 90^0, 180^0 \) and \( 270^0 \). For practical reason the beam direction of \( 90^0 \) is chosen in the research. The beam direction can be seen as below:
Figure 4.6. A representative beam direction of $\alpha = 90^0$

With this position, the beam has all three ray directions ($\varphi$) of category 1, 2 and 3 mentioned before. And as can be seen in the figure 2.4, these direction categories can represent all possible ray directions of the quadrant limited by diagonals of $\alpha = 45^0$ to $\alpha = 135^0$. This quadrant will be the initial quadrant (Quadrant 1) and following $\alpha$ direction the next quadrants will be quadrant 2, 3 and 4 respectively. All quadrants position can be seen in figure below.

Figure 4.7 Four quadrants positions, Quadrant 1 is the initial quadrant.
From the figure, the angular width of each quadrant will be:

i. Quadrant 1: $45^0 \leq \alpha < 135^0$
ii. Quadrant 2: $135^0 \leq \alpha < 225^0$
iii. Quadrant 3: $225^0 \leq \alpha < 315^0$
iv. Quadrant 4: $315^0 \leq \alpha < 45^0$

After the initial quadrant is solved, then all ray projection directions of this quadrant can be categorized into the three categories (1, 2 and 3) mentioned before. So the general area integral formula of these categories will become projection function of the initial quadrant.

**IV.6. Radon Transform: Imaginary Object Matrix Back Rotation**

After solving the projection function of Quadrant 1, according to Radon transform the area integral formula now can be generated by simply rotating the initial quadrant beams to next quadrant, but even though the geometry of resulting intersection shapes are the same, the coordinate of intersection points will change. It means the intersection points $(a,b,c,d,e,f,g,h)$ will be different, so the result of area integral formula will be different and it is fail to be generated.

The answer to the problem is an imaginary object matrix back rotation while the quadrant projections stay still. Since the rectangular object matrix now can be assumed as a circle, then rotating the quadrant beams to one direction while the object matrix stays still is the same as rotating the object matrix by a factor of $90^0$ to opposite direction while the quadrant beams stay still.
Figure 4.8. Rotating a quadrant projections when the object matrix is fixed (left) is the same as rotating object matrix to opposite direction by a factor of 90° when the quadrant projections is fixed (right).

If the initial coordinate of object matrix is the same as the resulting projection coordinate \((X', Y')\) and the resulting coordinate of \(\phi\) rotated object matrix is the same as the initial projection coordinate \((X, Y)\) then according to Radon Transform:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
X' \\
Y'
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
\cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\
\sin \phi & \cos \phi
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
X \\
Y
\end{bmatrix}
\]

And since the coordinate of pixels is \((X(r), Y(s))\), the imaginary new pixels coordinate will be:

\[
X(r) = X'(r) \cos(\phi) - Y'(s) \sin(\phi)
\]
\[
Y(s) = X'(r) \sin(\phi) + Y'(s) \cos(\phi)
\]

And since the resulting projection coordinate \((X', Y')\) is fixed in Quadrant 1, the resulting projection coordinate will be always be the same as \((X(r_1), Y(s_1))\). And the equation can be rewritten as:

\[
X(r) = X(r_1) \cos(\phi) - Y(s_1) \sin(\phi)
\]
\[
Y(s) = X(r_1) \sin(\phi) + Y(s_1) \cos(\phi)
\]

And now by using this new pixels coordinate, new quadrant pixels number of \(k_q\) \((q = 1, 2, 3, 4)\) can be defined and the \(\phi\) rotated object matrix coordinate now has been adjusted.

**IV.6.1. A Quadrant – Object Matrix Back Rotation**
Rotating all beams of Quadrant 1 to Quadrant 2 is the same as rotating the object matrix to opposite direction by \( \varphi = -90^\circ \) when the beams are fixed. The previous columns/rows of the matrix in Quadrant 1 will become the rows/columns on Quadrant 4. And the new coordinate of pixels will be:

\[
\begin{align*}
X(r_4) &= X(r_1) \cdot \cos(-90^\circ) - Y(s_1) \cdot \sin(-90^\circ) \\
Y(s_4) &= X(r_1) \cdot \sin(-90^\circ) - Y(s_1) \cdot \cos(-90^\circ)
\end{align*}
\]

So:
\[
\begin{align*}
X(r_4) &= Y(s_1) \\
Y(s_4) &= -X(r_1)
\end{align*}
\]
resulting:
\[
\begin{align*}
r_4 &= s_1 \\
s_4 &= -r_1
\end{align*}
\]
where: 
- \( r_4 \) = imaginary columns number in Quadrant 4
- \( s_4 \) = imaginary rows number in Quadrant 4
- \( s_1 \) = original rows number in Quadrant 1
- \( r_1 \) = original columns number in Quadrant 1

And by defining \( k = f(r,s) \), pixels number in Quadrant 4 (\( k_4 \)) can be easily defined as a function of initial \((r_1,s_1)\) as:
\[
k_4 = (n \cdot s_1 - r_1) + 1
\]
where: \( n \) = number of rows/columns. \( k_4 \) = imaginary pixels number in Quadrant 4

### IV.6.2. A Half Circle – Object Matrix Back Rotation

After projection function of Quadrant 4 have been solved, the object matrix now can proceed the rotation to Quadrant 3 and 2 and pixels number of the quadrants can be defined as in previous process.

But more efficient way is suggested here by a half circle rotation of object matrix. By putting back both the object matrix and the two quadrant beams to its original position in Quadrant 1, the two quadrant (1 and 2) projections now become a half circle projections. And by the same logic as the quadrant projections rotation, the object matrix coordinate for the other half circle can be solved by \(180^\circ\) back rotation of the object matrix. And using again the Radon transform for \( \varphi = -180^\circ \), the new coordinate \((X(r),Y(s))\) of object matrix will be:
\[ X(r_{2,3}) = X(r_{1,4}).\cos(-180^\circ) - Y(s_{1,4}).\sin(-180^\circ) \]
\[ Y(s_{2,3}) = X(r_{1,4}).\sin(-180^\circ) - Y(s_{4,1}).\cos(-180^\circ) \]

So:
\[ X(r_{23}) = -X(r_{14}) \]
\[ Y(r_{23}) = -Y(r_{14}) \]

resulting:
\[ r_{2,3} = -r_{1,4} \]
\[ s_{2,3} = -s_{1,4} \]

And by defining \( k_{23} \) as a function of the initial \((r_{1,4}, s_{1,4})\) and since \( k_{1,4} \) is the same as the initial \( k_i \) then it can be found that:
\[ k_{23} = -k_{14} \]

And since it is impossible for pixels number \( k \) to be a negative value, it can be interpreted that pixels number of \( k_{23} \) are taken by reversing order of \( k_{14} \). So since \( k_{14} = 1, 2, 3, ..., N \) then \( k_{23} = N, (N-1), (N-2), ..., 1 \), from which the definition of \( k_{23} \) as a function of \( k_{14} \) will be:
\[ k_{23} = N - k_{14} + 1 \]

where: \( N \) = number of pixels
\( k_{23} \) = imaginary pixels number of Quadrant 2 and 3
\( k_{14} \) = original pixels number (= \( k_i \)) of Quadrant 1 and 4

IV.7. Projection Matrix

After solving all the resulting pixels number of the imaginary \( \varphi \) rotated object matrix, then a projection function for all quadrants have been solved. It will be in form of a three dimension projection matrix \( W_{(m_\alpha \times m_\beta \times N)} \), which elements are \( w_{i,j,k} \) where:
\[ i = \text{counter for beam directions } (\alpha) \]
\[ = 1, 2, 3, ..., m_\alpha \]
\[ j = \text{counter for ray directions in a beam } (\beta) \]
\[ = 1, 2, 3, ..., m_\beta \]
\[ k = \text{pixels number } \]
\[ = 1, 2, 3, ..., N \]

And: \( m_\alpha = \text{total number of beam directions} \)
\( m_\beta = \text{total number of ray directions in a beam} \)

To be used in a backprojection matrix operation, the 3D projection matrix, \( W_{(m_\alpha \times m_\beta \times k)} \), must be first reshaped to a 2D matrix, \( W_{(m_\alpha \times m_\beta \times k)} \), and the element notation is redefined from \( w_{ij,k} \) to \( w_{ij,k} \). The resulting 2D matrix will be:

\[
W_{(m_\alpha \times m_\beta \times k)} = W_{(m_\alpha \times m_\beta \times k)}
\]

Where:

\[
w_{m,k} = w_{ij,k}
\]

\( m = \text{row number} \)

\( = f(i,j) \)

\( = (i-1)m_\alpha + j \)

\( = \text{counter for ray directions (\( \phi \)) in CT system} \)
IV. 7.1. Initial Projection from A Projection Matrix: Practical Use

From the resulting projection matrix $W_{(M \times k)}$ above, it is unavoided that the initial projection of the CT projection plan will be the beam of $i=1$. So the initial projection of the research will be the beam of $\alpha_1 = 45^0$. But since in practical use, it will be mechanically difficult to start the projection exactly from $\alpha_1 = 45^0$, and since the rays of initial beam is represented in the matrix by the first rows of $i=1$, then by choosing the right $i$, more comfortable position to start the projection can be achieved.

The equation for renumbering the rows of a projection matrix to a new row number can be written down as:

$$m_n = m + (\alpha_{1n} - \alpha_i) / \Delta \alpha$$

Where:

- $m_n$ = new row number
- $m$ = previous row number
- $\alpha_{1n}$ = new initial projection direction
- $\alpha_i$ = previous initial projection direction
- $\Delta \alpha$ = indices of beam direction

For example if an initial projection direction ($\alpha_i$) of the research want to be replaced from $45^0$ to $90^0$ and if indices ($\Delta \alpha$) is $5^0$, then a new row number will be:

$$m_n = m + (\alpha_{1n} - \alpha_i) / \Delta \alpha$$

$$= m + (90^0 - 45^0) / 5^0$$

$$= m + 9$$

where: $m_n$ = practical row number

$m$ = research row number

The result of above renumbering operation is a new projection matrix which elements and their columns number are exactly the same as the previous, but with different rows number. From the example, changing the starting position from $\alpha_1 = 45^0$ to $90^0$ will change the initial row of the projection matrix from row 1 to row 10, while the order of the rows is still the same.
IV.8. Backprojection

Since the research used simulated objects, $A$, with known pixels value, then a first simulated projection data matrix, $P_0$, can be solved by projecting $A$ with projection matrix, $W$, as:

$$P_0 (M \times 1) = W (M \times N) . A (N \times 1)$$

Where:

$P_0 (M \times 1) = $ simulated projection data matrix  
$W (M \times N) = $ projection matrix  
$A (N \times 1) = $ simulated object matrix

Then using this first simulated projection data matrix, $P_0$, a first resulting image matrix, $A_0$, can be achieved by an initial guess:

$$A_0 (N \times 1) = W^T (N \times M) . P (M \times 1)$$

Where:

$A_0 (N \times 1) = $ resulting first image matrix  
$W^T (M \times N) = $ transpose of projection matrix $W$.

IV.8.1. Iterative Filtering Process

From the theory it has been mentioned that a backprojection process will cause a $1/r$ blurring which in the image is represented by the difference between each resulting image pixel value and its origin. An iterative filter function then can be started by determining an initial guess of the resulting image value, $A_0$, using the $W$-transpose ($W^T$) replacing the direct $W^{-1}$. This very blurred initial guess is then filtered (subtracted) by adjusted convergence speed parameter, $\lambda$, multiplied by difference between first simulated projection data, $P_0$, and second simulated data, $P_1$, resulting a first filtered image value, $A_1$, which is then filtered again by the same process resulting a second filtered image value, $A_2$. This iterative filtering procedure is then repeated again in a sufficient number of iterations to achieve an optimal resulting image, $A_r$. The step to step filtering process can be described as follows:

1. Initial guess:
\[ Ar_0 = W^T \cdot P_0 \]

2. First simulated projection data \( (P_1) \) will be:
\[ P_1 = W \cdot Ar_0 \]

Blurring:
\[
f(b) = Ar_0 - Ar_1 = \lambda . (P_0 - P_1)
\]
So:
\[
Ar_1 = Ar_0 - \lambda . (P_0 - P_1)
\]

4. Second simulated projection data \( (P_2) \) will be:
\[ P_2 = W \cdot Ar_1 \]

Blurring:
\[
f(b) = Ar_1 - Ar_2 = \lambda . (P_1 - P_2)
\]
So:
\[
Ar_2 = Ar_1 - \lambda . (P_1 - P_2)
\]

And for \( (j+1) \) iterations, a general filtering operation can be written as:
\[
Ar_{j+1} = Ar_j - \lambda . (W \cdot Ar_j - P_{j+1})
\]

And as mentioned in the theory, for \( M \) (projections) \( \neq N \) (pixels), above equation cannot be solved, therefore according to Van Cittert, the \( \Delta P \) should be ‘reblurred’ by \( W^T \) (W-transpose) to equalize the dimension with \( \Delta A \), while the \( \lambda \) value can be readjusted. And the resulting iterative filtering function will be:
\[
Ar_{j+1} = Ar_j - \lambda . W^T . (W \cdot Ar_j - P_{j+1})
\]

Where \( \lambda \) is a new adjusted convergence speed of the iterations. The number of iterations, \( j \), is tightly influenced by the chosen \( \lambda \) value. Accurate choosing of \( \lambda \) value will make \( Ar \) value converging fast and stable with not too many iterations needed. In this research \( \lambda \) will be simulated from 0.5 to 50 to know its influence to image quality and number of iterations needed.

IV.9. Otomatization: Matlab Programming

Using the definitions resume of reconstruction algorithm, a MATLAB computer program for CT image reconstruction can be created. The MATLAB version used in the research is MATLAB 6.0. The program consists of three (3) sub-programs which can be used independently. They are:

1. Projection function program which output is a projection matrix \( (W_{(M \times N)}) \).
2. Simulated projection data ($P_{(M \times 1)}$) program, replacing the practical measured data. $P_{(M \times 1)}$ is simulated from a matrix operation of:

$$P_{(M \times 1)} = W_{(M \times N)} \cdot A_{(N \times 1)}$$

where $A_{(N \times 1)}$ is the reshaped object matrix.

3. Backprojection program which output is a first resulting image ($A_{r_{(N \times 1)}}$). The algorithm is a matrix operation of:

$$A_{r_{(N \times 1)}} = W^T_{(N \times M)} \cdot P_{(M \times 1)}$$

Then filtered by an inverse filtering function described before, $A_{r_{(N \times 1)}}$ can be iterated to get:

$$A_{r_j} = A_{r_{j-1}} - 2 \cdot W^T \cdot (W \cdot A_{r_{j-1}} - P_{j-1})$$

where $j$ is the iteration number. The final $A_{r_j}$ then be reshaped again to become the final resulting image $a_{(n \times n)}$. 
CHAPTER 5
RESULT

V.1. Projection Matrix (W)

Each simulation on a simulated object of dimension \( N_{(mxn)} \) conducted will need a projection matrix \( W_{(MxN)} \). Each projection matrix can be runned independently, so it can be used to project any object matrix of the same \( N \) value.

To give graphic value of a projection matrix elements, two examples of projection matrix plot of \( W(256x256) \) and \( W(1024x1024) \) are displayed below.

Figure 5.1a. Plot of a projection matrix \( W_{(MxN)} \), \( M=16x16, N=16x16 \)

Figure 5.1.b. Plot of a projection matrix \( W_{(MxN)} \), \( M=32x32, N=32x32 \)
V.2. Parameters Optimization

V.2.1. Beam Shape

By comparing the images resulted from a parallel beam of 20x20x400 and a fan beam of 16x16x256 projections, it is obvious that resulting image of the fan beam is much sharper and the existing boundary line inside the image is clear compared to blurred resulting image of the parallel beam projection.

By understanding the spatial-frequency domain concept mentioned in the literature, it’s not difficult to make analysis of this result. Since each element value of \( W(M, k) \) is the area of intersection between a m-projection ray and a k-numbered object pixel, the value is in mm\(^2\) unit (spatial domain). Inversing \( W \) to \( W^{-1} \) will automatically change the domain to frequency. So the value of image pixels resulted from \( W^{-1}xP \), where P is a no-unit projection data value, will be also in frequency domain.

A parallel beam will intersect bigger area of an object than a fan will. Bigger area will result in a lower frequency which in turn will result in a smaller value of the image pixels which will cause darkened blurring in the image.

If the analysis go further to a ray-pixel scale, it can be predicted that sharper projection fan ray will intersect smaller area of an object pixel which will make higher frequency of \( W^{-1} \). If enough number of sharp rays are projected onto the pixel, then the pixel is defined enough to be reconstructed to be a clear and sharp resulting image pixel. But then there are two problems existing of the above analysis. Both problems are of how sharp the fan ray should be and what minimal number of fan rays will be needed to well define a pixel. Next simulation result is an alternative answer of those two problems.
V.2.2. Angular Width

From the reference it is recommended that the width of a beam projecting an object is somewhat similar with the width of the object. The recommendation is easy to be applied for a parallel beam projection. But to apply it in the fan beam projection is rather confusing since fan beam is diverging, so the projection width must be an angular value. The angular width will need a reference part of the object which width will be a reference width. And since a beam consists of rays and an object matrix consists of pixels, the angular width of beam based on object matrix width can be compared with the width of ray based on pixel width.

V.2.2.1. Beam Angular Width

If a beam direction is taken along X-axis, as seen in figure 5.3, there are three possible part of matrix that can become a reference width, which are:

1. Near side boundary
2. Middle line of the matrix
3. Far side boundary

From the beam shape simulation it is known that sharper beam means higher frequency and it will result in a more optimal resulting image. For that reason it is decided to conduct simulations only on highest frequency projection which is the beam number 3, which reference angular width is the width of far side boundary of the matrix.
From both resulting images of N=16x16 and N=32x32, it is obviously seen that both images are very blurred and can not be applied in practical used. Especially for N=32x32, the circle shape boundary are not very clear while the rectangular shape boundary at both edge of the matrix is already disappear. Therefore it can be concluded that this beam angular width based on object matrix is not recommended.

V.2.2.2. Ray Angular Width

If a beam direction is taken along X-axis, as the object matrix is put on the center of the CT system and the number of detectors is even, one line of each central rays of the beam as seen in figure 5, will go straight along the X-axis line. Unlike the beam-matrix case, there are more choices of pixels which width can become a reference width of the ray. And since rays width will be accumulated to be a beam width, the highest frequency rule can not be applied here.

![Figure 5.4. Possible reference pixels which positions along X-axis is a0-fd, where f is a changing value](image)

Due to efficiency priority, number of projection rays in a beam is limited. Therefore too sharp rays will cause a too sharp beam which then will reduce the field of view of CT system and there is a possibility that some object area will not be defined enough. By observing resulting image of the changing f (= 1,2,3,4 and 5) which can be seen in appendices, it is clear that among the five resulting images, there are two images that are obviously sharp. Both images are of:

1. f = 1
2. \( f = 4 \)

If an analysis is taken from the highest frequency rule, it is rather confusing that image of \( f = 0 \) (most far side pixel boundary) is more blurred than the two images of less frequency (\( f = 1 \) and \( f = 4 \)). As mentioned in the previous result, the answer of this phenomena is a possibility of less defined area of the object matrix. Using the most far side pixel boundary mean the ray is becoming too sharp and accumulating also into a too sharp beam. And due to limited number of views, this will lead to the existing less defined area of object matrix that will also cause blurring.

Back to the two optimal image, it can be seen further that the central blurred pattern of image of \( f = 4 \) is even more systematic than the central blurred pattern of image of \( f = 1 \). Since for object matrix of \( N = 16 \times 16 \), the pixel of \( f = 4 \) is located at the central half of the matrix and boundary of the circle shape figure existing in the image also located at this position, then by this coincidence an analysis can be made.

Due to the same boundary of the circle and the pixel of \( f = 4 \), the inner side of the ray is smaller then the pixel of \( f = 1 \), meaning higher frequency area in the circle and lower frequency outside the circle. By a combination between enough number of projection and rather high frequency, the blurred at circle inner side of the image of \( f = 4 \) is more systematic than it is of \( f = 1 \).

However it is difficult in practical use to know where the boundary of an important target organ will be located in a CT object matrix. For example, in a human head scanning it is almost impossible to know where exactly the target brain boundary will be in an imaginary object matrix of a CT system. So in this angular width simulations, it will be safe to recommend the pixel of \( f = 1 \) as a reference width of the ray angular width.

V.2.3. Reconstruction Time

The simulation of the reconstruction time is purposed to know the influence of both doubling object matrix dimensions and number of projections to the duration of reconstruction process. Both the resulting reconstruction time data and the resulting image of \( M \) projections onto \( N \) pixels can be seen in the
appendices. Here, to be easily analysed, the time data are transformed to backprojection speed value, since in an iterative reconstruction technique, the duration of backprojection process will take the major part of all reconstruction time.

Table 5.1. Backprojection speed (iterations/seconds)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M x N (projections x pixels)</th>
<th>10,000 / (\bar{t}) (iterations/seconds)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>256 x 256</td>
<td>222.22</td>
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<tr>
<td>1024 x 256</td>
<td>83.33</td>
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<tr>
<td>1024 x 1,024</td>
<td>15.15</td>
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<tr>
<td>4096 x 1,024</td>
<td>2.32</td>
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<tr>
<td>4096 x 4,096</td>
<td>0.56</td>
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</table>

And from table 5.1, a simple chart can be made.

Figure 5.5 A chart of backprojection speed vs number of pixels (N). The blue line is for \(M\) (projections) = \(N\) while the red line is for \(M=2N\).

From the chart, a brief analysis can be made. Since doubling an object matrix dimension from \(n \times n\) to \(2n \times 2n\) will automatically need the doubling of \(M\) projections dimension from \(m \times m\) to \(2m \times 2m\), due to \(M \geq N\) requirement, the number of both matrix elements involved in an iteration process will be raised to \(4 \times 4 (= 16)\) times from the original number. And if the \(M\) projections need to be doubled again from \(2m \times 2m\) to \(4m \times 4m\) to get a better resulting image, total matrix elements now will be raised again to \(4 \times 4 \times 4 (= 64)\) times from the origin.
This will explain why the chart has a logarithmic trend. Of course with more data for other dimension expansions, more accurate chart will be gained. However the above chart can give a prediction of how long a reconstruction of a doubled dimension object matrix will take.

Beside the time conclusion, from the resulting images another conclusion also can be made. By doubling again the projection number, consequently the reconstruction process will be much slower but more spatial and contrast resolution will be achieved resulting a much sharper image. So designing a CT projection plan will include a decision of choosing the priority between better resulting image or shorter reconstruction time which each will have its own benefit and drawback. Conducting these parameters optimization simulations will give better combination of designing parameters value of a CT projection plan.

V.2.4. Number of Iterations (j) and Filtering Process

This simulation is conducted to know the process of image filtering and the maximal number of iterations needed to give major contribution to the image quality. From the \( j = 0 \) iteration, it is proved that it’s not possible to conduct a reconstruction without filtering process. Since the research use an iterative technique, a step by step filtering is needed.

From the plot of resulting pixel value, it can be observed that significant result of the filtering process starts at \( j = 1000 \) and raise again to maximal value at \( j = 10,000 \). More iterations then will not make significant result to the image. As it can be seen for \( j = 20,000 \), the image quality has no significant difference with the image quality of \( j = 10,000 \).

So from above parameters simulations, it is recommended that optimal combinations of parameters value are:

1. To choose detector size which adjust the ray angular width to \( f = 1 \),
2. To double both number of detectors and views to get: \( M = 4N \), and
3. To conduct filtering process up to 10,000 iterations.
V.3. Experiment

For an obvious clear or blurred image, it is easy to review the result qualitatively, but for almost similar image quality, the effective way to review is by using a quantitative standard. The quantitative tool to review an image quality is the Mean Squared Error (MSE)/pixel. However, since the value only represents mean error of an image matrix, it can not tell the details of an image, and since a CT image is also meant to used by a non-technical person, a qualitative review by naked human eye is still recommended.

V.3.1. Qualitative

V.3.1.1. Object Matrix of N=32x32 and M=64x64 projections

- **Changing Parameter: Number of Iterations (j) for lambda (λ) =2**

  From the experiment results of N=32x32, it can be seen that for λ =2, the converging process was rather slow and it was still very blurred at 100 iterations. The image got much better at 1000 iterations and needed 10,000 iterations to gain an optimal resulting image. It can also be observed that the spatial resolution of the image was very good since the characteristic shape of Shepp-Logan phantom was still matched with the original shape.

  By careful observation, it can be seen that a minor blurring still existed, even at 10,000 iterations. The minor blurring located at two positions. The first blurring was inside the brain area and the second blurring was outside the head boundary. Related to the small tumours of the head phantom, the tumours shape was clear but the contrast was almost the same with their surrounding tissue.

![Figure 5.6. j =10.000 iterations, λ = 2](image-url)
However from the general point of view, it can be concluded that the resulting image for $\lambda = 2$ was clear enough to be recommended.

- **Changing Parameter: Lambda ($\lambda$) for $j=10,000$ iterations**

From the experiment results, it is obvious that the image of $\lambda = 1$ was blurred while the head shape was still very good. The inner blurring got missing along with the raising value of $\lambda$, but the outer blurring still existed and even mostly expanded at $\lambda = 5$. Raising again the $\lambda$ to 10 made both inner and outer blurring totally disappear and the contrast resolution got much better. Finally at $\lambda = 15$, the contrast of the image was almost perfect and somewhat similar with the original phantom.

![Figure 5.7.a. $\lambda = 5$, $j=10,000$ iter.](image1) ![Figure 5.7.b. $\lambda = 15$, $j=10,000$ iter.](image2)

So it can be concluded that minimal recommended convergence speed for this experiment will be at $\lambda = 15$.

V.3.1.2. Object Matrix of N=64x64 and M=128x64 projections

- **Changing Parameter: Number of Iterations ($j$) for lambda ($\lambda$) = 2**

From the experiment results it can be observed that the spatial and contrast resolution of the image was very poor until 1,000 iterations. At 10,000 iterations the spatial resolutions was even worse, due to broken lower and upper boundary
of the head shape, but the contrast resolution was much better, due to clear contrast difference between organs and background tissue. The small tumors shape were also clearly seen.

![Figure 5. 8.a. $\lambda = 2$, $j =1.000$ iterations](image1)

![Figure 5. 8.b. $\lambda = 2$, $j =10.000$ iterations](image2)

The poor spatial resolution was predictable since there were not enough samplings for the phantom. Compared to object of $N=32x32$ with $M=64x64$ projections/samplings, which means $M=4N$, this object of $N=64x64$ was only projected by $128x64$ projections/samplings, which means $M=2N$. So the phantom was not sufficiently defined. The above analysis become obvious at 10,000 iterations. Instead of becoming better, the vertical head shape boundary was getting broken, while the horizontal boundary was not. Back to optimizing parameters simulation analysis, it can also be explained that since the head phantom was elliptical (the horizontal boundary was closer to the center than the vertical), the ray width of $f=1$ could only maximally define the center part of the object matrix. The broken boundary showed that some area of vertical head boundary which located near the matrix edge was poorly projected. The above analysis can also explain why the center organs of the phantom got better contrast resolution at $j=10,000$. It also proves the reference theory, that an object image reconstructed by a fan beam projection will have better quality at center area.

- **Changing Parameter: Lambda ($\lambda$) for $j =100$ iterations**

  From the experiment results it is obvious that the spatial and contrast resolution change due to the raising $\lambda$ was almost similar with the iterations
experiment above. For higher value of $\lambda$, it can be seen that spatial resolution was getting worse but the contrast resolution was getting better. The analysis then will be the same with previous experiments. The concern here is that even the number of iterations only 100, for $\lambda = 40$ the tumors shape was even better than it was for $\lambda = 2$ at 1000 iterations.

![Figure 5.9.a. $\lambda = 2$, $j = 1000$ iter.](image)

![Figure 5.9.b. $\lambda = 40$, $j = 100$ iter.](image)

From above result, it can be concluded that for object matrix of $N = 64 \times 64$, the convergence speed of $\lambda = 2$, is still too small and it is better to adjust $\lambda = 40$. By this result, a further experiment was then conducted to know the result if value of $\lambda$ was raised again to 50 and the number of iterations was maximalized to 10,000. Below is the resulting image of the experiment:

![Figure 5.10. $\lambda = 50$, $j = 10,000$ iterations](image)
The result was predictable. For $\lambda = 50$ and $j=10,1000$ iterations, the contrast resolution was very good and the head organs boundary was very clear, included the three small tumours in the head phantom. However it is also seen that the spatial resolution was still poor, especially at the vertical head boundary, eventhough the broken was obviously reduced. From this experiment result, it is then recommended to adjust convergence speed to $\lambda=50$ for object matrix of $N=64x64$ and $M=128x64$.

V.3.2. Quantitative: Mean Square Error (MSE)

To give quantitative explanations of the qualitative image data, then it will need a standard parameter to represent the quality of the images. Below is a complete data table of the Mean Square Error / pixel of each resulting images relative to the original phantom. By using the data table, four MSE graphics can be made to get better understanding of the influence of raising the convergence speed, $\lambda$, or the number of iterations to the image quality. Both the MSE table and graphics can prove the previous qualitative data analysis.

From equation (2.21), the MSE is defined as:

$$\text{MSE/pixel} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} | \Delta a_k |^2$$

where:
- $\text{MSE/pixel} = \text{Mean Square Error}$
- $N = \text{Number of object pixels}$
- $k = \text{pixels number} = 1, 2, 3, ..., N$

And from a simple computation (which can be worked by a simple Matlab program), table 5.1 is achieved as:
Table 5.1. Mean Square Error (MSE) / pixel

<table>
<thead>
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<th>N=32x32, M=64x64</th>
<th>N=64x64, M=128x64</th>
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<table>
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<th><strong>ITERATION = 10.000</strong></th>
<th><strong>ITERATION = 100</strong></th>
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<td>2.09E-08</td>
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And from the above table, graphics of MSE vs iterations (j) and MSE vs lambda () can be made to get better overview of the quantitative result. The graphics can be seen below:
Figure 5.11.a. A Graphic of MSE vs Iterations for $\lambda = 2$.
Object matrix of $N=32x32, M=64x64$ projections

Figure 5.11.b. A Graphic of MSE vs $\lambda$ for $j = 10,000$ Iterations,
Object matrix of $N=32x32, M=64x64$ projections
Figure 5.11.c. A Graphic of MSE vs Iterations, for $\lambda = 2$
Object matrix of N=64x64, M=128x64 projections

Figure 5.11.d. A Graphic of MSE vs $\lambda$ for j = 100 Iterations,
Object matrix of N=64x64, M=128x64 projections
From above graphics, a general conclusion can be made that the decrease of MSE in MSE vs $\lambda$ graphic is faster than the decrease of MSE in MSE vs iterations graphic. It means that adjusting an accurate convergence speed, $\lambda$, is more effective than conducting so many iterations.

V.3.3. Comparison of ART and FBP Technique

Resulting Images of the FBP technique along with filtering function and resulting images of the ART developed in the research.

Figure 5.12.a. Unfiltered sinogram

Figure 5.12.b Ram-Lak filter

Figure 5.12.c. Filtered sinogram of (5.11.a.)

Figure 5.12.d. Resulting Image, $M=64 \times 32$, MSE = 0.0115

Figure 5.13. Resulting image of the ART developed in the research, $\lambda=15$ j=10.000 iterations, MSE=2.09E-08
It is obvious from the result that the image quality, both spatial and contrast resolutions, of the ART was much better than the quality image of the FBP. The analysis is not difficult, because the FBP here used a parallel beam projection and it much depended on the object matrix dimension, N, instead of number of views like in the ART.

And since in FBP, the filtering function is tightly related with the spatial resolution of the object matrix, and since parallel beam view is only limited in the range of $0^\circ$ to $180^\circ$, then adding the view of the beam to an unlimited number is not effective any more to the image quality if the object matrix dimension is not upgraded. It seems that maximal effective number of views relative to the object dimension is $M=2N$. More than that relative number, the Ram-Lak filter is not effective anymore, because unlike ART which more projection views means more definitions to pixels for more accurate initial guess in backprojection process, in the FBP where filtering process is conducted in forward projection, if the definitions of pixels are already enough, more projection views only mean more task for the Ram-Lak filter.

Good example of the above analysis can be seen in the figure below, where the projection views of object matrix of $N=32\times32$ is even upgraded from $M=64\times32$ to $M=128\times32$. The result is similarly blurred with the previous but from the MSE value, it is known that the image quality is even decreased.

![Completely Reconstructed Phantom (using 64 angles)](image1.png) ![Completely Reconstructed Phantom (using 128 angles)](image2.png)

Figure 5.14.a. Resulting Image, $M=64\times32$, MSE = 0.0115  
Figure 5.14.b. Resulting Image, $M=128\times32$, MSE = 0.0116

V.3.4. Comparison of ART and Another Iterative Technique

The comparing images are taken from the result of a mastering degree research conducted by Abbey Mukkancherry [10] using different iterative
reconstruction technique with different initial guess method. The iterative technique used by Mukkanancherry also used convergence speed, $\lambda$. But since the initial guess method was different, the convergence speed is adjusted at $\lambda = 0.5$.

Since all resulting images are reconstructed by a fan beam, it is obvious that both compared methods have the same purpose to achieve most effective value of convergence speed, $\lambda$, and its influence to the number of iterations needed. Below is the figure of resulting images worked by Mukkanancherry compared with resulting images of the research. The figure is taken from electronic copy of the thesis publication.

![Figure 5.15.a](image1.png)

![Figure 5.15.b](image2.png)

Figure 5.15.a. (top) $M=32x32$, $N=32x32$, fan beam, parallel source-detector geometry, $j = 1.000$ iterations (left) and $j = 10.000$ iterations (right). (from [10])

Figure 5.15.b. (bottom) $M=128x128$, $N=32x32$, fan beam, clamshell source-detector geometry, $j = 1.000$ iterations(left) and $j = 40.000$ iterations (right). (from [10])
First resulting image of the comparing method in figure 5.13a are very blurred due to lack of filtering process while the second is much better after the filtering process were added. And from figure 5.13b, where the source-detector geometry is called clamshell, the number of projections $M$ is 16 times of the number of object pixels. The changing parameter here is the number of iterations. Mukkananchery here wanted to show that by using the geometry, it needs only 1,000 iterations to gain a sharp resulting image, compared to 10,000 iterations needed by the previous (parallel geometry). While maximal sharp of the image then was reached by 10,000 iterations as shown in the second image.

Finally from the fig.5.13c, it is obvious that the resulting image of the ART developed in this research is proved to be the clearest image.
CHAPTER VI
SUMMARY

From the result analysis of both the parameter optimization and the experiment, general conclusions can be taken, which are:

1. The MATLAB program based on Algebraic Reconstruction Technique (ART) algorithm developed in the research has been able to be used as a simple CT image reconstruction program.

2. A fan beam is much more effective to be used as a projection beam than the parallel beam.

3. To get maximal performance of the ART algorithm developed in the research, the recommended optimized parameters of the research are:
   a. To choose the ray angular width of $f=1$,
   b. To double both number of detectors and views to get: $M = 4N$, and
   c. To conduct filtering process up to 10,000 iterations.

4. Since the research used the ART which is an iterative technique, it is concluded that:
   a. For object matrix of $N=32 \times 32$ and $M=64 \times 64$ samplings then a minimal effective value of convergence speed is $\lambda = 15$
   b. For object matrix of $N=64 \times 64$ and $M=128 \times 64$ samplings then a minimal effective value of convergence speed is $\lambda = 50$
   c. Adjusting the value of $\lambda$ is not easy since taking too small value will make the convergence too slow but taking too big value will make the convergence not stable, which can result wide fluctuation of resulting image quality.
   d. Adjusting an accurate $\lambda$ is much more effective than conducting too many iterations to get an optimal resulting image.

5. The ART developed in the research has proved to be an effective reconstruction method for limited dimensions of object matrix. Compared to FBP technique and another iterative technique the quality of its resulting images were even better.
6. The main drawback of the ART is the limited projections/samplings, \( M \), can be conducted due to its massive matrix operations in iterative process. To optimize the projection of an object matrix of \( N = n \times n \), the computer must be able to process projections/samplings of \( M = 2n \times 2n \).

7. A maximal effort should be done to find a mathematical solution for much shorter iterative process.
REFERENCES

Books and Manuals

Papers/Publications/Matlab Work


15. Dr. Warsito, Matlab Work for Parallel Beam Projection of 20x20x400 (2002)


21. CTsim - The Open Source Computed Tomography Simulator, www.ctsim.org

## APPENDICES

A1. Table of Intersection Points Position

**CATHEGORY 1: 0 < \Phi < (\pi/2 - \Delta\beta)**

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<th>No</th>
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<th>X_f</th>
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Computed tomography..., Ferdinan Manuel Siahaan, FMIPA UI, 2008
A2. Table of Intersection Shapes and Area

**CATEGORY 1**: $0 < \Phi < (\pi/2 - \Delta \beta)$

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### Category 2: \((\pi/2 - \Delta \beta) \leq \Phi \leq (\pi/2)\)

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<th>No.</th>
<th>Combination</th>
<th>Illustration</th>
<th>Trapezoid ((W_a))</th>
<th>Top Rest ((W_a))</th>
<th>Bottom Rest ((W_b))</th>
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### CATEGORY 3: $(\pi/2) < \Phi < (\pi - \Delta\beta)$

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<th>$x2u = \int (Y_2 - Y_1) ; dx$</th>
<th>$x2a = \int (Y_2 - Y_1) ; dx$</th>
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A3. Resulting Images of Parameters Optimization

1. Beam Shape

\[
\text{a. Resulting image: parallel beam}^{(*)}, \quad M=20\times20, N=20\times20, \alpha = 0 \rightarrow \pi, a_0 = (0,75).R
\]

\[
(*) \text{ simulated by a matlab work for parallel beam of 20x20x400 by Dr. Warsito [15]}
\]

\[
\text{b. Resulting image: fan beam,} \quad M=16\times16, N=16\times16, \alpha = 0 \rightarrow 2\pi, a_0 = (0,75).R
\]

Computed tomography..., Ferdinan Manuel Siahaan, FMIPA UI, 2008
2. Angular Width, $a_0 = (0.5).R$

i. Fan Beam Angular Width ($m_\beta, \Delta \beta$), where ($m_\beta, \Delta \beta$) = $2.\arctan \left( \frac{a_0}{(R + a_0)} \right)$

![Fan Beam Angular Width Images]

- a. Resulting image, $M=16x16, N=16x16, m_\beta = 16$
- b. Resulting image: $M=32x32, N=32x32, m_\beta = 32$

ii. Fan Ray Angular Width ($\Delta \beta$), with $\Delta \beta = \arctan \left( \frac{d}{(R + a_0 - f.d)} \right)$

$N = 16x16$

![Fan Ray Angular Width Images]

- a. Resulting image: $M=16x16, N=16x16, f = 0$
- b. Resulting image: $M=16x16, N=16x16, f = 1$
c. Resulting image: $M=16 \times 16$, $N=16 \times 16$, $f = 2$

d. Resulting image: $M=16 \times 16$, $N=16 \times 16$, $f = 3$

e. Resulting image: $M=16 \times 16$, $N=16 \times 16$, $f = 4$

f. Resulting image: $M=16 \times 16$, $N=16 \times 16$, $f = 5$
N = 32x32

a. Resulting image: M=32x32, N=32x32, f = 1

b. Resulting image: M=32x32, N=32x32, f = 8

N = 64x64

Resulting image: M = 64x64, N=64x64, f = 1
3. Reconstruction Time, $a_0 = (0.5).R$

- **a.** Resulting image: $M=16x16$, $N=16x16$, $\bar{t} = 45$ seconds
- **b.** Resulting image: $M=32x32$, $N=16x16$, $\bar{t} = 120$ seconds
- **c.** Resulting image: $M=32x32$, $N=32x32$, $t = 660$ seconds
- **d.** Resulting image: $M=64x64$, $N=32x32$, $\bar{t} = 4.200$ seconds
- **e.** Resulting image: $M=64x64$, $N=64x64$, $\bar{t} = 17.950$ seconds
4. Number of Iterations \((j)\): Filtering Process, \(a_0 = (0.5).R\)

![Plot of resulting image \((a_j)\) pixels value, \(J=0\)](image1)

Fig. A3.4i.a. Plot of resulting image \((a_j)\) pixels value, \(J=0\)

![Resulting image \((a_j)\) \(J=0\)](image2)

Fig. A3.4i.b. Resulting image \((a_j)\) \(J=0\)

![Plot of resulting image \((a_j)\) pixels value, \(J=10\)](image3)

1a. Plot of resulting image \((a_j)\) pixels value, \(J=10\)

![Resulting image \((a_j)\) \(J=10\)](image4)

1b Resulting image \((a_j)\) \(J=10\)

![Plot of resulting image \((a_j)\) pixels value, \(J=100\)](image5)

2a. Plot of resulting image \((a_j)\) pixels value, \(J=100\)

![Resulting image \((a_j)\) \(J=100\)](image6)

2b. Resulting image \((a_j)\) \(J=100\)
3a Plot of resulting image (a), pixels value, J=1.000
3b Resulting image (a), J=1.000

4a. Plot of resulting image (a), pixels value, J=10.000
4b. Resulting image (a), J=10.000

5a. Plot of resulting image (a), pixels value, J=20.000
5b. Resulting image (a), J=20.000

Computed tomography..., Ferdinan Manuel Siahaan, FMIPA UI, 2008
A4. Qualitative Experimental Data

1. N=32x32, M=64x64

\[ \lambda = 2 \]

\( j = 100 \) iterations

\( j = 500 \) iterations

\( j = 1000 \) iterations

\( j = 2000 \) iterations

\( j = 3000 \) iterations

\( j = 4000 \) iterations
j = 5000 iterations

j = 10000 iterations

j = 10,000 iterations

λ = 1

λ = 2

λ = 5

λ = 10
2. N=64x64, M=128x64

\( \lambda = 15 \)

\( \lambda = 2 \)

j = 10 iterations  

j = 20 iterations  

j = 30 iterations  

j = 40 iterations
$j = 50$ iterations

$\lambda = 2$

$\lambda = 5$

$j = 100$ iterations

$\lambda = 2$

$\lambda = 5$

$j = 1000$ iterations

$\lambda = 2$

$\lambda = 5$

$j = 10000$ iterations

$\lambda = 2$

$\lambda = 5$
$\lambda = 10$  

$\lambda = 20$  

$\lambda = 30$  

$\lambda = 40$
A5. MATLAB Programs

% PROJECTION MATRIX - THESIS
% CT PROJECTION PLAN
R   = 2; % CT-radius
mb   = 32; % number of rays in a beam
ma   = 32; % number of beams
dalpha= 2*pi/ma; % indices of beam direction
N  = 1024; % number of pixels of object matrix

% OBJECT MATRIX
n  = sqrt(N); % number of pixels in x or y direction
a0    = R/2; % half width of matrix
d  = 2*a0/n; % pixel width

%dbeta = 2/mb*atan(a0/(R+a0)); % width of a beam
dbeta=atan(d/(R+a0-d)); % width of a ray

% CARTESIAN COORDINATE SYSTEM
x     = [-a0:d:a0]; % x-axis,
y     = [-a0:d:a0]; % y-axis,

beta  = (-mb/2*dbeta):dbeta:(mb/2*dbeta-dbeta); % ray directions in a beam

% PROJECTION FUNCTION
M=0;
i=0;
for alpha   = pi/4:dalpha:2*pi+pi/4-dalpha % beam direction
i       = i+1; % counter for alpha
for j=1:mb % counter for beta
M=M+1; % counter for pi
phi(j)  = alpha+beta(j); % ray directions in CT system

% RAY LINEAR EQUATION
m1(j)   = -1/tan(phi(j)); % ray-Y1 gradient
m2(j)   = -1/tan(phi(j)+dbeta); % ray-Y2 gradient
b1(j)   = R*(cos(alpha)+m1(j)*sin(alpha)); % y(x=0)ordinate of Y1
b2(j)   = R*(cos(alpha)+m2(j)*sin(alpha)); % y(x=0)ordinate of Y2
for k=1:N % pixels numbering
r=round(k/n-0.5001)+1;

s=rem(k,n);
if s==0
  s=r-1;
  s=n;
end
x(r)= -a0+d*(r-1);
y(s)= -a0+d*(s-1);

% MATRIX BACK ROTATION, RADON TRANSFORM
% QUADRANT 1 TO 4
k4  = n*s-r+1;                       % pixels number in Quadrant 4
% QUADRANT 1&4 TO 3&2
k23 = N-k+1;                        % pixels number in Quadrant 2&3

% INTERSECTION POINTS
xa=1/m1(j)*(y(s+1)-b1(j)); % intersection: Y1 and Y= y(s+1)
xb=1/m2(j)*(y(s+1)-b2(j)); % intersection: Y2 and Y= y(s+1)
xm1(j)*x(r)  +b1(j)); % intersection: Y1 and X= x(r)
xm2(j)*x(r)  +b2(j)); % intersection: Y2 and X= x(r)
yc=m1(j)*x(r)  +b1(j)); % intersection: Y1 and X= x(r)
yd=m2(j)*x(r)  +b2(j)); % intersection: Y2 and X= x(r)
yg=m1(j)*x(r+1)+b1(j); % intersection: Y1 and X= x(r+1)
yh=m2(j)*x(r+1)+b2(j); % intersection: Y2 and X= x(r+1)

% SLOPE CONDITIONS (xa;xb;xe;xf)
xa1=(xa<x(r));
xa2=((x(r)<=xa)&(xa<=x(r+1)));
xa3=(x(r+1)<xa);
xb1=(xb<x(r));
xb2=((x(r)<=xb)&(xb<=x(r+1)));
xb3=(x(r+1)<xb);
xe1=(xe<x(r));
xe2=((x(r)<=xe)&(xe<=x(r+1)));
xe3=(x(r+1)<xe);
xf1=(xf<x(r));
xf2=((x(r)<=xf)&(xf<=x(r+1)));
xf3=(x(r+1)<xf);

% SLOPE CONDITIONS (yc;yd;yg;yh)
yc1=(yc<y(s));
\[
yc2=((y(s)<=yc)\&(yc<=y(s+1))); \\
yc3=(y(s+1)<yc); \\
yd1=(yd<y(s)); \\
yd2=((y(s)<=yd)\&(yd<=y(s+1))); \\
yd3=(y(s+1)<yd); \\
yg1=(yg<y(s)); \\
yg2=((y(s)<=yg)\&(yg<=y(s+1))); \\
yg3=(y(s+1)<yg); \\
yh1=(yh<y(s)); \\
yh2=((y(s)<=yh)\&(yh<=y(s+1))); \\
yh3=(y(s+1)<yh);
\]

% PROJECTION FUNCTION
if (\pi/4<=alpha)\&(alpha<3/4*\pi)
\[
x1u=0; x2u=0; x1a=0; x2a=0; x1b=0; x2b=0;
\]
% CATEGORICAL 1
if (0<phi(j))\&(phi(j)<\pi/2-dbetal)
\[
\text{if xa1&xe1&xb1&xf1} \\
\quad w(i,j,k)=0; \\
\quad \%W(M,k)=w(i,j,k); \\
\quad \end \\
\text{if xa1&xe1&xb1&xf2} \\
\quad x1u=x(r); x2u=xf; x1b=x(r); x2b=xf; \\
\quad \end \\
\text{if xa1&xe1&xb2&xf2} \\
\quad x1u=x(r); x2u=xf; x1a=x(r); x2a=xb; x1b=x(r); x2b=xf; \\
\quad \end \\
\text{if xa1&xe1&xb1&xf3} \\
\quad x1u=x(r); x2u=x(r+1); x1b=x(r); x2b=x(r+1); \\
\quad \end \\
\text{if xa1&xe1&xb2&xf3} \\
\quad x1u=x(r); x2u=x(r+1); x1a=x(r); x2a=xb; x1b=x(r); x2b=x(r+1); \\
\quad \end \\
\text{if xa1&xe1&xb3&xf3} \\
\quad w(i,j,k)=d0^2; \\
\quad \%W(M,k)=w(i,j,k); \\
\quad \end \\
\text{if xa1&xe2&xb1&xf2} \\
\quad x1u=x(r); x2u=xf; x1b=xe; x2b=xf;
\]
end
if xa1&xe2&xb2&xf2
   x1u=x(r); x2u=xf; x1a=x(r); x2a=xb; x1b=xe; x2b=xf;
end
if xa2&xe2&xb2&xf2
   x1u=xa; x2u=xf; x1a=xa; x2a=xb; x1b=xe; x2b=xf;
end
if xa1&xe2&xb1&xf3
   x1u=x(r); x2u=x(r+1); x1b=xe; x2b=x(r+1);
end
if xa1&xe2&xb2&xf3
   x1u=x(r); x2u=x(r+1); x1a=x(r); x2a=xb; x1b=xe; x2b=x(r+1);
end
if xa1&xe2&xb3&xf3
   x1u=x(r); x2u=x(r+1); x1a=x(r); x2a=x(r+1); x1b=xe; x2b=x(r+1);
end
if xa2&xe2&xb2&xf3
   x1u=xa; x2u=x(r+1); x1a=xa; x2a=xb; x1b=xe; x2b=x(r+1);
end
if xa2&xe2&xb3&xf3
   x1u=xa; x2u=x(r+1); x1a=xa; x2a=x(r+1); x1b=xe; x2b=x(r+1);
end
if xa1&xe3&xb1&xf3
   x1u=x(r); x2u=x(r+1);
end
if xa1&xe3&xb2&xf3
   x1u=x(r); x2u=x(r+1); x1a=x(r); x2a=xb;
end
if xa1&xe3&xb3&xf3
   x1u=x(r); x2u=x(r+1); x1a=x(r); x2a=x(r+1);
end
if xa2&xe3&xb2&xf3
   x1u=xa; x2u=x(r+1); x1a=xa; x2a=xb;
end
if xa2&xe3&xb3&xf3
   x1u=xa; x2u=x(r+1); x1a=xa; x2a=x(r+1);
end
if xa3&xe3&xb3&xf3
   w(i,j,k)=0;
\%W(M,k)=w(i,j,k);
end

\% CATHEGORY 2
else if (pi/2-dbeta<=phi(j))&(phi(j)<=pi/2)
   if yc1&yg1&yd1&yh1
      w(i,j,k)=0;
      \%W(M,k)=w(i,j,k);
   end
   if yc1&yg1&yd1&yh2
      x1u=xf;x2u=x(r+1); x1b=xf;x2b=x(r+1);
   end
   if yc1&yg1&yd2&yh2
      x1u=x(r);x2u=x(r+1); x1b=x(r);x2b=x(r+1);
   end
   if yc2&yg1&yd2&yh2
      x1u=x(r);x2u=x(r+1); x1b=xe;x2b=x(r+1);
   end
   if yc1&yg1&yd1&yh3
      x1u=xf;x2u=x(r+1); x1a=xb;x2a=x(r+1); x1b=xf;x2b=x(r+1);
   end
   if yc1&yg1&yd2&yh3
      x1u=x(r);x2u=x(r+1); x1a=xb;x2a=x(r+1); x1b=x(r);x2b=x(r+1);
   end
   if yc1&yg1&yd3&yh3
      x1u=x(r);x2u=x(r+1); x1a=x(r);x2a=x(r+1); x1b=xe;x2b=x(r+1);
   end
   if yc2&yg1&yd3&yh3
      x1u=x(r);x2u=x(r+1); x1a=x(r);x2a=x(r+1); x1b=xe;x2b=x(r+1);
   end
   if yc2&yg2&yd2&yh2
      x1u=x(r);x2u=x(r+1);
   end

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if yc2&yg2&yd3&yh3
    x1u=x(r);x2u=x(r+1); x1a=x(r);x2a=x(r+1);
end
if yc2&yg2&yd2&yh3
    x1u=x(r);x2u=x(r+1); x1a=xb;x2a=x(r+1);
end
if yc3&yg2&yd3&yh3
    x1u=x(r);x2u=x(r+1); x1a=xa;x2a=x(r+1);
end
if yc3&yg3&yd3&yh3
    w(i,j,k)=0;
    %W(M,k)=w(i,j,k);
end
% CATHEGORY 2
else if (pi/2<phi(j))&(phi(j)<pi-dbta)
    if xa3&xe3&xb3&xf3
        w(i,j,k)=0;
        %W(M,k)=w(i,j,k);
    end
    if xa3&xe3&xb3&xf2
        x1u=xf;x2u=x(r+1);x1b=xf;x2b=x(r+1);
    end
    if xa3&xe3&xb3&xf1
        x1u=x(r);x2u=x(r+1);x1b=x(r);x2b=x(r+1);
    end
    if xa3&xe3&xb2&xf2
        x1u=xf;x2u=x(r+1); x1a=xb;x2a=x(r+1); x1b=xf;x2b=x(r+1);
    end
    if xa3&xe3&xb2&xf1
        x1u=x(r);x2u=x(r+1); x1a=xb;x2a=x(r+1); x1b=x(r);x2b=x(r+1);
    end
    if xa3&xe3&xb1&xf1
        w(i,j,k)=d0^2;
        %W(M,k)=w(i,j,k);
    end
    if xa3&xe2&xb3&xf2
        x1u=xf;x2u=x(r+1); x1b=xf;x2b=xe;
    end
    if xa3&xe2&xb3&xf1

x1u=x(r); x2u=x(r+1); x1b=x(r); x2b=xe;
end
if xa3&xe1&xb3&xf1
  x1u=x(r); x2u=x(r+1);
end
if xa3&xe2&xb2&xf2
  x1u=xf; x2u=x(r+1); x1a=xb; x2a=x(r+1); x1b=xf; x2b=xe;
end
if xa3&xe2&xb2&xf1
  x1u=x(r); x2u=x(r+1); x1a=xb; x2a=x(r+1); x1b=x(r); x2b=xe;
end
if xa3&xe2&xb1&xf1
  x1u=x(r); x2u=x(r+1); x1a=x(r); x2a=x(r+1); x1b=x(r); x2b=xe;
end
if xa3&xe1&xb2&xf1
  x1u=x(r); x2u=x(r+1); x1a=xb; x2a=x(r+1);
end
if xa3&xe1&xb1&xf1
  x1u=x(r); x2u=x(r+1); x1a=x(r); x2a=x(r+1);
end
if xa3&xe1&xb1&xf1
  x1u=x(r); x2u=x(r+1); x1a=x(r); x2a=x(r+1);
end
if xa2&xe2&xb2&xf2
  x1u=xf; x2u=xa; x1a=xb; x2a=xa; x1b=xf; x2b=xe;
end
if xa2&xe2&xb2&xf1
  x1u=x(r); x2u=xa; x1a=xb; x2a=xa; x1b=x(r); x2b=xe;
end
if xa2&xe2&xb1&xf1
  x1u=x(r); x2u=xa; x1a=x(r); x2a=xa; x1b=x(r); x2b=xe;
end
if xa2&xe1&xb2&xf1
  x1u=x(r); x2u=xa; x1a=xb; x2a=xa;
end
if xa2&xe1&xb1&xf1
  x1u=x(r); x2u=xa; x1a=x(r); x2a=xa;
end
if xa1&xe1&xb1&xf1
  w(i,j,k)=0;
  %W(M,k)=w(i,j,k);
end
end
end

end

wu(i,j,k) = [0.5*(m2(j)-m1(j))*(x2u^2-x1u^2)]+[(b2(j)-b1(j))*(x2u-x1u)];
wa(i,j,k) = [0.5*m2(j)*(x2a^2-x1a^2)]+[(b2(j)-y(s+1))*(x2a-x1a)];
wb(i,j,k) = [-0.5*m1(j)*(x2b^2-x1b^2)]+[(y(s)-b1(j))*(x2b-x1b)];
w (i,j,k) = wu(i,j,k)-wa(i,j,k)-wb(i,j,k);

else if (3/4*pi<=alpha)&(alpha<5/4*pi)
    w(i,j,k) = w((i-(ma/4)),j,k4);
else if (5/4*pi<=alpha)&(alpha<2*pi+pi/4)
    w(i,j,k) = w((i-(ma/2)),j,k23);
end
end

W(M,k) = w(i,j,k);
end
end

disp('Save projection matrix with filename projmat_thesis_1024.m');
save(['projmat_thesis_1024','W'])

===================================================================

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load objmat_thesis -mat
load projmat_thesis -mat
A=reshape(a,1024,1); % reshaping object_matrix of 32x32 to 1024x1
P=W*A;
disp('Save projdat matrix with filename projdat_thesis');
save ([projdat_thesis],P)

load objmat_thesis -mat
load projmat_thesis -mat
load projdat_thesis -mat
Ar=W*P;
lambda=2;
iter=10000;
for j=1:iter;
    Ar=Ar-lambda*W'*(W*Ar-P);
end
ar=reshape(Ar,32,32);
disp('Save image matrix with filename immat_thesis');
save ([immat_thesis],ar)
imagesc (ar);
colormap (gray(256));
% MEAN SQUARE ERROR GRAPHIC
% ITERATIONS OF LAMBDA = 2

clear

% OBJECT MATRIX
a=phantom('Modified Shepp-Logan',32);
k=1:1024;
for i=1:8
    as(i,k)= reshape (a,1,1024);
end

% INPUT IMAGE MATRIX DATA
load IMMAT_thesis_32phantom_i100rayb_a2 -mat;
ars(1,k)=reshape (ar,1,1024);
load IMMAT_thesis_32phantom_i500rayb_a2 -mat;
ars(2,k)=reshape (ar,1,1024);
load IMMAT_thesis_32phantom_i1000rayb_a2 -mat;
ars(3,k)=reshape (ar,1,1024);
load IMMAT_thesis_32phantom_i2000rayb_a2 -mat;
ars(4,k)=reshape (ar,1,1024);
load IMMAT_thesis_32phantom_i3000rayb_a2 -mat;
ars(5,k)=reshape (ar,1,1024);
load IMMAT_thesis_32phantom_i4000rayb_a2 -mat;
ars(6,k)=reshape (ar,1,1024);
load IMMAT_thesis_32phantom_i5000rayb_a2 -mat;
ars(7,k)=reshape (ar,1,1024);
load IMMAT_thesis_32phantom_i10000rayb_a2 -mat;
ars(8,k)=reshape(ar,1,1024);

% MSE
das= abs(as-ars)
darv=das.^2;
for i=1:8
    sumdarv(i)=sum(darv(i,1:1024));
mse(i)=sumdarrv(i)/1024
end
save (['mse32_M32x32_lambda2'],'mse')

% GRAPHIC
iter = [100 500 1000 2000 3000 4000 5000 10000]
plot(iter,mse)
plot(iter,mse,'--rs','LineWidth',2,...
    'MarkerEdgeColor','k',....
    'MarkerFaceColor','g',....
    'MarkerSize',10)
%=================================================================