# Principal invariants and inherent parameters of diffusion kurtosis tensors ${ }^{\text {H/ }}$ 

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## A R T I CLE I N F O

## Article history:

Received 17 May 2007
Available online 4 September 2008
Submitted by J.J. Nieto

## Keywords:

Diffusion kurtosis tensors
Invariants
Eigenvalues
Average apparent kurtosis coefficient values Inherent parameters


#### Abstract

A diffusion kurtosis (DK) tensor is a fourth order three-dimensional fully symmetric tensor, which is used in diffusion kurtosis imaging (DKI), a new model in medical engineering. To understand the biological and clinical meaning of the DK tensor, we have to measure and calculate some quantities and parameters which are independent from coordinate system choices. In this paper we study such quantities and parameters. They include the largest, the smallest and the average apparent kurtosis coefficients (AKC) values, which are invariant from the coordinate system choices, and some parameters measured in the inherent coordinate system, which is formed by the eigenvector system of the second order diffusion tensor. We study their computational formulas and relationships.


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## 1. Introduction

Diffusion magnetic resonance imaging (D-MRI) has been developed in biomedical engineering for decades. It measures the apparent diffusivity of water molecules in human or animal tissues, such as brain and blood, to acquire biological and clinical information. In tissues, such as brain gray matter, where the measured apparent diffusivity is largely independent of the orientation of the tissue (i.e., isotropic), it is usually sufficient to characterize the diffusion characteristics with a single (scalar) apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC). However, in anisotropic media, such as skeletal and cardiac muscle and in white matter, where the measured diffusivity is known to depend upon the orientation of the tissue, no single ADC can characterize the orientation-dependent water mobility in these tissues. Because of this, a diffusion tensor model was proposed years ago to replace the diffusion scalar model. This resulted in diffusion tensor imaging (DTI).

A diffusion tensor $D$ is a second order three-dimensional positive definite symmetric tensor. Under a Cartesian laboratory coordinate system, it is represented by a real three-dimensional symmetric matrix, which has six independent elements $D=\left(D_{i j}\right)$ with $D_{i j}=D_{j i}$ for $i, j=1,2,3$. There is a relationship

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ln [S(b)]=\ln [S(0)]-b D_{\text {app }} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $S(b)$ is the signal intensity at the echo time, $D_{\text {app }}$ is the ADC value at the direction $x$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{\mathrm{app}}=\sum_{i, j=1}^{3} D_{i j} x_{i} x_{j}, \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^0]$x=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right)$ is the unit direction vector, satisfying $\sum_{i=1}^{3} x_{i}^{2}=1$, the parameter $b$ is given by
$$
b=(\gamma \delta g)^{2}\left(\Delta-\frac{\delta}{3}\right)
$$
$g$ is the gradient strength, $\gamma$ is the proton gyromagnetic ratio, $\Delta$ is the separation time of the two diffusion gradients, $\delta$ is the duration of each gradient lobe [8].

Combining (1) and (2), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ln [S(b)]=\ln [S(0)]-\sum_{i, j=1}^{3} b D_{i j} x_{i} x_{j} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

There are six unknown variables $D_{i j}$ in the formula (3). By applying the magnetic gradients in six or more non-collinear, non-coplanar directions, one can solve (3) and get the six independent elements $D_{i j}$. Let the eigenvalues of $D$ be $\alpha_{1} \geqslant \alpha_{2} \geqslant$ $\alpha_{3}>0$. Then the mean diffusivity [2] can be calculated by

$$
M_{D}=\frac{\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}+\alpha_{3}}{3}
$$

while the fractional anisotropy [2] is

$$
F A=\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \sqrt{\frac{\left(\alpha_{1}-M_{D}\right)^{2}+\left(\alpha_{2}-M_{D}\right)^{2}+\left(\alpha_{3}-M_{D}\right)^{2}}{\alpha_{1}^{2}+\alpha_{2}^{2}+\alpha_{3}^{2}}}
$$

where $0 \leqslant F A \leqslant 1$. If $F A=0$, the diffusion is isotropic. If $F A=1$, the diffusion is anisotropic. Since the eigenvalues of $D$ are invariants with respect to coordinate system rotation, $M_{D}$ and $F A$ are also invariants of $D$. They can be used for biological and clinical analysis.

The diffusion tensor imaging model (DTI) is now used widely in biological and clinical research [2,6,9]. However, DTI is known to have a limited capability in resolving multiple fibre orientations within one voxel $[1,10,16]$. This is mainly because the probability density function for random spin displacement is non-Gaussian in the confining environment of biological tissues and, thus, the modelling of self-diffusion by a second order tensor breaks down. Recently, a new MRI model is presented in [8,11].

The authors of $[8,11]$ propose to use a fourth order three-dimensional fully symmetric tensor, called the diffusion kurtosis (DK) tensor, to describe the non-Gaussian behavior. The values of the fifteen independent elements of the DK tensor $W$ can be obtained by the MRI technique. The diffusion kurtosis imaging (DKI) has important biological and clinical significance.

A diffusion kurtosis tensor $W$ is a fourth order three-dimensional fully symmetric tensor. Under a Cartesian laboratory coordinate system, it is represented by a real fourth order three-dimensional fully symmetric array, which has fifteen independent elements $W=\left(W_{i j k l}\right)$ with $W_{i j k l}$ being invariant for any permutation of its indices $i, j, k, l=1,2,3$. The relationship (1) can be further expanded (adding a second order Taylor expansion term on $b$ ) to (see [8,11], for example):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ln [S(b)]=\ln [S(0)]-b D_{\mathrm{app}}+\frac{1}{6} b^{2} D_{\mathrm{app}}^{2} K_{\mathrm{app}} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $K_{\text {app }}$ is the apparent kurtosis coefficient (AKC) value at the direction $x$ (see [8,11], for example),

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{\mathrm{app}}^{2} K_{\mathrm{app}}=M_{D}^{2} \sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} W_{i j k l} x_{i} x_{j} x_{k} x_{l} . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combining (4), (2) and (5), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ln [S(b)]=\ln [S(0)]-\sum_{i, j=1}^{3} b D_{i j} x_{i} x_{j}+\frac{1}{6} b^{2} M_{D}^{2} \sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} W_{i j k l} x_{i} x_{j} x_{k} x_{l} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The non-Gaussian behavior of water molecules may contain useful information related to tissue structure and pathophysiology. Hence, the diffusion kurtosis imaging (DKI) has important biological and clinical significance. The authors of [ 8,11 ] found sharp differences between the diffusion kurtosis in white and gray matters. They believe that DKI is potentially of value for the assessment of neurologic diseases, such as multiple sclerosis and epilepsy, with associated white matter abnormalities. Additional, DKI may be useful for investigating abnormalities in tissues with isotropic structures, such as gray matter, where techniques like DTI are less applicable. This is supported by the results in many experimental studies of DKI, where the diffusion kurtosis is not zero, while DTI models treat it as zero.

The values of the fifteen independent elements of the DK tensor $W$ can be obtained with the six independent elements of the diffusion tensor $D$ together by the MRI technique and the least squares method, as suggested in [8,11]. However, these values are not independent of the coordinate system. When the coordinate system is rotated, these values will be changed. To understand the biological and clinical meaning of the DK tensor, a mathematical study on invariants of the DK tensor
is necessary. In [20], Qi, Wang and Wu introduced D-eigenvalues for a DK tensor. It was shown that the D-eigenvalues of a DK tensor are invariants of the DK tensor. The largest and the smallest D-eigenvalues of a DK tensor correspond with the largest and the smallest AKC values of a water molecule in the space, respectively. A computational method for calculating D-eigenvalues of a DK tensor was also presented in [20]. The concept of D-eigenvalues is an extension of the Z-eigenvalues introduced in [17] and studied in [ $15,18,19$ ].

In the literature, there are some other "eigenvalues" for a fourth order fully symmetric tensor. In particular, Lord Kelvin [21,22] introduced such eigenvalues, also see [3,14]. We call them Kelvin eigenvalues. The calculation of the Kelvin eigenvalues is much easier, since they are actually eigenvalues of a $6 \times 6$ symmetric matrix. However, the definition of D-eigenvalues is closer to the formula (5) of AKC values than the definition of Kevin eigenvalues. In Section 2, we will explain this point.

The largest and the smallest AKC values are two important invariants of a DK tensor. Apart from them, there are other important invariants of a DK tensor. For example, the spherical average AKC value should be another important invariant of the DK tensor. We study the computational formulas and properties of this quantity in Section 3. We show that it is a linear function of the diagonal and sub-diagonal elements of the DK tensor.

It is well known that the eigenvector system of the second order diffusion tensor forms a Cartesian coordinate system. The eigenvector associated with the largest eigenvalue of the diffusion tensor is parallel to the direction of the dominant tissue structure (such as white matter fiber along which the water molecules diffuse the most), while the eigenvectors associated with the other two eigenvalues are perpendicular to the direction of the dominant tissue structure. Hence, this coordinate system has its physical meanings. We call this coordinate system the inherent coordinate system of the DK tensor. Since this coordinate system is not arbitrary, the form of the DK tensor under this system should have some physical meanings too. In Section 4, we study the computational formulas of this special form of the DK tensor, and the average AKC value over the characteristic ellipsoidal surface of the ADC values. We call this average AKC value the ellipsoidal average AKC value, which is a kind of weighted average AKC values. We show that it is a linear function of the diagonal and sub-diagonal elements of the form of the DK tensor in the inherent coordinate system. The AKC values along the coordinate directions of the inherent coordinate system were studied in [7].

The coefficients of the linear functions of the spherical and the ellipsoidal AKC values involve surface integrals over the spherical and the ellipsoidal surfaces. In Section 5, we use the eigenvalues of the diffusion tensor to scale the inherent coordinate system to smooth the characteristic ellipsoidal surface of the ADC values to a spherical surface. Then, we find that the average AKC value over this surface is equal to one fifth of the sum of the diagonal elements plus two fifths of the sum of the sub-diagonal elements of the form of the DK tensor in the scaled inherent coordinate system. We show that this value is equal to one fifth of the sum of the six Kelvin eigenvalues of this special form of the DK tensor. We then show that all the AKC values are bounded by the largest and the smallest Kelvin eigenvalues of this special form, but there are gaps between the largest/smallest Kelvin eigenvalue and the largest/smallest AKC value. This further justifies the significance of D-eigenvalues.

In Section 6, we provide two numerical examples and five maps which are based upon the magnetic resonance diffusion data acquired out of rat spinal cord samples. Some final remarks are made in Section 7. To make the paper self-contained, we include an appendix as Section 8 on the calculation of D-eigenvalues and D-eigenvectors.

## 2. D-eigenvalues and Kelvin eigenvalues

We use $x=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right)^{T}$ to denote the direction vector, which is denoted as $n=\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, n_{3}\right)^{T}$ in [8,11].
As described in $[8,11]$, the ADC and AKC values for a single direction can be determined by acquiring data at three or more $b$ values (including $b=0$ ) and fitting to Eq. (4). Then, by solving the resulted nonlinear system via, for example, the least-squares method, the apparent diffusion coefficient $D_{\text {app }}$ and the apparent kurtosis coefficient $K_{\text {app }}$ for the given direction can be obtained.

As noted in the introduction, $W$ is a fourth order three-dimensional fully symmetric tensor. Hence, $W$ has 15 independent elements. For those elements of $W$ which are equal to each other because of symmetry, we use the element $W_{i j k l}$ with $i \leqslant j \leqslant k \leqslant l$ to represent them. So if we say that $W_{1122}=3$, this automatically implies that $W_{1212}=W_{2112}=W_{2121}=$ $W_{1221}=W_{2211}=3$. Then, the 15 independent elements of $W$ are $W_{1111}, W_{2222}, W_{3333}, W_{1122}, W_{1133}, W_{2233}, W_{1112}, W_{1113}$, $W_{1222}, W_{1333}, W_{2223}, W_{2333}, W_{1123}, W_{1223}, W_{1233}$. We call $W_{1111}, W_{2222}, W_{3333}$ the diagonal elements of $W$, and $W_{1122}$, $W_{1133}, W_{2233}$ the sub-diagonal elements of $W$.

Denote the largest and the smallest AKC values as $K_{\max }$ and $K_{\min }$ respectively. By [20],

$$
\begin{align*}
K_{\max }= & \max M_{D}^{2} \sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} W_{i j k l} x_{i} x_{j} x_{k} x_{l} \\
& \text { s.t. } \quad \sum_{i, j=1}^{3} D_{i j} x_{i} x_{j}=1, \tag{7}
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{align*}
& K_{\min }= \min M_{D}^{2} \sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} W_{i j k l} x_{i} x_{j} x_{k} x_{l} \\
& \text { s.t. } \quad \sum_{i, j=1}^{3} D_{i j} x_{i} x_{j}=1 . \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

The critical points of the maximization problem (7) and the minimization problem (8) satisfy the following system for some $\lambda \in \mathfrak{R}$ and $x \in \mathfrak{R}^{3}$ :

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\sum_{j, k, l=1}^{3} W_{i j k l} x_{j} x_{k} x_{l}=\lambda \sum_{j=1}^{3} D_{i j} x_{j}, \quad i=1,2,3  \tag{9}\\
\sum_{i, j=1}^{3} D_{i j} x_{i} x_{j}=1
\end{array}\right.
$$

A real number $\lambda$ satisfying (9) with a real vector $x$ is called a D-eigenvalue of $W$, and the real vector $x$ is called the $D$-eigenvector of $W$ associated with the D-eigenvalue $\lambda$. Since D-eigenvectors are critical points of the maximization problem (7) and the minimization problem (8), by the theory of optimization, they are local maximizers, local minimizers and saddle points of the optimization problems (7) and (8), while D-eigenvalues are corresponding Lagrangian multipliers. These are the geometrical meanings of D -eigenvalues and D -eigenvectors. The following two theorems are proved in [20].

Theorem 1. $D$-eigenvalues are real numbers and always exist. If $x$ is a $D$-eigenvector associated with a $D$-eigenvalue $\lambda$, then

$$
\lambda=\sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} W_{i j k l} x_{i} x_{j} x_{k} x_{l} .
$$

Denote the largest and the smallest $D$-eigenvalues of $W$ as $\lambda_{\max }$ and $\lambda_{\min }$ respectively. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{\max }=M_{D}^{2} \lambda_{\max }, \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{\min }=M_{D}^{2} \lambda_{\min } \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 2. The D-eigenvalues of $W$ are invariant under rotations of coordinate systems.
By these two theorems, $K_{\max }$ and $K_{\min }$ are also invariants of $W$. Computational formulas were given in [20] for calculating D-eigenvalues. Hence, we may calculate $K_{\max }$ and $K_{\min }$ by the method given in [20].

We now discuss Kelvin eigenvalues of $W$. Let $X$ be a second order three-dimensional symmetric tensor with elements $X_{i j}$. Define $W X$ as another second order symmetric tensor with its elements as

$$
(W X)_{i j}=\sum_{k, l=1}^{3} W_{i j k l} X_{k l} .
$$

If a number $\mu$ and a nonzero second order symmetric tensor $X$ satisfy

$$
W X=\mu X
$$

then we say that $\mu$ is a Kelvin eigenvalue of $W$ and $X$ is an eigentensor of $W$ associated with the Kelvin eigenvalue $\mu$.
There is an isomorphism between the Kelvin eigenvalues and eigentensors of $W$, and the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the six-dimensional symmetric matrix

$$
U=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
W_{1111} & W_{1122} & W_{1133} & \sqrt{2} W_{1112} & \sqrt{2} W_{1113} & \sqrt{2} W_{1123} \\
W_{1122} & W_{2222} & W_{2233} & \sqrt{2} W_{1222} & \sqrt{2} W_{1223} & \sqrt{2} W_{2223} \\
W_{1133} & W_{2233} & W_{3333} & \sqrt{2} W_{1233} & \sqrt{2} W_{1333} & \sqrt{2} W_{2333} \\
\sqrt{2} W_{1112} & \sqrt{2} W_{1222} & \sqrt{2} W_{1233} & 2 W_{1122} & 2 W_{1123} & 2 W_{1223} \\
\sqrt{2} W_{1113} & \sqrt{2} W_{1223} & \sqrt{2} W_{1333} & 2 W_{1123} & 2 W_{1133} & 2 W_{1233} \\
\sqrt{2} W_{1123} & \sqrt{2} W_{2223} & \sqrt{2} W_{2333} & 2 W_{1223} & 2 W_{1233} & 2 W_{2233}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Thus, the six Kelvin eigenvalues of $W$ are all real. If $X$ is an eigentensor of $W$, associated with a Kelvin eigenvalue $\mu$ of $W$, then the vector $\left(X_{11}, X_{22}, X_{33}, \sqrt{2} X_{12}, \sqrt{2} X_{13}, \sqrt{2} X_{23}\right)^{T}$ is an eigenvector of $U$ associated with the eigenvalue $\mu$ of $U$. See [3].

It is easy to see that Kelvin eigenvalues of $W$ are also invariants of $W$. They are much easier to be calculated as they are actually eigenvalues of the matrix $U$. However, it can be shown that they are less close to the largest and the smallest AKC values. Let the largest and the smallest Kelvin eigenvalues of $W$ be $\mu_{\max }$ and $\mu_{\min }$ respectively, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\mu_{\max }= & \max \\
& \sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} W_{i j k l} X_{i j} X_{k l}  \tag{12}\\
& \text { s.t. } \quad \sum_{i, j=1}^{3} X_{i j}^{2}=1
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{align*}
\mu_{\min }=\min & \sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} W_{i j k l} X_{i j} X_{k l} \\
\text { s.t. } & \sum_{i, j=1}^{3} X_{i j}^{2}=1 . \tag{13}
\end{align*}
$$

The optimization problems (12) and (13) are matrix optimization problems as their optimization variables are the matrix $X=\left(X_{i j}\right)$. Comparing (12) and (13) with (7) and (8), we see that D-eigenvalues reflect more the extremal AKC values than Kelvin eigenvalues. Suppose that we have a feasible solution $x$ for (7) and (8). Let $X_{i j}=x_{i} x_{j}$ for $i, j=1,2,3$. Then we have a feasible solution $X$ for (12) and (13). On the other hand, a feasible solution $X$ of (12) and (13) does not produce a feasible solution $x$ for (7) and (8), unless the rank of the matrix $X$ is one. Thus, the feasible set of (12) and (13) is larger and includes feasible solutions $X$ which cannot be decomposed as $X_{i j}=x_{i} x_{j}$ for $i, j=1,2,3$ for some $x$. Hence, we cannot use Kelvin eigenvalues to represent the largest and the smallest AKC values. This justifies the significance of D-eigenvalues.

## 3. The spherical average AKC value

Denote the unit sphere as

$$
S:=\left\{x \in \mathfrak{R}^{3}: x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+x_{3}^{2}=1\right\} .
$$

Then the spherical average AKC value is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{S}=\frac{1}{S} \iint_{S} K_{\mathrm{app}} d A=\frac{M_{D}^{2}}{4 \pi} \iint_{S} \frac{\sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} W_{i j k l} x_{i} x_{j} x_{k} x_{l}}{\left(\sum_{i, j=1}^{3} D_{i j} x_{i} x_{j}\right)^{2}} d A, \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the denominator $S=4 \pi$ is the area of the surface $S$. Here, we slightly abuse the symbol $S$ for both the surface and its area.

## Theorem 3. We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{\min } \leqslant M_{S} \leqslant K_{\max } \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

The quantity $M_{S}$ is invariant under rotation of coordinate systems. It is a linear function of the diagonal and sub-diagonal elements of $W$. It is also invariant if $D$ is scaled, i.e., if $D$ is changed to $\beta D$ and $W$ has no change, where $\beta$ is a positive number, then $M_{S}$ has no change.

Proof. Formula (15) follows from (14) directly. The surface $S$ is independent from rotations of coordinate systems. Hence $M_{S}$ is invariant under rotations of coordinate systems. By the definitions of $M_{S}$ as well as the symmetry of the elements of $W$, we have its computational formulas as follows.

$$
\begin{aligned}
M_{S}= & \frac{M_{D}^{2}}{4 \pi}\left[A_{1} W_{1111}+A_{2} W_{2222}+A_{3} W_{3333}+4 A_{4} W_{1112}+4 A_{5} W_{1113}+4 A_{6} W_{1222}\right. \\
& +4 A_{7} W_{2223}+4 A_{8} W_{1333}+4 A_{9} W_{2333}+6 A_{10} W_{1122}+6 A_{11} W_{1133}+6 A_{12} W_{2233} \\
& \left.+12 A_{13} W_{1123}+12 A_{14} W_{1223}+12 A_{15} W_{1233}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
A_{i}=\iint_{S} \frac{a_{i}(x)}{\left(\sum_{i, j=1}^{3} D_{i j} x_{i} x_{j}\right)^{2}} d A
$$

with $a_{1}(x)=x_{1}^{4}, a_{2}(x)=x_{2}^{4}, a_{3}(x)=x_{3}^{4}, a_{4}(x)=x_{1}^{3} x_{2}, a_{5}(x)=x_{1}^{3} x_{3}, a_{6}(x)=x_{1} x_{2}^{3}, a_{7}(x)=x_{2}^{3} x_{3}, a_{8}(x)=x_{1} x_{3}^{3}, a_{9}(x)=x_{2} x_{2}^{3}$, $a_{10}(x)=x_{1}^{2} x_{2}^{2}, a_{11}(x)=x_{1}^{2} x_{3}^{2}, a_{12}(x)=x_{2}^{2} x_{3}^{2}, a_{13}(x)=x_{1}^{2} x_{2} x_{3}, a_{14}(x)=x_{1} x_{2}^{2} x_{3}$ and $a_{15}(x)=x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}^{2}$. By symmetry, we see that $A_{i}=0$ for $i=4, \ldots, 9$ and $i=13,14,15$, These show that $M_{S}$ is a linear function of the diagonal and sub-diagonal elements of $W$.

Let $D$ be changed to $\beta D$, where $\beta$ is a positive number. In (14), $M_{D}^{2}$ will be changed to $\beta^{2} M_{D}^{2}$ and the denominator of the fraction will be multiplied by $\beta^{2}$. Then $M_{S}$ is not changed. The theorem is proved.

The coefficients $A_{i}$ cannot be computed exactly in general. But they can be computed numerically. For the integral over $S$, we may use the parametric expression

$$
x=\left(\begin{array}{c}
\cos \theta \sin \phi \\
\sin \theta \sin \phi \\
\cos \phi
\end{array}\right)
$$

for $S$, where $0 \leqslant \theta<2 \pi, 0 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi$. Then

$$
\iint_{S} f(x) d A=\int_{0}^{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} f(\cos \theta \sin \phi, \sin \theta \sin \phi, \cos \phi) \sin \phi d \phi d \theta
$$

## 4. The inherent coordinate system and the ellipsoidal average AKC value

We may make an orthogonal transformation to the coordinate system such that the three orthonormal eigenvectors of $D$ are used as the coordinate base vectors. As we said in the introduction, this coordinate system has its own physical meaning and is fixed when $D$ is fixed. We call this coordinate system the inherent coordinate system of $W$, and call the form of $D$ and $W$ in this coordinate system the inherent forms of $D$ and $W$ respectively.

Let the columns of an orthogonal matrix $P$ consist of three orthonormal eigenvectors of $D$. Denote $P=\left(p_{i j}\right)$. Let $x$ be converted to $y=P x$. Then $D$ and $W$ are converted to their inherent forms $\hat{D}$ and $\hat{W}$, where the elements of $\hat{D}$ and $\hat{W}$ are defined by

$$
\hat{D}_{i j}=\sum_{i^{\prime}, j^{\prime}=1}^{3} D_{i^{\prime} j^{\prime}} p_{i^{\prime} i} p_{j^{\prime} j}
$$

and

$$
\hat{W}_{i j k l}=\sum_{i^{\prime}, j^{\prime}, k^{\prime}, l^{\prime}=1}^{3} W_{i^{\prime} j^{\prime} k^{\prime} l^{\prime}} p_{i^{\prime} i} p_{j^{\prime} j} p_{k^{\prime} k} p_{l^{\prime} l}
$$

respectively, see [17] for the definition of orthogonal similarity. By the knowledge of linear algebra, we know that $P$, as an orthogonal matrix, either is a rotation matrix, or the product of a rotation matrix and a reflection matrix, depending upon the system of the orthonormal eigenvectors of $D$ are right-handed or left-handed. Then, since the columns of $P$ consist of three orthonormal eigenvectors of $D, \hat{D}$ is a diagonal matrix with the eigenvalues of $D$ as its diagonal elements, i.e.,

$$
\hat{D}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\alpha_{1} & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \alpha_{2} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \alpha_{3}
\end{array}\right)
$$

The elements $\hat{W}_{i j k l}$ have their own physical meanings. By (5), we have the following theorem.
Theorem 4. The AKC value along the direction of the eigenvector associated with the eigenvalue $\alpha_{i}$ of $D$ for $i=1,2,3$, is

$$
K_{i}=\frac{M_{D}^{2}}{\alpha_{i}^{2}} \hat{W}_{i i i i}
$$

Thus, $K_{i}$ for $i=1,2,3$, along with $K_{\max }, K_{\min }$, and $K_{S}$, form important reference quantities of $W$. Since $K_{i}$, for $i=1,2,3$, are calculated on the inherent coordinate system, we call them and the other quantities discussed in the latter part of our paper as inherent parameters. For some further discussions on $K_{i}$ for $i=1,2,3$, see [7].

We now consider the average AKC value over the characteristic ellipsoid surface of ADC:

$$
S_{E}:=\left\{y \in \Re^{3}: \hat{D} y^{2}=1\right\}=\left\{y \in \Re^{3}: \alpha_{1} y_{1}^{2}+\alpha_{2} y_{2}^{2}+\alpha_{3} y_{3}^{2}=1\right\} .
$$

Then the ellipsoidal average AKC value is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{E}=\frac{1}{S_{E}} \iint_{S_{E}} K_{\mathrm{app}} d A=\frac{M_{D}^{2}}{S_{E}} \iint_{S_{E}} \sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} \hat{W}_{i j k l} y_{i} y_{j} y_{k} y_{l} d A, \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the denominator $S_{E}$ is the area of the surface $S_{E}$,

$$
S_{E}=\iint_{S_{E}} d A
$$

Again, we use the symbol $S_{E}$ for both the surface and its area.
Theorem 5. We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{\min } \leqslant M_{E} \leqslant K_{\max } . \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

The quantity $M_{E}$ is a linear function of the diagonal and sub-diagonal elements of $\hat{W}$. It is also invariant if $D$ is scaled, i.e., if $D$ is changed to $\beta D$ and $W$ has no change, where $\beta$ is a positive number, then $M_{E}$ has no change.

Proof. The formula (17) follows from (16) directly. By the definition of $M_{E}$ as well as the symmetry of the elements of $W$, we have its computational formulas as follows.

$$
\begin{aligned}
M_{E}= & \frac{M_{D}^{2}}{S_{E}}\left[B_{1} \hat{W}_{1111}+B_{2} \hat{W}_{2222}+B_{3} \hat{W}_{3333}+4 B_{4} \hat{W}_{1112}+4 B_{5} \hat{W}_{1113}+4 B_{6} \hat{W}_{1222}\right. \\
& +4 B_{7} \hat{W}_{2223}+4 B_{8} \hat{W}_{1333}+4 B_{9} \hat{W}_{2333}+6 B_{10} \hat{W}_{1122}+6 B_{11} \hat{W}_{1133}+6 B_{12} \hat{W}_{2233} \\
& \left.+12 B_{13} \hat{W}_{1123}+12 B_{14} \hat{W}_{1223}+12 B_{15} \hat{W}_{1233}\right],
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
B_{i}=\iint_{S_{E}} b_{i}(y) d A
$$

with $b_{1}(y)=y_{1}^{4}, b_{2}(y)=y_{2}^{4}, b_{3}(y)=y_{3}^{4}, b_{4}(y)=y_{1}^{3} y_{2}, b_{5}(y)=y_{1}^{3} y_{3}, b_{6}(y)=y_{1} y_{2}^{3}, b_{7}(y)=y_{2}^{3} y_{3}, b_{8}(y)=y_{1} y_{3}^{3}, b_{9}(y)=$ $y_{2} y_{3}^{3}, b_{10}(y)=y_{1}^{2} y_{2}^{2}, b_{11}(y)=y_{1}^{2} y_{3}^{2}, b_{12}(y)=y_{2}^{2} y_{3}^{2}, b_{13}(y)=y_{1}^{2} y_{2} y_{3}, b_{14}(y)=y_{1} y_{2}^{2} y_{3}$ and $b_{15}(y)=y_{1} y_{2} y_{3}^{2}$. By symmetry, we see that $B_{i}=0$ for $i=4, \ldots, 9$ and $i=13,14,15$, These show that $M_{S}$ is a linear function of the diagonal and subdiagonal elements of $\hat{W}$.

Let $D$ be changed to $\beta D$, where $\beta$ is a positive number. For (16), it involves an integral over $S_{E}$, we may use the parametric expression

$$
y=\left(\begin{array}{c}
\frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_{1}}} \cos \theta \sin \phi \\
\frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_{2}}} \sin \theta \sin \phi \\
\frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_{3}}} \cos \phi
\end{array}\right)
$$

for $S_{E}$, where $0 \leqslant \theta<2 \pi, 0 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\iint_{S_{E}} f(y) d A= & \int_{0}^{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} f\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_{1}}} \cos \theta \sin \phi, \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_{2}}} \sin \theta \sin \phi, \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_{3}}} \cos \phi\right) \sin \phi \\
& \times \sqrt{\frac{1}{\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}} \cos ^{2} \phi+\frac{1}{\alpha_{3}}\left(\frac{1}{\alpha_{1}} \sin ^{2} \theta+\frac{1}{\alpha_{2}} \cos ^{2} \theta\right) \sin ^{2} \phi d \phi d \theta}
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
f(y)=\sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} \hat{W}_{i j k l} y_{i} y_{j} y_{k} y_{l}
$$

When $D$ is changed to $\beta D, \alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}$ and $\alpha_{3}$ are changed to $\beta \alpha_{1}, \beta \alpha_{2}$ and $\beta \alpha_{3}$ respectively. So this integral is multiplied with a factor $\frac{1}{\beta^{3}}$. For $M_{E}$ in (16), this integral needs to be multiplied with $\frac{M_{D}^{2}}{S_{E}}$. Since $M_{D}^{2}$ will be changed to $\beta^{2} M_{D}^{2}$ and $S_{E}$ will be changed to $\frac{S_{E}}{\beta}, M_{E}$ is not changed. The theorem is proved.

The coefficients $B_{i}$ as well as the area $S_{E}$ cannot be computed exactly in general. But they also can be computed numerically. For the integral over $S_{E}$, we may use the formulas used in the proof of Theorem 5 . The fundamental difference between the formulas of $A_{i}$ in the last section and the formulas of $B_{i}$ in this section is that $A_{i}$ can be calculated in any Cartesian coordinate system while $B_{i}$ only can be calculated in the inherent coordinate system. We regard $M_{E}$ also as an inherent parameter. As we said in the introduction, it is a kind of weighted average AKC values.

## 5. The scaled inherent coordinate system

Let $z_{i}=\sqrt{\alpha_{i}} y_{i}$ for $i=1,2,3$. Then the ellipsoidal surface $S_{E}$ is scaled to a spherical surface

$$
S_{Z}=\left\{z \in \mathfrak{R}^{3}: z_{1}^{2}+z_{2}^{2}+z_{3}^{2}=1\right\} .
$$

Correspondingly, we may scale $\hat{W}$ by

$$
\bar{W}_{i j k l}=\frac{M_{D}^{2} \hat{W}_{i j k l}}{\sqrt{\alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \alpha_{k} \alpha_{l}}}
$$

By (5), the AKC value along the direction $y$ is now

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{\mathrm{app}}=\frac{M_{D}^{2} \sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} \hat{W}_{i j k l} y_{i} y_{j} y_{k} y_{l}}{\left(\sum_{i, j=1}^{3} \hat{D}_{i j} y_{i} y_{j}\right)^{2}}=\frac{\sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} \bar{W}_{i j k l} z_{i} z_{j} z_{k} z_{l}}{\left(z_{1}^{2}+z_{2}^{2}+z_{3}^{2}\right)^{2}} . \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then the average AKC value on the surface $S_{Z}$ is

$$
M_{Z}=\frac{1}{4 \pi} \iint_{S_{Z}} \sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} \bar{W}_{i j k l} z_{i} z_{j} z_{k} z_{l} d A
$$

We now show that $M_{Z}$ has a simple form. Note that $\bar{W}_{1122}+\bar{W}_{1133}+\bar{W}_{2233}$ is equal to one sixth of the sum of the sub-diagonal elements of $\bar{W}$.

Theorem 6. The quantity $M_{Z}$ is equal to one fifth of the sum of the diagonal elements plus two fifths of the sum of the sub-diagonal elements of $\bar{W}$, i.e.,

$$
\begin{aligned}
M_{Z} & =\frac{1}{5}\left(\bar{W}_{1111}+\bar{W}_{2222}+\bar{W}_{3333}+2 \bar{W}_{1122}+2 \bar{W}_{1133}+2 \bar{W}_{2233}\right) \\
& =\frac{M_{D}^{2}}{5}\left(\frac{\hat{W}_{1111}}{\alpha_{1}^{2}}+\frac{\hat{W}_{2222}}{\alpha_{2}^{2}}+\frac{\hat{W}_{3333}}{\alpha_{3}^{2}}+\frac{2 \hat{W}_{1122}}{\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}}+\frac{2 \hat{W}_{1133}}{\alpha_{1} \alpha_{3}}+\frac{2 \hat{W}_{2233}}{\alpha_{2} \alpha_{3}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. As the proofs of Theorems 3 and 5, we may show that

$$
M_{Z}=\frac{1}{4 \pi}\left[C_{1} \bar{W}_{1111}+C_{2} \bar{W}_{2222}+C_{3} \bar{W}_{3333}+6 C_{10} \bar{W}_{1122}+6 C_{11} \bar{W}_{1133}+6 C_{12} \bar{W}_{2233}\right]
$$

where

$$
C_{i}=\iint_{S_{Z}} c_{i}(z) d A
$$

with $c_{1}(z)=z_{1}^{4}, c_{2}(z)=z_{2}^{4}, c_{3}(z)=z_{3}^{4}, c_{10}(z)=z_{1}^{2} z_{2}^{2}, c_{11}(z)=z_{1}^{2} z_{3}^{2}$ and $c_{12}(z)=z_{2}^{2} z_{3}^{2}$. By symmetry, we see that $C_{1}=C_{2}=C_{3}$ and $C_{10}=C_{11}=C_{12}$. With the formula at the end of Section 3 , we have

$$
C_{3}=\int_{0}^{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{\pi}(\cos \phi)^{4} \sin \phi d \phi d \theta=\frac{4 \pi}{5} .
$$

We also see that

$$
C_{1}+C_{2}+C_{3}+2 C_{10}+2 C_{11}+2 C_{12}=\iint_{S_{Z}}\left(z_{1}^{2}+z_{2}^{2}+z_{3}^{2}\right)^{2} d A=S_{Z}=4 \pi
$$

Putting these together, we have the conclusion.
The quantity $M_{Z}$ is also an inherent parameter and a kind of weighted average AKC values. But its computational formula is much simpler.

We now show that $M_{Z}$ is equal to one fifth of the sum of the six Kelvin eigenvalues of $\bar{W}$.
Theorem 7. The quantity $M_{Z}$ is equal to one fifth of the sum of the six Kelvin eigenvalues of $\bar{W}$.

Proof. By the discussion in Section 2, we know that the six Kelvin eigenvalues of $\bar{W}$ are the six eigenvalues of the following matrix $\bar{U}$ :

$$
\bar{U}=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
\bar{W}_{1111} & \bar{W}_{1122} & \bar{W}_{1133} & \sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{1112} & \sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{1113} & \sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{1123} \\
\bar{W}_{1122} & \bar{W}_{2222} & \bar{W}_{2233} & \sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{1222} & \sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{1223} & \sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{2223} \\
\bar{W}_{1133} & \bar{W}_{2233} & \bar{W}_{3333} & \sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{1233} & \sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{1333} & \sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{2333} \\
\sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{1122} & \sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{1222} & \sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{1233} & 2 \bar{W}_{1122} & 2 \bar{W}_{1123} & 2 \bar{W}_{1223} \\
\sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{1113} & \sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{1223} & \sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{1333} & 2 \bar{W}_{1123} & 2 \bar{W}_{1133} & 2 \bar{W}_{1233} \\
\sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{1123} & \sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{2223} & \sqrt{2} \bar{W}_{2333} & 2 \bar{W}_{1223} & 2 \bar{W}_{1233} & 2 \bar{W}_{2233}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Since the sum of the six eigenvalues of $\bar{U}$ is the sum of the diagonal elements of $\bar{U}$ (the trace of $\bar{U}$ ), by Theorem 6 , the conclusion of this theorem holds.

This theorem shows that after adequate scaling (this scaling corresponds to adding the $D$ coefficients in the constraints of (7) and (8) to (12) and (13), the average Kelvin eigenvalues is corresponding to the average AKC value on a certain surface. The following is some further relationship between the AKC values and the Kelvin eigenvalues of $\bar{W}$.

Theorem 8. Denote the largest and the smallest Kelvin eigenvalues of $\bar{W}$ by $\mu_{\max }$ and $\mu_{\min }$. Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu_{\min } \leqslant K_{\min } \leqslant K_{\max } \leqslant \mu_{\max } \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

The inequalities in (19) can be strict. In fact, for any number $c<\frac{4}{3}$, there is an example such that $\mu_{\max } \geqslant c K_{\max }$.
Proof. For any two second order three-dimensional tensors $X=\left(X_{i j}\right)$ and $Y=\left(Y_{i j}\right)$, denote their inner product as

$$
X^{T} Y=\sum_{i, j=1}^{3} X_{i j} Y_{i j}
$$

Let $y$ be a direction. By (18), there is a $z \in S_{E}$ such that the AKC value at the direction $y$ is

$$
K_{\mathrm{app}}=\sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} \bar{W}_{i j k l} z_{i} z_{j} z_{k} z_{l}=X^{T} \bar{W} X=v^{T} \bar{U} v
$$

where $X=\left(z_{i} z_{j}\right)$ and $v=\left(z_{1}^{2}, z_{2}^{2}, z_{3}^{2}, \sqrt{2} z_{1} z_{2}, \sqrt{2} z_{1} z_{3}, \sqrt{2} z_{2} z_{3}\right)^{T}$. Then

$$
v^{T} v=\left(z_{1}^{2}+z_{2}^{2}+z_{3}^{2}\right)^{2}=1
$$

By linear algebra, we have

$$
\mu_{\min } \leqslant v^{T} \bar{U} v \leqslant \mu_{\max }
$$

This proves (19). Now let $\bar{W}_{i i i i}=1$ for $i=1,2,3$, and other $\bar{W}_{i j k l}$ are zero. We see that $K_{\min }=\frac{1}{3}$ in this example but $\mu_{\min }=0$. This shows that the first equality in (19) can be strict. Let $\bar{W}_{\text {iiii }}=1$ for $i=1,2,3, \bar{W}_{1122}=\bar{W}_{1212}=\bar{W}_{1221}=$ $\bar{W}_{2112}=\bar{W}_{2121}=\bar{W}_{2211}=a>1$ and other $\bar{W}_{i j k l}$ are zero. Then $K_{\min }=\frac{1}{2}, K_{\max }=\frac{1+3 a}{2}$, and $\mu_{\max }=2 a$. This proves the remaining conclusions.

The first conclusion of this theorem shows that after adequate scaling, the largest Kelvin eigenvalue is an upper bound of the AKC value, while the smallest Kelvin eigenvalue is a lower bound of the AKC value. The second conclusion of this theorem shows it is possible that such an upper bound is greater than the largest AKC value and such a lower bound is smaller than the smallest AKC value. On the other hand, Theorem 1 indicates that the largest and the smallest D-eigenvalues, after multiplied by $M_{D}^{2}$, equal to the largest and the smallest AKC values. These further show that D-eigenvalues are better tools to study the extremal AKC values.

## 6. Numerical examples

In this section, we report some computational results on the principal invariants and inherent parameters of some diffusion kurtosis tensors derived from data of MRI experiments on rat spinal cord specimen fixed in formalin. The MRI experiments were conducted on a 7 Tesla MRI scanner at Laboratory of Biomedical Imaging and Signal Processing at The University of Hong Kong.

In MRI experiments, the AKC and ADC values for a given gradient $x \in \mathfrak{R}^{3}$ can be determined by acquiring data at three or more $b$ values [8] including $b=0$. In our experiments, we take six $b$ values $0,800,1600,2400,3200$ and 4000 , in unit of $\mathrm{s} / \mathrm{mm}^{2}$. In each example, we take 30 gradient directions and get the corresponding AKC and ADC values as the averages of

Table 1
D-eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $W$

|  | $x_{1}$ | $x_{2}$ | $x_{3}$ | $\lambda \times 10^{-7}$ | AKC |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | -26.6953 | -76.0271 | 13.2301 | 3.8340 | 2.1782 |
| 2 | 8.3561 | -69.1354 | 28.6108 | 2.4323 | 1.3819 |
| 3 | 58.9844 | -42.6590 | 17.9274 | 0.6773 | 0.3848 |
| 4 | -62.4736 | -35.3967 | 20.0392 | 3.8173 | 2.1687 |
| 5 | 29.1437 | -52.2572 | 33.9600 | 2.4900 | 1.4146 |
| 6 | 34.8925 | 49.2278 | 31.7172 | 1.0247 | 0.5822 |
| 7 | -21.9794 | -31.4925 | 44.7823 | -0.0738 | -0.0419 |
| 8 | 24.4491 | -12.3897 | 46.0146 | 2.0092 | 1.1415 |
| 9 | -12.2897 | 23.6850 | 47.6412 | 2.0563 | 1.1682 |
| 10 | -66.1780 | 11.3946 | 25.5877 | 5.3545 | 3.0420 |
| 11 | 11.5202 | 18.0765 | 47.7258 | 2.2194 | 1.2609 |
| 12 | 65.6942 | 7.1795 | 21.9765 | -1.2420 | -0.7056 |

the 100 pixels. From these ADC and AKC values, we obtain the elements of the diffusion tensor $D$ and the diffusion kurtosis tensor $W$ by the using the least squares method and (6), as suggested in [8] and [11].

Our first example is taken from the white matter. The diffusion tensor $D$ is

$$
D=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
0.1755 & 0.0035 & 0.0132 \\
0.0035 & 0.1390 & 0.0017 \\
0.0132 & 0.0017 & 0.4006
\end{array}\right) \times 10^{-3}
$$

in unit of square mm per second, and the fifteen independent elements of the diffusion kurtosis tensor $W$ are $W_{1111}=0.4982, W_{2222}=0, W_{3333}=2.6311, W_{1112}=-0.0582, W_{1113}=-1.1719, W_{1222}=0.4880, W_{2223}=-0.6162$, $W_{1333}=0.7639, W_{2333}=0.7631, W_{1122}=0.2236, W_{1133}=0.4597, W_{2233}=0.1519, W_{1123}=-0.0171, W_{1223}=0.1852$ and $W_{1233}=-0.4087$, respectively. It is easy to find that

$$
M_{D}^{2}=\left(\frac{D_{11}+D_{22}+D_{33}}{3}\right)^{2}=5.6813 \times 10^{-8}
$$

To find the largest and the smallest AKC values, we need first obtain the largest and the smallest D-eigenvalues. Using the method provided in [20], we compute all the D-eigenvalues of $W$, and the associated eigenvectors, which are listed in Table 1.

From the above table we can see that the largest and the smallest AKC values for this example as 3.0420 and -0.7056 , attained at

$$
(-66.1780,11.3946,25.5877)^{\top} \text { and }(65.6942,7.1795,21.9765)^{\top},
$$

respectively. The spherical average AKC value $M_{S}$ is 1.4601 , which is in the interval $\left[K_{\min }, K_{\max }\right]=[-0.7056,3.0420$ ] and the six coefficients $A_{1}, A_{2}, A_{3}, A_{10}, A_{11}, A_{12}$ in the proof of Theorem 3 are

$$
[0.2514,0.6445,0.8619,0.1406,0.1523,0.2499] \times 10^{-8}
$$

To compute the inherent parameters, we first find the eigen-decomposition of the diffusion tensor $\mathrm{D}, \hat{D}=P^{T} D P$, where $\hat{D}$ is a diagonal matrix whose diagonal elements $\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}\right)=(0.4013,0.1751,0.1387) * 10^{-3}$ and

$$
P=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0.0584 & 0.9939 & 0.0938 \\
0.0073 & 0.0935 & -0.9956 \\
0.9983 & -0.0589 & 0.0018
\end{array}\right)
$$

The differences among the values $\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}\right)$ are relatively large, reflecting the anisotropic property of the white matter. The fifteen independent elements of $\hat{W}$ are $\hat{W}_{1111}=2.8190, \hat{W}_{2222}=0.7561, \hat{W}_{3333}=-0.1641, \hat{W}_{1112}=0.7160, \hat{W}_{1113}=$ $-0.6065, \hat{W}_{1222}=-1.1675, \hat{W}_{2223}=0.0512, \hat{W}_{1333}=0.6359, \hat{W}_{2333}=-0.4408, \hat{W}_{1122}=0.1521, \hat{W}_{1133}=0.2403, \hat{W}_{2233}=$ $0.3019, \hat{W}_{1123}=0.4521, \hat{W}_{1223}=-0.1710$ and $\hat{W}_{1233}=0.1219$, respectively. The AKC values along the three eigenvectors of $D$ (columns of $P$ ) are respectively $0.9943,1.4017$ and -0.4848 . The ellipsoidal average AKC value $M_{E}=0.9812$ which is also in the interval $\left[K_{\min }, K_{\max }\right]=[-0.7056,3.0420]$, the six coefficients $B_{1}, B_{2}, B_{3}, B_{10}, B_{11}, B_{12}$ in the proof of Theorem 5 are
$[0.0450,0.3603,1.5698,0.0020,0.0757,0.1534] \times 10^{-3}$,
and $S_{E}=0.3072$.
We also compute the D-eigenvalues of $\hat{D}$ and $\hat{W}$ and the results are the same as those listed in Table 1 , showing the rotation invariant property of D-eigenvalues, as indicated by Theorem 2.

Now we check the result in Theorem 6. We compute the tensor $\bar{W}$ by $\bar{W}_{i j k l}=\frac{M_{D}^{2} \hat{W}_{i j k l}}{\sqrt{\alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \alpha_{k} \alpha_{l}}}$. Then the fifteen independent elements of $\bar{W}$ are $\bar{W}_{1111}=0.9943, \bar{W}_{2222}=1.4017, \bar{W}_{3333}=-0.4848, \bar{W}_{1112}=0.3824, \bar{W}_{1113}=-0.3639, \bar{W}_{1222}=-1.4294$,
$\bar{W}_{2223}=0.1067, \bar{W}_{1333}=1.1044, \bar{W}_{2333}=-1.1594, \bar{W}_{1122}=0.1230, \bar{W}_{1133}=0.2453, \bar{W}_{2233}=0.7066, \bar{W}_{1123}=0.4108$, $\bar{W}_{1223}=-0.2352$ and $\bar{W}_{1233}=0.1884$, respectively.

We have $M_{Z}=0.8122$, and the six coefficients $C_{1}, C_{2}, C_{3}, C_{10}, C_{11}, C_{12}$ in the proof of Theorem 6 are
[2.5133, 2.5133, 2.5133, 0.8378, 0.8378, 0.8378].
From the above number, it easy to see that the equalities in Theorem 6 hold, i.e.,

$$
\begin{aligned}
M_{Z} & =\frac{1}{5}\left(\bar{W}_{1111}+\bar{W}_{2222}+\bar{W}_{3333}+2 \bar{W}_{1122}+2 \bar{W}_{1133}+2 \bar{W}_{2233}\right) \\
& =\frac{M_{D}^{2}}{5}\left(\frac{\hat{W}_{1111}}{\alpha_{1}^{2}}+\frac{\hat{W}_{2222}}{\alpha_{2}^{2}}+\frac{\hat{W}_{3333}}{\alpha_{3}^{2}}+\frac{2 \hat{W}_{1122}}{\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}}+\frac{2 \hat{W}_{1133}}{\alpha_{1} \alpha_{3}}+\frac{2 \hat{W}_{2233}}{\alpha_{2} \alpha_{3}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The six-dimensional matrix $\bar{U}$ is

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
0.9943 & 0.1230 & 0.2453 & 0.5408 & -0.5147 & 0.5810 \\
0.1230 & 1.4017 & 0.7066 & -2.0215 & -0.3327 & 0.1509 \\
0.2453 & 0.7066 & -0.4848 & 0.2664 & 1.5619 & -1.6396 \\
0.5408 & -2.0215 & 0.2664 & 0.2460 & 0.8216 & -0.4705 \\
-0.5147 & -0.3327 & 1.5619 & 0.8216 & 0.4906 & 0.3767 \\
0.5810 & 0.1509 & -1.6396 & -0.4705 & 0.3767 & 1.4132
\end{array}\right) .
$$

The six eigenvalues of $\bar{U}$ are $3.2568,2.5848,-2.5724,-1.6020,1.2318$, and 1.1621 , and its smallest and largest eigenvalues are -2.5724 and 3.2568 respectively. We can see that these two values are out of the range of the AKC values: [-0.7056, 3.0420].

Our second example is taken from the gray matter. The diffusion tensor $D$ is

$$
D=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0.3755 & 0.0105 & 0.0013 \\
0.0105 & 0.2603 & -0.0077 \\
0.0013 & -0.0077 & 0.4081
\end{array}\right) \times 10^{-3}
$$

in unit of square mm per second, and the fifteen independent elements of the diffusion kurtosis tensor $W$ are $W_{1111}=1.5248, W_{2222}=0, W_{3333}=1.9725, W_{1112}=0.1276, \quad W_{1113}=-0.1082, W_{1222}=0.0803, \quad W_{2223}=-0.1722$, $W_{1333}=0.1994, W_{2333}=0.1057, W_{1122}=0.3324, W_{1133}=0.2443, W_{2233}=0.1581, W_{1123}=0.0008, W_{1223}=-0.0526$ and $W_{1233}=-0.0326$, respectively. The largest and the smallest AKC values for this example are 1.5022 and -0.1587 , attained at $(6.8833,6.3098,48.8746)^{\top}$ and $(-2.3765,60.2395,12.9539)^{\top}$, respectively. The spherical average AKC value $M_{S}$ is 1.1068 . To compute the inherent parameters, we first find the eigen-decomposition of the diffusion tensor $\mathrm{D}, \hat{D}=P^{T} D P$, where $\hat{D}$ is a diagonal matrix whose diagonal elements $\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}\right)=(0.4085,0.3764,0.2589)$ and

$$
P=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0.0246 & 0.9956 & -0.0899 \\
-0.0500 & 0.0911 & 0.9946 \\
0.9984 & -0.0200 & 0.0520
\end{array}\right)
$$

The differences among the values $\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}\right)$ are relatively small, reflecting the isotropic property of the grey matter. The fifteen independent elements of $\hat{W}$ are $\hat{W}_{1111}=1.9625, \hat{W}_{2222}=1.5702, \hat{W}_{3333}=-0.0423, \hat{W}_{1112}=0.1877, \hat{W}_{1113}=0.1601$, $\hat{W}_{1222}=-0.0944, \hat{W}_{2223}=0.0712, \hat{W}_{1333}=-0.1270, \hat{W}_{2333}=-0.0171, \hat{W}_{1122}=0.2258, \hat{W}_{1133}=0.1896, \hat{W}_{2233}=0.3228$, $\hat{W}_{1123}=-0.0250, \hat{W}_{1223}=-0.0023$ and $\hat{W}_{1233}=-0.0674$, respectively. The AKC values along the three eigenvectors of $D$ are respectively $1.4239,1.3416$ and -0.0764 . The ellipsoidal average AKC value $M_{E}=1.2351$.

Now we check the result in Theorem 6. We compute the tensor $\bar{W}$ by $\bar{W}_{i j k l}=\frac{M_{D}^{2} \hat{W}_{i j k l}}{\sqrt{\alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \alpha_{k} \alpha_{l}}}$. The fifteen independent elements of $\bar{W}$ are $\bar{W}_{1111}=1.4239, \bar{W}_{2222}=1.3416, \bar{W}_{3333}=-0.0764, \bar{W}_{1112}=0.1419, \bar{W}_{1113}=0.1459, \bar{W}_{1222}=-0.0775$, $\bar{W}_{2223}=0.0734, \bar{W}_{1333}=-0.1826, \bar{W}_{2333}=-0.0257, \bar{W}_{1122}=0.1778, \bar{W}_{1133}=0.2170, \bar{W}_{2233}=0.4010, \bar{W}_{1123}=-0.0238$, $\bar{W}_{1223}=-0.0022$ and $\bar{W}_{1233}=-0.0803$, respectively.

We have $M_{Z}=0.8561$. The six-dimensional matrix $\bar{U}$ is

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
1.4239 & 0.1778 & 0.2170 & 0.2007 & 0.2064 & -0.0336 \\
0.1778 & 1.3416 & 0.4010 & -0.1096 & -0.0031 & 0.1038 \\
0.2170 & 0.4010 & -0.0764 & -0.1136 & -0.2583 & -0.0363 \\
0.2007 & -0.1096 & -0.1136 & 0.3556 & -0.0475 & -0.0045 \\
0.2064 & -0.0031 & -0.2583 & -0.0475 & 0.4340 & -0.1607 \\
-0.0336 & 0.1038 & -0.0363 & -0.0045 & -0.1607 & 0.8020
\end{array}\right),
$$

whose six eigenvalues are $1.6778,1.3338,0.8244,0.4686,-0.3347,0.3107$. Its smallest and largest eigenvalues are -0.3347 and 1.6778 respectively. Again, they are out of the AKC value range: [ $-0.1587,1.5022$ ].


Fig. 1. The map of $M_{S}$.


Fig. 2. The map of $M_{E}$.

Figs. 1-5 show the maps of $M_{S}, M_{E}, M_{Z}$, the largest and the smallest AKC values, respectively, on the rat spinal cord samples. In the figures, the values are scaled to [ 0,1 ], where 0 is the darkest part, and 1 is the brightest part. The ranges of $M_{S}$, $M_{E}, M_{Z}$, the largest and the smallest AKC values are $M_{S}:[-0.1285,0.5191] ; M_{E}:[-0.2761,0.8099] ; M_{Z}:[-1.8371,2.0628]$; $K_{\max }:[0.0001,6.9012]$; and $K_{\min }:[-3.2542,0.5852]$ respectively.

## 7. Final remarks

In this paper, we studied some principal invariants and inherent parameters of a DK tensor $W$. The largest AKC value $K_{\max }$, the smallest AKC value $K_{\min }$ and the spherical average AKC value $M_{S}$ are the principal invariants of $W$. They can be calculated in any Cartesian coordinate system. The inherent form $\hat{W}$ and its elements, the ellipsoidal average AKC value $M_{E}$, and the weighted average AKC value $M_{Z}$ are inherent parameters. They must be calculated in the inherent coordinate system of $W$. We hope that some of these quantities can be useful in the DKI practice.

In Sections 2 and 5, we compared the D-eigenvalues and the Kelvin eigenvalues. It is shown that the D-eigenvalues reflect exactly the largest and the smallest AKC values (Theorem 1), while the Kelvin eigenvalues, after adequate scaling, only give upper and lower bounds of AKC values, and such bounds have positive gaps with the largest and the smallest AKC values. This is not surprising in mathematics, as the Kelvin eigenvalue approach regards the vector product ( $x_{i} x_{j}$ ) as a matrix $X=\left(X_{i j}\right)$, then drops the rank-one restriction on $X$. The Kelvin eigenvector $X$ in general is not a rank-one matrix,


Fig. 3. The map of $M_{Z}$.


Fig. 4. The map of the largest AKC.
i.e., we cannot make $X_{i j}=x_{i} x_{j}$ in general. Thus, the Kelvin approach inevitably produces positive gaps when they are used to estimate the largest and the smallest AKC values. On the other hand, the D-eigenvalue approach generates the largest and the smallest AKC values exactly, as Theorem 1 indicates. Besides, Theorem 6 indicates that the sum of the Kelvin eigenvalues is related with $M_{Z}$. This shows that Kelvin eigenvalues are closer to the average AKC values in a certain sense.

Actually, a fourth order tensor $W$ is a multi-linear operator

$$
g(x, y, z, w)=\sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} W_{i j k l} x_{i} y_{j} z_{k} w_{l}
$$

The Kelvin eigenvalue approach treats $W$ as a linear operator

$$
g(X, Y)=\sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} W_{i j k l} X_{i j} Y_{k l}
$$

This certainly misses the multi-linearity information of $W$.
In Section 6, we presented two numerical examples based upon the MRI data acquired out of rat spinal cord samples. In these two examples, $W$ has 12 D-eigenvalues. This reflects that the optimization problems (7) and (8) are highly nonlinear,


Fig. 5. The map of the smallest AKC.
namely, with a quartic objective function and a quadratic constraint, which result in possibly 12 critical points. Among these 12 D-eigenvalues, the largest and the smallest one are more meaningful. They reflect the largest and the smallest AKC values. The other D-eigenvalues are local maximum, local minimum and saddle point AKC values. They are less important.

In these two examples, some AKC values are negative. A negative AKC value means that the diffusion displacement probability distribution is more sharply peaked than a Gaussian distribution; while a positive AKC values implies the diffusion displacement probability distribution is less sharply peaked than a Gaussian distribution. To ensure the model has physical meaning, we only need to guarantee that

$$
\begin{equation*}
b D_{\mathrm{app}}-\frac{1}{6} b^{2} D_{\mathrm{app}}^{2} K_{\mathrm{app}} \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

is positive along any direction. To guarantee the positivity of the above function, it suffices that the diffusion tensor $D$ is positive definite and the $b$-value chosen to fit Eq. (4) is smaller than $b_{\min }:=3 /\left(D_{\text {app }} K_{\text {app }}\right)$. How can we guarantee a positive definite diffusion tensor $D$ ? This problem has only been recently tackled in the literature related to Diffusion Tensor Imaging. See for example $[4,23]$. How to obtain a positive definite diffusion tensor $D$ and to guarantee the positiveness of (20) should be further studied carefully.

Recently, there are increasing interests on invariants of a fourth order tensor, such as the elasticity tensor in solid mechanics $[12,13]$.

In this paper, we mainly study invariants of the DK tensor $W$ from the mathematical side. A further collaboration of applied mathematicians and biomedical engineering researchers may further reveal the physical, biological and clinical meanings of such invariants.

## Appendix A. Calculation of D-eigenvalues and D-eigenvectors

From the definition of the D-eigenvalues and D-eigenvectors (9), for finding these values, we need to solve the polynomial equations (9). A direct method for solving such polynomial equations was introduced in [20]. Here we describe that method to make our paper self-contained.

Let $\tilde{W}$ be the fourth-order symmetric tensor, whose elements are defined as

$$
\tilde{W}_{i j k l}=\sum_{i^{\prime}=1}^{3} D_{i i^{\prime}}^{-1} W_{i^{\prime} j k l}, \quad i, j, k, l=1,2,3 .
$$

Then, (9) can be reformulated as

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\sum_{j, k, l=1}^{3} \tilde{W}_{i j k l} x_{j} x_{k} x_{l}=\lambda x_{i}, \quad i=1,2,3  \tag{A.1}\\
\sum_{i, j=1}^{3} D_{i j} x_{i} x_{j}=1
\end{array}\right.
$$

We have the following result, which is Theorem 4 in [20]. The proof is omitted here and the interested reader is referred to [20].

## Theorem A.1.

(a) If $\tilde{W}_{2111}=\tilde{W}_{3111}=0$, then $\lambda=\frac{\tilde{W}_{1111}}{D_{11}}$ is a D-eigenvalue with a $D$-eigenvector $x=\left( \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{D_{11}}}, 0,0\right)^{\top}$.
(b) For any real root $t$ of the following equations

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left\{\begin{array}{l}
-\tilde{W}_{2111} t^{4}+\left(\tilde{W}_{1111}-3 \tilde{W}_{2112}\right) t^{3}+3\left(\tilde{W}_{1112}-\tilde{W}_{2122}\right) t^{2}+\left(3 \tilde{W}_{1122}-\tilde{W}_{2222}\right) t+\tilde{W}_{1222}=0, \\
\tilde{W}_{3111} t^{3}+3 \tilde{W}_{3112} t^{2}+3 \tilde{W}_{3122} t+\tilde{W}_{3222}=0,
\end{array}\right. \\
& x= \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{D_{11} t^{2}+2 D_{12} t+D_{22}}}(t, 1,0)^{\top} \tag{A.2}
\end{align*}
$$

is a $D$-eigenvector of $W$ with the $D$-eigenvalue $\lambda=\sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} W_{i j k l} x_{i} x_{j} x_{k} x_{l}$.
(c) For any real root $u$ and $v$ of the following solutions

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left\{\begin{aligned}
- & \tilde{W}_{3111} u^{4}-3 \tilde{W}_{3112} u^{3} v+\left(\tilde{W}_{1111}-3 \tilde{W}_{3113}\right) u^{3}-3 \tilde{W}_{3122} u^{2} v^{2}+\left(3 \tilde{W}_{1112}-6 \tilde{W}_{3123}\right) u^{2} v \\
& +\left(3 \tilde{W}_{1113}-3 W_{3133}\right) u^{2}-3 W_{3223} u v^{2}-\tilde{W}_{3222} u v^{3}+3 \tilde{W}_{1122} u v^{2}+\left(6 \tilde{W}_{1123}-3 \tilde{W}_{3233}\right) u v \\
& +\left(3 \tilde{W}_{1133}-\tilde{W}_{3333}\right) u+\tilde{W}_{1222} v^{3}+3 \tilde{W}_{1223} v^{2}+3 \tilde{W}_{1233} v+\tilde{W}_{1333}=0, \\
- & \tilde{W}_{3111} u^{3} v+\tilde{W}_{2111} u^{3}-3 \tilde{W}_{3112} u^{2} v^{2}+\left(3 \tilde{W}_{2112}-3 \tilde{W}_{3113}\right) u^{2} v+3 \tilde{W}_{2113} u^{2}-3 \tilde{W}_{3122} u v^{3} \\
& +\left(3 \tilde{W}_{2122}-6 \tilde{W}_{3123}\right) u v^{2}+\left(6 \tilde{W}_{2123}-3 \tilde{W}_{3133}\right) u v+3 \tilde{W}_{2133} u+3 \tilde{W}_{2223} v^{2}-\tilde{W}_{3222} v^{4} \\
& +\left(\tilde{W}_{2222}-3 \tilde{W}_{3223}\right) v^{3}-3 \tilde{W}_{3233} v^{2}+\left(3 \tilde{W}_{2233}-\tilde{W}_{3333}\right) v+\tilde{W}_{2333}=0, \\
x= & \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{D_{11} u^{2}+2 D_{12} u v+D_{22} v^{2}+2 D_{23} v+D_{33}}}(u, v, 0)^{\top}
\end{aligned}\right.
\end{align*}
$$

is a $D$-eigenvector of $W$ with the $D$-eigenvalue $\lambda=\sum_{i, j, k, l=1}^{3} W_{i j k l} x_{i} x_{j} x_{k} x_{l}$.
All the D-eigenpairs of tensors D and $W$ are given by (a)-(c) if $\tilde{W}_{2111}=\tilde{W}_{3111}=0$, and by (b) and (c) otherwise.
From the above theorem, we can see that the main task in finding the D-eigenvalues and D-eigenvectors is to solve the systems (A.2) and (A.3). (A.2) is a system of polynomial equations with a single variable $t$, which can be solved easily. (A.3) is a system of polynomial equations in two variables $u$ and $v$. For solving such a system, we first regard it as a system of polynomial equations of variable $u$ and rewrite it as

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\gamma_{0} u^{4}+\gamma_{1} u^{3}+\gamma_{2} u^{2}+\gamma_{3} u+\gamma_{4}=0 \\
\tau_{0} u^{3}+\tau_{1} u^{2}+\tau_{2} u+\tau_{3}=0
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $\gamma_{0}, \ldots, \gamma_{4}, \tau_{0}, \ldots, \tau_{3}$ are polynomials of $v$, which can be calculated by (A.3). The above system of polynomial equations in $u$ possesses solutions if and only if its resultant vanishes [5]. The resultant of this system of polynomial equations is the determinant of the following $7 \times 7$ matrix

$$
V:=\left(\begin{array}{ccccccc}
\gamma_{0} & \gamma_{1} & \gamma_{2} & \gamma_{3} & \gamma_{4} & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \gamma_{0} & \gamma_{1} & \gamma_{2} & \gamma_{3} & \gamma_{4} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \gamma_{0} & \gamma_{1} & \gamma_{2} & \gamma_{3} & \gamma_{4} \\
\tau_{0} & \tau_{1} & \tau_{2} & \tau_{3} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \tau_{0} & \tau_{1} & \tau_{2} & \tau_{3} & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \tau_{0} & \tau_{1} & \tau_{2} & \tau_{3} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \tau_{0} & \tau_{1} & \tau_{2} & \tau_{3}
\end{array}\right)
$$

which is a polynomial equation in variable $v$. After finding all real roots of this polynomial, we can substitute them to (A.3) to find all the real solutions of $u$. Correspondingly, all the D-eigenvalues and the corresponding D-eigenvectors can be found.

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[^0]:    This work was supported by the Research Grant Council of Hong Kong and a Chair Professor Fund of The Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

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