



# Shortest Path Optimization of the CyberKnife treatment in Radiotherapy

Kortste-pad optimalisatie van de CyberKnife-behandeling bij  
radiotherapie

by

**Joris Mühlsteff**

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

**Bachelor of Science**  
in Applied Mathematics

at the Delft University of Technology,  
to be defended publicly on Thursday July 6, 2017 at 11:00 PM.

**Supervisor**

Drs. ir. M. Keijzer, TU Delft

**Commitee members**

Dr.ir. S. Breedveld, Erasmus MC Rotterdam

Dr. D.C. Gijswijt, TU Delft

Dr. J.G. Spandaw, TU Delft



# Preface

This bachelor thesis was written as part of the curriculum for students of the bachelor Applied Mathematics at the TU Delft. For my Bachelorproject, I did an internship at the Erasmus Medical Center Rotterdam. The project itself took place at the Daniel den Hoed location, which specializes in oncology.

I would like to thank the following people: Marleen Keijzer, my supervisor from the TU Delft for bringing me in contact with the Erasmus Medical Center and for advice on the project and the thesis. Sebastiaan Breedveld, my supervisor at the Erasmus Medical Center, for guiding me through most of the project, doing plan quality calculations and for overall support during the internship. And lastly, I would like to thank my fellow research colleagues at the faculty, for making my internship at the Erasmus Medical Center a true fun experience for me to remember.

This internship was a great opportunity for me to apply knowledge of mathematics to solve real world problems.



# Summary

The main goal of this report is to improve the traveltime of the CyberKnife treatment, used for radiotherapy, without loss of plan quality. This is done by using optimization techniques, such as Dijkstra's Algorithm, as well as incorporating Hamiltonian paths and the Traveling Salesman Problem. All calculations are done using Matlab, a numerical computing software.

With the above mentioned techniques, we created OPA, an Optimal Path Algorithm, that is based on finding Hamiltonian paths, combined with the iterated process of interchanging nodes with adjacent ones. With OPA, the traveltimes for 31 patients have been brought down by 35.9% on average, without any significant loss of plan quality.



# Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1	Radiotherapy . . . . .	1
1.2	The CyberKnife . . . . .	1
<b>2</b>	<b>Problem description</b>	<b>5</b>
2.1	Research goals . . . . .	5
2.2	Overview . . . . .	6
2.3	Study Design . . . . .	6
<b>3</b>	<b>Shortest Path Optimization</b>	<b>9</b>
3.1	Asymmetrical Dijkstra Algorithm (ADA) . . . . .	9
3.1.1	Methods . . . . .	10
3.1.2	Results . . . . .	11
3.2	Symmetrical Dijkstra Algorithm (SDA) . . . . .	12
3.2.1	Methods . . . . .	12
3.2.2	Results . . . . .	14
3.3	Hamiltonian Path Algorithm (HPA) . . . . .	15
3.3.1	Methods . . . . .	15
3.3.2	Results . . . . .	18
3.4	Comparison of methods . . . . .	19
<b>4</b>	<b>Neighbour Path Algorithm (NPA)</b>	<b>21</b>
4.1	Computing Neighbour Paths . . . . .	21
4.1.1	Methods . . . . .	21

4.1.2	Results	23
4.2	Analysis of Convergence	24
4.3	Plan Quality	26
<b>5</b>	<b>Additional restrictions</b>	<b>27</b>
5.1	Starting Nodes	27
5.1.1	Methods	27
5.2	Dummy Nodes	28
5.2.1	Methods	28
5.3	Concluding Results	28
<b>6</b>	<b>Conclusions</b>	<b>31</b>
<b>7</b>	<b>Recommendations</b>	<b>33</b>
	<b>Bibliography</b>	<b>35</b>
	<b>Appendices</b>	<b>37</b>
A	Matlab codes	39
B	Traveltimes of all algorithms	49
C	New paths	51



# Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 Radiotherapy

In the history of medicine, different treatments for cancer have been developed, such as radiotherapy, surgery and chemotherapy. However, nowadays more than 50% of the people diagnosed with cancer, undergo a radiotherapy treatment [1]. During a radiotherapy treatment, the tumor is treated locally with ionizing radiation, which destroys the malignant cells, while sparing the surrounding healthy tissue as much as possible [2]. Some other forms of radiotherapy include stereotactic radiosurgery (focusing high-power energy on a small area of the body) and brachytherapy (placing a radiation source inside the tumor).

Whenever a patient has to undergo radiotherapy, a computed tomography scan (CT-scan) has to be made of the patient, on which a treatment plan is designed. This plan tells which parts should be irradiated and with what level [3]. After this, the treatment is delivered by a treatment device, which will be further outlined in the next section.

### 1.2 The CyberKnife

The CyberKnife is a robotic radiosurgery system that was invented by Dr. John R. Adler, a Stanford University professor and Peter and Russell Schonberg of Schonberg Research Corporation. It is used for treating a variety of tumors, such as lung, prostate, and head-and-neck tumors. For this project, we will focus on prostate cancer patients only. Since 2004, the Radiotherapy department of the Erasmus Medical Center Rotterdam started using the CyberKnife, as seen in Figure 1.1, for precise radiations.



Figure 1.1: CyberKnife used at the Erasmus Medical Center Rotterdam

The treatment plan for a patient contains a selection of around 25 out of 110 nodes which is found to be best fitting for the treatment of that patient. The nodes mentioned in the treatment plan are the nodes from which radiation is delivered.

For the actual treatment of the patient, a virtual grid is placed around the patient. Since the nodes emanated from treatment plans made for prostate cancer patients, the grid is shaped like a semisphere, containing 110 candidate nodes, as seen in Figure 1.2.

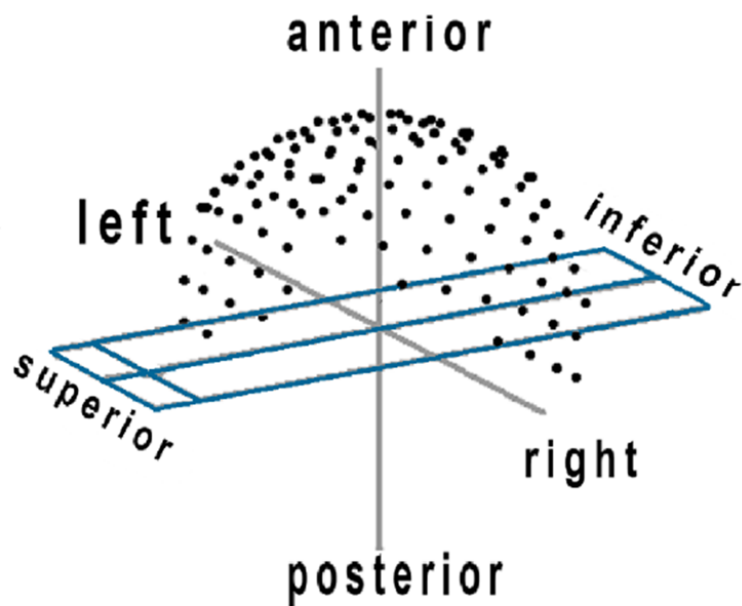


Figure 1.2: *Breedveld, S. (2013). CyberKnife search space. Towards automated treatment planning in radiotherapy.* The blue rectangle represents the operating table.

If for example a head-and-neck tumor had to be treated, the shape of the grid would resemble something close to three-quarter of a sphere, since traveling underneath the head is also possible with the CyberKnife.

The approximately 25 nodes used to radiate the patient are the so called *mustpass nodes*, while the remaining  $\sim 85$  nodes can be used as traveling nodes for the CyberKnife to move from one node to the other, the so called *inbetween nodes*. There are also 8 dummy nodes, which are used for the sole purpose of serving as inbetween nodes. Radiation from these nodes is not possible. Note that the inbetween nodes change for every patient, as each patient has a different set of mustpass nodes.

Movement of the CyberKnife is restricted to grid lines between the nodes. This has to do with safety reasons. The three-dimensional grid is placed around the patient so that the CyberKnife moves safely alongside the patient without touching him or her. If the machine were not to move around the grid lines, but simply around the fastest route from one node to another, which would be a straight line in Euclidean space, the machine could injure the patient. Therefore it travels around the patient by the pre-programmed lines. If the CyberKnife has to travel from node A to adjacent node B, it could do so directly by a straight line. However, if there is not a direct path from node A to B, the CyberKnife may first need to move to an adjacent node C. This process is repeated until the node B can be directly reached.



## Chapter 2

# Problem description

### 2.1 Research goals

Now that we have a decent understanding of the working of the CyberKnife, we can formulate our general research question:

*“How can we optimize the traveltime of the CyberKnife?”*

Before we start thinking of any strategies to answer this question, there are still some important restrictions of the CyberKnife which we will need to take into consideration:

- The CyberKnife can only travel from nodes to higher-numbered nodes. This means that if the CyberKnife for example has to travel from node 1 to 4, it could do so by going from 1 to 3 to 4, but not by going from 1 to 5 to 4. This is because of mechanical limitations, such as cables of the robotic arm getting tied up.
- The order in which the mustpass nodes are visited cannot be altered. The CyberKnife currently visits the mustpass nodes in ascending order.
- It is also determined in the treatment plan which mustpass nodes need to be visited. Deviating from these nodes may result in loss of plan quality.

Based on these restrictions, we can split up our research question into three sub-questions:

1. *How can we travel as fast as possible from node A to node B?*
2. *Does changing the order of the mustpass nodes benefit the traveltime?*
3. *Does replacing mustpass nodes with adjacent nodes benefit the traveltime, without loss of plan quality?*

Now we can start outlaying our steps to answer these questions.

## 2.2 Overview

In Chapter 3 we will take a look at the first two sub-questions. We will discuss three related methods for finding shortest paths through the mustpass nodes, and compare results. In Chapter 4, we will continue with the last sub-question: finding adjacent solutions without degrading the plan quality. We will first develop a method for finding adjacent solutions, after which we can check whether the plan quality is still acceptable. In Chapter 5 we will look at two additional restrictions that came along the research. Lastly, we will discuss our results in Chapter 6 and give further recommendations in Chapter 7.

Since this project is done almost entirely in Matlab, there will be pseudocode provided for all the Matlab programs. The actual Matlab code is added in Appendix A.

## 2.3 Study Design

The Erasmus Medical Center Rotterdam provided a dataset containing a cell with mustpass nodes of plans for the patients, as well as a traversal matrix: a matrix of traveltimes between the nodes. The cell contains nodes of 30 patients, from which 20 patients have 30 mustpass nodes, and 10 patients have 32 mustpass nodes. Besides the nodes for the 30 patients, they also provided 25 nodes for a class solution [4]. This is a path that is acceptable for all patients. Since it contains less nodes than the paths for the patients, it does not result in a optimal treatment plan, but saves more time on the other hand. We will include this path as our ‘patient 0’.

The traversal matrix is a  $110 \times 110$  matrix, mustpass nodes and inbetween nodes mixed, so because of its size, it is not possible to fully display the matrix, so a small section of it is displayed in Table 2.1. Note that the matrix is the same for all patients, as these times concern the traveltimes of the nodes in the grid, which is stored information.

	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>1</b>	0	8.5	x	x	x	x	x	10.8
<b>2</b>	x	0	3.7	8	5.3	7	10.2	5.7
<b>3</b>	x	x	0	7.7	x	9.5	12.7	7
<b>4</b>	x	x	x	0	4.3	x	13.7	x
<b>5</b>	x	x	x	x	0	8	11.5	10.2
<b>6</b>	x	x	x	x	x	0	4.7	9.2
<b>7</b>	x	x	x	x	x	x	0	11.7
<b>8</b>	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	0

Table 2.1: Section of the asymmetrical traversal matrix. Traveltimes denoted in seconds.

The time it takes the CyberKnife to travel from node  $A$  to node  $B$ , with  $A < B$ , can be found in matrix element  $(A, B)$ . Note that if  $A > B$ , we always find x as a result, because traveling to a lower-numbered node is not possible with this implementation. This is coherent with the restrictions mentioned in section 2.1.

There are also some x’s above the diagonal. This implies that there is not a direct path between those nodes. For example, if the algorithm has to travel from node 1 to node 5, it first checks all the directly reachable nodes from node 1. From those nodes, it checks if node 5 now can be

directly reached. It keeps doing so until node 5 can be directly reached, or until a shorter path with more nodes is found. For example if  $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 5$  would be faster than  $1 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 5$ , because traveling from node 3 to 5 is apparently very inefficient. Lastly, traveling to a node itself has no traveltime, and therefore the diagonal entries are all 0.





## Chapter 3

# Shortest Path Optimization

This chapter contains three related algorithms for finding shortest paths through the mustpass nodes. For each algorithm, an explanation of its functioning will be provided, both in words, pseudocode and visual. The chapter will be concluded with a comparison of the three algorithms.

### 3.1 Asymmetrical Dijkstra Algorithm (ADA)

In this section, we will give a description of the current programming of the CyberKnife. This method utilizes the Asymmetrical Dijkstra Algorithm (ADA). For the construction of the algorithm, an implementation of Dijkstra from Mathworks [5] was used. A pseudocode description of Dijkstra's algorithm [6] is shown in Algorithm 1.

```
Input Graph  $G = (V, E)$  with traveltimes on edges; starting node  $s$ ; finish node  $f$ ;  
Output Shortest distance from  $s$  to  $f$ ;  
  
 $W$  = set of all unvisited nodes;  
for all vertices  $v$  in  $G$  do  
     $d(s, v) = \infty$ ;  
     $d(s, s) = 0$ ;  
    add  $v$  to  $W$ ;  
end  
while  $W \neq \emptyset$  do  
     $u$  = vertex with minimal  $d(s, u)$ ;  
     $W = W \setminus \{u\}$ ;  
    for each neighbour  $v \in W$  of  $u$  do  
         $d(s, v) = \min\{d(s, v), d(s, u) + d(u, v)\}$ ;  
    end  
end
```

**Algorithm 1:** Pseudocode description of Dijkstra's algorithm.

### 3.1.1 Methods

The shortest path problem in the CyberKnife treatment comes down to the following: find the shortest path that covers all mustpass nodes, starting from node(1), to node(2),..., to node(end). This basically means applying Dijkstra’s algorithm to each sequential node pair and finding the shortest times between these pairs. If we then add up all the sequential times, we get the total travelttime to cover all the mustpass nodes.

To visualize this process, we will discuss an example with the use of Figure 3.1.

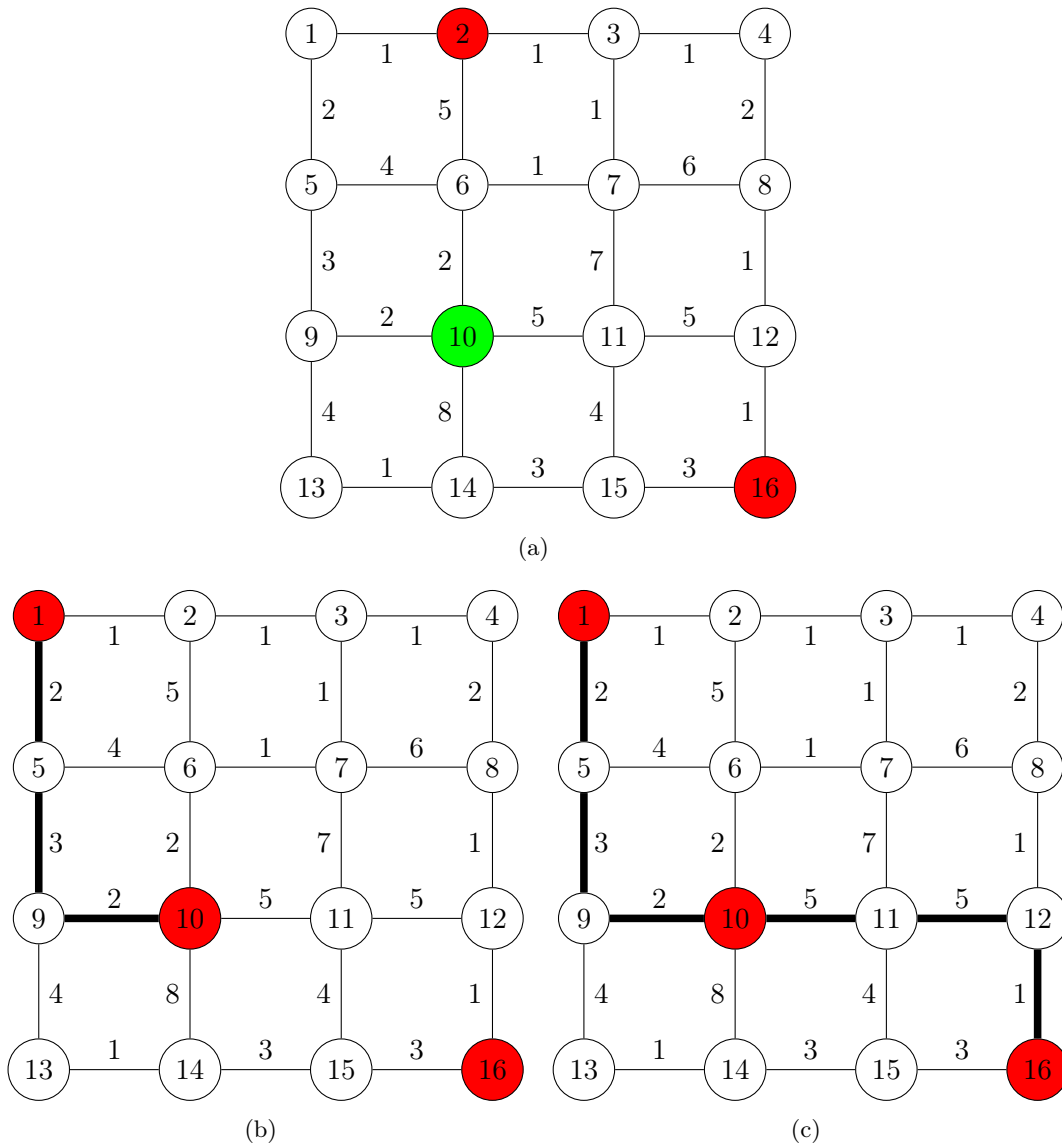


Figure 3.1: Example of the ADA.

Suppose we have a simplified grid with 13 inbetween nodes, with 3 mustpass nodes: 1, 10 and 16. Our starting node will be node 1, and our finish node will be node 16. If it is possible to travel directly from one node to the other, the nodes are labeled neighbours and are connected

with an edge with the traveltime between those node on it, as displayed in Figure 3.1(a). The ADA will now apply Dijkstra’s algorithm with starting node 1 and finish node 10. It finds the shortest path as displayed in Figure 3.1(b). Note that  $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 7 \rightarrow 6 \rightarrow 10$  is actually a shorter path, but since that contains a traversal to a lower-numbered node, it is not possible. The ADA then applies Dijkstra’s algorithm with starting node 10 and and finish node 16 and finds the shortest path as displayed in Figure 3.1(c). After having computed all the sequential shortest paths, the ADA then adds up all the sequential traveltimes which results in the final traveltime. In our example, this results in a path length of 18.

A pseudocode description of the ADA is displayed in Algorithm 2. The full Matlab code is added in Appendix A.1.

```

Input Mustpass odes for all patients; Traversal matrix;
Output Shortest paths and traveltimes for all patients;

for all patients do
  | Sort all nodes in ascending order;
end
Initialize table with results ;
for all patients do
  | Initialize table with nodes times between sequential mustpass node pairs;
  for nodes per patient do
    | Compute traveltimes between sequential mustpass node pairs with Dijkstra
    | implementation;
  end
  | Sum all sequential node times;
  | Return traveltime
end

```

**Algorithm 2:** Pseudocode for the Asymmetrical Dijkstra algorithm

### 3.1.2 Results

Using the data from the Erasmus Medical Center Rotterdam, the ADA results in the traveltimes denoted in Figure 3.2. These are the current traveltimes of the CyberKnife for the 30 patients. The full table with results is added in Appendix B.

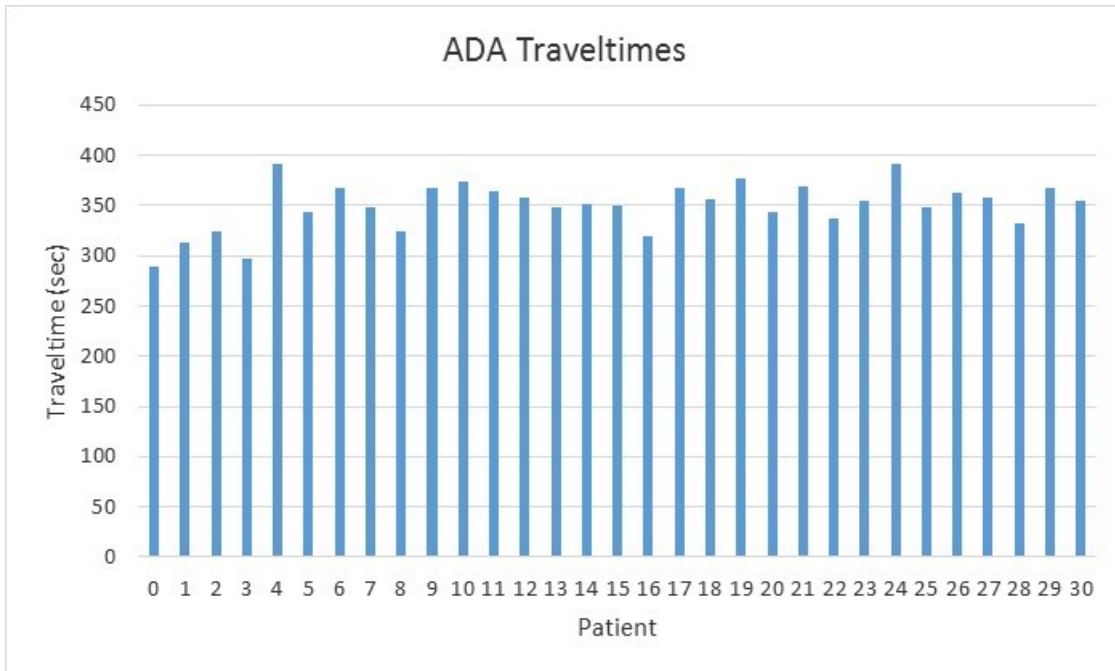


Figure 3.2: Traveletimes of 31 patients, computed with the ADA.

## 3.2 Symmetrical Dijkstra Algorithm (SDA)

We will now take our first step in improving the current programming of the CyberKnife, by removing the first restriction in Section 2.1, which states that the CyberKnife can only travel to lower-numbered inbetween nodes. The algorithm presented in this section uses the same implementation of Dijkstra’s algorithm, but with a minor modification in the input, which will be explained in the next section.

### 3.2.1 Methods

We do now allow traveling to lower-numbered inbetween nodes, so we need to know the traveltime from node  $A$  to node  $B$ , where  $A > B$ . The most straightforward choice would be the same traveltime from node  $B$  to node  $A$ . This means we have to modify the matrix from Section 3.1.1, by mirroring it over its diagonal, which will result in a symmetrical matrix with zeros on the diagonal. A section of the now symmetrical traversal matrix is denoted in Table 3.1.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	0	8.5	x	x	x	x	x	10.8
2	8.5	0	3.7	8	5.3	7	10.2	5.7
3	x	3.7	0	7.7	x	9.5	12.7	7
4	x	8	7.7	0	4.3	x	13.7	x
5	x	5.3	x	4.3	0	8	11.5	10.2
6	x	7	9.5	x	8	0	4.7	9.2
7	x	10.2	12.7	13.7	11.5	4.7	0	11.7
8	10.8	5.7	7	x	10.2	9.2	11.7	0

Table 3.1: Small part of the symmetrical node traversal matrix. Traveltimes denoted in seconds.

The x's in the matrix are the same ones as in the matrix in Figure 2.1, meaning that there is not a direct path between the nodes. If the algorithm now has to find the shortest path from mustpass node  $A$  to mustpass node  $B$ , it can now also pick inbetween nodes with a lower numbering than  $A$ .

To visualize this process, we return to our example from Section 3.1.1.

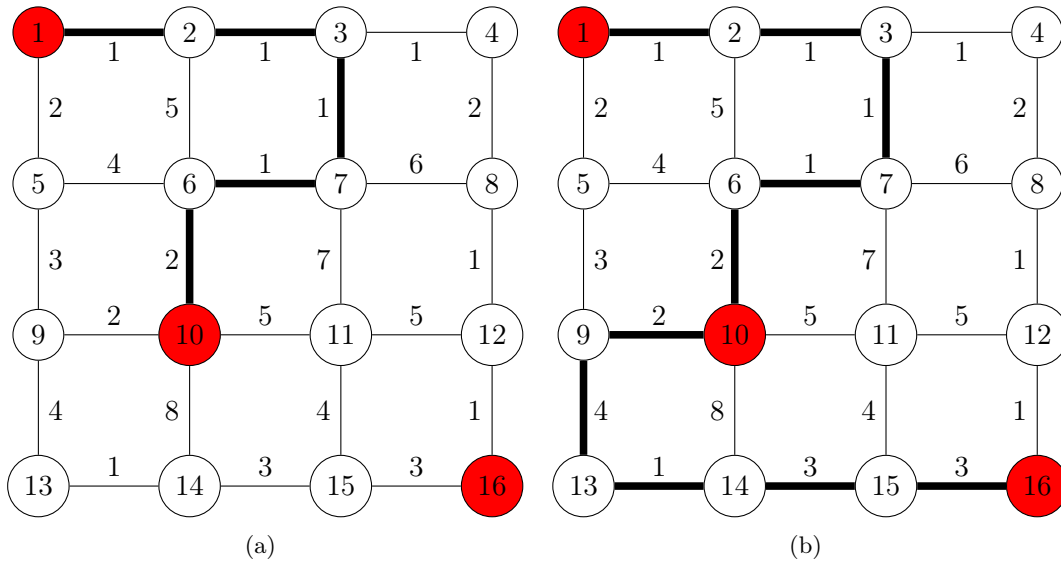


Figure 3.3: Example of the SDA.

This time, we allow traveling to lower-numbered nodes, so the SDA can pick the path that we already mentioned in 3.1.1,  $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 7 \rightarrow 6 \rightarrow 10$ , as our shortest path from node 1 to node 10, as displayed in Figure 3.3(a). The SDA then does the same for start node 10 and finish node 10, which results in the shortest path  $10 \rightarrow 9 \rightarrow 13 \rightarrow 14 \rightarrow 15 \rightarrow 16$ , as shown in Figure 3.3(b). The total path length is now 16, which is an improvement over the ADA.

So our Symmetrical Dijkstra Algorithm (SDA) basically operates the same as the ADA, with the only difference being that we feed the algorithm the symmetrical matrix instead of the asymmetrical matrix. Therefore the pseudocode description of the SDA is the same as in Algorithm 2. The full Matlab code is added in Appendix A.2.

### 3.2.2 Results

Using the same data as in Section 3.1.1, the SDA results in the traveltimes denoted in Figure 3.4.

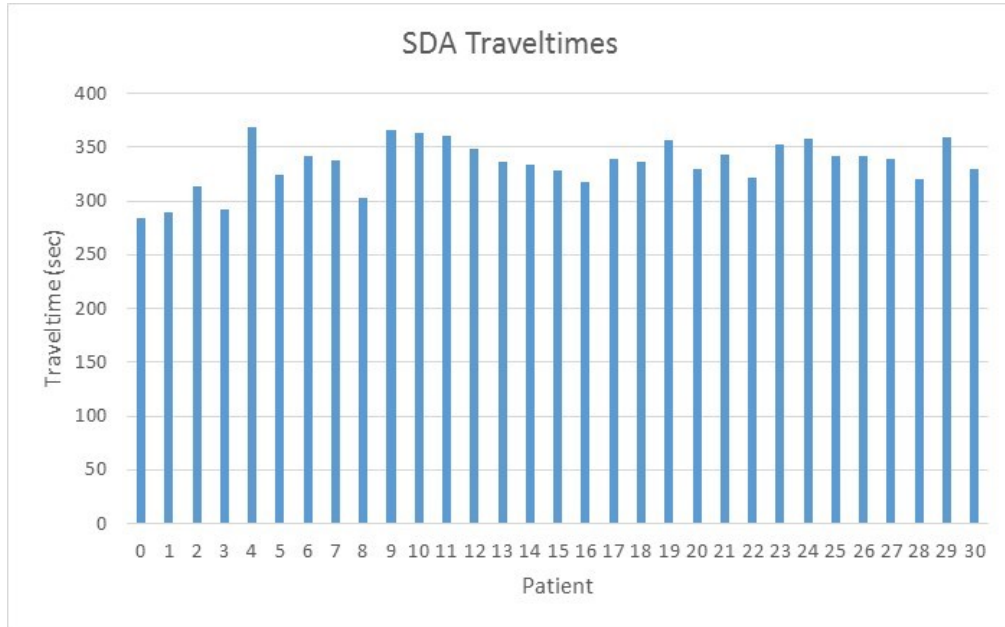


Figure 3.4: Traveltimes of 31 patients, computed with the SDA.

We would expect better results with the SDA, since more paths are allowed, thus creating a higher chance of finding a shorter path. A comparison of the ADA and SDA is shown in Figure 3.5. The full table with results is added in Appendix B.

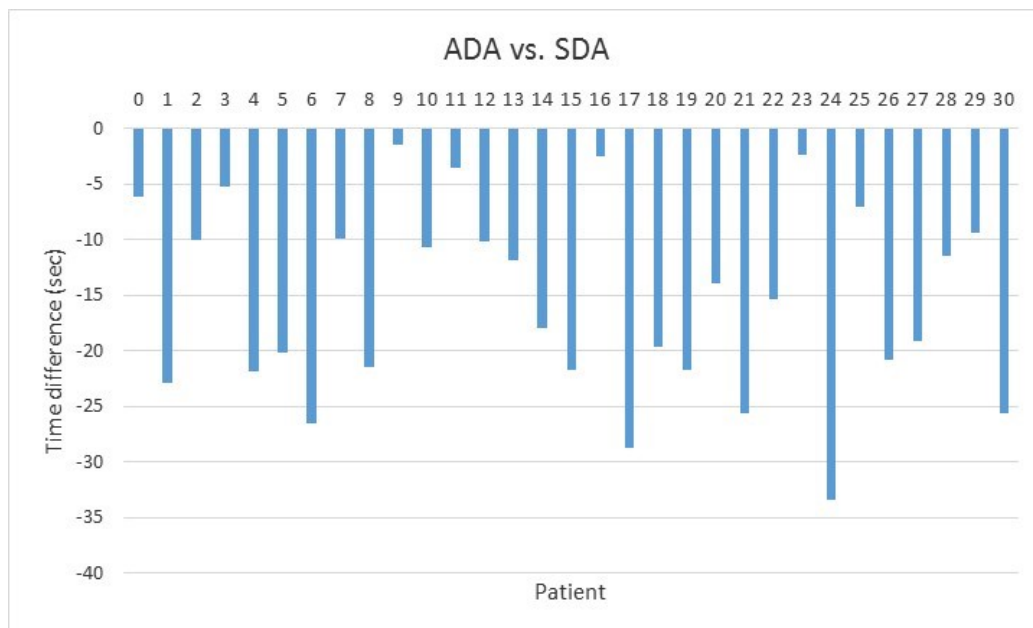


Figure 3.5: Time advantages of SDA over ADA for 31 patients.

If we look at Figure 3.5, we see that there is already a time advantage for all the patients, with an average of 15.5 seconds, which translates to a 4.4% time advantage on average. The standard deviation here amounts more than 7 seconds, which is interesting. This probably has to do with the fact that some paths simply cannot get much better by traveling to lower-numbered nodes.

### 3.3 Hamiltonian Path Algorithm (HPA)

Now we can focus on the second restriction from Section 2.1. Not only do we allow traveling to lower-numbered inbetween nodes, but also changing the order of the mustpass nodes. This means we now have a number of  $n$  nodes which need to be visited as quickly as possible, regardless of the order in which we do so. This resembles one of mathematics most well known problems: The Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP), which states the following: *“Given a list of cities and the distances between each pair of cities, what is the shortest possible route that visits each city exactly once and returns to the original city?”* In our problem, the cities are nodes, and the distances are traveltimes. Note that the TSP requires that the starting point and the ending point are the same. This is required so that the postman, in the original problem, returns home instead of ending up somewhere and then having to travel all the way back home. In our problem however, it is not necessary for the CyberKnife to return to its starting position. Therefore we are free to choose our begin and end node, as long as we cover all the mustpass nodes. Again, we recognize another famous problem in mathematics, closely related to the TSP: finding a Hamiltonian path in a graph. This problem comes down to the following:

*“A Hamiltonian path is a path in a graph that visits each vertex exactly once. Then does a given graph contain a Hamilton path?”*

This problem will play a big role in constructing our new algorithm, which we will continue in the next section.

#### 3.3.1 Methods

Now that we only focus on reordering the mustpass nodes, every combination of nodes is now possible. Therefore we need to extend the matrix in Section 3.2.1. This means we have to replace the remaining x's in the matrix with the accompanying traveltimes, for convenience. This can be accomplished by applying Dijkstra's algorithm on every entry in the matrix. Note that whenever we used the ADA or the SDA in the previous sections, since not all entries in the  $110 \times 110$  matrix were filled with a positive traveltime, the algorithm had to compute the traveltimes for all the elements in the matrix for every single patient again. To reduce the computational time, instead of computing all the values again for every patient, we fill in the matrix in advance, so that the algorithm can simply check the value in every element. A pseudocode description of the process

is displayed in Algorithm 3. The full Matlab code is added in Appendix A.3.

```

Input Matrix used in the SDA;
Output Symmetrical matrix with traveltimes for all node pairs and matrix with paths between
all node pairs;

Initialize empty matrix for traveltimes ;
Initialize empty matrix for paths ;

for all rows do
  | for all columns do
  | | Compute the traveltimes and paths between every node pair with Dijkstra's algorithm ;
  | end
end

```

**Algorithm 3:** Pseudocode for computing the traveltimes and paths between every node pair

This results in symmetrical matrix with traveltimes and a matrix with paths. Small sections of both of them are displayed in Table 3.2 and Table 3.3.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	0	8.5	12	16.5	13.8	15.5	18.7	10.8
2	8.5	0	3.7	8	5.3	7	10.2	5.7
3	12	3.7	0	7.7	9	9.5	12.7	7
4	16.5	8	7.7	0	4.3	12.3	13.7	13.7
5	13.8	5.3	9	4.3	0	8	11.5	10.2
6	15.5	7	9.5	12.3	8	0	4.7	9.2
7	18.7	10.2	12.7	13.7	11.5	4.7	0	11.7
8	10.8	5.7	7	13.7	10.2	9.2	11.7	0

Table 3.2: Shortest traveltimes between all node pairs.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	1	[1 2]	[1 12 3]	[1 2 4]	[1 2 5]	[1 2 6]	[1 2 7]	[1 8]
2	[2 1]	2	[2 3]	[2 4]	[2 5]	[2 6]	[2 7]	[2 8]
3	[3 12 1]	[3 2]	3	[3 4]	[3 2 5]	[3 6]	[3 7]	[3 8]
4	[4 2 1]	[4 2]	[4 3]	4	[4 5]	[4 5 6]	[4 7]	[4 2 8]
5	[5 2 1]	[5 2]	[5 2 3]	[5 4]	5	[5 6]	[5 7]	[5 8]
6	[6 2 1]	[6 2]	[6 3]	[6 5 4]	[6 5]	6	[6 7]	[6 8]
7	[7 2 1]	[7 2]	[7 3]	[7 4]	[7 5]	[7 6]	7	[7 8]
8	[8 1]	[8 2]	[8 3]	[8 2 4]	[8 5]	[8 6]	[8 7]	8

Table 3.3: Shortest paths between all node pairs.

For the actual algorithm a TSP implementation from MathWorks [7] was used, from the same author as the Dijkstra implementation. It is slightly different than the standard TSP, as this implementation does not require the near optimal route to be a cycle, but rather a path. So the implementation finds the near optimal Hamiltonian path, which is exactly what we want. Note that the computed path will be a near optimal path instead of *the* optimal path, since solving





paths in a  $N \times N$  matrix, where  $N \leq 32$ , instead of the  $110 \times 110$  matrix that both the SDA and ADA use. This is done to reduce the computational time of the HPA.

### 3.3.2 Results

Using the same data from Section 3.1.1, the HPA results in the traveltimes denoted in Figure 3.7. The full table with traveltimes is added in Appendix B.

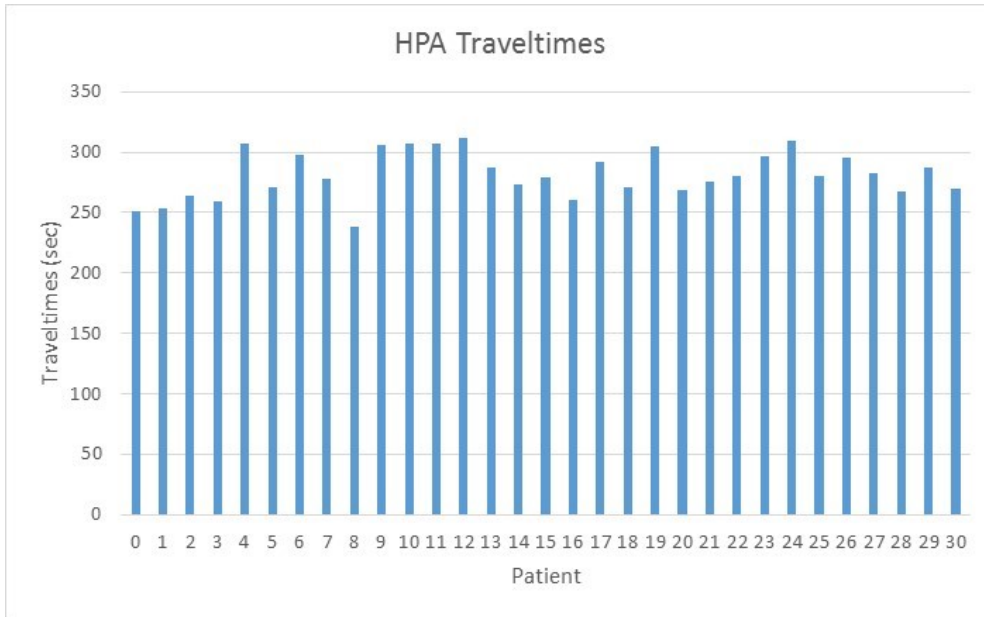


Figure 3.7: Traveltimes of 31 patients, computed with the HPA.

To compare results, a comparison of the HPA and ADA traveltimes is shown in Figure 3.8.

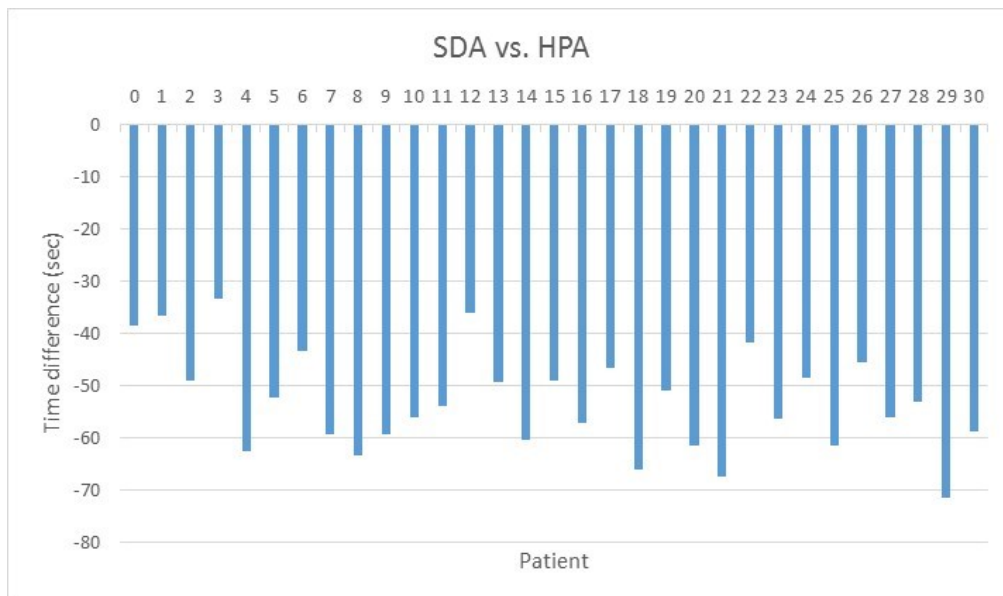


Figure 3.8: Time advantages of HPA over SDA for 31 patients.

We see more equal time advantages for all patients, with an average of 53.0 seconds, which translates to a 15.1% time advantage. This is already significantly better than the 4.4% of the SDA.

### 3.4 Comparison of methods

We have now discussed our methods for finding shortest paths. Out of all 3 of them, the HPA is clearly the best method. As seen in Figure 3.9, the method has a significant time advantage for every patient, with an average of 68.3 seconds, which translates to a 19.4% time advantage on average.

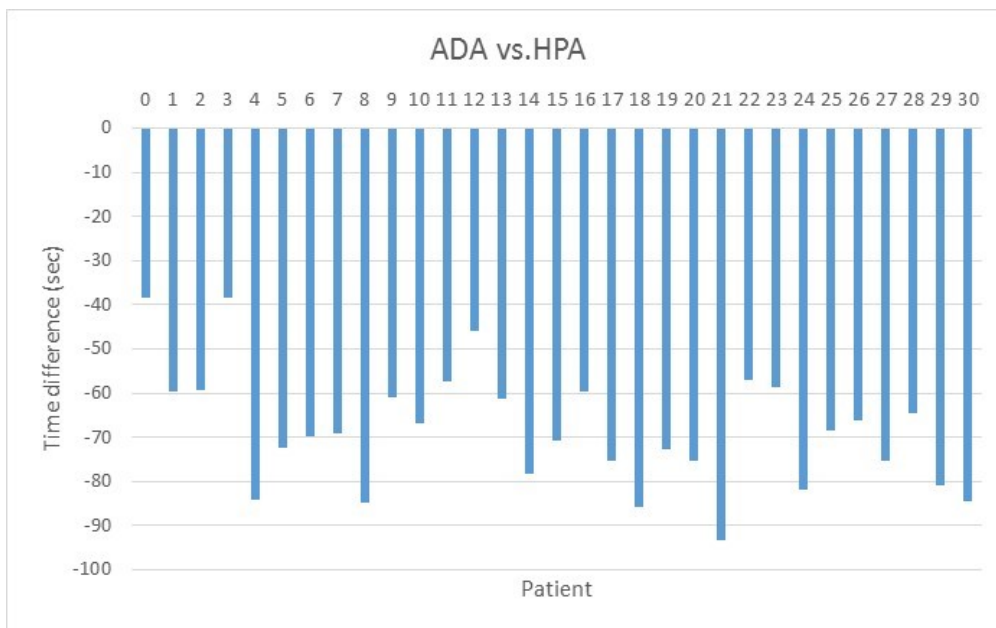


Figure 3.9: Time advantages of HPA over ADA for 31 patients.

For as far as computational time, the ADA takes less than one second per patient to compute the shortest path and traveltime, while the HPA takes around 20 seconds per patient to do so. So the HPA runs quite slower compared to the ADA, but this is no surprise, since Hamilton is a more powerful algorithm than Dijkstra. Since 20 seconds is still a very reasonable time for a program to run, we still favor the HPA over the ADA and the SDA. The full table with shorter paths is added in Appendix B.



## Chapter 4

# Neighbour Path Algorithm (NPA)

Now that we have answered the first two of our sub-questions, we can continue with the third sub-question: can we find shorter paths if we replace mustpass nodes with adjacent nodes that result in a better traveltime? We will answer this question in the section [4.1](#). Then, in Section [4.2](#) we will do a convergence analysis of our method. Lastly, in Section [4.3](#) we will talk about the plan quality of our newly found paths.

### 4.1 Computing Neighbour Paths

#### 4.1.1 Methods

Our Neighbour Path Algorithm (NPA) takes the path computed with the HPA per patient as its standard path. It works in 2 basic steps:

1. Per node, find its neighbour nodes
2. Per node, replace the node with its neighbours, and check per neighbour if this results in a shorter path. If it does, replace the node with its neighbour.

To find neighbour nodes, we look at nodes that fall in a certain interval of degrees from the original node. We chose an interval of  $15^\circ$ , as we do not find any neighbours within  $10^\circ$ , and any number above 15 results in too many neighbours, which would take too much computational time. Choosing  $15^\circ$  usually leads to around 7 neighbours. The full Matlab code on choosing these neighbours is added in [Appendix A.5](#).

Note that the NPA operates in a Greedy way. It only checks for a local minimum per node, and then moves on to the next node. More about this is examined in [Chapter 7](#).

For computation of the shortest path after replacing a node with a neighbour node, we use Dijkstra, since the order of the mustpass nodes is fixed. This comes down to using the SDA. A pseudocode description is displayed in [Algorithm 5](#). The full algorithm is added in [Appendix A.6](#).

```

Input A list of  $N$  mustpass nodes; traversal between all nodes;
Output Neighbour paths for all patients; traveltimes for all patients; potential time
advantages;

Initialize empty tables for results;
for all patients do
  Compute the Hamiltonian path;
  Copy nodes of Hamiltonian path into new vector;
  Set initial shortest traveltime equal to HPA traveltime;
  for all  $N$  nodes in the Hamiltonian path do
    Find all neighbour nodes;
    Remember current node that is being replaced;
    for all neighbour nodes do
      if neighbour node is not already in Hamiltonian path then
        Replace current node with neighbour node;
        Compute traveltime of new path with Dijkstra;
        if Traveltime new path < initial traveltime then
          Set new initial shortest traveltime equal to computed traveltime;
          Set new initial shortest path equal to computed path;
          Update current shortest path by replacing current node with neighbour node
        end
      end
    end
    if neighbour node does not result in a better path, set replaced node back to previously
    best neighbour node;
  end
  Enter results in tables;
end

```

**Algorithm 5:** Pseudocode for Neighbour Path Algorithm

### 4.1.2 Results

Using the same data from Section 3.1.1, the NPA results in the traveltimes denoted in Figure 4.1. The full table with results is added in Appendix B.

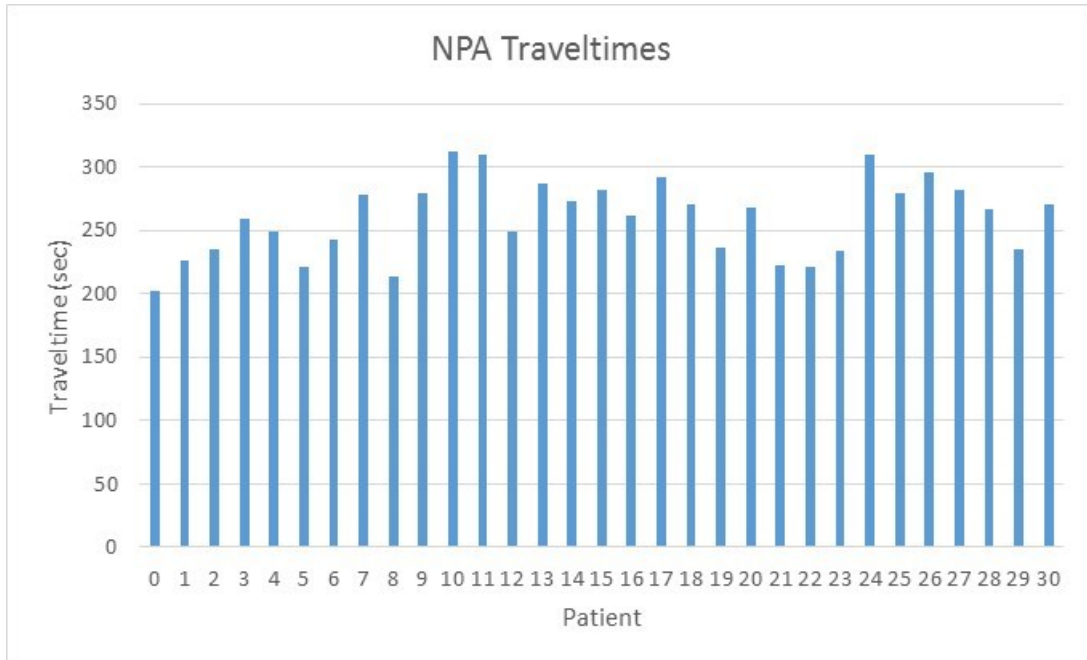


Figure 4.1: Traveltimes computed with NPA for 31 patients.

Again, we see some improvement in the traveltimes compared to those of the HPA. This is further illustrated in Figure 4.2

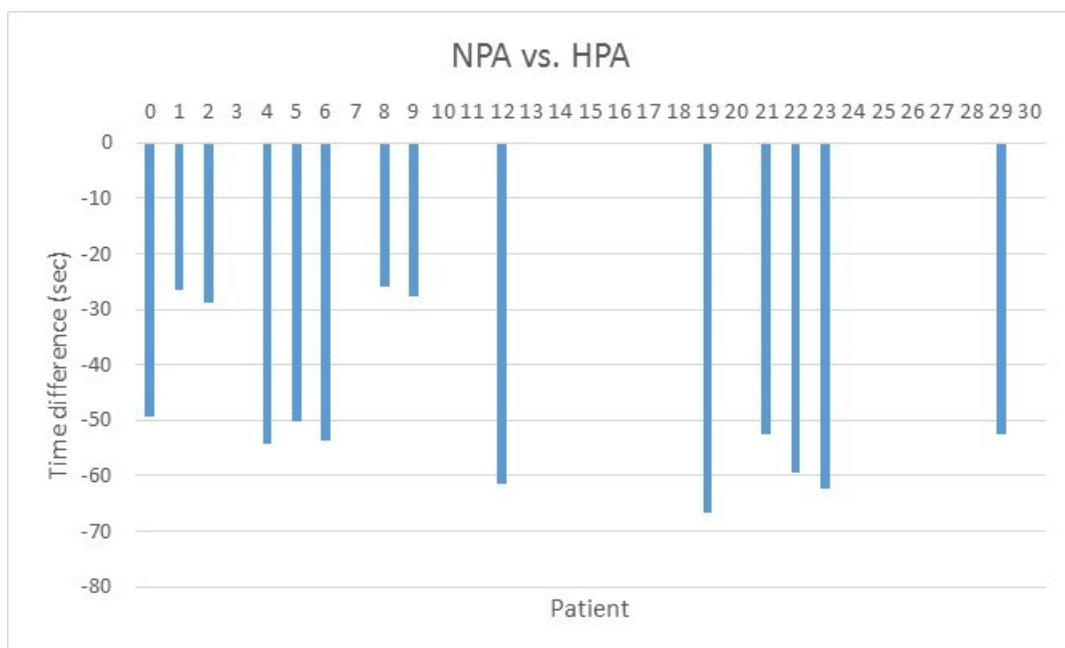


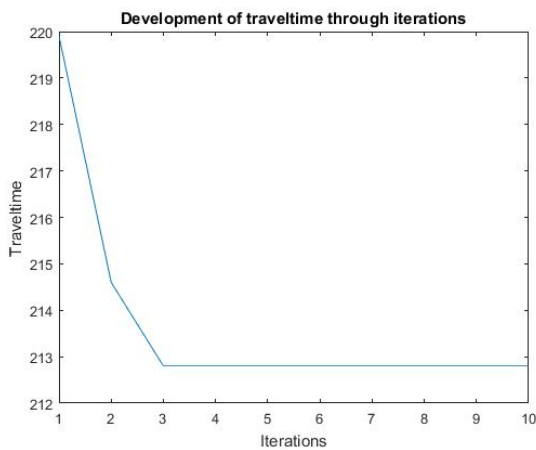
Figure 4.2: Time advantages of NPA over HPA for 31 patients.

For 13 out of 30 patients, the NPA results in an average time advantage of 48.0 seconds over the HPA, which translates to about 17.6%. On top of the 19.4% improvement the HPA made over the ADA, this means that the traveltimes for all 31 patients have been brought down already by 25.6% from the ADA already.

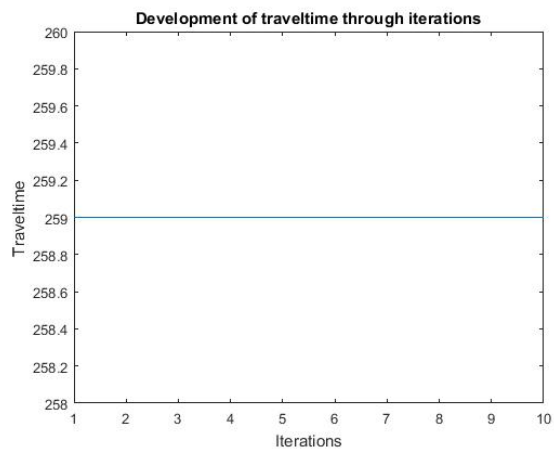
## 4.2 Analysis of Convergence

As noted before, there is a random factor in the HPA. This causes the computed path to differ a few seconds each time the program is run. This raises a question: do these traveltimes eventually do converge to an optimal traveltime?

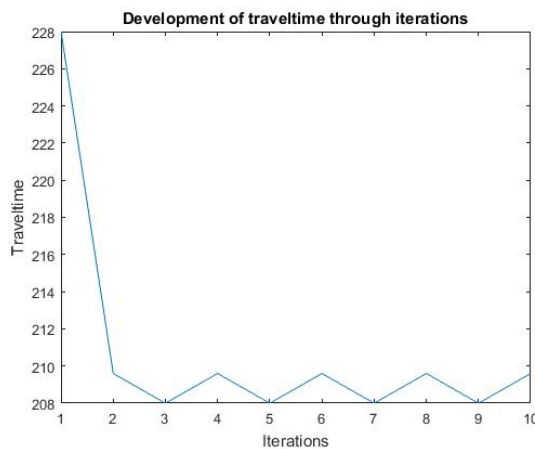
To check this hypothesis, we created the Iterated Neighbour Path Algorithm (INPA). It computes a shortest path with the NPA, takes the computed path as input and iterates the algorithm 10 times. This way, the path gets slightly altered after each iteration. The iterations resulted in three different pictures:



(a) Improvement until a few iterations.



(b) No improvement.



(c) Improvement at first, then alternating between times.

Figure 4.3: 10 Iterations for different patients.



While the the traveltimes in 4.3(a) and 4.3(b) seem to converge, the traveltimes in 4.3(c) show some more interesting behaviour. After two succesfull iterations, the traveltimes then start to alternate between 208 and 210 seconds. Unfortunately we do not have an explanation for this, but we can conclude that even though the traveltime does not always converge, it does not get any worse after a few iterations. It is fair to conclude that it is worth iterating the path found with the NPA at least 3-5 times. We should mention that there was a single case in which the traveltime got worse after one iteration and then alternated between two traveltimes. This specific result is displayed in Figure 4.4.

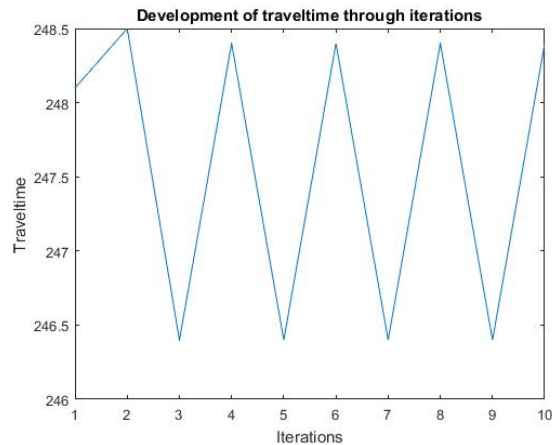


Figure 4.4: Case where the traveltime gets worse.

Note however that the degradation in time only concerns less than 0.5 seconds, which is not of any significance, while the improvement of the convergent cases can concern almost up to 20 seconds. Because of this, we will use the INPA as our next step in optimizing the traveltime. The INPA results in an average time advantage of 130.5 seconds over the ADA traveltimes, which translates to about 37.1%. This is illustrated in Figure 4.5.

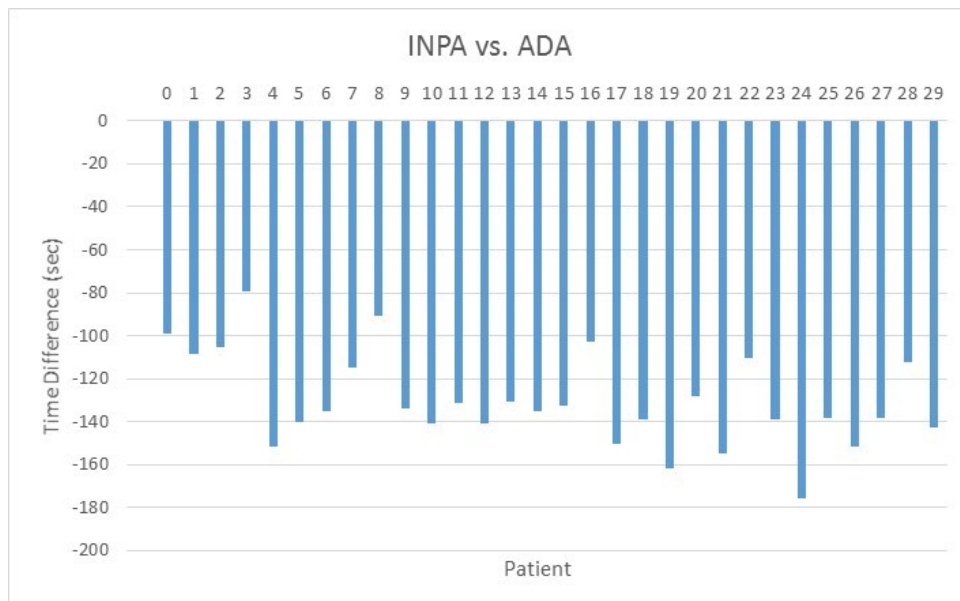


Figure 4.5: Time advantages of INPA over ADA for 31 patients.

The pseudocode for the INPA is similar to that of Algorithm 5, so it will not be included here. The full Matlab code is added in Appendix A.7.

### 4.3 Plan Quality

While a large section of this report is dedicated to shortest path optimization, it is also very important that these newly found paths do not degrade too much in plan quality, or else they will be useless. To verify this, Sebastiaan Breedveld did calculations on the plan quality each time after we found shorter paths. These calculations resulted in a Dosis-Volume-Histogram (DHV-Figure) for each patient. An example of a DHV-Figure is shown in Figure 4.6

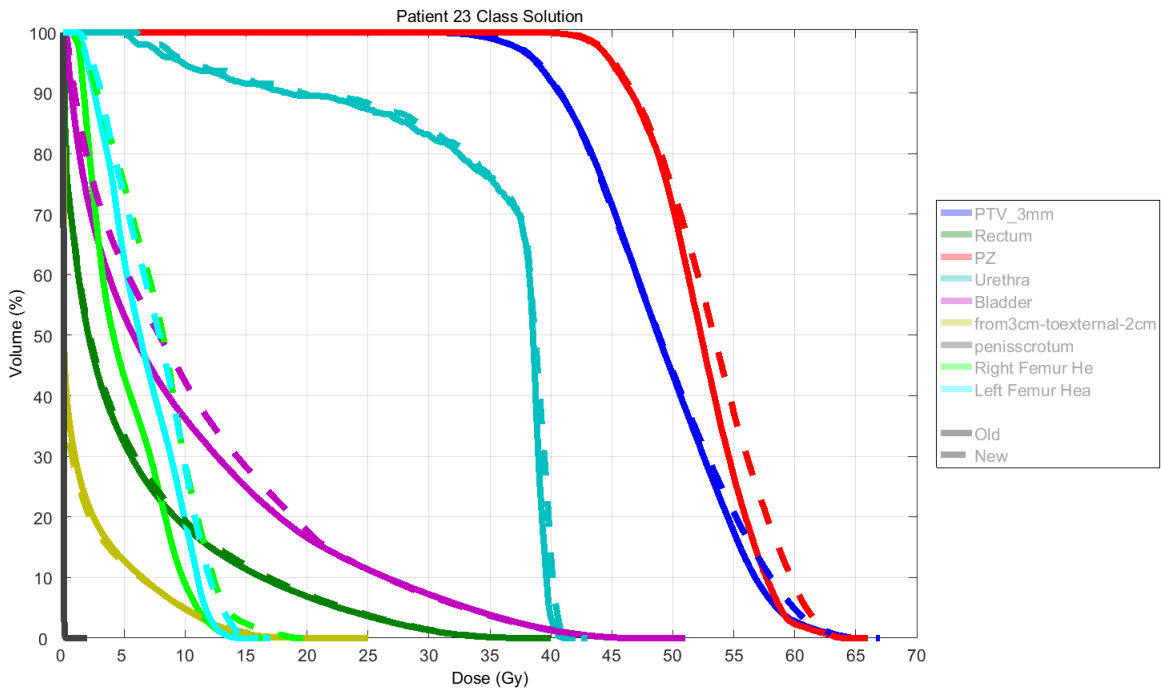


Figure 4.6: DHV-Figure for a patient.

The continuous lines represent the results with the original paths, while the dotted line represents the results with the convergent path found after 10 iterations. To not degrade in plan quality, it is important that the dotted lines stay as close as possible to the continuous lines. As seen in Figure 4.6, most results remain the same, only the lower dose in the bladder degrades some in quality, while the high dose in the bladder improves slightly. The plan quality calculations showed that this result is quite usual for all of the patients. In fact, for some patients, the plan quality remained almost identical. This means that our optimized paths are appropriate to use, since the plan quality does not degrade significantly.

## Chapter 5

# Additional restrictions

With the INPA, we have removed all the restrictions from Section 2.1. However, as the project was progressing, two new restrictions came by: starting nodes and dummy nodes. We will discuss the nature of these restrictions and how we fixed them. We will combine these restrictions into one algorithm that will compute the final traveltimes for the patients.

### 5.1 Starting Nodes

There is a set of 45 nodes from which the CyberKnife can start its treatment. The traveltime would benefit if the first node of the path is starting node. Otherwise the CyberKnife would first have to travel to the first node of the path, which might be on the other side of the grid. This would harm the traveltime and be a waste of all time used to compute the shortest path.

#### 5.1.1 Methods

We took the result from the INPA, and added a starting node to the path. To incorporate these starting nodes in the paths, we had to distinguish three different cases of where the starting nodes can already be in the path:

1. There are no starting nodes in the path yet. The SNA then computes the traveltimes for all 45 starting nodes added to the path and picks the fastest. The path length increases with one.
2. There are starting nodes in the path, but not yet at the beginning of the path. The SNA puts all starting nodes in the path at the beginning, checks the travelime and picks the fastest. The path length does not change.
3. There are starting nodes in the path and one of them is already in the beginning. The SNA does not need to do anything.

## 5.2 Dummy Nodes

The last restriction that came along concerns dummy nodes. We briefly mentioned them in Section 1.2, but now we will fully incorporate them into the algorithm.

### 5.2.1 Methods

A brief recap, the dummy nodes are 8 nodes which are used for the sole purpose of serving as inbetween nodes. Radiation from these nodes is not possible. In the treatment plan, these nodes will never be candidate mustpass nodes. So it is only during the INPA, that we need to modify the algorithm, since they could be picked as neighbour nodes. Therefore we can use the INPA again, with the addition of one line of code that checks if the algorithm does not pick a dummy node as its neighbour for replacement. This is done in the same style as line 48 in Appendix A.7.

With the addition of a starting node and the removal of dummy nodes, we have now completed our final algorithm, the Optimal Path Algorithm (OPA). A pseudocode description of the OPA is presented in Figure 6. The full Matlab code is added in Appendix A.8.

## 5.3 Concluding Results

We can now compute the final traveltimes for all patients with the OPA. Using the same data from Section 3.1.1, the OPA results in the traveltimes denoted in Figure 5.1. The full table with results is added in Appendix B.

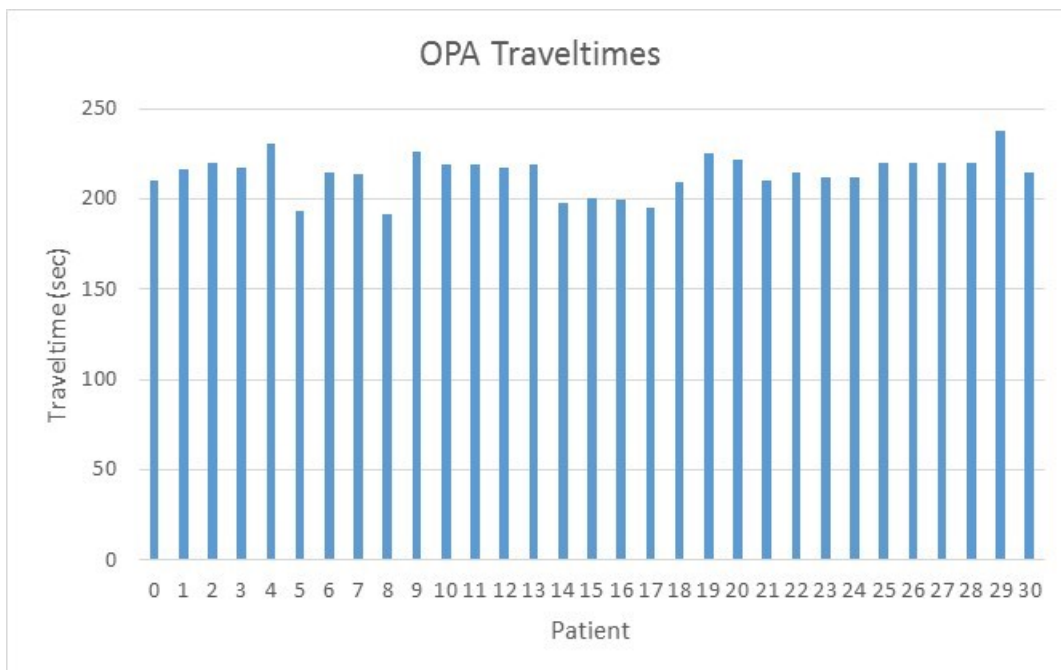


Figure 5.1: Traveltimes of 31 patients, computed with the OPA.

```

Input  $N$  Mustpass nodes for each patient; traversal matrix;
Output Shortest paths with starting nodes and without dummy nodes for all patients;
f Initialize empty tables for results;
Initialize dummy nodes and starting nodes;
for all patients do
    Compute the shortest path with the HPA;
    for 10 iterations do
        | Compute the neighbour path with the NPA;
    end
    if first node of path is not a starting node then
        | if there is a starting node in the path then
            | Set all starting nodes in vector;
            | Set shortest path distance equal to infinity;
            | for all starting nodes in path do
                | Define nodes that remain if starting node is placed in front;
                | Compute shortest path and traveltime of remaining  $N - 1$  nodes with HPA;
                | if Traveltime new path with starting node < initial shortest path distance then
                    | Save current starting node and path;
                | end
            | end
        | else
            | Set initial value of traveltime of starting node to first node equal to infinity;
            | for all 45 starting nodes do
                | Compute traveltime of starting node to first node of original path;
                | if traveltime < initial value then
                    | Save current starting node;
                | end
            | end
            | Add best starting node to path;
        | end
    else
        | Program does nothing and keeps original path and traveltime;
    end
    Display results;
end

```

**Algorithm 6:** Pseudocode for the OPA.

To get a better view of our improvement, we compare the results of the OPA with the ADA, our first method of finding shortest paths. The results are illustrated in Figure 5.2.

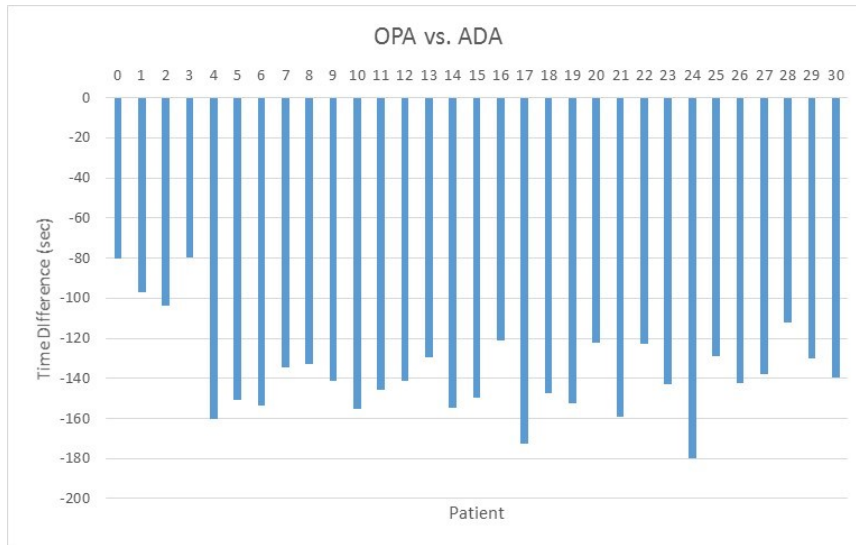


Figure 5.2: Time differences of OPA over ADA for 31 patients.

We see a notable drop in times for all patients, with an average of 136.2 seconds per patient. This translates to a 38.6% improvement on average, with a maximum of 46.9%. The full table with new paths for all 31 patients is added in Appendix C.

## Chapter 6

# Conclusions

The main goal of this project was to optimize the traveltime of the CyberKnife. We split up this goal into three sub-goals, as formulated in Section 2.1. After 2 months of research, we achieved the following results:

- With the SDA, the CyberKnife travels as fast as possible from node A to node B. We expanded this method with the HPA, which uses Hamiltonian paths. This changes the order of the mustpass nodes, which on average dropped the initial traveltimes by almost 20%. These results answered the first two of our research questions.
- Next up, we used the NPA to replace nodes in the path with adjacent nodes. This resulted in better paths for almost half of the patients, while the other half did not get worse. This result got sharpened when we noticed that iterating a new path into the NPA at least once did improve the traveltime. After a few iterations, all the paths were either converging, constant, or alternating between two better paths. So with the use of the INPA, our traveltimes had dropped 37.1% already. After these changes in the mustpass nodes, the plan quality did not lose a significant amount of quality. With these results, the last sub-question was answered as well.
- Lastly, we modified the INPA slightly, because of the addition of starting nodes and the removal of dummy nodes. This had to be done in order for the traveltime not to suffer under certain restrictions of the CyberKnife. There was an extra restriction concerning image blocking nodes, but we were not able to incorporate that restriction due to time limitations. More about this is explained in Chapter 7.

All of the previously mentioned algorithms resulted in the OPA, our final algorithm which optimized original the traveltimes with 38.6% on average, without any significant loss of plan quality.





## Chapter 7

# Recommendations

Further research on this project could be done by incorporating image blocking nodes. During the CyberKnife treatment, X-rays of the patient are made at regular intervals, to verify and/or update information on the patient's position. This is done by two X-ray detectors, as shown in Figure 7.1.



Figure 7.1: CyberKnife shown with the two X-ray detectors.

If the CyberKnife is irradiating from certain nodes, the linear accelerator or the robotic arm blocks the X-ray detectors. This causes the CyberKnife to retrieve from its current node, move to a position where it is not blocking the detectors, and then move the next node in the path. This could be prevented if the CyberKnife is always located at a detection-free node at the moment the detectors create an image. One way to do this would be to pin a node in the Hamilton implementation. This means that you could tell to the Hamilton implementation that the  $k$ -th node in the path has to be node 5 for example. The  $k$ -th node would then be the node where an image is made, and 5 would not be an image blocking node. We did not yet discover a

way to achieve this with the current implementation, but perhaps there are other more suitable implementations for this purpose.

The idea of pinning a node could also be of benefit in adding starting nodes. With the current version of the OPA, the algorithm has to identify the starting nodes, put them at the beginning and compute the traveltimes with HPA. It could save quite some for loops and thus computational time if this could be done by entering a few commands in the Hamilton implementation.

The NPA could also be more optimized. As mentioned in Section 4.1.1, the NPA operates in a Greedy way. It could for example be possible that replacing the first node with a sup-optimal neighbour results in a better overall path than replacing the first node with the optimal neighbour. Therefore the NPA is probably not the optimal method of computing neighbour solutions, but we could not come up with any better solutions. Also computational times started to rise quickly from that point, so heavier algorithms would have probably not fit in the time schedule.

One subject that was overlooked a bit is the 'random-factor' in the Hamilton implementation. We did not do any research into why Hamilton implementation result in different traveltimes each time. There also seems to be a little flaw in the OPA, as the path lengths of 4 patients were changed from 30 to 32. After we ran the OPA again for the 4 patients separately, the path length changed back to their original lengths. However, since we concluded that the plan quality did not suffer significantly under these changes, we kept the changed path lengths in Appendix C.

Lastly, the OPA takes about 40 minutes to compute traveltimes and paths for all 30 patients. With all the above mentioned improvements, it should be possible to reduce the 40 minutes computational time.

# Bibliography

- [1] American Cancer Society. Radiation therapy basics. <https://www.cancer.org/treatment/treatments-and-side-effects/treatment-types/radiation/basics.html>, 2017.
- [2] Sebastiaan Breedveld. Towards automated treatment planning in radiotherapy. *Erasmus MC*, 2013.
- [3] Radiological Society of North America. Linac (linear accelerator). <https://www.radiologyinfo.org/en/info.cfm?pg=linac>, 2017.
- [4] L. Rossi, S. Breedveld, S. Aluwini, and B.J.M Heijmen. On the beam direction search space in computerized non-coplanar beam angle optimization for imrt - prostate sbrt. *Erasmus MC*, 2012.
- [5] Joseph Kirk. Dijkstra's minimum cost path algorithm. <https://nl.mathworks.com/matlabcentral/fileexchange/20025-dijkstra-s-minimum-cost-path-algorithm>, 2015.
- [6] Christos H.Papadimitriou and Kenneth Steiglitz. *Combinatorial Optimization*. Dover Publications, Mineola, New York, 1998.
- [7] Joseph Kirk. Fixed endpoints open traveling salesman problem - genetic algorithm. <https://nl.mathworks.com/matlabcentral/fileexchange/21197-fixed-endpoints-open-traveling-salesman-problem-genetic-algorithm>, 2014.



# Appendices



# Appendix A

## Matlab codes

### A.1 Asymmetrical Dijkstra Algorithm

```
1 clear all; close all; clc
2 load NodesForAllPatients
3 load patient1
4
5 A = cell(1,length(NodesForAllPatients));
6 for i = 1:length(NodesForAllPatients)
7     A{i} = sort(transpose(NodesForAllPatients{i}));
8 end
9
10 aptable = zeros(length(NodesForAllPatients),2);
11
12 for k = 1:length(NodesForAllPatients)
13     aptable(k,1) = k;
14     NodeTimesAsym = zeros(length(A{k})-1,1);
15     for i = 1:length(A{k}) - 1
16         [NodeTimesAsym(i),paths{i}] = PathDijkstra(TxTimeParams.
17             NodeTraversalMap ,TxTimeParams.NodeTraversalMap ,A{k}(i) ,A{k}
18             )(i+1));
19     end
20     TotalNodeTimeAsym = sum(NodeTimesAsym);
21     aptable(k,2) = TotalNodeTimeAsym;
22 end
23 aptable
```

### A.2 Symmetrical Dijkstra Algorithm

```
1 clear all; close all; clc
2 load NodesForAllPatients
3 load patient1
4
5 A = cell(1,length(NodesForAllPatients));
```

```

6 for i = 1:length(NodesForAllPatients)
7     A{i} = sort(transpose(NodesForAllPatients{i}));
8 end
9
10 SymMat = TxTimeParams.NodeTraversalMap + transpose(TxTimeParams.
    NodeTraversalMap);
11 SymMat(end,end) = 0;
12
13 sptable = zeros(length(NodesForAllPatients),2);
14
15 for k = 1:length(NodesForAllPatients)
16     sptable(k,1) = k;
17     NodeTimesSym = zeros(length(A{k})-1,1);
18     for i = 1:length(A{k}) - 1
19         [NodeTimesSym(i),paths{i}] = PathDijkstra(SymMat,SymMat,A{k}(
    i),A{k}(i+1));
20     end
21     TotalNodeTimeSym = sum(NodeTimesSym);
22     sptable(k,2) = TotalNodeTimeSym;
23 end
24 sptable

```

### A.3 Total Matrices

```

1 TotalCosts = zeros(110,110);
2 TotalPaths = cell(110,110);
3
4 [costs,paths] = PathDijkstra(SymMat,SymMat);
5
6 for i = 1:110
7     for j = 1:110
8         TotalCosts(i,j) = costs(i,j);
9         TotalPaths(i,j) = paths(i,j);
10    end
11 end

```

### A.4 Hamiltonian Path Algorithm

```

1 clear all; close all; clc
2 load NodesForAllPatients
3 load patient1
4 load SymMat
5 run TotaleMatrices
6
7 hptable = zeros(length(NodesForAllPatients),2);
8
9 for k = 1:length(NodesForAllPatients)
10    hptable(k,1) = k;

```



```

11     m2 = zeros(length(NodesForAllPatients{k}),length(
12         NodesForAllPatients{k}));
13     r2 = transpose(sort(NodesForAllPatients{k}));
14     rt2 = zeros(length(NodesForAllPatients{k}),2);
15     for m = 1:length(r2)
16         rt2(m,1) = r2(m);
17         rt2(m,2) = r2(m);
18     end
19     for j = 1:length(NodesForAllPatients{k})
20         for l = 1:length(NodesForAllPatients{k})
21             if j == l
22                 m2(j,1) = 0;
23             else
24                 m2(j,1) = TotalCosts(r2(j),r2(l));
25             end
26         end
27     end
28     userConfig = struct('xy',rt2,'dmat',m2);
29     resultStruct = tspo_ga(userConfig)
30     hptable(k,2) = resultStruct.minDist;
31 end
hptable

```

## A.5 Finding neighbours

```

1 for k=1:size(Beams.Setup.Points, 1)
2     for j=1:size(Beams.Setup.Points, 1)
3         Angle(j, k) = acosd(sum(Beams.Setup.Points(k,:) .* Beams.Setup.
4             Points(j,:)));
5     end
6 end
7 Dummy = [12 16 20 22 26 57 73 77];
8 for j = Dummy
9     Angle = [Angle(:, 1:j-1) ones(size(Angle, 1), 1)*Inf Angle(:, j:
10         end)];
11     Angle = [Angle(1:j-1, :); ones(1, size(Angle, 2))*Inf; Angle(j:
12         end, :)];
13 end

```

## A.6 Neighbour Paths Algorithm

```

1 clear all; close all; clc
2 load patient1
3 load NodesForAllPatients
4 load SymMat
5 run hoekttest
6 run TotaleMatrices

```

```

7
8 C = cell(length(NodesForAllPatients),1); %cell with the neighbour
    paths
9 nt = zeros(length(NodesForAllPatients),2); %table with traveltimes
10 ta = zeros(length(NodesForAllPatients),2); %table with the time
    advantages
11
12 for k = 1:length(NodesForAllPatients)
13     nt(k,1) = k;
14     ta(k,1) = k;
15     %Compute the shortest path for all patients with Hamilton
16     m2 = zeros(length(NodesForAllPatients{k}),length(
        NodesForAllPatients{k}));
17     r2 = transpose(sort(NodesForAllPatients{k}));
18     rt2 = zeros(length(NodesForAllPatients{k}),2);
19     for m = 1:length(r2)
20         rt2(m,1) = r2(m);
21         rt2(m,2) = r2(m);
22     end
23
24     for j = 1:length(NodesForAllPatients{k})
25         for l = 1:length(NodesForAllPatients{k})
26             if j == l
27                 m2(j,l) = 0;
28             else
29                 m2(j,l) = TotalCosts(r2(j),r2(l));
30             end
31         end
32     end
33     userConfig = struct('xy',rt2,'dmat',m2);
34     resultStruct = tspo_ga(userConfig);
35
36     %Compute the neighbour paths
37     inp = rt2(resultStruct.optRoute, 2); %copy the nodes of the
        Hamiltonpath into a new vector inp
38     ka = resultStruct.minDist; %set the initial shortest traveltime
39
40     for b = 1:length(inp) %check all the nodes in the Hamiltonpath
41         f = find(Angle(:,inp(b))<15); %find the neighbours of a
            specified node
42         bestNode = inp(b); %remember the node that is being replaced
43         for j = 1:length(f) %check all the neighbours of a node
44             if ~ismember(f(j), inp) %make sure the new neighbour node
                is not already in the path
45                 inp(b) = f(j); %replace the specified node with the
                    neighbours, and calculate the new path length
46                 for i = 1:length(inp) - 1
47                     [NodeTimesSym(i),paths{i}] = PathDijkstra(SymMat
                        ,SymMat,inp(i),inp(i+1)); %calculate shortest

```

```

                                path with Dijkstra
48         end
49         TotalNodeTimeSym = sum(NodeTimesSym);
50         if TotalNodeTimeSym < ka
51             ka = TotalNodeTimeSym; %if one the neighbour
                                nodes results in a shorter path, the minimal
                                distance is updated
52             kp = inp; % same for the minimal path
53             bestNode = inp(b); %if the new node results in a
                                shorter path, update the best node
54         end
55     end
56 end
57 inp(b) = bestNode; %if the new node does not result in a
                                shorter path, set the beste Node back to the previously
                                found best node
58 end
59 C{k} = kp;
60 nt(k,2) = ka;
61 ta(k,2) = resultStruct.minDist - ka;
62 end

```

## A.7 Iterated Neighbour Path Algorithm

```

1  clear all; close all; clc
2  load patient1
3  load NodesForAllPatients
4  load SymMat
5  run TotaleMatrices
6  run hoektest
7
8  a = 10;
9
10 TR = cell(length(NodesForAllPatients),1);
11 PR = cell(length(NodesForAllPatients),1);
12
13 for k = 1:1
14     %Compute the shortest path for all patients with Hamilton
15     m2 = zeros(length(NodesForAllPatients{k}),length(
                                NodesForAllPatients{k}));
16     r2 = transpose(sort(NodesForAllPatients{k}));
17     rt2 = zeros(length(NodesForAllPatients{k}),2);
18     for m = 1:length(r2)
19         rt2(m,1) = r2(m);
20         rt2(m,2) = r2(m);
21     end
22
23     for j = 1:length(NodesForAllPatients{k})
24         for l = 1:length(NodesForAllPatients{k})

```

```

25         if j == 1
26             m2(j,1) = 0;
27         else
28             m2(j,1) = TotalCosts(r2(j),r2(1));
29         end
30     end
31 end
32 userConfig = struct('xy',rt2,'dmat',m2);
33 resultStruct = tspo_ga(userConfig);
34
35 inp = rt2(resultStruct.optRoute, 2); %copy the nodes of the
    Hamiltonpath into a new vector inp
36 ka = resultStruct.minDist; %set the initial shortest distance
37
38 for c = 1:a
39     TR{k}(c,1) = c;
40     %Compute the neighbour paths
41     for b = 1:length(inp) %check all the nodes in the
        Hamiltonpath
42         f = find(Angle(:,inp(b))<15); %find the neighbours of a
            specified node
43         bestNode = inp(b); %remember the node that is being
            replaced
44         for j = 1:length(f) %check all the neighbours of a node
            if ~ismember(f(j), inp) %make sure the new neighbour
                node is not already in the path
45                 inp(b) = f(j); %replace the specified node with
                    the neighbours, and calculate the new path
                    length
46                 for i = 1:length(inp) - 1
47                     [NodeTimesSym(i),paths{i}] = PathDijkstra(
                        SymMat,SymMat,inp(i),inp(i+1)); %
                        calculate shortest path with Dijkstra
48                 end
49                 TotalNodeTimeSym = sum(NodeTimesSym);
50                 if TotalNodeTimeSym < ka
51                     ka = TotalNodeTimeSym; %if one the neighbour
                        nodes results in a shorter path, the
                        minimal distance is updated
52                     kp = inp; % same for the minimal path
53                     bestNode = inp(b); %if the new node results
                        in a shorter path, update the best node
54                 end
55             end
56         end
57     end
58     inp(b) = bestNode; %if the new node does not result in a
        shorter path, set the beste Node back to the
        previously found best node
59 end

```

```

60     TR{c}(c,2) = ka;
61     PR{k} = kp;
62     inp = kp; %update input with the output of the previous path
63 end
64 end

```

## A.8 Optimal Path Algorithm

```

1  clear all; close all; clc
2  load patient1
3  load NodesForAllPatients
4  load SymMat
5  run TotaleMatrices
6  run hoektest
7
8  a = 10;
9  ft = zeros(length(NodesForAllPatients),1); %create table for final
    traveltimes for all the patients
10 snp = cell(length(NodesForAllPatients),1); %cell with the starting
    node paths
11 startnodes = [1 26 28 29 30 36:51 60 76 78 79:83 85:93 96:100 102
    110];
12 dummy = [12 16 20 22 26 57 73 77]; %these nodes cannot be in the path
13
14 for k = 1:length(NodesForAllPatients)
15     m2 = zeros(length(NodesForAllPatients{k}),length(
        NodesForAllPatients{k}));
16     r2 = transpose(sort(NodesForAllPatients{k}));
17     rt2 = zeros(length(NodesForAllPatients{k}),2);
18     for m = 1:length(r2)
19         rt2(m,1) = r2(m);
20         rt2(m,2) = r2(m);
21     end
22
23     for j = 1:length(NodesForAllPatients{k})
24         for l = 1:length(NodesForAllPatients{k})
25             if j == l
26                 m2(j,1) = 0;
27             else
28                 m2(j,1) = TotalCosts(r2(j),r2(l));
29             end
30         end
31     end
32     userConfig = struct('xy',rt2,'dmat',m2);
33     resultStruct = tspo_ga(userConfig);
34
35     inp = rt2(resultStruct.optRoute, 2); %copy the nodes of the
    Hamiltonpath into a new vector inp
36     ka = resultStruct.minDist; %set the initial shortest distance

```

```

37
38 for c = 1:a
39     %Compute the neighbour paths
40     for b = 1:length(inp) %check all the nodes in the
        Hamiltonpath
41         f = find(Angle(:,inp(b))<15); %find the neighbours of a
            specified node
42         bestNode = inp(b); %remember the node that is being
            replaced
43         for j = 1:length(f) %check all the neighbours of a node
44             if ~ismember(f(j), inp) %make sure the new neighbour
                node is not already in the path
45                 if ~ismember(f(j),dummy) %make sure the new
                    neighbour node is not a dummy node
46                     inp(b) = f(j); %replace the specified node
                        with the neighbours, and calculate the new
                        path length
47                     for i = 1:length(inp) - 1
48                         [NodeTimesSym(i),paths{i}] =
                            PathDijkstra(SymMat,SymMat,inp(i),inp
                                (i+1)); %calculate shortest path with
                                    Dijkstra
49                     end
50                     TotalNodeTimeSym = sum(NodeTimesSym);
51                     if TotalNodeTimeSym < ka
52                         ka = TotalNodeTimeSym; %if one the
                            neighbour nodes results in a shorter
                            path, the minimal distance is updated
53                         kp = inp; % same for the minimal path
54                         bestNode = inp(b); %if the new node
                            results in a shorter path, update the
                            best node
55                     end
56                 end
57             end
58         end
59         inp(b) = bestNode; %if the new node does not result in a
            shorter path, set the beste Node back to the
            previously found best node
60     end
61     inp = kp; %update input with the output of the previous path
62 end
63
64 %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%Add a starting node
    %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
65 if isempty(intersect(kp(1),startnodes)) == 1 %checks if the first
    node of the computed path is not a start node
66     if ~isempty(intersect(startnodes,kp)) %scenario #1: there is
        a starting node in the computed shortest path

```

```

67         is = intersect(startnodes ,kp); %define length of
           intersection of startnodes and the computed shortest
           path
68         spd = inf; %set the shortest path distance equal to
           infinity
69         for i = 1:length(is)
70             newnodes = setdiff(kp, is(i)); %define the set of
           nodes without the starting node
71             m2 = zeros(length(newnodes),length(newnodes));
72             r2 = transpose(sort(newnodes));
73             rt2 = zeros(length(newnodes),2);
74             for m = 1:length(r2)
75                 rt2(m,1) = r2(m);
76                 rt2(m,2) = r2(m);
77             end
78             for j = 1:length(newnodes)
79                 for l = 1:length(newnodes)
80                     if j == l
81                         m2(j,l) = 0;
82                     else
83                         m2(j,l) = TotalCosts(r2(j),r2(l));
84                     end
85                 end
86             end
87             userConfig = struct('xy',rt2,'dmat',m2);
88             resultStruct = tspo_ga(userConfig);
89             if costs(is(i),rt2(resultStruct.optRoute(1))) +
           resultStruct.minDist < spd %find the best of all
           starting nodes
90                 spd = costs(is(i),rt2(resultStruct.optRoute(1)))
           + resultStruct.minDist;
91                 bestStart = is(i);
92                 bestRoute = rt2(resultStruct.optRoute);
93             end
94         end
95         newRoute = [bestStart bestRoute];
96         ft(k) = spd
97         snp{k} = newRoute;
98         newRoute
99     else %scenario #2: there are no starting nodes in the
           computed shortest path
100         sfc = inf; %set the Shortest Connection to the First node
           equal to infinity
101         for n = 1:length(startnodes)
102             ck = costs(startnodes(n),kp(1)); %compute the costs
           of the k-th starting node to the first node of kp
103             if ck < sfc
104                 sfc = ck;
105                 bestStart = startnodes(n);

```

```
106         end
107     end
108     kp = [bestStart kp'];
109     ft(k) = ka + sfc
110     snp{k} = kp;
111     kp
112     end
113 else %if the first node of the original path is already a
114     starting node, the program does not need to do anything, and
115     returns the original path
116     ft(k) = ka
117     snp{k} = kp;
118     kp
119 end
120 close all;
121 end
```



## Appendix B

### Traveltimes of all algorithms

Patient	ADA	SDA	HPA	NPA	INPA	OPA
0	289.9	283.7	251.4	202	191.2	209.8
1	312.8	289.9	253.2	226.1	204.6	215.9
2	323.6	313.5	264.4	235.6	218	219.9
3	297.4	292.2	259	259.4	218	217.6
4	390.9	369	306.6	249.3	239.4	230.6
5	343.8	323.6	271.3	221.2	203.5	193.3
6	368	341.4	298.1	243	232.9	214.3
7	347.7	337.8	278.5	278.5	232.9	213.3
8	323.7	302.2	238.8	213.3	232.9	191.1
9	366.7	365.2	305.8	279	232.9	225.7
10	373.9	363.2	307.2	312.8	232.9	218.6
11	364.2	360.6	306.8	309.9	232.9	218.6
12	358.4	348.2	312.3	249.4	217.6	217.1
13	348.1	336.2	286.9	286.9	217.3	218.8
14	352.2	334.2	273.8	273.4	217.3	197.7
15	349.6	327.8	278.9	281.7	217.3	200
16	320.2	317.7	260.6	261.7	217.3	199.1
17	367.8	339	292.5	291.7	217.3	195.2
18	356.3	336.7	270.6	270.6	217.3	208.8
19	377.6	355.9	305	237	215.7	224.9
20	344.1	330.2	268.8	268.8	215.7	222
21	368.7	343	275.5	222.9	213.9	209.7
22	337.4	322	280.3	220.9	227	214.8
23	355.2	352.8	296.5	234.6	216	212
24	391.6	358.2	309.6	309.6	216	212
25	348.7	341.6	280.1	280.1	210.7	219.7
26	362.2	341.4	295.9	295.9	210.7	219.7
27	357.7	338.5	282.4	282.4	219.7	219.7
28	331.8	320.3	267.3	267.3	219.7	219.7
29	368	358.6	287.2	234.8	225.5	237.7
30	354.8	329.1	270.3	270.3	223.7	215



# Appendix C

## New paths

<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>15</b>
50	60	79	102	79	50	48	76	47	1	82	82	50	50	40	82
56	75	63	1	83	52	96	75	49	2	83	83	53	53	32	19
58	71	71	14	40	55	97	71	48	3	24	24	55	55	31	18
61	69	70	15	39	59	98	69	50	14	40	40	52	52	30	28
66	64	64	2	75	62	99	70	56	15	39	39	59	59	76	58
64	66	68	3	71	64	101	64	59	11	38	38	62	62	75	59
71	68	66	8	70	70	108	65	58	10	31	31	61	61	70	56
76	58	65	9	64	69	107	62	61	109	76	76	69	64	64	62
41	56	62	109	65	71	109	59	62	108	75	75	70	70	65	65
40	59	58	108	72	75	10	56	65	107	70	70	71	71	66	64
24	52	56	99	61	76	14	58	64	104	62	62	72	72	62	70
25	50	59	98	58	30	15	79	70	103	59	59	75	75	59	71
18	48	52	97	56	40	2	83	71	101	55	55	40	40	52	72
17	49	50	46	59	79	3	85	75	47	53	53	24	18	56	75
2	18	49	87	52	24	6	84	76	50	52	52	18	24	24	40
5	80	18	79	50	82	17	18	79	52	50	50	83	83	79	83
3	99	24	24	49	83	18	17	28	53	47	47	85	85	47	42
15	101	87	18	48	42	84	48	82	55	97	97	87	42	97	98
14	104	46	49	47	47	85	96	83	59	101	101	42	87	99	99
10	106	97	50	97	99	83	97	99	58	103	103	99	99	102	101
108	107	98	52	99	98	79	98	102	28	104	104	102	102	101	103
101	109	99	59	101	101	76	99	101	79	106	106	101	101	103	104
102	9	102	56	107	103	75	101	108	83	107	107	103	103	107	107
107	8	108	58	10	107	71	108	107	76	10	10	104	104	109	10
104	3	109	62	15	109	69	107	109	75	14	14	107	107	9	11
	2	9	65	13	9	70	109	10	72	13	13	108	108	8	14
	15	8	66	14	8	64	10	14	69	15	15	10	10	2	15
	11	3	68	2	15	65	14	3	70	2	2	14	14	3	2
	14	2	64	5	14	62	15	2	71	3	3	15	15	14	3
	13	15	70	3	3	59	2	5	30	6	6	2	2	15	6
		14	71	8	2	56	3					3	3		
		1	63	11	5	58	6					4	4		

<b>16</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>30</b>
60	39	51	42	102	99	83	51	51	83	83	30	30	76	83
53	96	58	2	8	97	6	52	52	6	6	76	76	108	13
55	97	56	15	15	101	2	55	55	3	3	75	75	103	14
59	99	59	14	14	103	3	53	53	2	2	72	72	107	15
65	101	60	11	11	108	14	59	59	15	15	71	71	109	2
64	103	65	10	10	10	15	62	62	14	14	70	70	9	8
70	104	66	109	109	9	8	64	64	10	10	64	64	10	9
69	106	64	107	107	109	9	70	70	109	109	65	65	1	109
72	107	70	106	106	1	109	71	71	107	107	62	62	14	108
75	108	71	108	108	14	108	75	75	102	102	58	58	15	107
76	109	30	101	101	3	107	72	72	101	101	59	59	6	104
30	1	29	102	99	4	104	28	28	98	98	56	56	3	103
39	14	79	99	98	85	103	79	79	99	99	50	50	2	101
40	15	83	98	42	83	101	82	82	47	47	48	48	84	99
79	2	85	83	83	79	102	83	83	40	40	18	18	21	98
83	84	87	82	82	24	99	40	40	24	24	80	80	18	88
85	79	96	24	25	23	42	42	42	18	18	85	85	23	87
87	40	95	25	24	18	40	87	87	82	82	87	87	24	42
98	28	97	40	40	49	24	98	98	79	79	103	103	79	41
99	58	99	30	30	52	18	99	99	76	76	102	102	28	40
102	59	101	75	75	56	82	101	101	71	71	101	101	72	29
101	60	107	72	72	59	79	103	103	64	64	108	108	75	30
103	65	109	71	71	58	76	104	104	65	65	109	109	71	70
107	63	10	69	69	61	75	106	106	66	66	9	9	70	64
109	64	14	70	70	62	72	107	107	62	62	10	10	64	69
1	70	15	64	64	65	70	108	108	59	59	15	15	65	68
14	71	1	65	65	64	64	10	10	56	56	14	14	62	66
3	72	2	62	62	70	68	11	11	55	55	2	2	58	56
2	75	3	59	59	71	66	14	14	54	54	8	8	59	59
6	76	6	56	56	72	65	2	2	53	53	13	13	56	58
			51	51	75	59	3	3					55	
			52	52	76	55	15	15					53	