

Low-Rank Velocity Fields as a Structural Prior for Unsupervised 4D Medical Image Interpolation

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Abstract. Endpoint-only unsupervised 4D medical image interpolation synthesizes intermediate volumes from sparsely sampled sequences with only the start and end volumes available for training; however, this weakly constrained setting often yields intermediates with unstable boundaries and non-physiological motion, limiting interpretability and downstream analysis. We propose low-rank velocity fields as a structural prior, constraining motion to a structured Tucker low-rank velocity field space that decomposes motion into globally shared spatial bases and a compact sample-specific core, thereby encouraging spatially correlated, anatomy-consistent deformation while suppressing voxel-wise high-frequency artifacts. To capture global coordination and local non-rigid details, we model motion in a coarse-to-fine multi-scale scheme and compose scale-wise deformations at inference to synthesize volumes at arbitrary times. We further provide a theoretical analysis showing that, under Tucker parameterization, bounded low-rank parameters control the smoothness energy of the velocity field, offering an energy-based interpretation of smoother motion. Experiments on ACDC and 4D-Lung demonstrate state-of-the-art performance, remaining competitive with methods trained with intermediate-frame supervision, and producing intermediates with improved structural coherence and more stable anatomical contours. The code is available at <https://github.com/JingHuaMan/LRVF>.

Keywords: 4D Medical Imaging · 4D Image Interpolation · Low-Rank Velocity Fields · Motion Modeling

1 Introduction

4D medical imaging captures anatomical dynamics and supports functional assessment, therapy monitoring, and longitudinal disease tracking [22]. However,

practical acquisition constraints often lead to sparse and irregular temporal sampling, motivating 4D interpolation to synthesize intermediate volumes and increase temporal resolution for downstream analysis such as segmentation [17] and reconstruction [15]. Here, we study endpoint-only unsupervised 4D medical interpolation, where training provides only two endpoint volumes.

Prior volumetric interpolation methods are broadly motion-driven, warping endpoints via estimated deformations (or flows) [7, 21, 12], or synthesis-driven, directly generating intermediate volumes [23, 24], and are sometimes combined [11, 5]. For medical imaging, plausible intermediates must preserve anatomical continuity and topology while evolving smoothly [25]. Under endpoint-only supervision, fully voxel-wise, high-dimensional motion parameterizations can overfit locally inconsistent high-frequency motion, leading to boundary instability, local misalignment, and non-physiological warping that degrades interpretability and downstream usability.

Anatomical motion is strongly spatially correlated and partially compressible: coordinated global patterns dominate, while local non-rigid details remain residual variation [18, 9]. This motivates an anatomy-aligned, compact motion representation rather than increased voxel-level freedom; thus we adopt structured low-rank motion modeling to suppress spurious high-frequency motion and improve anatomical consistency and temporal coherence of synthesized intermediates.

Two challenges arise when introducing structured low-rank motion into endpoint-only unsupervised 4D interpolation: (1) how to impose a compact, low-dimensional motion parameterization that captures shared spatial coordination yet adapts to each sample under weak supervision; (2) how to model motion across scales, as coarse global trends and fine non-rigid details call for a multi-scale representation and refinement [19].

To tackle these challenges, we propose a framework for endpoint-only unsupervised 4D medical image interpolation that introduces low-rank velocity fields as a structural prior. The framework separates shared coordinated motion from sample-specific variation and organizes motion modeling in a multi-scale hierarchy for coarse-to-fine refinement, thereby guiding endpoint-only learning toward anatomically plausible dynamics. Our contributions are summarized as follows:

- We present low-rank velocity fields as a structural prior for endpoint-only unsupervised 4D medical interpolation, improving anatomical consistency and temporal coherence, with analysis linking bounded low-rank parameters to smoothness-energy control and DCT bases to high-frequency motion suppression.
- We introduce a Tucker-parameterized low-rank velocity representation with shared spatial bases and a compact, sample-dependent core to capture coordinated motion while retaining individual variation.
- We propose a multi-scale low-rank motion modeling strategy that allocates capacity across resolutions for coarse-to-fine refinement from global coordination to local non-rigid deformation.

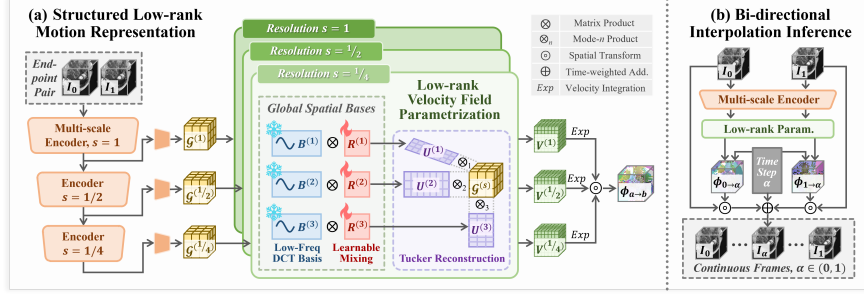


Fig. 1. Overview of the proposed framework. (a) Multi-scale endpoint features are projected into structured Tucker low-rank velocity representations across resolutions. (b) Inference performs bi-directional continuous-time interpolation to produce structurally consistent intermediate volumes.

- Experiments on ACDC and 4D-Lung show strong results, achieving the best structure-oriented scores with competitive reconstruction accuracy.

2 Method

2.1 Problem Definition

Unsupervised 4D interpolation models an image sequence on $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ as a continuous-time function $I(t) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We adopt endpoint-only training, observing only $I_0 := I(0)$ and $I_1 := I(1)$, while intermediate volumes I_α with $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ are unavailable.

Given (I_0, I_1) , a model with parameters θ predicts an inter-endpoint velocity field for either ordered pair (I_a, I_b) with $(a, b) \in \{(0, 1), (1, 0)\}$, represented on the voxel grid as a tensor $\mathcal{V}_{a \rightarrow b}$. It is converted to a deformation $\phi_{a \rightarrow b} = \text{Exp}(\mathcal{V}_{a \rightarrow b})$, where $\text{Exp}(\cdot)$ is the exponential map of a stationary velocity field implemented via scaling-and-squaring, and the target endpoint is reconstructed by warping $\hat{I}_b = I_a \circ \phi_{a \rightarrow b}$, where $\circ$ applies a deformation field to an image. Learning is driven by an endpoint reconstruction objective:

$$\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{(I_a, I_b)} \left[\mathcal{L}(I_b, \hat{I}_b) + \lambda \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{V}_{a \rightarrow b}) \right], \quad (1)$$

where $\mathcal{L}(\cdot, \cdot)$ is an endpoint similarity measure (e.g., normalized cross-correlation; NCC), and $\mathcal{R}(\cdot)$ regularizes the predicted velocity to promote plausible motion.

2.2 Structured Low-rank Motion Representation

Tucker Parameterization of Velocity Fields: To model high-dimensional non-rigid motion stably under endpoint-only training (Fig. 1(a)), we constrain the predicted velocity to a structured low-rank subspace instead of a fully voxel-wise free form. A 3D velocity field on $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^3$, denoted $v(x) = (v_x(x), v_y(x), v_z(x))$

for $x \in \Omega$, is represented on the voxel grid as a fourth-order tensor $\mathcal{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times D \times 3}$. Below, $\mathcal{V}$ denotes this voxel-grid tensor form for low-rank parameterization and regularization.

We decompose $\mathcal{V}$ into globally shared spatial bases and a compact core of combination coefficients [13, 6]:

$$\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{G} \times_1 U^{(1)} \times_2 U^{(2)} \times_3 U^{(3)}, \quad (2)$$

where $\mathcal{G} \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times r \times r \times 3}$ is the low-dimensional core tensor, $U^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times r}$, $U^{(2)} \in \mathbb{R}^{W \times r}$, and $U^{(3)} \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times r}$ are spatial bases along the three axes, and $\times_n$ denotes the mode- n tensor-matrix product. The bases capture domain-consistent, globally shared deformation structure, while $\mathcal{G}$ provides sample-dependent coefficients to combine them; thus, spatial correlations are absorbed by the shared bases and instance variation is governed by the compact core.

To stably construct the low-rank subspace, each spatial basis uses a fixed analytic DCT basis with learnable mixing within the same low-frequency span:

$$U^{(i)} = B^{(i)} R_{:,1:r}^{(i)}, \quad B^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_i \times K}, \quad R^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times K}, \quad U^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_i \times r}, \quad (3)$$

where $B^{(i)}$ is a fixed truncated (low-frequency) DCT basis, $R^{(i)}$ is identity-initialized and optimized to mix DCT directions within this span, and $U^{(i)}$ is the resulting rank- r spatial basis. Restricting $U^{(i)}$ to a low-frequency span serves as a band-limited structural prior that discourages voxel-wise high-frequency oscillations in the induced motion [10, 14]. We treat K as a frequency budget; if $K > N_i$, the effective span is naturally limited by N_i .

Multi-scale Motion Modeling: Building on the Tucker parameterization, we introduce multi-scale modeling to capture both global and local motion by predicting the velocity field coarse-to-fine at three resolutions, $1/4$, $1/2$, and 1 . Each scale $s \in \{1/4, 1/2, 1\}$ outputs a scale-specific low-rank velocity tensor $\mathcal{V}^{(s)}$ with its own spatial bases and core $\mathcal{G}^{(s)}$; the Tucker rank at scale s is denoted by $r^{(s)}$, so that $\mathcal{G}^{(s)} \in \mathbb{R}^{r^{(s)} \times r^{(s)} \times r^{(s)} \times 3}$. The core $\mathcal{G}^{(s)}$ is regressed from scale-specific endpoint features, and all scale-wise branches are trained jointly under a unified multi-scale objective, with scales coupled via coarse-to-fine deformation composition for progressive refinement and without explicit cross-scale feature fusion.

During training, we compute and aggregate scale-wise endpoint reconstruction and smoothness losses. Let $I^{(s)}$ denote endpoints downsampled to scale s . Using $\text{Exp}(\cdot)$ and the warping operator defined above, we integrate the scale-wise velocity $\mathcal{V}_{a \rightarrow b}^{(s)}$ into a deformation $\phi_{a \rightarrow b}^{(s)}$ (progressively refined from coarse to fine) and warp $I_a^{(s)}$ to reconstruct $\hat{I}_b^{(s)}$:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{total}} = \sum_s \omega^{(s)} \left(-\lambda_1 \text{NCC}(I_b^{(s)}, \hat{I}_b^{(s)}) + \lambda_2 \|I_b^{(s)} - \hat{I}_b^{(s)}\|_C + \lambda_3 \mathcal{R}_{H^1}(\mathcal{V}_{a \rightarrow b}^{(s)}) \right), \quad (4)$$

where $\sum_s \omega^{(s)} = 1$, $\text{NCC}(\cdot, \cdot)$ denotes local normalized cross-correlation, $\|\cdot\|_C$ is the Charbonnier norm, and $\mathcal{R}_{H^1}$ penalizes velocity magnitude and spatial gradients as an additional safeguard for smooth, integrable motion. All reconstruction terms at scale s are evaluated between $I_b^{(s)}$ and $\hat{I}_b^{(s)}$ at the same resolution.

2.3 Inference for Continuous-Time Interpolation

At inference (Fig. 1(b)), we evaluate the learned multi-scale low-rank representation to synthesize intermediate volumes at arbitrary $\alpha \in (0, 1)$. Given endpoints (I_0, I_1) , the predicted velocity tensors at three spatial scales, $\mathcal{V}^{(1/4)}, \mathcal{V}^{(1/2)}, \mathcal{V}^{(1)}$, are resampled to a common voxel grid, with magnitudes scaled according to resolution. For each direction $a \rightarrow b$, we integrate the scale-specific velocity via $\text{Exp}(\cdot)$ to obtain a deformation $\phi_{a \rightarrow b}^{(s)}$, and form the endpoint deformation by coarse-to-fine composition:

$$\phi_{a \rightarrow b} = \phi_{a \rightarrow b}^{(1)} \circ \phi_{a \rightarrow b}^{(1/2)} \circ \phi_{a \rightarrow b}^{(1/4)}. \quad (5)$$

Composition follows the right-to-left coarse-to-fine order, with each scale-wise deformation integrated and resampled to the common grid beforehand.

To obtain an intermediate time α , we use both predicted directions ($0 \rightarrow 1$ and $1 \rightarrow 0$) and scale each stationary velocity by the corresponding travel time (proportional to α or $1 - \alpha$) prior to exponential-map integration [20], yielding $\phi_{0 \rightarrow \alpha}$ and $\phi_{1 \rightarrow \alpha}$. The intermediate prediction is then computed by warping both endpoints and fusing them with time-based weights:

$$\hat{I}_\alpha = (1 - \alpha) (I_0 \circ \phi_{0 \rightarrow \alpha}) + \alpha (I_1 \circ \phi_{1 \rightarrow \alpha}). \quad (6)$$

2.4 Theoretical Analysis of Energy Bounds

Proposition: Energy control by low-rank parameters. In Tucker form, the smoothness energy of the full velocity field can be bounded by the core magnitude, smoothing operator, and spatial bases; consequently, bounding the factor norms and core norm controls the regularity of the induced deformation [13]. Define the quadratic smoothness energy:

$$E(\mathcal{V}) := \|L \text{vec}(\mathcal{V})\|_2^2, \quad (7)$$

where L is a fixed linear smoothing/differential operator and $\text{vec}(\cdot)$ stacks tensor entries into a vector. Let $\lambda_{\max}$ be the largest eigenvalue of $L^\top L$, i.e., $\lambda_{\max} = \|L\|_2^2$. For a Tucker-parameterized velocity tensor $\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{G} \times_1 U^{(1)} \times_2 U^{(2)} \times_3 U^{(3)}$, the following upper bound holds:

$$E(\mathcal{V}) \leq \lambda_{\max} \left(\prod_{i=1}^3 \|U^{(i)}\|_2 \right)^2 \|\mathcal{G}\|_F^2, \quad (8)$$

where $\|\cdot\|_2$ is the matrix spectral norm and $\|\cdot\|_F$ is the Frobenius norm.

Proof. By the operator norm inequality, $\|L \text{vec}(\mathcal{V})\|_2 \leq \|L\|_2 \|\text{vec}(\mathcal{V})\|_2$, we have $E(\mathcal{V}) \leq \lambda_{\max} \|\mathcal{V}\|_F^2$. Moreover, for any mode- n product, $\|\mathcal{X} \times_n U\|_F \leq \|U\|_2 \|\mathcal{X}\|_F$ [2]; applying this sequentially to the Tucker reconstruction yields $\|\mathcal{V}\|_F \leq (\prod_{i=1}^3 \|U^{(i)}\|_2) \|\mathcal{G}\|_F$. Combining the two bounds proves (8).

Corollary (Rank scaling). Under bounded factors $\|U^{(i)}\|_2 \leq c$ and bounded core amplitude $|\mathcal{G}_{pqr\ell}| \leq \beta$ for constants c and β , the worst-case energy bound scales at most cubically with the rank: for $\mathcal{G} \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times r \times r \times 3}$, $\|\mathcal{G}\|_F^2 \leq 3r^3\beta^2$, hence

$$E(\mathcal{V}) \leq 3\lambda_{\max} c^6 r^3 \beta^2. \quad (9)$$

The same bound applies to each scale s by replacing r with $r^{(s)}$.

3 Experiment

3.1 Experimental Settings

Datasets: We evaluate on ACDC [3] and 4D-Lung [8]. ACDC contains 150 cardiac MRI cases with an 80/20/50 (train/val/test) split, resized to $160 \times 160 \times 16$; end-diastolic and end-systolic phases are used as endpoints. 4D-Lung contains 500 cone-beam CT volumes with a patient-level 306/84/110 split, resized to $128 \times 128 \times 32$; 0% and 50% respiratory phases are used as start/end frames. All volumes are histogram-equalized and linearly normalized to $[0, 1]$.

Metrics: We report Normalized Mutual Information (NMI), Normalized Mean Squared Error (NMSE), and Structural Similarity (SSIM) to measure statistical dependence, reconstruction error, and structural similarity of results.

Implementation Settings: All methods are implemented in PyTorch and trained on NVIDIA RTX A6000 GPUs under a unified protocol. We use AdamW with an initial learning rate of 2×10^{-4} and a cosine annealing scheduler. Models are trained for 500/200 epochs on ACDC/4D-Lung with early stopping; batch size is 1 with gradient accumulation of 8. For our method, endpoint features are extracted at three resolutions (1/4, 1/2, 1) using lightweight scale-specific 3D convolutional encoder branches trained jointly; scale-wise motion heads refine from coarse to fine, and low-frequency bases are truncated to $K = 128$. Scale weights are set to $\omega^{(1/4)} = 0.2$, $\omega^{(1/2)} = 0.3$, and $\omega^{(1)} = 0.5$; Tucker ranks are set to $r^{(1/4)} = 64$, $r^{(1/2)} = 32$, and $r^{(1)} = 8$. We set $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 1$ and $\lambda_3 = 0.05$.

3.2 Comparison Experiment

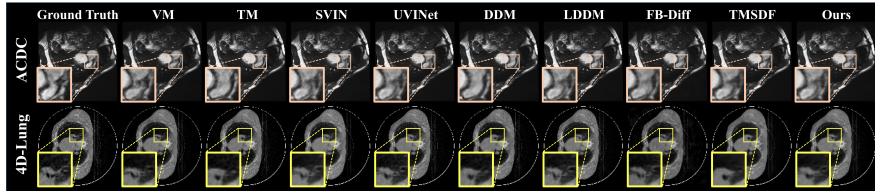
We compare with unsupervised deformation models (Voxelmorph (VM) [1], Transmorph (TM) [4]), unsupervised interpolation networks (SVIN [7], UVINet [12]), and intermediate-supervised methods (DDM [11], LDDM [5], FB-Diff [23], TMSDF [24]).

The quantitative results in Tab. 1 reveal distinct performance patterns across the evaluated methods. While recent unsupervised interpolation models perform strongly on ACDC, they exhibit a notable gap on 4D-Lung due to the challenge of preserving globally coordinated respiratory motion. Conversely, methods utilizing intermediate-frame supervision often reduce reconstruction error, yet their NMI/SSIM scores do not consistently improve, confirming that appearance gains do not necessarily translate into stronger anatomical correspondence. Our approach achieves leading NMI/SSIM on both datasets, particularly on 4D-Lung,

Table 1. Quantitative comparison on ACDC and 4D-Lung datasets.

Method	Year	ACDC			4D-Lung		
		$\text{NMI}^\uparrow_{\times 10^{-2}}$	$\text{NMSE}^\downarrow_{\times 10^{-3}}$	$\text{SSIM}^\uparrow_{\times 10^{-2}}$	$\text{NMI}^\uparrow_{\times 10^{-2}}$	$\text{NMSE}^\downarrow_{\times 10^{-3}}$	$\text{SSIM}^\uparrow_{\times 10^{-2}}$
VM	2019	53.54 ± 0.37	19.18 ± 0.34	94.68 ± 0.10	43.98 ± 0.36	39.02 ± 0.60	86.06 ± 0.29
TM	2022	64.63 ± 0.67	14.43 ± 0.62	96.64 ± 0.12	48.95 ± 0.10	34.96 ± 0.40	84.78 ± 0.12
SVIN	2020	60.18 ± 0.33	9.85 ± 0.89	97.35 ± 0.15	43.17 ± 0.39	30.28 ± 2.03	85.44 ± 0.29
UVINet	2024	72.25 ± 0.17	4.81 ± 0.12	98.62 ± 0.03	55.16 ± 0.84	20.93 ± 1.27	88.75 ± 0.67
DDM	2022	64.14 ± 1.35	10.36 ± 0.30	97.24 ± 0.87	42.54 ± 0.89	33.19 ± 0.73	85.23 ± 0.27
LDDM	2024	72.46 ± 0.30	4.88 ± 0.04	98.56 ± 0.01	56.58 ± 8.08	28.62 ± 0.80	83.50 ± 6.09
FB-Diff	2025	61.33 ± 0.21	8.64 ± 0.21	97.29 ± 0.09	49.28 ± 1.34	27.39 ± 6.26	80.91 ± 3.71
TMSDF	2025	66.40 ± 0.83	4.72 ± 0.23	98.56 ± 0.07	48.36 ± 0.11	16.85 ± 0.09	90.26 ± 1.09
Ours	-	72.61 ± 0.13	4.74 ± 0.05	98.62 ± 0.02	62.34 ± 0.20	17.00 ± 0.43	91.29 ± 0.13

Gray background : methods trained with intermediate-frame supervision.

**Fig. 2.** Qualitative comparison on ACDC and 4D-Lung datasets.

while maintaining competitive reconstruction error. Despite relying only on end-point supervision, it reaches supervised-level overall quality and yields more anatomically consistent, temporally coherent intermediates.

Fig. 2 shows qualitative comparisons. On ACDC, our method produces more regular contours and stable anatomy, especially in complex regions; on 4D-Lung, it better preserves coherent global organization. Baselines often exhibit local inconsistencies, while diffusion-style methods may improve appearance but compromise structural stability, yielding more anatomically consistent and visually stable intermediates.

3.3 Ablation Study

Effect of Multi-scale Rank: As shown in Fig. 3(a), we fix the coarse Tucker rank (given its low sensitivity) and vary the mid/fine ranks, reporting NMI. Increasing Tucker rank improves interpolation quality in low-capacity regimes, while the gain saturates once the fine-scale rank becomes large. Fig. 3(b) reports the Effective Rank of the resulting velocity fields (computed following [16]) as a proxy for motion complexity: lower Effective Rank corresponds to simpler, more compressible motion, and it increases monotonically with Tucker rank in our setting. Performance is best at low-to-moderate Effective Ranks, whereas

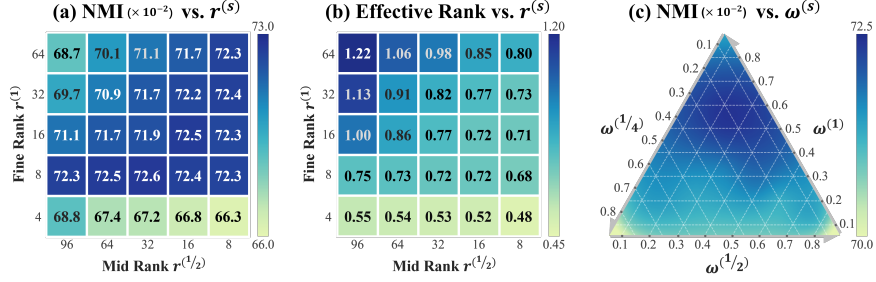


Fig. 3. Ablation on ACDC. (a) NMI under different Tucker rank settings. (b) Velocity field Effective Rank [16] ($\log_{10}$ -scaled). (c) NMI vs. scale weights (ternary diagram).

Table 2. Loss term ablation on ACDC.

NCC	Charb	Reg	$\text{NMI}_{\times 10^{-2}}^{\uparrow}$	$\text{NMSE}_{\times 10^{-3}}^{\downarrow}$	$\text{SSIM}_{\times 10^{-2}}^{\uparrow}$
✓		✓	72.22	4.69	98.63
	✓	✓	72.35	4.81	98.59
✓	✓		71.45	5.18	98.49
✓	✓	✓	72.61	4.74	98.62

overly small ranks underfit and degrade accuracy. Overall, Tucker rank offers a direct knob to tune motion complexity via the induced Effective Rank, and both under-constraint and excessive capacity can lead to suboptimal results.

Effect of Scale Weights: We ablate the scale-wise loss weights in Fig. 3(c) by enforcing $\sum_s \omega^{(s)} = 1$ and visualizing NMI on a ternary plot. Overall, allocating more weight to the fine scale tends to improve performance, but overly extreme fine-dominant settings degrade NMI; the best region favors a fine-leaning yet balanced combination that retains non-negligible mid/coarse contributions. This indicates that fine-scale supervision is most effective for refinement, while mid/coarse guidance helps preserve global coherence and prevent locally driven inconsistencies, yielding the most reliable training signal across scales.

Loss-Term Ablation: Tab. 2 ablates the loss by enabling/disabling NCC, the Charbonnier term, and the regularizer. Dropping Charbonnier can slightly improve NMSE/SSIM but may destabilize optimization, suggesting it complements NCC by tolerating local intensity deviations under unsupervised reconstruction. Regularization is also beneficial: without it, the model tends to produce larger and noisier motions, whereas enabling it stabilizes the scale of core tensors and curbs excessive growth of low-rank parameters, yielding smoother fields and more robust training.

4 Conclusion

We proposed a structured low-rank framework for endpoint-only 4D medical image interpolation. By parameterizing velocity fields with a Tucker low-rank form and modeling motion coarse-to-fine, the method favors spatially correlated, anatomy-consistent deformation. Our analysis links velocity-field smoothness energy to low-rank parameters, supporting the structural prior. Experiments on ACDC and 4D-Lung show best performance on structure-oriented metrics with competitive interpolation error.

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Disclosure of Interests The authors declare that they have no competing interests relevant to this work.

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