

# Tomography and Radon transform

Vladimir Sivkin, PhD

the HSE University, Faculty of Mathematics

28 March 2025

Mathematical tomography is a section of mathematics that describes methods for determining the structure of an object using scattering data. Such problems arise in microscopy, medicine, and technical control. In this report, we will write out the basic differential equation of X-ray tomography. In the course of its solution, the Radon transform arises. We will establish a connection between the Fourier transform and the Radon transform, and get acquainted with the methods of its inversion.

# Introduction

Tomography is a field of research dedicated to methods of reconstructing the structure of an unknown object from scattering data. Various types of tomography are known:

1. *X-ray tomography* is characterized by the use of X-ray photons as a probing instrument;

# Introduction

Tomography is a field of research dedicated to methods of reconstructing the structure of an unknown object from scattering data. Various types of tomography are known:

1. *X-ray tomography* is characterized by the use of X-ray photons as a probing instrument;
- 2a. *electron tomography* uses electrons as a probing instrument;
- 2b. *neutron tomography* uses neutrons,
- 2c. *neutrino tomography* uses neutrinos,

# Introduction

Tomography is a field of research dedicated to methods of reconstructing the structure of an unknown object from scattering data. Various types of tomography are known:

1. *X-ray tomography* is characterized by the use of X-ray photons as a probing instrument;
- 2a. *electron tomography* uses electrons as a probing instrument;
- 2b. *neutron tomography* uses neutrons,
- 2c. *neutrino tomography* uses neutrinos,
3. *acoustic tomography* uses sound and ultrasound waves as a probing instrument.

Tomographies that use waves as a probing tool are called *inverse scattering problems*. The following types of tomography arise in many applications:

- 1 medical applications (fluorography, radiography of various organs),
- 2 technical control (baggage control at airports, monitoring the distribution of isotopes at nuclear power plants),

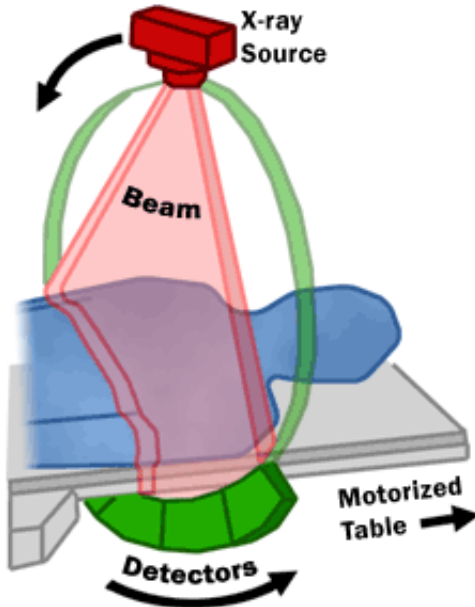
Tomographies that use waves as a probing tool are called *inverse scattering problems*. The following types of tomography arise in many applications:

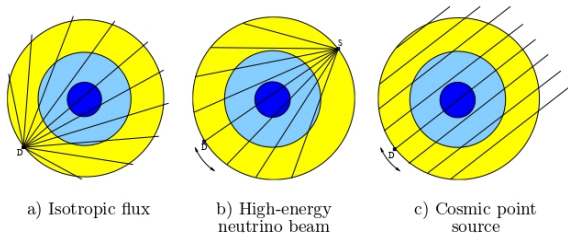
- 1 medical applications (fluorography, radiography of various organs),
- 2 technical control (baggage control at airports, monitoring the distribution of isotopes at nuclear power plants),
- 3 geophysics (almost all ideas about the internal structure of the Earth are obtained using tomography methods),

Tomographies that use waves as a probing tool are called *inverse scattering problems*. The following types of tomography arise in many applications:

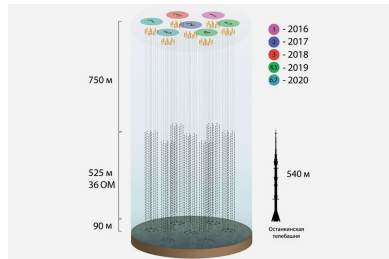
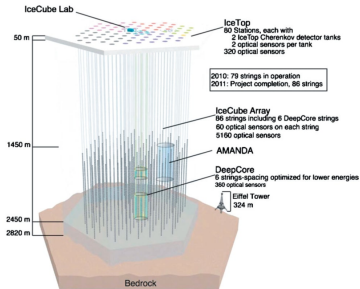
- 1 medical applications (fluorography, radiography of various organs),
- 2 technical control (baggage control at airports, monitoring the distribution of isotopes at nuclear power plants),
- 3 geophysics (almost all ideas about the internal structure of the Earth are obtained using tomography methods),
- 4 nuclear physics.







**Fig. 1** Three different approaches to “Whole Earth Tomography” using neutrino absorption. The lines refer to different baselines.



# X-ray tomography

The word *tomography* comes from the Greek words *τομος* - section, cross-section, layer, and *γραφω* – image, drawing. In tomography, the reconstruction of the structure of an object occurs, as a rule, layer by layer. At the mathematical level, in X-ray tomography, we are talking about the reconstruction of the *coefficient*  $a(x)$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$ , *the absorption of the radiation of X-ray photons*.

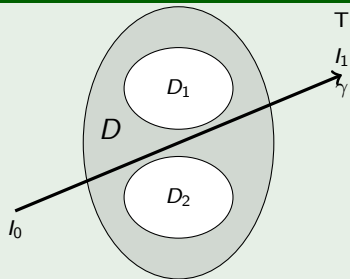
# X-ray tomography

## Example

Let us consider a model of a section of the human body at the level of the lungs. Let  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  be a convex compact (section of the body),  $D_1 \subseteq D$ ,  $D_2 \subseteq D$  be convex non-intersecting compacts (sections of the lungs). The absorption coefficient in the lungs and in water is slightly higher than zero and can be approximately considered equal to zero. In the part of the section of the body that does not contain the lungs, the attenuation coefficient of X-ray photons can be considered approximately equal to unity, which corresponds to the approximate value of the absorption coefficient in water.

# X-ray tomography

## Example

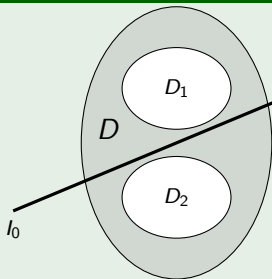


Thus, we assume that

$$a(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus D, \\ 0, & x \in D_1 \cup D_2, \\ 1, & x \in D \setminus (D_1 \cup D_2). \end{cases}$$

# X-ray tomography

## Example



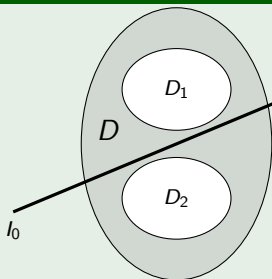
Thus, we assume that

$$a(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus D, \\ 0, & x \in D_1 \cup D_2, \\ 1, & x \in D \setminus (D_1 \cup D_2). \end{cases}$$

Let  $\gamma$  be an arbitrary oriented line along which X-ray photons propagate. Let  $I_0$  be the radiation intensity before passing through the body (initial intensity), and let  $I_1$  be the radiation intensity after the photon beam passes through the body.

# X-ray tomography

## Example



Thus, we assume that

$$a(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus D, \\ 0, & x \in D_1 \cup D_2, \\ 1, & x \in D \setminus (D_1 \cup D_2). \end{cases}$$

Let  $\gamma$  be an arbitrary oriented line along which X-ray photons propagate. Let  $I_0$  be the radiation intensity before passing through the body (initial intensity), and let  $I_1$  be the radiation intensity after the photon beam passes through the body.

We know the value of  $\frac{I_1}{I_0}$  for a sufficiently large set of oriented lines  $\gamma$ . We need to reconstruct the absorption coefficient of X-ray photons  $a(x)$ .



# X-ray tomography

One of the main formulas of X-ray tomography, which allows to formulate the mathematical problem of restoring  $a(x)$ , is based on the Beer–Bouguer–Lambert law and looks like this:

$$I_1(\gamma) = I_0 \exp \left( - \int_{\gamma} a(x) dx \right). \quad (1)$$

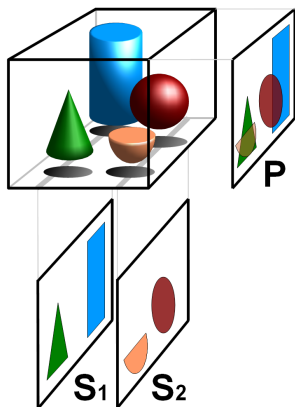
# X-ray tomography

One of the main formulas of X-ray tomography, which allows to formulate the mathematical problem of restoring  $a(x)$ , is based on the Beer–Bouguer–Lambert law and looks like this:

$$I_1(\gamma) = I_0 \exp \left( - \int_{\gamma} a(x) dx \right). \quad (1)$$

The mathematical foundations of X-ray tomography were given in the works of [Radon, 1917], [John, 1937], [Cormack, 1963], Gelfand and co-authors (in the 1960s and later), [Helgason, 1965]. In 1979, mathematician Alan Cormack and engineer Godfrey Hounsfield received the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine for the synthesis of ideas that led to the creation of the first X-ray tomograph.

# X-ray tomography



Beer–Bouguer–Lambert law:

$$I_1(\gamma) = I_0 \exp \left( - \int_{\gamma} a(x) dx \right)$$

source: wiki.

# Main differential equation of X-ray tomography

Differential equation

$$\theta \nabla_x \psi + a(x) \psi = 0, \psi = \psi(x, \theta), x \in \mathbb{R}^3, \theta \in S^{d-1}, \quad (2)$$

is called the *basic differential equation of X-ray tomography*. The parameter  $\theta$  is called the *spectral parameter*.

# Main differential equation of X-ray tomography

Differential equation

$$\theta \nabla_x \psi + a(x) \psi = 0, \psi = \psi(x, \theta), x \in \mathbb{R}^3, \theta \in S^{d-1}, \quad (2)$$

is called the *basic differential equation of X-ray tomography*. The parameter  $\theta$  is called the *spectral parameter*. We assume that the function  $a(x)$  is sufficiently regular and localized (rapidly decreasing at infinity). Now, we also assume that the function  $a(x)$  is known.

# Main differential equation of X-ray tomography

Let us derive the equation (2).

# Main differential equation of X-ray tomography

Let us derive the equation (2). Let the intensity of X-ray photons at point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  in direction  $\theta \in S^{d-1}$  be given by the formula

$$I(x, \theta) = \psi(x, \theta) \tag{3}$$

# Main differential equation of X-ray tomography

Let us derive the equation (2). Let the intensity of X-ray photons at point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  in direction  $\theta \in S^{d-1}$  be given by the formula

$$I(x, \theta) = \psi(x, \theta) \quad (3)$$

*The absorption coefficient of X-ray photons  $a(x)$  is defined by the formula*

$$-a(x)\psi(x, \theta) := \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\psi(x + \varepsilon\theta, \theta) - \psi(x, \theta)}{\varepsilon}. \quad (4)$$

On the right side the derivative in the direction  $\theta$  of the function  $\psi(x)$  is given. Assume the function  $\psi(x, \theta)$  to be sufficiently smooth. We can rewrite this definition of the absorption coefficient as an equation (2).



# Main differential equation of X-ray tomography

Let us consider a special solution  $\psi^+(x, \theta)$  of the equation (2), characterized by the limit condition

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow -\infty} \psi^+(x + s\theta, \theta) = 1. \quad (5)$$

# Main differential equation of X-ray tomography

Let us consider a special solution  $\psi^+(x, \theta)$  of the equation (2), characterized by the limit condition

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow -\infty} \psi^+(x + s\theta, \theta) = 1. \quad (5)$$

This condition is called *the radiation condition*. Such a solution always exists and is unique if the coefficient  $a(x)$  is sufficiently regular and localized.

# Main differential equation of X-ray tomography

Let us consider a special solution  $\psi^+(x, \theta)$  of the equation (2), characterized by the limit condition

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow -\infty} \psi^+(x + s\theta, \theta) = 1. \quad (5)$$

This condition is called *the radiation condition*. Such a solution always exists and is unique if the coefficient  $a(x)$  is sufficiently regular and localized. Let us define the function

$$S(x, \theta) := \lim_{s \rightarrow +\infty} \psi^+(x + s\theta, \theta), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d, \quad \theta \in S^{d-1}, \quad (6)$$

called *spectral data* (or *scattering data*).

# Main differential equation of X-ray tomography

Note that:

$$S(x + \tau\theta, \theta) = S(x, \theta), \quad S(x, \theta) = S(\pi_\theta x, \theta),$$

where  $\pi_\theta$  is the orthogonal projection onto the plane  $X_\theta = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid x\theta = 0\}$ .

# Main differential equation of X-ray tomography

Note that:

$$S(x + \tau\theta, \theta) = S(x, \theta), \quad S(x, \theta) = S(\pi_\theta x, \theta),$$

where  $\pi_\theta$  is the orthogonal projection onto the plane  $X_\theta = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid x\theta = 0\}$ . The function  $S(x, \theta)$  is defined on the direct product  $\mathbb{R}^d \times S^{d-1}$ , it is natural to consider it on the space of the tangent bundle over the unit sphere

$$TS^{d-1} = \{(x, \theta) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times S^{d-1} \mid x\theta = 0\}. \quad (7)$$

# Main differential equation of X-ray tomography

Note that:

$$S(x + \tau\theta, \theta) = S(x, \theta), \quad S(x, \theta) = S(\pi_\theta x, \theta),$$

where  $\pi_\theta$  is the orthogonal projection onto the plane  $X_\theta = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid x\theta = 0\}$ . The function  $S(x, \theta)$  is defined on the direct product  $\mathbb{R}^d \times S^{d-1}$ , it is natural to consider it on the space of the tangent bundle over the unit sphere

$$TS^{d-1} = \{(x, \theta) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times S^{d-1} \mid x\theta = 0\}. \quad (7)$$

We interpret the points  $\gamma = (x, \theta) \in TS^{d-1}$  as oriented lines

$$\gamma = (x, \theta) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid y = x + s\theta, s \in \mathbb{R}\}, \text{ vector } \theta \text{ defines orientation.}$$

Thus, we interpret  $TS^{d-1}$  as the set of all oriented lines in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .

# Direct and inverse scattering problems

*The direct problem* for the differential equation (2): given absorption coefficient  $a(x)$ , find the functions  $\psi^+(x, \theta)$ , and then the spectral data  $S(x, \theta)$ :

$$a \mapsto \psi^+ \mapsto S.$$

# Direct and inverse scattering problems

*The direct problem* for the differential equation (2): given absorption coefficient  $a(x)$ , find the functions  $\psi^+(x, \theta)$ , and then the spectral data  $S(x, \theta)$ :

$$a \mapsto \psi^+ \mapsto S.$$

*The inverse problem* for the differential equation (2) consists of finding the absorption coefficient  $a(x)$  from the given spectral data  $S(x, \theta)$ :

$$S \mapsto a.$$



# Direct and inverse scattering problems

The solution to the direct problem is given by the following formulas. The function  $\psi^+$  is given by the formula

$$\psi^+(x, \theta) = \exp(-Da(x, -\theta)), \quad (8)$$

where  $Da(x, \theta) := \int_0^{+\infty} a(x + s\theta) ds$  is *divergent beam transform*.

# Direct and inverse scattering problems

The solution to the direct problem is given by the following formulas. The function  $\psi^+$  is given by the formula

$$\psi^+(x, \theta) = \exp(-Da(x, -\theta)), \quad (8)$$

where  $Da(x, \theta) := \int_0^{+\infty} a(x + s\theta) ds$  is *divergent beam transform*. Spectral data are given by the formula

$$S(x, \theta) = \exp(-Pa(x, \theta)), \quad Pa(x, \theta) := \int_{\mathbb{R}} a(x + s\theta) ds = \int_{y \in \gamma=(x, \theta)} a dy. \quad (9)$$

The transformation  $P$  is called the *Radon transform along lines* or the *X-ray transform*.

# Direct and inverse scattering problems

The formula for the spectral data  $S$  follows from the definition (6) and from the formula (8) for the function  $\psi^+$ . To obtain the formula (8), we are looking for the solution  $\psi^+$  of the equation (2) in the form  $\psi^+(x, \theta) = \exp(\varphi^+(x, \theta))$ . Then for the function  $\varphi^+$  we get the problem

$$\theta \nabla_x \varphi^+ + a(x) = 0, \quad \lim_{s \rightarrow -\infty} \varphi^+(x + s\theta, \theta) = 0.$$

The solution to this problem is given by the formula  $\varphi^+(x, \theta) = Da(x, \theta)$ .

# The X-ray transform and the Fourier transform

X-ray transform of a function  $f(x)$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , as defined

$$Pf(x, \theta) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x + s\theta) ds, \quad (x, \theta) \in TS^{d-1}. \quad (10)$$

# The X-ray transform and the Fourier transform

X-ray transform of a function  $f(x)$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , as defined

$$Pf(x, \theta) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x + s\theta) ds, \quad (x, \theta) \in TS^{d-1}. \quad (10)$$

Denote  $P_\theta f(x) := Pf(x, \theta)$ ,  $\theta \in S^{d-1}$ ,  $x \in X_\theta = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid x\theta = 0\}$ .

# The X-ray transform and the Fourier transform

X-ray transform of a function  $f(x)$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , as defined

$$Pf(x, \theta) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x + s\theta) ds, \quad (x, \theta) \in TS^{d-1}. \quad (10)$$

Denote  $P_\theta f(x) := Pf(x, \theta)$ ,  $\theta \in S^{d-1}$ ,  $x \in X_\theta = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid x\theta = 0\}$ .

*The Fourier transform* of a function  $f$  is given by the formula

$$\hat{f}(\xi) = (2\pi)^{-\frac{d}{2}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{i\xi x} f(x) dx, \quad \xi \in \mathbb{R}^d,$$

# The X-ray transform and the Fourier transform

X-ray transform of a function  $f(x)$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , as defined

$$Pf(x, \theta) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x + s\theta) ds, \quad (x, \theta) \in TS^{d-1}. \quad (10)$$

Denote  $P_\theta f(x) := Pf(x, \theta)$ ,  $\theta \in S^{d-1}$ ,  $x \in X_\theta = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid x\theta = 0\}$ .

*The Fourier transform* of a function  $f$  is given by the formula

$$\hat{f}(\xi) = (2\pi)^{-\frac{d}{2}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{i\xi x} f(x) dx, \quad \xi \in \mathbb{R}^d,$$

we also define the Fourier transform of the X-ray transform  $P_\theta f$  by the formula

$$(P_\theta f)^\wedge(\xi) = (2\pi)^{-\frac{d-1}{2}} \int_{X_\theta} e^{i\xi x} P_\theta f(x) dx, \quad \xi \in X_\theta, \theta \in S^{d-1}.$$

# The X-ray transform and the Fourier transform

[Projection theorem] We have that

$$(2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}} \hat{f}(\xi) = (P_{\theta} f)^{\wedge}(\xi), \quad \xi \in X_{\theta}, \theta \in S^{d-1}. \quad (11)$$



# The X-ray transform and the Fourier transform

[Projection theorem] We have that

$$(2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}} \hat{f}(\xi) = (P_{\theta} f)^{\wedge}(\xi), \quad \xi \in X_{\theta}, \quad \theta \in S^{d-1}. \quad (11)$$

**Proof.**

The proof follows from the following equalities:

$$\int_{X_{\theta}} e^{i\xi x} P_{\theta} f(x) dx = \int_{X_{\theta}} e^{i\xi x} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x + s\theta) ds dx = [\xi\theta = 0] = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{i\xi y} f(y) dy.$$



# The X-ray transform and the Fourier transform

[Projection theorem] We have that

$$(2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}} \hat{f}(\xi) = (P_{\theta} f)^{\wedge}(\xi), \quad \xi \in X_{\theta}, \quad \theta \in S^{d-1}. \quad (11)$$

**Proof.**

The proof follows from the following equalities:

$$\int_{X_{\theta}} e^{i\xi x} P_{\theta} f(x) dx = \int_{X_{\theta}} e^{i\xi x} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x + s\theta) ds dx = [\xi\theta = 0] = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{i\xi y} f(y) dy.$$



The projection theorem allows us to reconstruct the function  $f$  from the X-ray transform  $Pf$  using the scheme

$$Pf \mapsto \hat{f} \mapsto f.$$

# The X-ray transform and the Fourier transform

Note also that in order to recover the value of the function  $f$  at the point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , we only need to be able to restore the values of a function defined in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Actually, in order to recover the value of the function  $f$  at the point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , we only need to draw a two-dimensional plane  $\Xi \simeq \mathbb{R}^2$  through the point  $x$  and to apply the reconstruction scheme to the function  $f|_{\Xi}$ . Thus, we find the value of the function  $f$  at the point  $x$ . Therefore, below we will consider the case  $d = 2$  in details.

# The X-ray transform and the Fourier transform

Note also that in order to recover the value of the function  $f$  at the point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , we only need to be able to restore the values of a function defined in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Actually, in order to recover the value of the function  $f$  at the point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , we only need to draw a two-dimensional plane  $\Xi \simeq \mathbb{R}^2$  through the point  $x$  and to apply the reconstruction scheme to the function  $f|_{\Xi}$ . Thus, we find the value of the function  $f$  at the point  $x$ . Therefore, below we will consider the case  $d = 2$  in details.

There is an isomorphism  $TS^1 \simeq \mathbb{R} \times S^1$ , the isomorphism is given by the formulas

$$\begin{aligned}(s, \theta) \in \mathbb{R} \times S^1 &\mapsto (s\theta^\perp, \theta) \in TS^1, \\ (x, \theta) \in TS^1 &\mapsto (x\theta^\perp, \theta) \in \mathbb{R} \times S^1,\end{aligned}$$

where  $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2) \in S^1$ ,  $\theta^\perp = (-\theta_2, \theta_1)$  — the vector obtained by rotating the vector  $\theta$  by a right angle counterclockwise.

# The X-ray transform and the Fourier transform

Note also that in order to recover the value of the function  $f$  at the point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , we only need to be able to restore the values of a function defined in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Actually, in order to recover the value of the function  $f$  at the point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , we only need to draw a two-dimensional plane  $\Xi \simeq \mathbb{R}^2$  through the point  $x$  and to apply the reconstruction scheme to the function  $f|_{\Xi}$ . Thus, we find the value of the function  $f$  at the point  $x$ . Therefore, below we will consider the case  $d = 2$  in details.

There is an isomorphism  $TS^1 \simeq \mathbb{R} \times S^1$ , the isomorphism is given by the formulas

$$\begin{aligned}(s, \theta) \in \mathbb{R} \times S^1 &\mapsto (s\theta^\perp, \theta) \in TS^1, \\ (x, \theta) \in TS^1 &\mapsto (x\theta^\perp, \theta) \in \mathbb{R} \times S^1,\end{aligned}$$

where  $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2) \in S^1$ ,  $\theta^\perp = (-\theta_2, \theta_1)$  — the vector obtained by rotating the vector  $\theta$  by a right angle counterclockwise. Therefore, for the case  $d = 2$

$$\hat{f}(r\theta^\perp) = (2\pi)^{-1} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{irs} q_\theta(s) ds, \quad (12)$$

where  $q_\theta(s) := Pf(s\theta^\perp, \theta)$ ,  $s \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\theta \in S^1$ .

# Radon formula

## Theorem (Radon, 1917)

*The following formula holds:*

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{S^1} \theta^\perp \nabla \tilde{q}_\theta(x\theta^\perp) d\theta, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^2,$$

$$\tilde{q}_\theta(s) = (Hq_\theta)(s) := \frac{1}{\pi} \text{p.v.} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{q_\theta(t)}{s-t} dt,$$

$$q_\theta(s) = Pf(s\theta^\perp, \theta), \quad s \in \mathbb{R}, \theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2) \in S^1, \theta^\perp = (-\theta_2, \theta_1).$$

*The function  $\tilde{q}_\theta(s)$  is called the filtered backprojection.*

# Radon formula

Here p.v. denotes the integral in the sense of the principal value:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{p.v.} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{u(t)}{s-t} dt &:= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow +0} \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{s-\varepsilon} + \int_{s+\varepsilon}^{+\infty} \right] \left( \frac{u(t) dt}{s-t} \right) \\ &\equiv \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow +0} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{s-t+i\varepsilon} + \frac{1}{s-t-i\varepsilon} \right) u(t) dt. \end{aligned}$$

For the numerical calculation of integrals in the sense of the principal value, the following formula based on the residue theorem can be used:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-ips} ds \text{ p.v.} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{u(t)}{s-t} dt = -i\pi p \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-ipt} u(t) dt.$$

Radon's formula is now the basic one in applications. It is a basis for *filtered backprojection algorithm*).

# Radon formula

## Proof.

Using the expression for the inverse Fourier transform in polar coordinates, we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= (2\pi)^{-1} \int_{S^1} \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-ir\theta^\perp x} \hat{f}(r\theta^\perp) r \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{S^1} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-ir\theta^\perp x} \hat{f}(r\theta^\perp) r \operatorname{sgn} r \, dr \, d\theta = \frac{1}{8\pi^2} \int_{S^1} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{ir(s-\theta^\perp x)} q_\theta(s) \, ds \, r \operatorname{sgn} r \, dr \, d\theta. \end{aligned}$$

Next, since

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{irs} (-i) \operatorname{sgn} r \, dr = \frac{1}{s+i0} + \frac{1}{s-i0} \quad (\text{in the sense of distributions}),$$

we obtain the theorem. □



# Cormack–Helgason theorem

Theorem (Cormack (1963–1964),  $d = 2$ ; Helgason (1965),  $d \geq 2$ )

Let  $f \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ .  $R_{2,1}f|_{\Omega_{d,d-1}(B_r)}$  defines  $f|_{\mathbb{R}^d \setminus B_r}$ .

# Cormack–Helgason theorem

Using polar coordinates, we represent the coordinates  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  as  $x_1 = r \cos \varphi$ ,  $x_2 = r \sin \varphi$  and expand the function  $f(x)$  in a Fourier series in the variable  $\varphi$  for each fixed  $r$ :

$$f(x) = \sum_{l=-\infty}^{+\infty} f_l(r) e^{il\varphi}. \quad (13)$$

# Cormack–Helgason theorem

Using polar coordinates, we represent the coordinates  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  as  $x_1 = r \cos \varphi$ ,  $x_2 = r \sin \varphi$  and expand the function  $f(x)$  in a Fourier series in the variable  $\varphi$  for each fixed  $r$ :

$$f(x) = \sum_{l=-\infty}^{+\infty} f_l(r) e^{il\varphi}. \quad (13)$$

Let  $\theta = (\cos \varphi, \sin \varphi)$ ,  $\theta^\perp = (-\sin \varphi, \cos \varphi)$ . We expand the X-ray transform in a Fourier series in the variable  $(\varphi + \frac{\pi}{2})$  for each fixed  $s$   $P(s\theta^\perp, \theta)$ :

## Cormack–Helgason theorem

Using polar coordinates, we represent the coordinates  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  as  $x_1 = r \cos \varphi$ ,  $x_2 = r \sin \varphi$  and expand the function  $f(x)$  in a Fourier series in the variable  $\varphi$  for each fixed  $r$ :

$$f(x) = \sum_{l=-\infty}^{+\infty} f_l(r) e^{il\varphi}. \quad (13)$$

Let  $\theta = (\cos \varphi, \sin \varphi)$ ,  $\theta^\perp = (-\sin \varphi, \cos \varphi)$ . We expand the X-ray transform in a Fourier series in the variable  $(\varphi + \frac{\pi}{2})$  for each fixed  $s$   $P(s\theta^\perp, \theta)$ :

$$P(s\theta^\perp, \theta) = \sum_{l=-\infty}^{+\infty} q_l(s) e^{il(\varphi + \frac{\pi}{2})}. \quad (14)$$

## Cormack–Helgason theorem

Using polar coordinates, we represent the coordinates  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  as  $x_1 = r \cos \varphi$ ,  $x_2 = r \sin \varphi$  and expand the function  $f(x)$  in a Fourier series in the variable  $\varphi$  for each fixed  $r$ :

$$f(x) = \sum_{l=-\infty}^{+\infty} f_l(r) e^{il\varphi}. \quad (13)$$

Let  $\theta = (\cos \varphi, \sin \varphi)$ ,  $\theta^\perp = (-\sin \varphi, \cos \varphi)$ . We expand the X-ray transform in a Fourier series in the variable  $(\varphi + \frac{\pi}{2})$  for each fixed  $s$   $P(s\theta^\perp, \theta)$ :

$$P(s\theta^\perp, \theta) = \sum_{l=-\infty}^{+\infty} q_l(s) e^{il(\varphi + \frac{\pi}{2})}. \quad (14)$$

It is sufficient to show that  $f_l(r)$  for  $r \geq \rho$  depends only on  $q_l(s)$   $s \geq \rho$ .

# Cormack Formulas

## Theorem (Cormack Formulas (1963–1964))

*Let  $f \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^2)$ . Then the following formulas hold:*

# Cormack Formulas

## Theorem (Cormack Formulas (1963–1964))

Let  $f \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^2)$ . Then the following formulas hold:

$$q_l(s) = 2 \int_s^{+\infty} T_{|l|} \left( \frac{s}{r} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{s^2}{r^2} \right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} f_l(r) dr, \quad s > 0, \quad (15)$$

$$f_l(r) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_r^{+\infty} (s^2 - r^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} T_{|l|} \left( \frac{s}{r} \right) q'_l(s) ds, \quad r > 0. \quad (16)$$

# Cormack Formulas

## Theorem (Cormack Formulas (1963–1964))

Let  $f \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^2)$ . Then the following formulas hold:

$$q_l(s) = 2 \int_s^{+\infty} T_{|l|} \left( \frac{s}{r} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{s^2}{r^2} \right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} f_l(r) dr, \quad s > 0, \quad (15)$$

$$f_l(r) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_r^{+\infty} (s^2 - r^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} T_{|l|} \left( \frac{s}{r} \right) q'_l(s) ds, \quad r > 0. \quad (16)$$

Here  $T_m$  are Chebyshev polynomials of the first kind, which can be defined in two different ways:



# Cormack Formulas

## Theorem (Cormack Formulas (1963–1964))

Let  $f \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^2)$ . Then the following formulas hold:

$$q_l(s) = 2 \int_s^{+\infty} T_{|l|} \left( \frac{s}{r} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{s^2}{r^2} \right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} f_l(r) dr, \quad s > 0, \quad (15)$$

$$f_l(r) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_r^{+\infty} (s^2 - r^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} T_{|l|} \left( \frac{s}{r} \right) q'_l(s) ds, \quad r > 0. \quad (16)$$

Here  $T_m$  are Chebyshev polynomials of the first kind, which can be defined in two different ways:

1 recurrently:

$$T_0(x) \equiv 1, \quad T_1(x) = x, \quad T_{l+1}(x) + T_{l-1}(x) = 2xT_l(x), \quad l = 1, 2, \dots,$$

2 by an explicit formula:

$$T_l(x) = \begin{cases} \cos(l \arccos x), & |x| \leq 1, \\ \cosh(lx), & |x| \geq 1, \end{cases} \quad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$



Thanks for your attention!