

# Probabilistic atlas prior for CT image reconstruction

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## Abstract

### Background and Objectives

In computed tomography (CT), statistical iterative reconstruction (SIR) approaches can produce images of higher quality compared to the conventional analytical methods such as filtered backprojection (FBP) algorithm. Effective noise modeling and possibilities to incorporate priors in the image reconstruction problem are the main advantages that lead to continuous development of SIR methods. Oriented by low-dose CT requirements, several methods are recently developed to obtain a high-quality image reconstruction from down-sampled or noisy projection data. In this paper, a new prior information obtained from probabilistic atlas is proposed for low-dose CT image reconstruction.

### Methods

The proposed approach consists of two main phases. In learning phase, a dataset of images obtained from different patients is used to construct a 3D

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atlas with Laplacian mixture model. The expectation maximization (EM) algorithm is used to estimate the mixture parameters. In reconstruction phase, prior information obtained from the probabilistic atlas is used to construct the cost function for image reconstruction.

### **Results**

We investigate the low-dose imaging by considering the reduction of x-ray beam intensity and by acquiring the projection data through a small number of views or limited view angles. Experimental studies using simulated data and chest screening CT data demonstrate that the probabilistic atlas prior is a practically promising approach for the low-dose CT imaging.

### **Conclusions**

The prior information obtained from probabilistic atlas constructed from earlier scans of different patients is useful in low-dose CT imaging.

### **Keywords**

Computed tomography; statistical image reconstruction; probabilistic atlas; Laplacian mixture model

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## **1. Introduction**

2 X-ray computed tomography (CT) has evolved into an essential imaging  
3 modality in clinical routines. It is hard to find a hospital that has no in-duty  
4 CT imaging equipments worldwide. Clinical diagnostic applications of CT  
5 are known as high-dose imaging techniques compared to the conventional  
6 plain-film radiography. The extensive use of CT scanning leads to a notable  
7 increase of the average patient dose and, consequently, increases possibilities  
8 to produce malignancy. The side effects of the radiation dose generated from

9 CT scans become a concerning topic for further investigations. Although it  
10 is not yet strictly proven that regular CT scans may lead to malignancy, it  
11 is estimated that a rough of 2% of cancers may eventually be caused by the  
12 average radiation dose currently used in clinical CT [1]. Moreover, cancer  
13 lesion in radiosensitive organs such as lungs is correlated to relatively low  
14 dose of 100 mGy [2]. It is estimated that about 75% of the collective dose  
15 from radiology is resulted from high-dose procedures such as CT in which  
16 organ doses are large enough to confirm a significant evidence on cancer risk  
17 increase [3]. The optimization of hardware factors such as scanning geome-  
18 try, tube current and pitch factor would probably lead to a dose reduction.  
19 However, it is always preferable to obtain standard imaging techniques that  
20 minimize the patient dose with acceptable image quality. The conventional  
21 image reconstruction methods based on analytical inversion formulae are still  
22 the fundamental choice in clinical equipment [4]. On the other hand, statis-  
23 tical iterative reconstruction (SIR) methods are known to provide a higher  
24 image quality thanks to noise modeling and possibilities to incorporate prior  
25 information, which has a potential to be useful for some low-dose imaging  
26 protocols [5–8].

27 In this work, we investigate the problem of image reconstruction from  
28 low-dose imaging protocols. By low-dose imaging, we consider reducing x-  
29 ray beam intensity, which is known to increase statistical noise in the recon-  
30 structed image (figure 1(b)). Moreover, we consider the problem of image  
31 reconstruction from a small number of projection views (figure 1(c)) and  
32 limited angle problem (figure 1(d)). Reducing the data sampling rate corre-  
33 sponds a reduction of patient dose, though it may meet some technical chal-

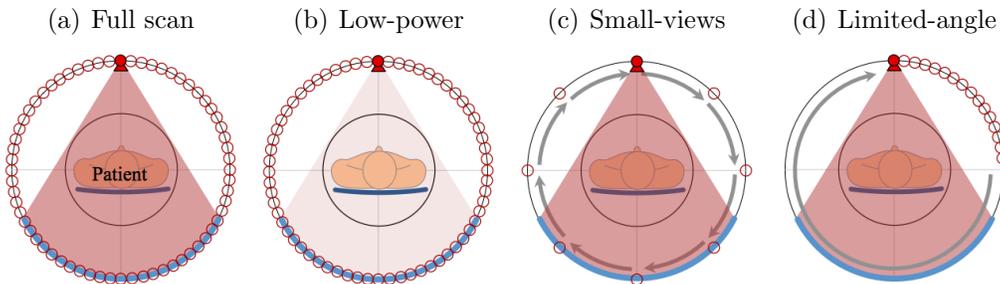


Figure 1: Different CT imaging configurations. Small red circles indicate possible x-ray tube positions during data acquisition.

34 lenges when being implemented in clinical routines. In tomographic imaging,  
 35 it is important to find the appropriate prior model to fit with the imaging  
 36 application and data limitation. In this context, several prior models are  
 37 presented to solve problems generated from limited tomographic data. Prior  
 38 models can be classified into two categories based on the source of knowledge.  
 39 First category is image-domain-based prior, where prior information is ac-  
 40 quired from the reconstructed image domain such as Gibbs smoothing prior  
 41 [9], total variation (TV) prior [10], Non-local means (NLM) [11] and Gaus-  
 42 sian mixture priors [12]. Second category is auxiliary-domain-based, where  
 43 prior information is calculated from auxiliary source such as reference image  
 44 [13], dictionary-based [7] and intensity prior [14]. Anatomical information  
 45 has been used in several tomographic imaging modalities such as emission  
 46 tomography [15–21], transmission electron microscopy [22].

47 Using of prior information obtained from earlier CT scans to improve  
 48 the quality of low-dose CT imaging is become an interesting research topic.  
 49 Several approaches are developed to address this problem. For example,  
 50 Ma *et al.* proposed a post-processing method based on nonlocal means fil-

51 tering, named ndiNLM algorithm [23]. The ndiNLM algorithm is proved  
52 to be powerful approach for noise reduction. However, it does not consider  
53 the statistical properties of photons. Chen *et al.* proposed the PICCS al-  
54 gorithm, which incorporate prior information obtained from reference image  
55 into the image reconstruction problem within the framework of compressed  
56 sensing [13]. Another interesting approach is the PWLS-PINL algorithm [24],  
57 which consider a nonlocal regularization using prior image obtained earlier  
58 with normal-dose scan. Major limitation of prior image-based reconstruction  
59 is the requirement of an earlier scan of the same patient, which is not always  
60 available in several CT applications. A hybrid reconstruction method is pro-  
61 posed by Sadowwsky *et al.* for cone-beam C-arm CT to solve the problem  
62 of data truncation with the limited field-of-view of C-arm scanners [25].

63 The present study proposes a new framework for image generation in  
64 medical applications, which exploit a probabilistic atlas constructed by pro-  
65 cessing archived dataset to generate images with superior quality features in  
66 future scans. This framework might have a large potential to contribute to fu-  
67 ture trends in medical imaging such as modulating the patient dose, reducing  
68 data measurements, and improving image quality. Conceptually, the over-  
69 lap between techniques of medical image creation (*i.e.* image reconstruction  
70 and imaging physics) and techniques of image processing (*i.e.* computational  
71 anatomy and computer-aided-diagnosis) is weak. The main stream between  
72 these two tracks is limited to forward medical images generated by imag-  
73 ing equipments into processing for diagnosis and analysis. In the context of  
74 image segmentation, the use of probabilistic atlas is a common approach to  
75 achieve accurate image segmentation in different imaging modalities. The

76 atlas is essentially generated from a population of co-registered images corre-  
77 sponding to distinct patients and is then used to provide a complete spatial  
78 distribution of probability that a pixel belongs to each organ. This may pro-  
79 vide a useful information that is used to decide an organ to which each pixel  
80 should be classified [26].

81 In this paper, we propose a new SIR method using prior information ob-  
82 tained from probabilistic atlas computed using auxiliary dataset. We used  
83 a set of reconstructed volumes obtained from previous scans of several pa-  
84 tients to construct a probabilistic atlas using the Laplacian mixture model  
85 (LMM). The mixture parameters are estimated using the expectation maxi-  
86 mization (EM) algorithm [27]. The atlas and the mixture model parameters  
87 are then used to construct the image reconstruction cost function from lim-  
88 ited projection data. The developed method can be considered an extension  
89 of our earlier work of the intensity-based MAP (iMAP) algorithm [14]. The  
90 main contribution of this paper is to demonstrate that the spatial informa-  
91 tion provided by the atlas leads to a more accurate reconstruction when the  
92 projection data is limited.

93 This paper is organized as follows. In section 2, the iMAP algorithm  
94 is briefly reviewed. The proposed method is detailed in section 3. The  
95 experimental results are presented and discussed in section 4. The limitations  
96 of the proposed method and future extensions are discussed in section 5, while  
97 the paper is concluded in section 6.

## 98 2. Regularized statistical iterative reconstruction

99 Although analytical image reconstruction methods are still the main ap-  
100 proach for clinical equipments, it is known that the data limitations lead to  
101 significant artifacts in the reconstructed image [28]. An alternative approach  
102 is the SIR, where photon statistics and accurate physical imaging models  
103 can be incorporated into the image reconstruction. This would lead to sup-  
104 pression of statistical noise and other data limitation artifacts in an effective  
105 way. Indeed, this would increase the computation time, but this problem  
106 can be mitigated with the use of high-speed computation hardware such as  
107 GPUs. The data acquisition in the transmission x-ray CT can be described  
108 in a discrete form using the following statistical model.

$$y_i \approx \text{Poisson}(b_i \exp(-\langle \mathbf{a}_i, \mathbf{x} \rangle)), \quad i = 1, \dots, m, \quad (1)$$

109 where  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is the image vector representing the attenuation co-  
110 efficients of object,  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_m)$  is a vector representing the raw detector  
111 measurements with the blank scan  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, \dots, b_m)$ ,  $A = \{a_{ij}\}$  is the  $m \times n$   
112 system matrix that models the imaging system, and  $\langle \mathbf{a}_i, \mathbf{x} \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j$  is  
113 the inner product of  $i$ th row of matrix  $A$  and image vector  $\mathbf{x}$ . In SIR, the  
114 maximum likelihood (ML) approach is used in many cases. In the case of  
115 transmission CT, the solution is found through solving the following opti-  
116 mization problem.

$$\mathbf{x}^* = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}} l(\mathbf{x}) \quad (2)$$

$$l(\mathbf{x}) = - \sum_{i=1}^m \left[ y_i \log(b_i) - y_i \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j - \log(y_i!) - b_i \exp\left(- \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j\right) \right], \quad (3)$$

117 where  $l(\mathbf{x})$  is the (negative) log-likelihood function. However, the ML method  
 118 is known to amplify the statistical noise in tomographic reconstruction, which  
 119 is a high-dimensional inverse problem. The typical approach to solve this  
 120 issue is the introduction of a regularization term into the penalty function.  
 121 Bayesian approaches such as Maximum *a posteriori* (MAP) are the common  
 122 framework in this regard. The solution is found by maximizing the MAP  
 123 function defined as:

$$P(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})P(\mathbf{x})}{P(\mathbf{y})}, \quad (4)$$

124 and the solution of the image reconstruction problem is found by

$$\mathbf{x}^* = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x} \geq 0} L(\mathbf{x}) + \beta U(\mathbf{x}), \quad (5)$$

125 where  $U(\mathbf{x})$  is the penalty term that represent the prior knowledge of the  
 126 object in question. The compromise between the data fidelity enforced by  
 127 the likelihood function and the regularization term is controlled by a hyper-  
 128 parameter  $\beta$ . The penalty term (also known as the regularization term) can  
 129 take several forms. The common approach used as a regularizer is the Gibbs  
 130 smoothing prior [29–31]. Moreover, it is possible to integrate other prior  
 131 information of the image such as intensity information. In the following sec-  
 132 tion, we briefly introduce a recently developed algorithm by the authors with  
 133 the name of intensity-based MAP (iMAP) algorithm. The iMAP algorithm

134 is the basis used to derive the image reconstruction method proposed in this  
 135 paper.

### 136 2.1. Overview of iMAP algorithm

137 Recently, we have developed an iterative image reconstruction algorithm  
 138 from a small number of projection views named as iMAP algorithm [14]. In  
 139 this method, a regularization term based on prior information concerning  
 140 a small number of intensity values contained in the object in question is  
 141 introduced. The regularization term, named as *intensity prior*, is computed  
 142 using average intensity values of uniform regions in the scanned object, and  
 143 it leads to a considerable improvement in image quality. The framework of  
 144 iMAP algorithm is based on the fact that, in many CT imaging applications,  
 145 most of anatomical structures, and corresponding attenuation information  
 146 can be easily known or estimated in prior to image reconstruction. Moreover,  
 147 the intensity value within the same region (organ) is almost uniform or is  
 148 slightly varying.

149 In the iMAP algorithm, the solution of image reconstruction problem is  
 150 found by solving the following optimization problem.

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \geq 0} f(\mathbf{x}) = L(\mathbf{x}) + \beta D(\mathbf{x}) \quad (6)$$

$$L(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^m [b_i \exp(-\langle \mathbf{a}_i, \mathbf{x} \rangle) + y_i \langle \mathbf{a}_i, \mathbf{x} \rangle] \quad (7)$$

$$D(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^n \min_{l=1}^L \omega_l \xi_l(x_j), \quad \xi_l(t) = \begin{cases} |t - z_l| & z_{l-1} \leq t \leq z_{l+1} \\ \infty & (\text{otherwise}) \end{cases}, \quad (8)$$

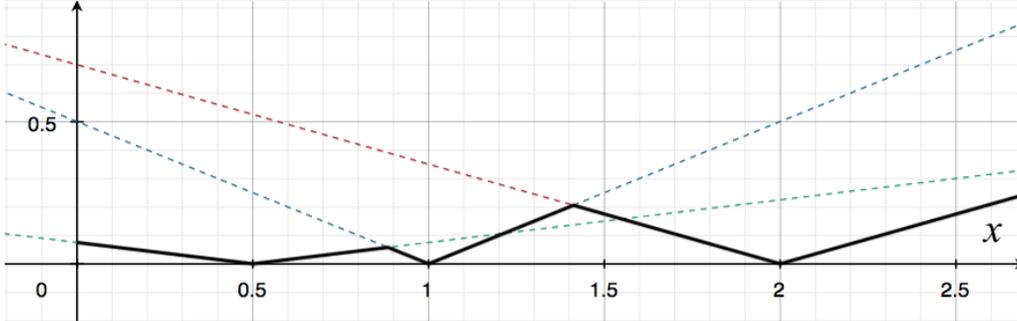


Figure 2: The penalty function of the iMAP algorithm in equation (8) corresponding to  $L = 3$ ,  $\mathbf{z} = (0.5, 1.0, 2.0)$ ,  $\omega_1 = 0.15$ ,  $\omega_2 = 0.5$  and  $\omega_3 = 0.35$ . Plot of  $\omega_l|x - z_l|$  with  $l = 1, 2$  and  $3$  are in dotted lines. The value corresponding to  $\min_{l=1}^L \omega_l \xi_l(x)$  is shown in solid line.

151 where  $L(\mathbf{x})$  is the negative log-likelihood after ignoring the irrelevant terms,  
 152  $D(\mathbf{x})$  is a distance function corresponding to the intensity prior,  $\mathbf{z} = (z_1, \dots, z_L)$   
 153 is a set of *a priori* known intensity values arranged in ascending order (*i.e.*  
 154  $z_1 < z_2 < \dots < z_{L-1} < z_L$ ) with  $z_0 = -\infty$  and  $z_{L+1} = \infty$ , and  $\omega_1, \dots, \omega_L$  are  
 155 empirically determined weighting parameters corresponding to the intensity  
 156 values. The intensity vector  $\mathbf{z}$  is assumed to be known in prior to reconstruction  
 157 as it represents attenuation coefficients of uniform regions in the scanned  
 158 object. The weighting parameter  $\omega_l$  is determined from the frequency of in-  
 159 tensity  $z_l$  appearing in the image, which can be estimated from the intensity  
 160 histogram. Figure 2 illustrates the penalty function defined in equation (8).

161 When the image reconstruction problem is ill-posed due to the limitations  
 162 of projection data, the regularization term in equation (8) is used to find a  
 163 solution which minimizes the  $\ell_1$  norm distance between each image pixel  $x_j$   
 164 and a closest component of the known intensity vector  $\mathbf{z}$ .

165 The main challenge in minimizing the cost function in equation (6) is that

166 the regularization term  $D(\mathbf{x})$  defined by taking the minimum of several  $\ell_1$   
167 norm functions is neither convex nor differentiable. Therefore, it is difficult  
168 to employ an ordinary gradient-type iterative method to minimize the cost  
169 function. Instead, the majorization-minimization strategy [32, 33] is used to  
170 replace the minimization problem into a sequence of minimizing a separable  
171 surrogate function  $\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^k)$ . At each iteration  $k$ , the non-separable part to  
172 the cost function is approximated by a separable function around  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^k$   
173 given by

$$\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{x}^k) = \sum_{j=1}^n \beta [c_j(x_j - p_j)^2 + \omega_{h(x_j)}|x_j - z_{h(x_j)}|] + T(\mathbf{x}^k),$$

$$h(x_j) = \left\{ h \in \{1, \dots, L\} : \omega_h|x_j - z_h| = \min_{l=1}^L \omega_l|x_j - z_l| \right\}, \quad (9)$$

174 where  $T(\mathbf{x}^k)$  is the term independent of  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $(p_j, c_j)$  are computed as  
175 follows.

$$p_j = x_j^k + x_j^k \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} (b_i \exp(-\langle \mathbf{a}_i, \mathbf{x}^k \rangle) - y_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} \langle \mathbf{a}_i, \mathbf{x}^k \rangle b_i \exp(-\langle \mathbf{a}_i, \mathbf{x}^k \rangle)} \quad (10)$$

$$c_j = \frac{1}{2\beta x_j^k} \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} \langle \mathbf{a}_i, \mathbf{x}^k \rangle b_i \exp(-\langle \mathbf{a}_i, \mathbf{x}^k \rangle). \quad (11)$$

176 The computational procedure of the iMAP algorithm is summarized as  
177 follows.

178 (i) **Initialization:** Give the intensity prior  $\mathbf{z}$ , set the initial image  $\mathbf{x}^0$  as  
179 a uniform positive image, and initialize the iteration number as  $k = 0$ .

180 (ii) **Majorization:** The cost function  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is approximately majorized  
181 around the current estimate  $\mathbf{x}^k$  by the separable surrogate function  $\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{x}^k)$

182 in equation (9).

183 (iii) **Minimization:** The separable surrogate function  $\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{x}^k)$  is mini-  
184 mized over  $\mathbf{x} \geq 0$  to obtain the image estimate for next iterate  $\mathbf{x}^{k+1}$ .

185 (iv) **Stopping condition:** Set the iteration number as  $k = k + 1$  and  
186 repeat steps (ii)-(iii) until a stopping criterion is satisfied.

187 The separable surrogate function  $f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{x}^k)$  is minimized in step (iii) using  
188 the exact procedure detailed in Appendix A. The minimization is achieved  
189 through what is called multi-thresholding function [14]. The implementation  
190 of the thresholding operation is explained as follows. If the pixel update value  
191  $p_j$  computed in equation (10) is close to the intensity value  $z_l$ , in terms of  
192  $\ell_1$  norm distance weighted by parameter  $\omega_l$ , then, the pixel value is assigned  
193 to the value of  $z_l$ . Otherwise,  $p_j$  is shifted by a soft-thresholding operation  
194 towards the closest value of  $z_l$ .

## 195 2.2. Improvements of the iMAP algorithm

196 During the implementation of the iMAP algorithm, we have found that  
197 the major challenge is how to estimate the parameters  $(z_l, \omega_l)$  contained in  
198 the intensity prior. One possible improvement direction is to develop a ro-  
199 bust approach to automatically or semi-automatically estimate the intensity  
200 weighting parameter  $\omega_l$  such that it matches to the intensity histogram of the  
201 image in question. Moreover, the structure of the iMAP algorithm is based  
202 on the pixel intensity values without consideration of any spatial information  
203 (*i.e.* spatially dependent nature). In other words, the iMAP algorithm uses  
204 prior information of expected intensity values for all image pixels equally.  
205 However, it would be useful to utilize additional information provided by the  
206 pixel position in the image. In the present work, based on these observations,

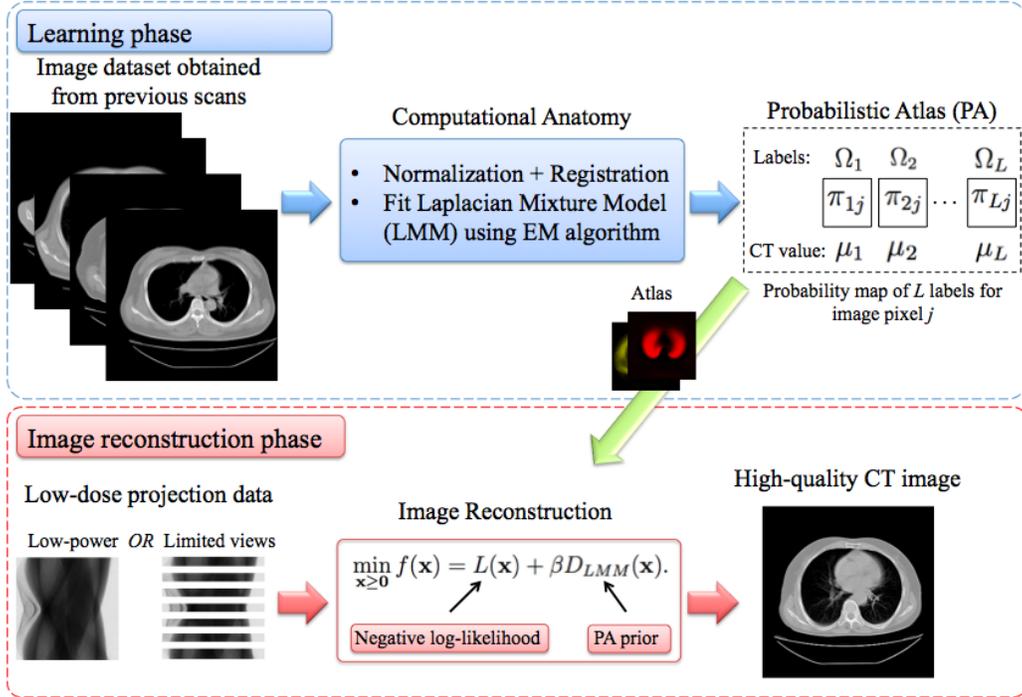


Figure 3: A diagram of the proposed framework for low-dose reconstruction using probabilistic atlas prior.

207 we extend the iMAP algorithm by incorporating additional pixel-dependent  
 208 probability obtained from a probabilistic atlas to further improve the recon-  
 209 struction performance.

### 210 3. Proposed Method

211 In low-dose CT, image reconstructed from projection data acquired through  
 212 a reduction of x-ray beam intensity is known to be of low quality due to the  
 213 effect of statistical noise. It is common to use MAP-based reconstruction  
 214 methods using various prior models to reduce the effect of noise or other  
 215 artifacts. In this work, we develop a novel framework to construct a new

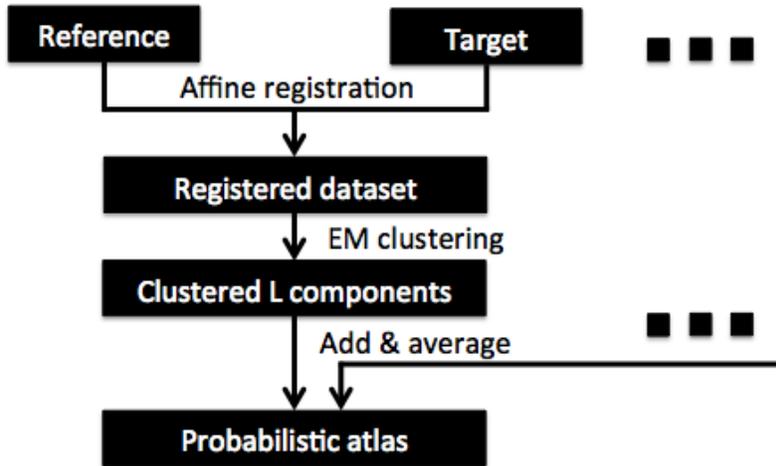


Figure 4: A schematic of the construction of the probabilistic atlas (learning phase).

216 class of MAP reconstruction methods based on techniques of computational  
 217 anatomy fields. A general diagram explain the overview of the proposed  
 218 framework is shown in figure 3. The proposed framework consists of two  
 219 essential phases. First, we construct a probabilistic atlas from dataset of CT  
 220 images acquired from other patients through image processing techniques.  
 221 In the second phase, the probabilistic atlas is used as prior knowledge for  
 222 image reconstruction. Hereafter, this image reconstruction method is called  
 223 Probabilistic-Atlas MAP (PA-MAP).

### 224 3.1. Phase I: Learning phase

225 We start with a population of images (CT dataset) acquired from dif-  
 226 ferent patients under the same imaging configuration. Through an image  
 227 processing step, including image registration and segmentation, this dataset  
 228 can be probabilistically represented as a multivariate mixture of  $L$  inten-  
 229 sity components. Each component, with median value  $\mu_l$ , is representing an

230 anatomical region within the scanned object. A schematic of the learning  
231 phase is presented in figure 4. A In this paper, the probabilistic atlas is used  
232 to provide a complete spatial distribution of probabilities that each image  
233 pixel belongs to which region having uniform (or almost uniform) intensity.  
234 By constructing the probabilistic atlas, the probabilities  $\pi_{lj}$  ( $l = 1, \dots, L$ )  
235 are assigned to each pixel  $x_j$  together with the corresponding intensity value  
236  $\mu = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_L)$ , where  $\pi_{lj}$  represents the probability, that the pixel  $x_j$  be-  
237 longs to the region  $l$  having the median intensity  $\mu_l$ . To construct the atlas, a  
238 mixture model is used to define the distribution of image pixels. We use the  
239 Laplacian mixture model (LMM) to segment the dataset into  $L$  number of  
240 regions. The parameters of the LMM are estimated using the EM algorithm.  
241 Finally, the parameters of the probabilistic atlas, which we call the proba-  
242 bilistic atlas prior, are incorporated into the image reconstruction within the  
243 framework of the iMAP algorithm.

### 244 3.1.1. Image registration

245 The probabilistic atlas is computed from dataset images obtained with the  
246 same imaging configurations. After images of the dataset are co-registered  
247 using an arbitrary patient image as a reference, the atlas is computed in  
248 the form of LMM. For the atlas construction, the registered images are clus-  
249 tered using the EM algorithm into  $L$  components and the atlas is computed  
250 by averaging the probability distribution of the LMM. A useful review of  
251 image registration techniques in medical applications can be found in Ref.  
252 [34]. Several image registration technique might be successfully used in the  
253 proposed framework. Intuitively, we used a non-rigid image registration tech-  
254 nique. Non-rigid image registration aims to transform an image (a member

255 of the dataset) such that it becomes as similar as possible to a fixed im-  
 256 age (reference image). In this study, we use a deformable image registration  
 257 method based on the B-splines [35]. The registration process is optimized  
 258 using gradient decent method with means squares as similarity measure and  
 259 20 mm point spacing. An example of registration process is shown later in  
 260 section 4.

### 261 3.1.2. EM clustering

262 The Laplacian mixture model (LMM) is one of statistical models for mul-  
 263 tivariate analysis that is widely used within the context of robust clustering  
 264 such as image segmentation [36]. The density function at an observation  $\mathbf{x}$   
 265 is expressed as

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{j=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^L \pi_{lj} p(x_j | \Omega_l), \quad (12)$$

266 where  $\Omega_l$  ( $l = 1, \dots, L$ ) is the set of class labels and  $\pi_{lj}$  is the prior probability  
 267 for each pixel  $x_j$  to belong to the class  $\Omega_l$ . Obviously,  $\pi_{lj}$  satisfies the following  
 268 constraints.

$$0 \leq \pi_{lj} \leq 1 \quad (l = 1, \dots, L; j = 1, \dots, n) \quad \text{and} \quad (13)$$

$$\sum_{l=1}^L \pi_{lj} = 1 \quad (j = 1, \dots, n). \quad (14)$$

269 It is important to note that the mixture probability  $\pi_{lj}$  in the ordinary clus-  
 270 tering problems is expressed with a single subscript in the form of  $\pi_l$ . How-  
 271 ever, in the current situation, to construct the atlas, the input data used to  
 272 compute the LMM parameters is a set of multiple images of different patients

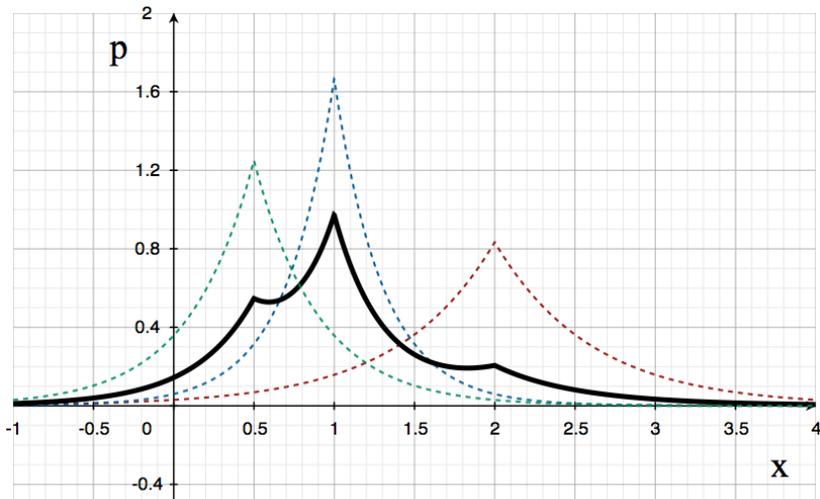


Figure 5: Plot of probability. Laplacian density functions for three components with parameters  $(\mu, \lambda) = (0.5, 0.4)$ ,  $(1.0, 0.3)$  and  $(2.0, 0.6)$  are in dotted lines. The mixture density corresponding to proportions of 0.3, 0.5 and 0.2, respectively, is shown in solid line.

273 (not a single image). Therefore, it is allowed to compute the pixel-dependent  
 274 prior probability  $\pi_{lj}$  in a stable way. In equation (12), the probability density  
 275 function (pdf) corresponding to each Laplacian component  $p(x_j|\Omega_l)$ , called  
 276 component of the mixture, is expressed as

$$p(x_j|\Omega_l) = \frac{1}{2\lambda_l} \exp\left(-\frac{|x_j - \mu_l|}{\lambda_l}\right). \quad (15)$$

277 where  $\mu_l$  and  $\lambda_l$  are the median value and the width parameter of density  
 278 function corresponding to the label  $\Omega_l$ , respectively. The set of LMM pa-  
 279 rameters  $(\mu_l, \lambda_l, \pi_{lj})$  ( $l = 1, \dots, L; j = 1, \dots, n$ ) obtained by using the EM  
 280 clustering algorithm specifies the probabilistic atlas [37]. An example of the  
 281 mixture density function is shown in figure 5. By taking the (negative) loga-  
 282 rithm of equation (12), the prior term  $D_{LMM}(\mathbf{x})$  corresponding to the LMM

283 model used for image reconstruction as prior knowledge is derived as

$$D_{LMM}(\mathbf{x}) = -\sum_{j=1}^n \log \left[ \sum_{l=1}^L \pi_{lj} p(x_j|\Omega_l) \right] \quad (16)$$

$$\cong \sum_{j=1}^n \min_{l=1}^L \left[ -\log\left(\frac{\pi_{lj}}{\lambda_l}\right) + \frac{|x_j - \mu_l|}{\lambda_l} \right] + \log 2 \quad (17)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n \min_{l=1}^L g_l(x_j), \quad (18)$$

$$g_l(x_j) = -\log \frac{\pi_{lj}}{\lambda_l} + \frac{|x_j - \mu_l|}{\lambda_l} \quad (19)$$

284 The regularization term in equation (16) is constructed as follows. First,  
 285 we prepare CT images of many patients, or different scans of the same pa-  
 286 tient as in follow-up applications, spatially registered to one another. Then,  
 287 by using the EM clustering algorithm, we fit the LMM (equation (12)) to  
 288 the learning dataset. We call this process the learning phase, in which the  
 289 mixture parameters  $(\mu_l, \lambda_l, \pi_{lj})$  ( $l = 1, \dots, L; j = 1, \dots, n$ ) appearing in equa-  
 290 tion (17) are estimated. To derive equation (17) from equation (16), we have  
 291 used the standard approximation in the mixture analysis to take only a single  
 292 dominant component among all  $L$  components. For example, this approxi-  
 293 mation has been successfully used in image segmentation applications with  
 294 the name of  $k$ -mean or  $k$ -median clustering.

### 295 3.2. Phase II: Image reconstruction phase

#### 296 3.2.1. Atlas fitting

297 The PA constructed in learning phase is computed by registering all the  
 298 dataset to arbitrary selected image. Thus, the resulted atlas accuracy is

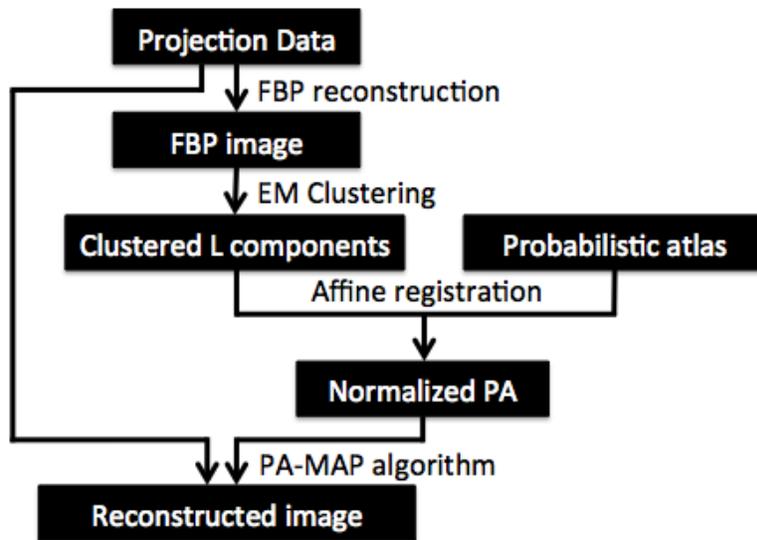


Figure 6: A schematic of image reconstruction using proposed method (image reconstruction phase).

299 highly dependent on the arbitrary selected reference image. To fit the PA  
 300 with the image to be reconstructed, we use the following procedure. First,  
 301 the FBP image is reconstructed and then clustered into  $L$  components using  
 302 EM algorithm. Then the PA is registered to the clustered FBP image. The  
 303 normalized PA that is aligned to the FBP image is then used for PA-MAP  
 304 reconstruction. Figure 6 details the atlas fitting procedure and experimental  
 305 results is shown in section 4 below.

### 306 3.2.2. PA-MAP algorithm

307 To construct the image reconstruction method using the prior information  
 308 generated from the probabilistic atlas, the median value of each mixture  
 309 components  $\mu_l$  can be considered as the known intensity values  $z_l$  in the  
 310 iMAP algorithm. The inverse of width parameter  $1/\lambda_l$  can be considered the  
 311 weighting parameter  $w_l$ . Furthermore, we also need to include the additional  
 312 additive term  $-\log(\pi_{lj}/\lambda_l)$  into the cost function, which reflects the spatially-  
 313 dependent nature of prior knowledge. These correspondences are clear from  
 314 the comparison of equation (8) and equation (16). Finally, the cost function  
 315 for the PA-MAP algorithm is defined by

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = L(\mathbf{x}) + \beta D_{LMM}(\mathbf{x}). \quad (20)$$

316 The minimization of cost function  $f(\mathbf{x})$  for image reconstruction is per-  
 317 formed by using the iterative algorithm based on the majorization-minimization  
 318 strategy similar to that of the iMAP algorithm previously described in sec-  
 319 tion 2. The cost function in equation (20) is approximately majorized around  
 320 the current iterate  $\mathbf{x}^k$  by using the following equation.

$$\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{x}^k) = \sum_{j=1}^n \beta \left[ c_j (x_j - p_j)^2 + \frac{1}{\lambda_{h(x_j)}} |x_j - \mu_{h(x_j)}| \right] + T(\mathbf{x}^k)$$

$$h(x_j) = \left\{ h \in \{1, \dots, L\} : g_h(x_j) = \min_{l=1}^L g_l(x_j) \right\} \quad (21)$$

321 where  $p_j$  and  $c_j$  are defined in equations (10) and (11), respectively and  
 322  $T(\mathbf{x}^k)$  is the term independent of  $\mathbf{x}$ . The formulation of the cost function  
 323 in equation (20) requires a considerable effort to minimize. This is due to  
 324 the mixing of the discrete optimization corresponding to the label  $l$  and the  
 325 continuous  $\ell_1$  norm optimization with respect to  $x_j$ . A novel exact minimiza-  
 326 tion algorithm is detailed in Appendix A. We note that both the intensity  
 327 prior in equation (8) and the PA prior in equation (16) are different from  
 328 a class of smoothing priors like total-variation (TV) and Gibbs priors so  
 329 that they can be combined with a smoothing prior to further improve of the  
 330 performances. We call the resulting reconstruction method PA-MAP, which  
 331 provides a useful framework to improve the iMAP reconstruction method.

332 The advantages of the PA-MAP method compared to the iMAP method  
 333 is summarized as follows. First, more accurate values of the prior intensity  
 334 can be provided through the data modeling as LMM in the learning phase.  
 335 Second, the weighting parameter  $w_l$  can now be automatically computed as  
 336 the corresponding width of the mixture component  $1/\lambda_l$ . Finally, the prior  
 337 knowledge is pixel-dependent, which contributes to improving image quality.  
 338 Moreover, it is possible to use additional smoothing penalty terms to the cost  
 339 function  $f(\mathbf{x})$  in (20), such as the well-known quadratic smoothing penalty.  
 340 In the experimental studies presented in the paper, we have included a very  
 341 weak smoothing penalty to improve the quality of reconstruction. In brief,

342 the computational procedure of PA-MAP method is summarized as follows.

343 **(I) Learning phase:**

344 (i) Input images dataset and specify the number of expected mixture  
345 components  $L$ .

346 (ii) Select an arbitrary reference image  $\mathbf{x}_{ref}$  from the image dataset.

347 (iii) Register the remaining images to  $\mathbf{x}_{ref}$ .

348 (iv) Compute the mixture parameters  $(\mu_l, \lambda_l, \pi_{lj})$  ( $l = 1, \dots, L; j = 1, \dots, n$ )  
349 using the EM algorithm.

350 **(II) Reconstruction phase:**

351 (i) Fit the PA with  $\mathbf{x}_{FBP}$  image as described in figure 6.

(ii) Set the initial image  $\mathbf{x}^0$  to a uniform positive image.

$$x_j^0 = \frac{1}{d n} \sum_{i=1}^m -\log(y_i/b_i), \quad j = 1, \dots, n,$$

352 where  $d$  is the number of projection view angles. Set the iteration number  
353 as  $k = 0$ .

354 (iii) The cost function in equation (20) is approximately majorized around  
355 the current iterate  $\mathbf{x}^k$  by the separable surrogate function in equation (21).

356 (iv) The separable surrogate function is minimized over  $\mathbf{x} \geq 0$ .

$$\mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x} \geq 0} \tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{x}^k)$$

357 (v) Increment the iteration number by  $k = k + 1$  and repeat step (iii) and  
358 step (iv) alternately until a stopping criterion is satisfied.

359 Below, we explain how to perform the minimization of the surrogate func-  
360 tion  $\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^k)$  appearing in the step (II)(iv), which is a key part in the PA-  
361 MAP method. First of all, from equation (21), it is clear that this minimiza-

362 tion can be performed for each variable  $x_j$  separately (*i.e.* the cost function is  
 363 separable). However, solving the resulting minimization problem for each  $x_j$   
 364 is not trivial, mainly because the cost function includes the minimization op-  
 365 eration with respect to the label  $l$ , which is a discrete optimization. We have  
 366 found that this minimization problem can be solved in an exact and simple  
 367 way by using the novel procedure shown in Appendix A, which involves a se-  
 368 quence of the soft-thresholding operations for all label values  $l = 1, 2, \dots, L$ .  
 369 See Appendix A for the details. We have used this algorithm to perform  
 370 the minimization of the surrogate function  $\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^k)$  (of course, if the opti-  
 371 mal value of  $x_j$ , at which  $\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^k)$  is minimum, is negative it is replaced by  
 372 zero). We note that the computational cost of this algorithm is much smaller  
 373 compared to those of the forward projection and the backprojection if the  
 374 number of labels is not large. We also note that the similar algorithm was  
 375 proposed for the iMAP method and was called multi-thresholdings.

### 376 3.3. Preserving abnormalities

377 One major concern in penalized reconstruction methods similar to the one  
 378 presented in this paper is the possibility of losing abnormalities. The main  
 379 purpose of diagnostic CT imaging is to find the abnormalities such as lesion,  
 380 tumors or organ shape deformation. It is always preferable for physicians  
 381 to look at true images with weak artifacts than beautiful images that are  
 382 likely to be different from the truth. It is clear from Sections 2 and 3.2, the  
 383 thresholding operation used in both the iMAP and PA-MAP algorithms is  
 384 applied only to pixels having intensity values closer to one of the intensity  
 385 priors  $z_l$  in the iMAP algorithm and one of the median values  $\mu_l$  ( $l = 1, \dots, L$ )  
 386 in the PA-MAP algorithm. Moreover, the effect of the regularization term

387 is handled such that the strength of the thresholding operation is reduced  
 388 while the iteration proceeds by using dynamic value of the parameter  $\beta$  that  
 389 is gradually decreased. In early iterations, the parameter  $\beta$  is relatively large  
 390 to increase the effect of the PA prior and thus enforce image pixels to be  
 391 closer to the values of  $\mu_l$ . Later, and as the iteration proceeds, the value of  
 392  $\beta$  is reduced to give higher weight to the data fidelity term. Thus, restore  
 393 abnormalities lost in early iterations. In the experimental studies presented  
 394 here, we use the following rule to calculate dynamic  $\beta$

$$\beta = \beta_o / (k + 1), \quad (22)$$

395 where  $\beta_o$  is the initial parameter value. Further details are described in  
 396 our previous study [14], and are omitted here. Consequently, the power of  
 397 preserving abnormalities of the iMAP and PA-MAP methods is rather strong.  
 398 In the experimental studies detailed in the next section, we demonstrate how  
 399 the proposed method can preserve abnormalities such as calcifications in  
 400 lungs.

## 401 4. Experimental studies

### 402 4.1. Image quality measures

403 Throughout the experimental studies, the following image quality mea-  
 404 sures are used to evaluate the proposed method and its competitors. The  
 405 noise reduction is measured using the relative root mean square error (RRME).

$$RRME = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - x_j^*)^2}{\sum_{j=1}^n (x_j^*)^2}}, \quad (23)$$

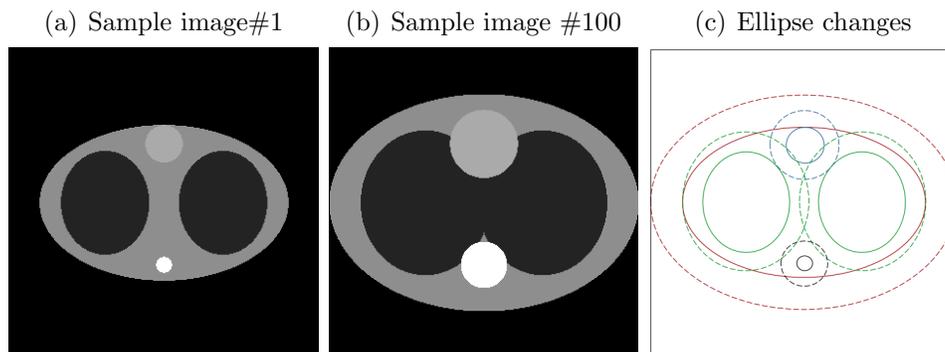


Figure 7: Sample of digital chest phantoms used to construct the probabilistic atlas: (a) sample image of patient #1 (largest contraction case), (b) sample image of patient #100 (largest expansion case) and (c) contour lines describing the range of size of each phantom ellipse (solid lines for largest contraction and dashed lines for largest expansion cases).

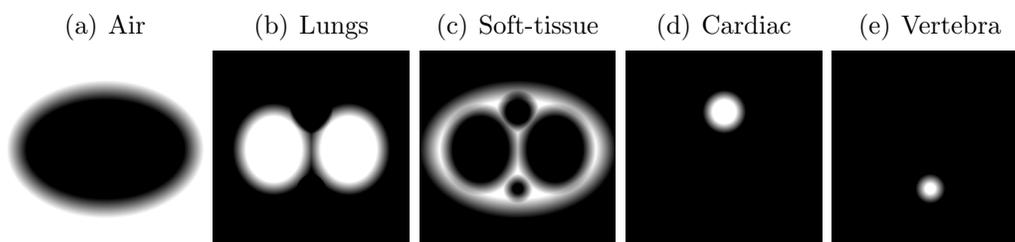


Figure 8: Components of probabilistic atlas constructed from simulated 100 digital phantoms defined in figure 7. White color corresponds to the probability of one and black color corresponds to zero probability.

Table 1: Parameters of digital phantom shown in figure 7. Minimum and maximum values corresponding to patients #1 and #100, respectively.

Index	Description	Center coordinates	Major axis		Minor axis		Density ( $cm^{-1}$ )
			Min	Max	Min	Max	
1	soft-tissue	(0.0, 0.0)	0.80	1.00	0.50	0.70	1.00
2	lungs	(0.38, 0.0) (-0.38, 0.0)	0.285	0.416	0.334	0.466	0.25
3	cardiac	(0.0, 0.38)	0.121	0.220	0.121	0.220	1.20
4	vertebra	(0.0,-0.40)	0.051	0.150	0.051	0.150	1.80

406 where  $x_j$  denotes the pixel value of reconstructed image and  $x_j^*$  is the cor-  
 407 responding true value. The image contrast is measured using the following  
 408 formulae.

$$Contrast = \frac{|\bar{x}_s - \bar{x}_b|}{\bar{x}_s + \bar{x}_b}, \quad (24)$$

409 where  $\bar{x}_s$  and  $\bar{x}_b$  are the mean pixel values of selected region-of-interest (ROI)  
 410 pixels ( $ROI_s$ ) and background pixels ( $ROI_b$ ), respectively. The mean values  
 411  $\bar{x}_s$  and  $\bar{x}_b$  are computed by

$$\bar{x}_s = \frac{1}{n_s} \sum_{j=1}^{n_s} x_j, \quad (x_j \in ROI_s), \quad \bar{x}_b = \frac{1}{n_b} \sum_{j=1}^{n_b} x_j, \quad (x_j \in ROI_b), \quad (25)$$

412 where  $n_s$  ( $n_b$ ) is the number of pixels within  $ROI_s$  ( $ROI_b$ ). Furthermore, we  
 413 use another metric to evaluate the image contrast and the noise properties.  
 414 The contrast-to-noise ratio (CNR) is measured by

$$CNR = \frac{2|\bar{x}_s - \bar{x}_b|}{\delta_s \sigma_s + \delta_b \sigma_b}, \quad \delta_s = \frac{n_s}{n_s + n_b}, \quad \delta_b = \frac{n_b}{n_s + n_b}, \quad (26)$$

Table 2: Parameters of digital phantom shown in figure 9(a).

Index	Description	Center coordinates	Major axis	Minor axis	angle	Density ( $cm^{-1}$ )
1	soft-tissue	(0.0, 0.0)	0.90	0.60	0.0	1.00
2	lungs	(0.38, 0.0)	0.35	0.40	0.0	0.25
		(-0.38, 0.0)				
3	cardiac	(0.0, 0.38)	0.17	0.17	0.0	1.20
4	vertebra	(0.0, -0.40)	0.10	0.10	0.0	1.80
		(0.1,-0.45)	0.08	0.03	-45.0	
		(-0.1,-0.45)	0.08	0.03	45.0	
5	lesion (1)	(0.4, 0.2)	0.02	0.02	0.0	1.0
6	lesion (2)	(-0.4, 0.2)	0.08	0.08	0.0	1.0
7	lesion (3)	(-0.4, -0.2)	0.08	0.08	0.0	0.6
8	lesion (4)	(-0.3, 0.0)	0.015	0.015	0.0	1.0
9	lesion (5)	(-0.5, 0.0)	0.015	0.015	0.0	0.6

where  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation over ROI and is computed as follows:

$$\sigma_s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_s - 1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_s} (x_j - \bar{x}_s)^2}, \quad \sigma_b = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_b - 1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_b} (x_j - \bar{x}_b)^2}. \quad (27)$$

## 4.2. Simulation results

### 4.2.1. Experiment setup

In the simulation study, we have used digital phantoms to construct the probabilistic atlas. A set of 100 simulated phantoms were designed to simulate chest CT with change in organ size to take the individual variation into account. Each ellipse (organ) is assumed to have the same center point to avoid additional efforts for image registration. The sample image corresponding to patient #1 (largest ellipse contraction case) and patient #100 (largest expansion case) are shown in figure 7(a) and (b), respectively and phantom parameters are shown in table 1. Attenuation values are assumed to be uniform within each organ and we assigned the values of 0.0, 0.25, 1.20, 1.0, and  $1.80 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for regions representing air, lungs, soft-tissue, cardiac and vertebra, respectively. The range of size changes in ellipses is illustrated in figure 7(c) and detailed in table 1. The probabilistic atlas, computed from the simulated data, is shown in figure 8, which is an ideal example where most of the image pixels possess crisp probabilities (either zeros or ones). Only pixels located near region boundaries possess non-crisp values.

### 4.2.2. Image reconstruction

The phantom image to be reconstructed is an intermediate case (patient #50) with some additional abnormality (which are not included in creating the atlas). Abnormalities are considered as change in anatomical

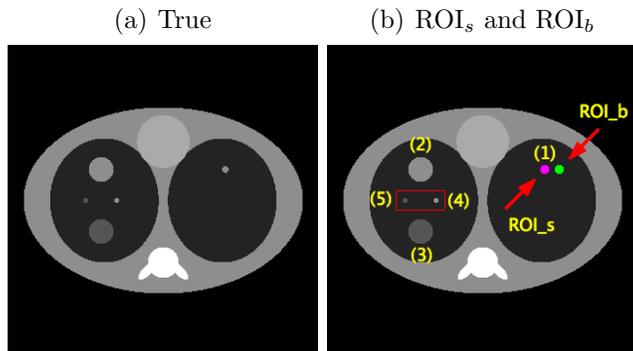


Figure 9: (a) True phantom image with a lesion inserts marked from (1) to (5) and change in vertebra anatomy. (b) Arrows pointed to ROI<sub>s</sub> and ROI<sub>b</sub> regions used to compute image quality measures and rectangle include a magnified region in reconstruction results below.

436 structure shown by two ellipses added to the vertebra or lung lesions. One  
 437 6.4 *mm* lesion insert in the right-side lung, two 25.4 *mm* and two 4.8 *mm*  
 438 lesions insert on the left-side lung. The lesion in the right-side lung is with in-  
 439 tensity value of  $1.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , while lesions in the left-side lung are with intensity  
 440 values of  $1.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $0.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  as shown in Fig 9(a) and detailed in table 2.  
 441 We use the lesion insert (1) in the right-side lung to compute quantitative le-  
 442 sion observation measures discussed above, while remaining lesions are used  
 443 for visual quality observation. The image grid was set to  $320 \times 320$  pixels,  
 444 and the projection data was computed by assuming 320 detector bins for  
 445 each view,  $180^\circ$  view angular range with parallel-beam geometry and simple  
 446 line-integral projection model. We implemented the following three scenar-  
 447 ios. First, we measure the projection data over 320 views with additional  
 448 Poisson noise corresponds to  $2 \times 10^3$ ,  $1 \times 10^4$  and  $2 \times 10^4$  photon counts. The  
 449 filtered back-projection (FBP) and the standard OS-Convex [38] (with and  
 450 without quadratic penalty) algorithms are used to evaluate the proposed PA-

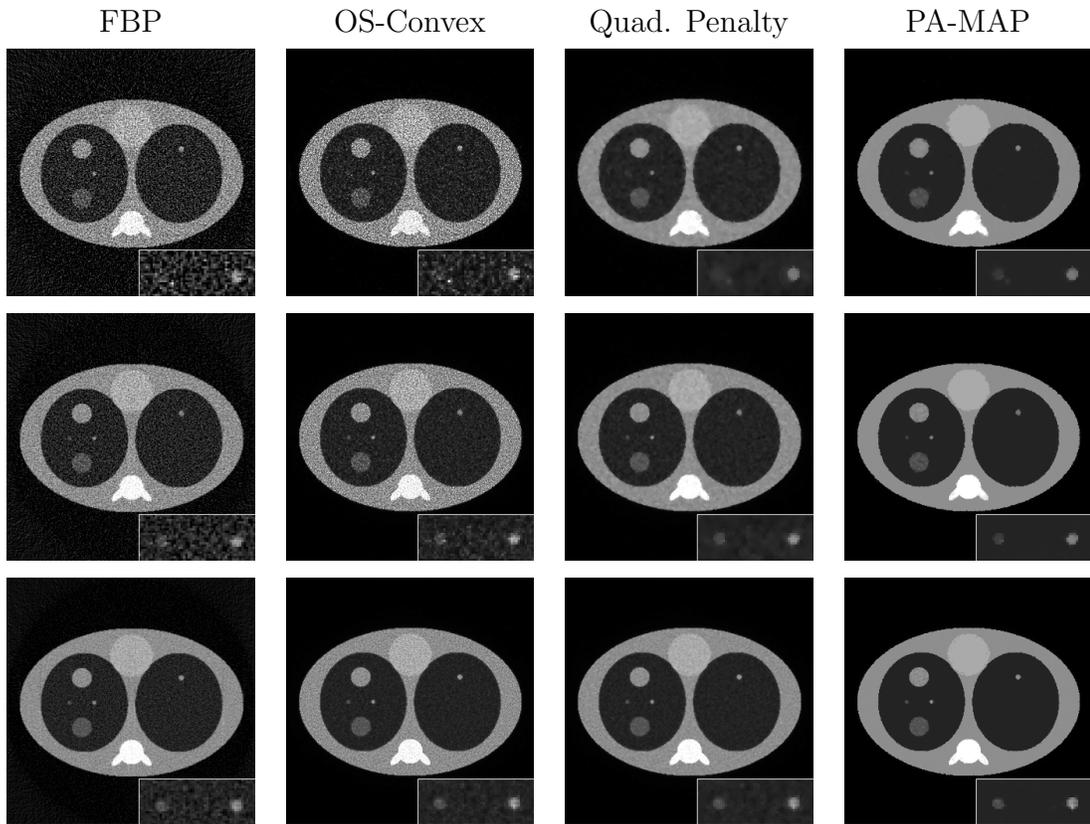


Figure 10: Top-down rows indicate reconstructions from low, medium and high photon counts, respectively. Columns are reconstructions using different algorithms. Region marked with red rectangle in figure 9(b) is magnified in each image and display gray scale is  $[0.0, 1.8] \text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

451 MAP algorithm. The number of iterations for OS-Convex, OS-Convex with  
452 quadratic penalty and PA-MAP are set to 10 iterations and  $\beta_o = 1.0$ . Recon-  
453 structed images are shown in figure 10 and quality measures are illustrated in  
454 table 3. In low photon counts (shown in the top row), the low-contrast lesion  
455 is highly degraded and very difficult to visually observed. However, due to  
456 the improvement in noise properties in the background, lesion detectability  
457 in PA-MAP is improved. With higher photon counts, the low-contrast lesion  
458 becomes more visible in FBP, OS-Convex and OS-Convex with quadratic  
459 penalty but PA-MAP still of higher quality. One drawback observed in the  
460 PA-MAP image is the degradation in regions close to boundaries. This effect  
461 is expected as the value of certainty is low around the boundaries.

462 In the second scenario, we consider the reconstruction from small number  
463 of views (16, 24 and 32 projections). Iterative algorithms are implemented  
464 using 100 iterations and  $\beta_o = 50.0$ . Results re shown in figure 11 and quality  
465 metrics are shown in table 4. In the third scenario, we consider the limited-  
466 angle problem by limiting the projection data to 320 views over the angular  
467 orbit of  $90^\circ$ ,  $120^\circ$  and  $150^\circ$ . We consider 10 iterations for iterative recon-  
468 struction and  $\beta_o = 50.0$ . Reconstructed images are shown in figure 12 and  
469 image quality measurements are in table 5.

#### 470 *4.3. Pseudo real data results*

471 To evaluate the performances of the proposed PA-MAP method for image  
472 reconstruction from low-dose imaging setup, we have carried out a set of

Table 3: Image quality measurements for reconstructed images shown in figure 10.

Photon counts	Method	RRME	Contrast	CNR
	True	–	0.6	–
$(2 \times 10^3)$	FBP	0.4489	0.5968	4.1961
	OS-Convex	0.3377	<b>0.6648</b>	7.8214
	Quad. Penalty	0.1095	0.5932	18.6541
	PA-MAP	<b>0.0883</b>	0.6554	<b>18.8216</b>
$(1 \times 10^4)$	FBP	0.3157	0.5606	6.0540
	OS-Convex	0.2246	<b>0.5954</b>	10.9437
	Quad. Penalty	0.1004	0.5608	14.8607
	PA-MAP	<b>0.0774</b>	0.5746	<b>24.0699</b>
$(2 \times 10^4)$	FBP	0.2208	0.5219	6.9409
	OS-Convex	0.1305	<b>0.5762</b>	12.5381
	Quad. Penalty	0.0937	0.5714	21.5419
	PA-MAP	<b>0.0586</b>	0.5623	<b>36.7561</b>

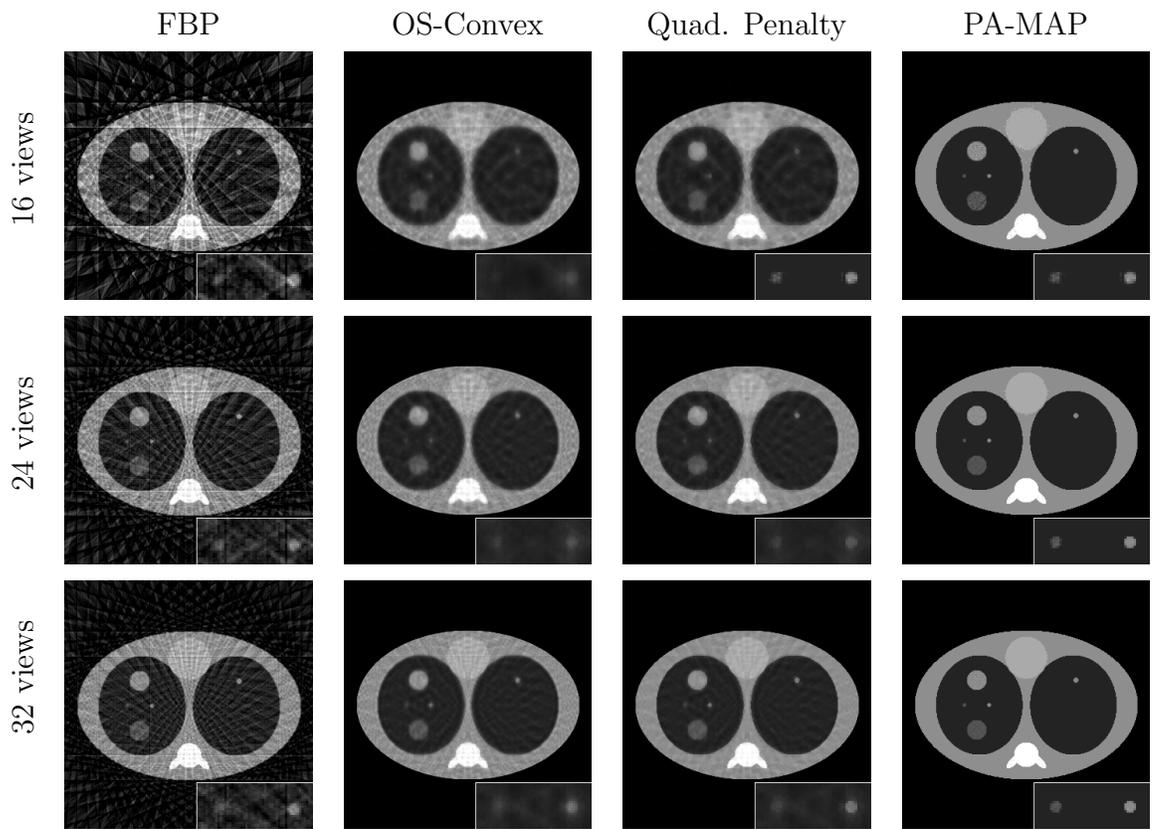


Figure 11: Reconstructed images from different projection views corresponding to 16, 24 and 32 projections using several reconstruction algorithms.

Table 4: Image quality measurements for reconstructed images shown in figure 11.

Projection views	Method	RRME	Contrast	CNR
(16)	FBP	0.5000	0.5091	5.4040
	OS-Convex	0.1495	0.3074	13.7290
	Quad. Penalty	0.1302	0.3335	17.9965
	PA-MAP	<b>0.0699</b>	<b>0.5522</b>	<b>15.9280</b>
(24)	FBP	0.3732	0.5495	8.9016
	OS-Convex	0.1273	0.4628	13.1352
	Quad. Penalty	0.0979	0.4921	17.6956
	PA-MAP	<b>0.0290</b>	<b>0.5737</b>	<b>31.3217</b>
(32)	FBP	0.3119	0.5118	6.4494
	OS-Convex	0.1104	0.4914	13.0650
	Quad. Penalty	0.0758	0.5228	21.6929
	PA-MAP	<b>0.0213</b>	<b>0.5772</b>	<b>42.9994</b>

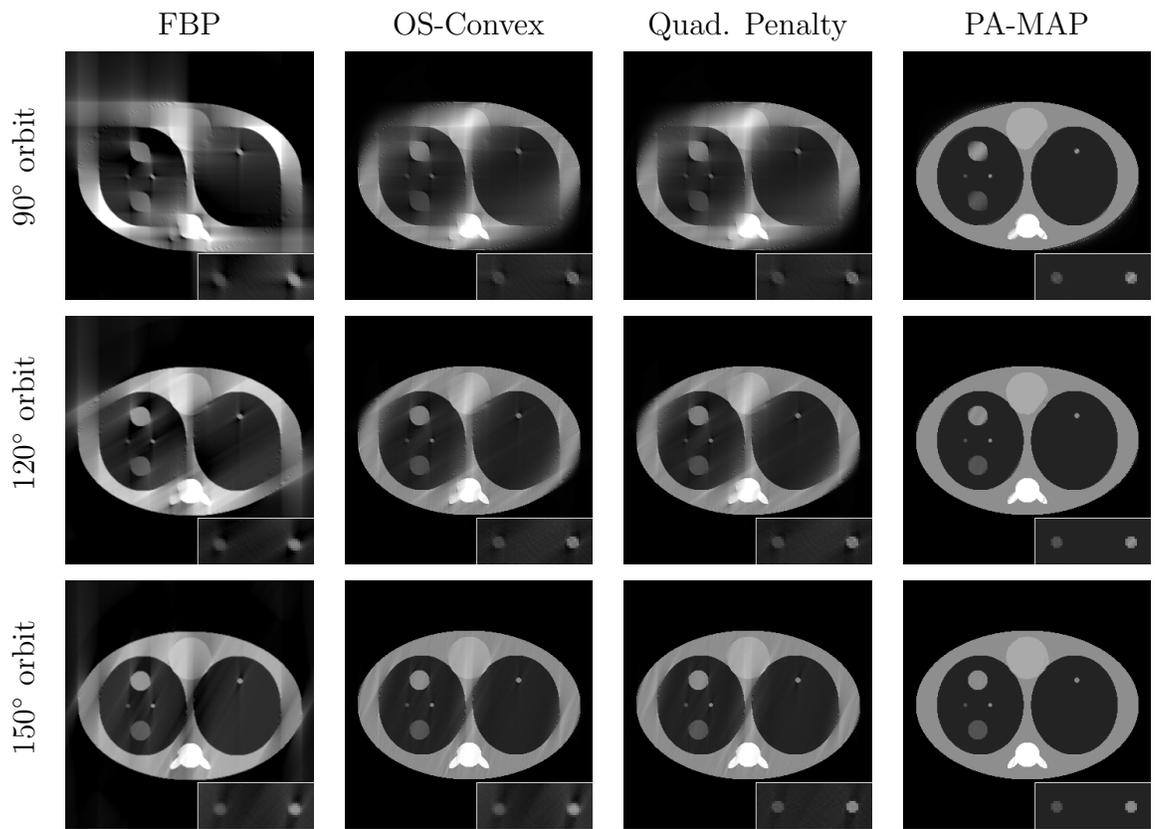


Figure 12: Reconstructed images from different rotation orbit corresponding to 90°, 120° and 150° using several reconstruction algorithms.

Table 5: Image quality measurements for reconstructed images shown in figure 12.

Projection views	Method	RRME	Contrast	CNR
(90°)	FBP	0.7183	0.3758	6.5297
	OS-Convex	0.2839	0.4778	13.0386
	Quad. Penalty	0.2827	0.4795	13.7752
	PA-MAP	<b>0.1290</b>	<b>0.5703</b>	<b>16.5052</b>
(120°)	FBP	0.4911	0.4175	7.3225
	OS-Convex	0.1508	0.5139	21.3042
	Quad. Penalty	0.1489	0.5157	23.8119
	PA-MAP	<b>0.0527</b>	<b>0.5757</b>	<b>30.8816</b>
(150°)	FBP	0.3169	0.4864	8.4396
	OS-Convex	0.0839	0.579	37.2394
	Quad. Penalty	0.0810	<b>0.5805</b>	43.5291
	PA-MAP	<b>0.0201</b>	0.5791	<b>50.4566</b>

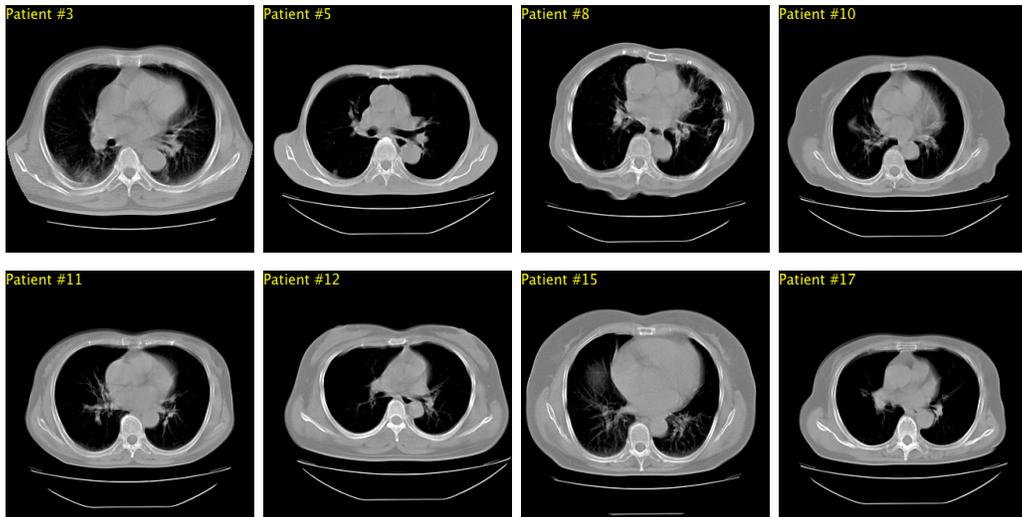


Figure 13: Sample of non-registered images (slice #12) of different patients of the dataset used in this study. Display window is  $[-700, 500]$  HU. This example show the large variation in the dataset images.

473 experimental studies. Chest screening CT dataset<sup>1</sup>, was used to construct the  
 474 probabilistic atlas. The dataset consists of 68 volumes for 14 normal and 54  
 475 abnormal patients scanned using Hitachi CT-W950SR scanner. The dataset  
 476 include a confirmed diagnosis sheet for each patient. Each volume consists  
 477 of 18 to 31 transaxial slices, where each slice consists of  $320 \times 320$  pixels with  
 478 pixel size of  $1 \times 1$  mm and slice thickness of 10 mm. Sample images that  
 479 demonstrate a large individual variation of anatomical information in the  
 480 dataset used here are shown in figure 13.

---

<sup>1</sup>JAMIT medical image database, The Japanese Society of Medical Imaging Technology (JAMIT) (<http://www.jamit.jp/cad/db/index.html>)

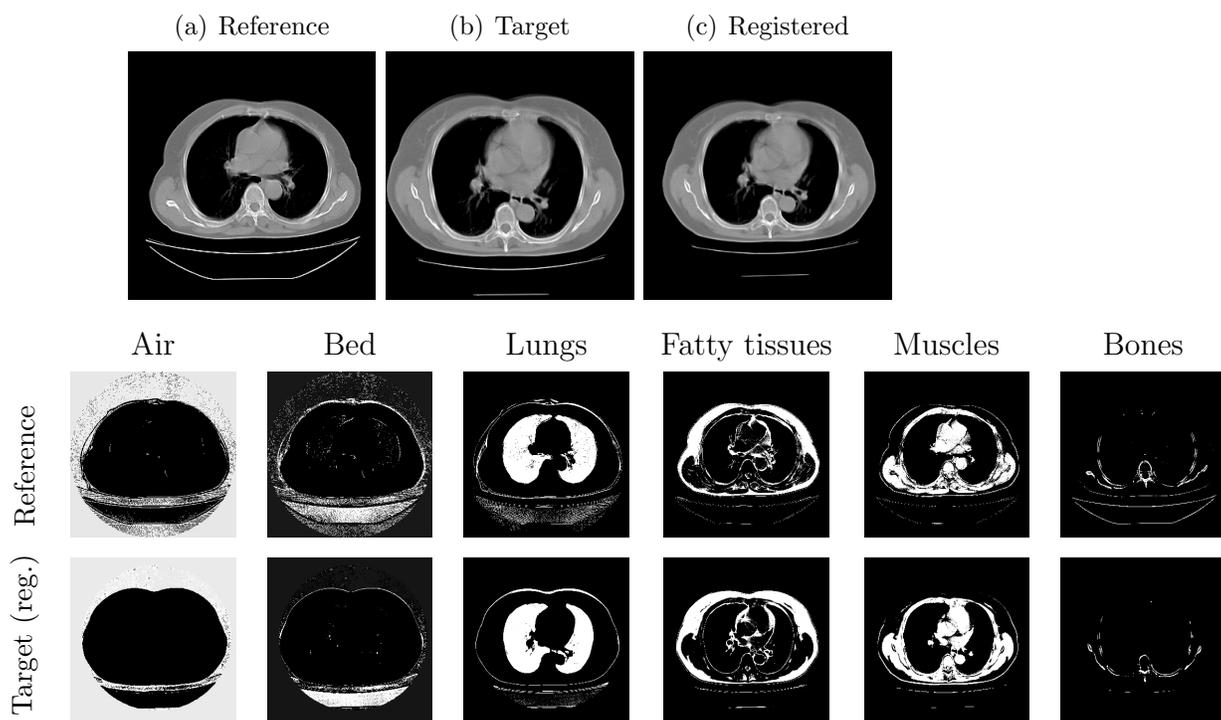


Figure 14: An example of registration and clustering process. The reference image (patient #24, slice 10), target image (patient #15, slice 10) and registered image. Below rows are the masks for clustered  $L$  components of reference and registered images shown above.

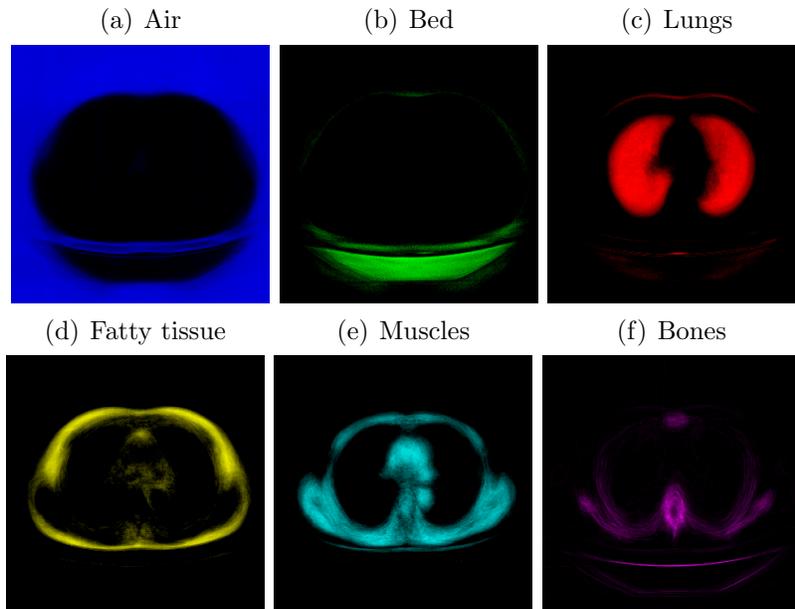


Figure 15: Each component of the probabilistic atlas constructed from chest screening data.

481 *4.3.1. Atlas construction*

482 To construct the probabilistic atlas, a randomly selected image from the  
 483 dataset (patient #24 in this experiment) was set to a reference image and  
 484 all remaining corresponding slices (67 images) were registered to it. An  
 485 example of image registration and clustering process used to construct the  
 486 PA is shown in figure 14. The EM algorithm was used to estimate the  
 487 LMM parameters  $(\lambda, \mu, \pi)$  and the prior probability function. We intuitively  
 488 limited the mixture to six components ( $L = 6$ ) that represent air, patient  
 489 bed, lungs, fatty-tissues, muscles, and bones. After only 10 iterations of the  
 490 EM algorithm, we obtained the atlas shown in figure 15.

491 Due to the lack of the original raw projection data, we have forward-  
 492 projected dataset images to simulate a realistic data acquisition. The forward

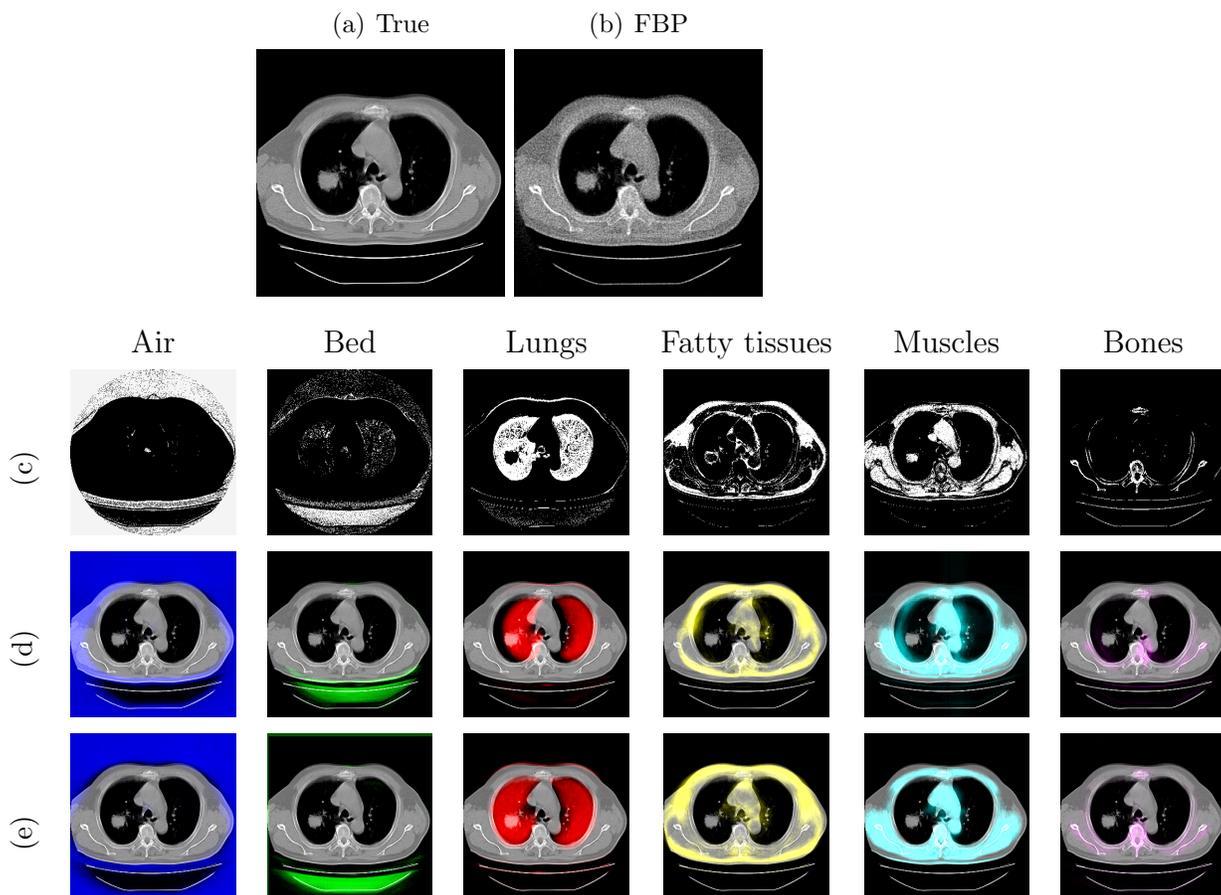


Figure 16: Example of atlas fitting procedure shown in figure 6. (a) True image of patient #50 slice 10. (b) FBP reconstruction with added noise. (c) Clustered FBP image into  $L$  components. (d) Initial PA shown in figure 15 mapped over true image with inaccurate matching. (e) Fitted PA after registering initial PA shown in (d) with clustered components in (c).

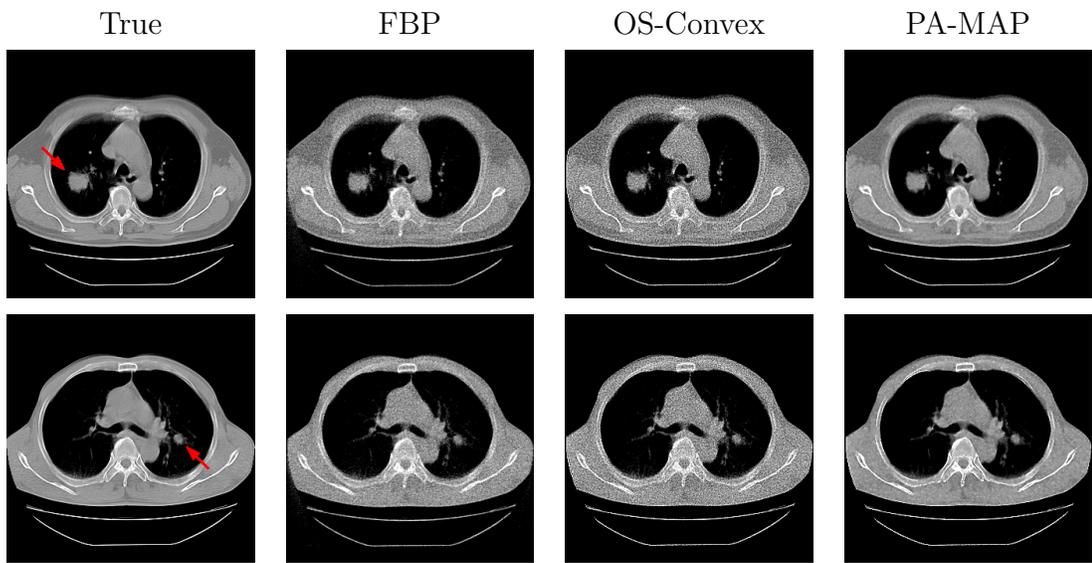


Figure 17: Reconstruction results for patient #50 (slice #10) in top row and patient #59 (slice #14) in bottom row, using FBP, OS-Convex, and PA-MAP methods. Both patients are diagnosed for a confirmed lung cancer marked by red arrows.

493 projection was implemented through a 320 detector bins and 640 projection  
494 views using simple line-integral model and parallel-beam geometry. In this  
495 experiment, we evaluated the ability of PA-MAP method in lesion detec-  
496 tion task with comparison with other conventional methods. We selected  
497 patient #50 (slice #10) and patient#59 (slice 14), where a lung cancer is  
498 defined and confirmed. We considered the case of low-power tube and the  
499 same parameter setup as in the previous experiment was used. First, we  
500 obtain initial FBP image, which is degraded with statistical noise. The ini-  
501 tial PA shown in figure 15 was fitted using the clustered FBP components  
502 as shown in figure 16. The fitted atlas shown in figure 16(e) is used for the  
503 implementation of the PA-MAP algorithm. Reconstruction results indicate  
504 an improvement of image quality with preservation of lung abnormalities.

505 Another study was performed to evaluate the proposed method with rel-  
506 atively small abnormality. we consider patient #17 (slice #11), where a  
507 calcification is found and confirmed inside the left-side lung. We consid-  
508 ered the case of low-power tube and data acquisition over a small number  
509 of projection views (64 views). We used the same parameter setup as in the  
510 previous experiment. Reconstructed images are shown in figure 18, and im-  
511 age quality measurements defined in section 4.1 were calculated as shown in  
512 table 6. It is observed that image reconstructed using conventional methods  
513 still suffer from artifacts, which is significantly suppressed when PA-MAP is  
514 used. It is also observed that the contrast of cancer lesion is also preserved  
515 with high contrast.

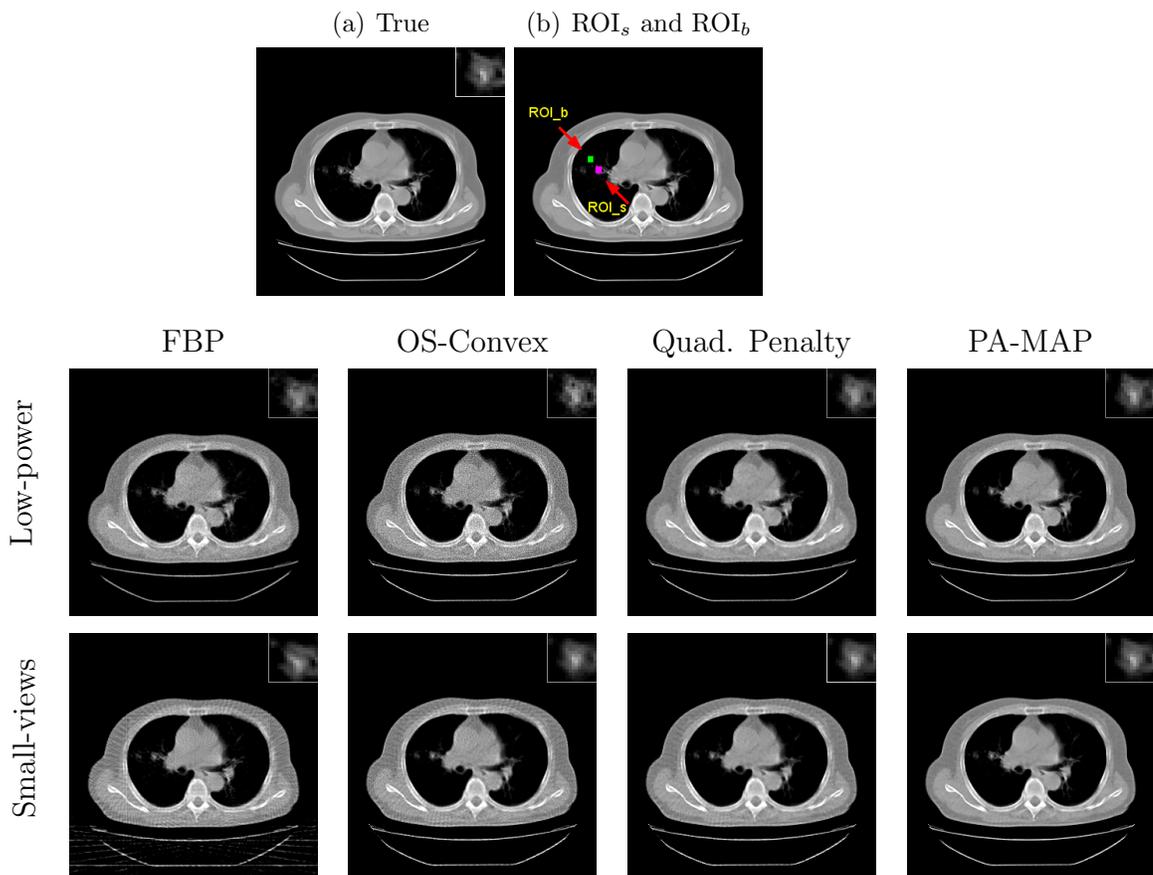


Figure 18: True image for patient #17 (slice #11) with calcification in left-side lung. (b) a guide mask for ROI<sub>s</sub> and ROI<sub>b</sub> regions. The bottom two rows show the reconstructed images for the cases of low x-ray power and small-views, respectively. The columns correspond to the FBP, OS-Convex, Quadratic Penalty and PA-MAP reconstruction methods. Magnification of the calcification region (ROI<sub>s</sub>) is shown at the top right corner of each image. Background region (ROI<sub>b</sub>) is not magnified as it contains no visual structures within the display gray scale.

Table 6: Image quality measurements for reconstructed images shown in figure 18.

Imaging scenario	Method	RRME	Contrast	CNR
	True	–	0.5375	9.1254
Low-power	FBP	0.2396	0.5064	6.7482
	OS-Convex	0.1138	0.5351	8.1389
	Quad. Penalty	0.0815	0.5348	9.4073
	PA-MAP	<b>0.0633</b>	<b>0.5813</b>	<b>12.8801</b>
Small-views	FBP	0.2768	0.4905	7.3574
	OS-Convex	0.1496	0.4971	9.8717
	Quad. Penalty	0.1120	0.5523	15.4315
	PA-MAP	<b>0.0801</b>	<b>0.5916</b>	<b>18.4482</b>

516 **5. Discussion**

517 This section is dedicated for a general overview discussion of the proposed  
518 methods considering experimental results, current limitations and potential  
519 extensions. From the demonstrated results, it is clear that the PA-MAP  
520 method outperforms the conventional FBP in terms of noise suppression, ar-  
521 tifacts reduction, and lesion contrast preservation. The abnormal inserts can  
522 be observed clearly in every considered imaging scenarios using the proposed  
523 PA-MAP method. The interesting result is the ability to reconstruct a nice  
524 image from the projection data measured over rotation orbit of  $90^\circ$  as shown  
525 in figure 12.

526 One concern about the PA-MAP method is the treatment of large-size  
527 abnormalities and variation of anatomical structures. It is observed that PA-  
528 MAP reconstruction produces a notable improvement in image quality for  
529 normal structures. However, pixels belong to abnormalities are still suffered

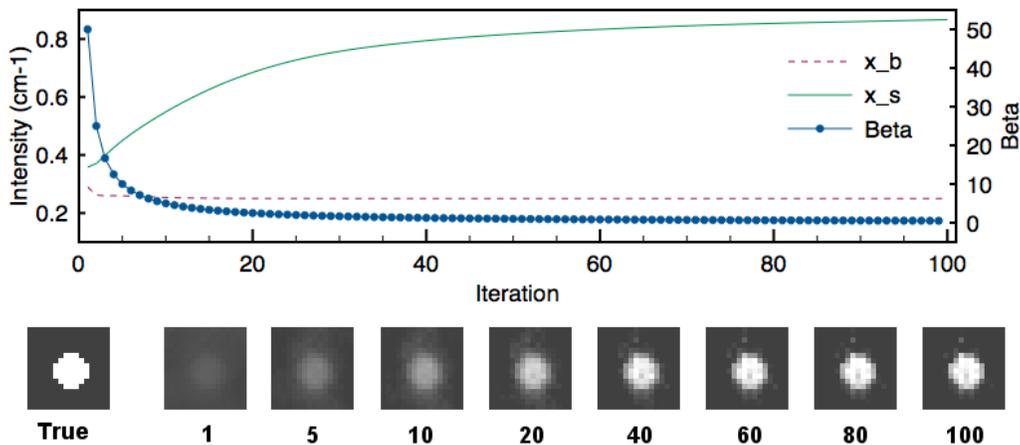


Figure 19: Tracing of lesion (1) during 100 iterations of the PA-MAP reconstruction from 16 projections shown in figure 11. Solid and dashed lines represent the values of  $\bar{x}_s$  and  $\bar{x}_b$ , respectively. Blue circle line is the values of the parameter  $\beta$ . The bottom images show the ROI containing the abnormal insert corresponding to iteration number and the true ROI.

530 from artifacts. The reason for this is the lack of PA prior to these pixels.  
 531 This is clear from the appearance of lesions (2) and (3) in the PA-MAP re-  
 532 construction shown in figures 10-12. The interesting observation here is that  
 533 pixels belong to regions of abnormalities or variation of anatomical structures  
 534 are not incorrectly assigned to the corresponding PA intensity values. This  
 535 reason of this feature is discussed above in Section 3.3.

536 To observe the behavior of the abnormal insert during PA-MAP recon-  
 537 struction, we have traced a small ROI ( $16 \times 16$  pixels) surrounding lesion (1)  
 538 iteration-by-iteration. We consider image reconstruction from 16 projections  
 539 (figure 11) and the results are presented in figure 19. Obviously, in very early  
 540 iterations, the background intensity value reaches to the correct intensity  
 541 value assigned to pixels of lungs ( $0.25 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). However, pixels corresponding

542 to the abnormality is still far from the correct value ( $1.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). Soon after  
543 few iterations, as the parameter  $\beta$  decreases, the enforcement of data fidelity  
544 term is improved and the abnormality recovery gradually progresses.

545 In training-based approaches such as the one presented here, It is im-  
546 portant to specify criteria for selecting the training set. There are several  
547 cases in which the dataset is insufficient to present enough knowledge. For  
548 example, if the number of patients used to construct the atlas are too small,  
549 there is large potential that it introduce incorrect pdf value. On the other  
550 hand, if the number of images are too large, there is possibilities that the  
551 atlas become uniformly distributed and the prior information is diminished.  
552 This is largely depends on the accuracy of the registration process. Selec-  
553 tion of appropriate training set is a common problem in probabilistic atlas  
554 construction for medical imaging applications. Obviously, it is recommend  
555 that images used in the training set are acquired using similar conditions to  
556 the image in question. The term similar conditions means factors related to  
557 the patient (e.g. size, age, gender) and imaging environment (e.g. imaging  
558 facility, dose, contrast agent).

559 The PA-MAP method implemented in this work should be further inves-  
560 tigated. A more sophisticated registration process is expected to contribute  
561 more to image quality. However, developing a high-performance image reg-  
562 istration approach is out of the scope of this work. Also, it is worth noting  
563 that the use of probabilistic atlas is also useful in solving the limited angle  
564 problem, which is one of the challenging data limitation problems arising  
565 in several CT applications. The first results shown in this paper indicate  
566 a potential that most of lost image structures can be recovered well using

567 the PA-MAP method. Another important direction to be investigated in  
568 the future is to incorporate the statistical shape prior in addition to the  
569 probabilistic atlas to further improve the performance. In the CT image  
570 segmentation field, it is known that the shape prior dramatically improves  
571 segmentation accuracy [39]. The similar improvement can be expected in the  
572 CT reconstruction applications.

## 573 **6. Conclusion**

574 This work presents a new image reconstruction method for low-dose CT  
575 imaging. We consider two imaging setups including the reduction of x-ray  
576 tube power and data acquisition over a small number of projection views or  
577 small orbital range. The main contribution of this work is the use of prior  
578 information obtained from probabilistic atlas constructed from earlier scans  
579 of different patients. This work provides a positive answer to the question  
580 of whether it is useful to utilize CT images generated from other patients  
581 to improve image quality when the projection data is limited. Within the  
582 framework of our iMAP reconstruction method, the prior information com-  
583 puted from the atlas is proved to be useful in improving image quality as  
584 well as lesion detection. The proposed PA-MAP method possesses several  
585 advantages summarized as follows. 1) The implementation requires minor ef-  
586 forts as it is essentially a combination of the conventional statistical iterative  
587 reconstruction and a sequence of soft-thresholding operations, 2) the conver-  
588 gence can be sped up by using the concept of ordered subsets similar to the  
589 implementation of the iMAP algorithm [14], and 3) the only parameter to  
590 be manually adjusted is the regularization parameter  $\beta$  as most of the iMAP

591 parameters are automatically determined from the probabilistic atlas. The  
 592 proposed PA-MAP method was evaluated using chest screening CT dataset  
 593 with patients diagnosed for different types of abnormalities, and experimen-  
 594 tal results indicate image quality improvement compared to the conventional  
 595 reconstruction methods such as FBP and OS-Convex algorithms.

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### 599 Appendix A. Exact procedure to minimize the surrogate function 600 in the PA-MAP and iMAP methods

601 Assume  $a_l > 0$ . In the case of PA-MAP method, our problem is to find  
 602 the solution of the minimization problem expressed in the following form.

$$f(x^*) = \min_x \left\{ \min_{l=1}^L [b_l + a_l |x - m_l|] + \frac{1}{2}(x - p)^2 \right\} \quad (\text{A.1})$$

$$= \min_{l=1}^L \left\{ b_l + \min_x [a_l |x - m_l| + \frac{1}{2}(x - p)^2] \right\} \quad (\text{A.2})$$

603 [Step 1] For  $l = 1, \dots, L$  we perform the soft-thresholding to solve the  
 604 inner minimization problem with respect to  $x$  in equation (A.2).

$$x_l = \text{soft-thresholding}(p) = \begin{cases} p + a_l & (p < m_l - a_l) \\ p & (m_l - a_l \leq p \leq m_l + a_l) \\ p - a_l & (p > m_l + a_l) \end{cases} \quad (\text{A.3})$$

605 [Step 2] Using the result of Step 1, compute the index  $h$  at which the  
 606 outer minimization with respect to  $l$  in equation (A.2) is achieved

$$h = \arg \min_{l=1}^L [b_l + a_l |x_l - m_l| + \frac{1}{2}(x_l - p)^2] \quad (\text{A.4})$$

[Step 3] The solution is given by

$$x^* = x_h \quad (\text{A.5})$$

607 A special case of the iMAP method ( $b_l = 0$  and the minimum with respect  
 608 to  $l$  is taken with respect to only two candidates) can be obtained as follows.

609 [Step 1] Find the unique index  $n$  such that  $m_n \leq p < m_{n+1}$

610 [Step 2] Compute the two candidates of the solution

$$x_n = \begin{cases} p & (m_n \leq p \leq m_n + a_n) \\ p - a_n & (p > m_n + a_n) \end{cases} \quad (\text{A.6})$$

$$x_{n+1} = \begin{cases} p + a_{n+1} & (p < m_{n+1} - a_{n+1}) \\ p & (m_{n+1} - a_{n+1} \leq p < m_{n+1}) \end{cases} \quad (\text{A.7})$$

611 [Step 3] Compute the index  $h$  at which the minimum is achieved

$$h = \arg \min_{l=n, n+1} [a_l |x_l - m_l| + \frac{1}{2}(x_l - p)^2] \quad (\text{A.8})$$

[Step 4] The solution is given by

$$x^* = x_h \quad (\text{A.9})$$

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