

Optimization of a customized Simultaneous Algebraic Reconstruction Technique algorithm for phase-contrast breast computed tomography

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Abstract.

Objective: To introduce the optimization of a customized GPU-based simultaneous algebraic reconstruction technique (cSART) in the field of phase-contrast breast computed tomography (bCT). The presented algorithm features a 3D bilateral regularization filter that can be tuned to yield optimal performance for clinical image visualization and tissues segmentation.

Approach: Acquisitions of a dedicated test object and a breast specimen were performed at Elettra, the Italian synchrotron radiation (SR) facility (Trieste, Italy) using a large area CdTe single-photon counting detector. Tomographic images were obtained at 5 mGy of mean glandular dose, with a 32 keV monochromatic X-ray beam in the free-space propagation mode. Three independent algorithm's parameters were optimized by using contrast-to-noise ratio (CNR), spatial resolution, and noise texture metrics. The results obtained with the cSART algorithm were compared with conventional SART and filtered back projection (FBP) reconstructions.

Main results: Compared to conventional FBP reconstructions, results indicate that the proposed algorithm can yield images with a higher CNR (by 35% or more), retaining a high spatial resolution while preserving their textural properties. Alternatively, at the cost of an increased image "patchiness", the cSART can be tuned to achieve a high-quality tissue segmentation, suggesting the possibility of performing an accurate

glandularity estimation potentially of use in the realization of realistic 3D breast models starting from low radiation dose images.

Significance: The study indicates that dedicated iterative reconstruction techniques could provide significant advantages in phase-contrast bCT imaging. The proposed algorithm offers great flexibility in terms of image reconstruction optimization, either towards diagnostic evaluation or towards image segmentation.

Keywords: Breast CT, Propagation-based Phase-Contrast imaging, Iterative reconstruction algorithm, synchrotron radiation

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1. Introduction

X-ray breast computed tomography (bCT) is a fully 3D mammographic technique in which multiple low-dose projections are acquired over an angle of 180 degrees or more and then reconstructed through suitable algorithms (Chen & Ning 2002, Sarno et al. 2015, O’Connell et al. 2018). Even though the first clinical studies in bCT were published more than ten years ago (Lindfors et al. 2008), the integration of this technique into clinical practice has only recently started (Wienbeck et al. 2017). Preliminary clinical studies have suggested that bCT can provide a good visualization of both masses and microcalcifications with a radiation dose comparable to, or slightly higher than, conventional mammographic exams (Shim et al. 2020). Following the first generation of bCT scanners, which was based on cone beam geometry and flat panel detectors (Lindfors et al. 2010, O’Connell et al. 2010), a new generation of bCT systems based on fan beams and photon-counting detectors has been recently developed (Kalender et al. 2017), reducing the negative impact of scattered radiation in the final image and improving the system’s dose efficiency.

In addition to conventional x-ray imaging that relies uniquely on the absorption properties of the sample, phase-contrast (PhC) imaging techniques have demonstrated improved visibility of low-contrast features in soft tissues (Wilkins et al. 1996, Mittone et al. 2018, Brombal 2020b). In this context, programs of phase-contrast bCT (PhC bCT) are under development at Elettra, the Italian synchrotron radiation (SR) facility (Trieste, Italy) (Longo et al. 2019) and at the Australian Synchrotron in Melbourne (Gureyev et al. 2019). The setup at Elettra includes a high-resolution CdTe photon-counting detector (Bellazzini et al. 2013) and it is based on the free-space propagation modality which is arguably the simplest phase-sensitive technique to implement, only requiring to increase the sample-to-detector distance to detect phase effects. Owing to the high coherence provided by a synchrotron source, this arrangement results in images with an enhanced contrast across interfaces (edge-enhancement) (Wilkins et al. 1996). The “edge-enhanced” images, or projections, are

79 further processed via a phase-retrieval algorithm (Paganin et al. 2002). The combined
80 effect of free-space propagation and phase retrieval results in a major decrease in
81 image noise at similar contrast and spatial resolution levels that would be observed
82 in a conventional x-ray attenuation-based tomography (Gureyev et al. 2017, Brombal
83 et al. 2018a, [Baran et al. 2017](#)). As recently demonstrated, the image quality of PhC
84 bCT outperforms clinical bCT systems, providing a higher spatial resolution, signal-to-
85 noise ratio and a finer granularity (Brombal et al. 2019, Pacilè et al. 2019). With the goal
86 of setting up a clinical study, the SYRMA-3D collaboration has ~~worked~~ [been working](#)
87 in the last years to evaluate, quantify and optimize the main parameters of the PhC
88 bCT imaging technique in terms of x-ray energy (Delogu et al. 2019, Oliva et al. 2020),
89 sample-to-detector distance (Brombal et al. 2018b, Brombal 2020a), detector’s operating
90 mode, strategies for CT scans and reconstruction workflow (Longo et al. 2019, Brombal
91 et al. 2021).

92 Breast compute tomography must provide high spatial and contrast resolution
93 with a radiation dose level comparable to a standard 2-view mammography. Low
94 radiation dose can be achieved either by reducing the x-ray fluence per tomographic
95 projection (Greffier et al. 2015, Solomon et al. 2017) or by decreasing the number of
96 projections (Sidky et al. 2014). The first approach, while preserving a good angular
97 sampling, results in an increased noise in the projection images leading to a noisier
98 CT image. Conversely, when the number of projections falls significantly below the
99 Nyquist angular sampling criterion, analytical reconstruction algorithms introduce
100 significant image artefacts and, again, increased noise. Several approaches have been
101 proposed to improve the global image quality in low dose CT scans and some of them
102 have been applied to bCT data (Zhao et al. 2012), including iterative reconstruction
103 (IR) algorithms ([Sidky & Pan 2008](#), [Makeev & Glick 2013](#), [Bian et al. 2014](#), [Pacilè](#)
104 [et al. 2015](#), [Delogu et al. 2017a](#)).

105 IR techniques usually search for a smooth/regular solution compatible with the
106 measured projection data and, for some algorithms, that satisfies other additional
107 constraints (e.g., non-negativity). Thanks to the advancements in terms of
108 computational power, IRs are attracting a growing interest in many applications of
109 biomedical x-ray imaging (Löve et al. 2013, Nishiyama et al. 2016). Multiple clinical
110 studies have shown their potential in terms of image quality improvement and/or
111 radiation dose reduction when compared against the standard filtered back projection
112 (FBP) or Feldkamp-Davis-Kress reconstructions (Gervaise et al. 2012, Willemink
113 et al. 2013, Löve et al. 2013, Chen et al. 2014a, Mirone et al. 2014, Greffier
114 et al. 2015, Nishiyama et al. 2016). Additionally, the integration of regularization
115 filters within IR techniques enables both a noise reduction in homogeneous regions
116 of the image (low spatial frequency component) and the preservation of details across
117 interfaces (high spatial frequency component). On the other hand, IRs are generally
118 associated with an undesired change in the image texture, described by radiologists as
119 “patchy” (Chen et al. 2014b, Schulz et al. 2013), in some cases leading to a negative
120 impact on their clinical implementation (Miéville et al. 2013). The image “patchiness”

121 can be understood quantitatively as an increment of noise spatial correlation, described
 122 by a shift towards the lower spatial frequencies of the noise power spectrum (NPS) peak
 123 when compared to the FBP case.

124 In this framework, the reconstruction algorithm optimization represents one of
 125 the last steps of the SYRMA-3D project towards the clinical implementation of
 126 PhC bCT aiming to improve the global image quality for clinical compatible low
 127 dose CT scans, i.e. below 5 mGy of total mean glandular dose (MGD) (Fedon
 128 et al. 2015, Mettivier et al. 2015). In this study we describe and use a custom-made
 129 GPU-based simultaneous algebraic reconstruction technique (cSART) in combination
 130 with a 3D bilateral regularization filter. Compared to other iterative algorithms,
 131 SART generally ensures a fast convergence and flexibility allowing the implementation
 132 of custom modifications. ~~Moreover, SART~~, it is easily parallelizable on GPU and
 133 it is usually associated with noise reduction while preserving the sharpness of edges
 134 and interfaces. It should also be remarked that, despite this study being focused
 135 on SART due to its straightforward implementation, the bilateral filter can be in
 136 principle integrated within any iterative reconstruction algorithm. To date only few
 137 specific studies on IRs dedicated to bCT have been published (Oliva et al. 2017, Tseng
 138 et al. 2020) and most of clinical applications reported in the literature rely on analytical
 139 reconstructions. The proposed cSART algorithm requires the tuning of 3 independent
 140 parameters, providing a higher flexibility with respect to the standard SART (Gordon
 141 et al. 1970, Kak et al. 2002). Specifically, following the preliminary results published
 142 in (Donato et al. 2019a), the effect of these parameters on noise power spectrum
 143 (NPS), spatial resolution and contrast-to-noise ratio (CNR) are herein discussed and,
 144 by analyzing the peak frequency of the NPS curve, optimal combinations of parameters
 145 preserving the image texture are identified for the PhC bCT system at hand. Moreover,
 146 the possibility of obtaining suitable images for tissue segmentation is investigated. This
 147 task can be of great interest for the glandularity assessment and for the realization
 148 of realistic virtual (Caballo et al. 2018) or 3D printed (Germann et al. 2020) breast
 149 phantoms. The imaging results obtained with the cSART algorithm are also compared
 150 with conventional SART and FBP reconstructions.

151 2. Materials and methods

152 2.1. Samples description

153 The presented study is based on images of two samples: i) a breast mastectomy with a
 154 maximum diameter of 9 cm and a vastly differentiated infiltrating ductal carcinoma
 155 (already described in (Piai et al. 2019)); ii) a bCT dedicated test object (Contillo
 156 et al. 2018, Piai et al. 2019) composed by a polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA)
 157 cylindrical container (diameter 12 cm, height 10 cm) filled with demineralized water
 158 and a set of five plastic rods (diameter 1.2 cm) made of polyethylene (PE), nylon,
 159 polyoxymethylene (POM), polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) and BR12 breast-tissue

160 equivalent material, respectively. These materials were chosen to mimic the attenuation
161 and contrast of breast tissues. The test object’s design allows to image the plastic
162 rods, for CNR and spatial resolution measurements, and the uniform water background,
163 located at a different vertical position, for NPS evaluation. Prior to the CT scan, the
164 mastectomy sample was fixed in formalin and sealed in a vacuum bag. The handling
165 of the specimen followed the Directive 2004/23/EC of the European Parliament and
166 of the Council of 31 March 2004 on setting standards of quality and safety for the
167 donation, procurement, testing, processing, preservation, storage, and distribution of
168 human tissues. The images were acquired in the framework of the operative protocol
169 of the Breast Unit of the Trieste University Hospital (“PDTA Neoplasia mammaria”,
170 approved on 11 December 2019 by ASUGI—Azienda Sanitaria Universitaria Giuliano
171 Isontina, Italy). A written informed consent was obtained from the patient prior to her
172 inclusion into the study. The specialized breast center of ASUGI is in compliance with
173 the standard of EUSOMA guidelines (certificate No. 1027/01).

174 *2.2. Beamline description and experimental setup*

175 Images were collected at the SYRMEP beamline (Tromba et al. 2010) of the Elettra
176 synchrotron facility, with the storage ring operating at 2.4 GeV. X-rays are produced
177 by a bending magnet and they can be monochromatized in the range 8.5-40 keV by
178 means of a Si(111) double-crystal monochromator, providing an energy resolution of
179 approximately 0.1%. Samples were positioned in a pendant geometry hanging from
180 the patient support, a rotating table with an ergonomically designed aperture at the
181 rotation center, 30 m away from the source. At sample position the x-ray beam had a
182 laminar shape with a cross section of 220 mm (horizontal) \times 3.5 mm (vertical, Gaussian
183 shape, full width half maximum), while the object-to-detector distance was set to 1.6 m.
184 Images were collected with a CdTe photon-counting detector (Pixirad-8) (Bellazzini
185 et al. 2013, Delogu et al. 2017b) featuring a 60 μ m pixel pitch and a global active area
186 of 246 mm \times 24.8 mm, leading to a matrix of 4096 \times 476 pixels. Samples were scanned
187 in continuous rotation by acquiring 1200 evenly spaced projections over 180° at a rate
188 of 30 Hz. The beam energy was set to 32 keV while the beam intensity was adjusted
189 by means of aluminium filters to deliver 5 mGy of total MGD.

190 *2.3. Image Reconstruction*

191 Projection images were pre-processed through a detector-specific procedure (Brombal
192 et al. 2018c) and phase-retrieved prior to tomographic reconstruction (Brombal
193 et al. 2018b, Donato et al. 2019b). The well-known phase-retrieval algorithm based
194 on the homogeneous transport of intensity equation (TIE-Hom) (Paganin et al. 2002)
195 was used, selecting a δ/β value of 2308, which corresponds to (ICRU-44) breast
196 tissue (White et al. 1989), as reported in a publicly available database (Taylor 2018).
197 Phase-retrieved projections were reconstructed with a GPU-based FBP and Shepp-
198 Logan filtering, a standard SART with 5 iterations (both part of the Astra toolbox

199 for tomography (Van Aarle et al. 2016)) and the cSART algorithm introduced in the
 200 next section. In addition to the Shepp-Logan filtering, that is standard in many bCT
 201 applications (Shim et al. 2020, Brombal et al. 2019), reconstructions with different
 202 common FBP filters were performed. Namely, from the sharpest to the smoothest,
 203 Ram-Lak, Cosine and Hamming and Hann, filters were used while the respective results
 204 reported in the supplementary material. Reconstructions were performed on a system
 205 equipped with a GPU NVIDIA[®] GeForce RTX 2080 Ti card with 11 GB of GDDR6
 206 VRAM, 4352 CUDA cores, and a boost clock of 1.635 MHz. The reconstruction time
 207 for each slice was: 25 s for the cSART, 21 s for the standard SART and less than 1 s
 208 for FBP.

209 2.4. The custom SART algorithm

210 The customized version of the SART algorithm has been implemented to exploit parallel
 211 GPU computation performances by using the C++/CUDA programming language. In
 212 the standard SART algorithm iterative corrections are computed at each angular step
 213 (angle-by-angle) and they are evaluated and applied simultaneously to all the rays of
 214 the projection. One iteration is considered to be complete when all the projections have
 215 been used. As described in the following, the cSART implementation entails several
 216 improvements over the standard SART algorithm, ensuring higher flexibility to optimize
 217 the image quality (a detailed description of the algorithm can be found in Section S1 of
 218 the supplementary materials).

- (i) The iterative corrections are weighed with a relaxation factor (Golosio et al. 2004), so that the update formula for the $(k + 1)$ -th iteration reads:

$$F^{(k+1)}(i_x, i_y) = F^{(k)}(i_x, i_y) + \eta^{(k)} C^{(k)}(i_x, i_y) \quad (1)$$

219 where $F^{(k)}$ is the image estimated at the k -th iteration and $C^{(k)}$ is the respective
 220 normalized image correction in the reconstruction plane (i_x, i_y) . The relaxation
 221 factor η is applied to the corrections to reduce image noise in the reconstruction.
 222 In our implementation, η grows linearly from zero to a maximum η_{max} in the first
 223 few angular steps (in the current work this value was set to 10) then it decreases
 224 linearly with the number of iterations and angular steps down to zero for the last
 225 angular step of the last iteration. In this work we used $\eta_{max} = 0.5$.

- (ii) Projections corresponding to different angles are used in random ordering scheme.
- (iii) A bilateral 3D filter is applied periodically to the reconstructed image guess during the iterative process. In the filter, the content of each pixel is replaced with a weighted average accounting for both the (3D) Euclidean distance and the gray-level difference of neighbouring pixels. The used weighting kernels are Gaussian, so that the weight of the pixel identified with indices i'_x, i'_y, i'_z in filtering the pixel i_x ,

i_y, i_z is:

$$K(i'_x, i'_y, i'_z; i_x, i_y, i_z) = \exp \left[-\frac{(i'_x - i_x)^2 + (i'_y - i_y)^2}{2\sigma_{xy}^2} \dots \right. \\ \left. -\frac{(i'_z - i_z)^2}{2\sigma_z^2} - \frac{(F(i'_x, i'_y, i'_z) - F(i_x, i_y, i_z))^2}{2\sigma_v^2} \right] \quad (2)$$

where σ_{xy} , σ_z and σ_v are parameters related to the spatial width of the filter in the horizontal plane, to the width in vertical direction, and to the width in content difference, respectively. $F(i'_x, i'_y, i'_z)$ and $F(i_x, i_y, i_z)$ are the contents of the pixels i'_x, i'_y, i'_z and i_x, i_y, i_z respectively, where x and y are the spatial coordinates in each projection image and z is the projection index. In this work σ_{xy} and σ_z are chosen to be equal and expressed in pixel size units, while σ_v is expressed in the same units as $F(i_x, i_y, i_z)$. By calling $\tilde{F}^{(k)}$ the image filtered with the kernel K , the reconstructed image is updated periodically during the iterative process as:

$$F^{(k)} \rightarrow (1 - w)F^{(k)} + w\tilde{F}^{(k)} \quad (3)$$

227 where w is a weighting factor comprised between 0 (no filtration) and 1 (full
228 filtration).

229 To optimize the cSART parameters, images were reconstructed with different
230 combinations of the algorithm's parameters, by varying $\sigma_{xy} = \sigma_z$ in the range [2 : 7]
231 pixels with a step of 1 pixel, σ_v in the range [0.004 : 0.014] with step of 0.002 and η_{max}
232 (~~hereafter η~~) w in the range [0.04 : 0.16] with step of 0.02, corresponding to a total of
233 252 reconstructions. Of note, we set $\sigma_{xy} = \sigma_z$, but in principle they can be different for
234 a higher level of customization. The number of iterations was fixed to 5, consistently
235 with the standard SART reconstructions, while the regularization filter was applied
236 every 100 randomly ordered angular steps. Reconstructions were obtained with different
237 numbers of iterations in the range [4 : 8]: in the main text only results corresponding
238 to 5 iterations are shown, consistently with standard SART reconstructions, whereas
239 results for different numbers of iterations are reported in the supplementary materials
240 document. ~~Larger numbers of iterations were tested but generally they did not improve
241 the reconstruction quality while increasing the processing time.~~

242 2.5. Quantitative assessment

243 The quantitative evaluation of cSART images was carried out in comparison with
244 the FBP algorithm, assumed as reference, and with the standard SART algorithm.
245 We firstly focused on the image texture by analysing the noise power spectrum.
246 Then a quantitative evaluation was performed by using the contrast-to-noise ratio
247 and spatial resolution metrics. Lastly, a further type of assessment involved the use
248 of reconstructions for tissue segmentation. Images were analysed through dedicated
249 MATLAB (The MathWorks, Inc., Natick, MA, United States) codes.

2.5.1. *Noise Power Spectrum* Image noise and texture were characterized by means of the noise power spectrum (NPS) (Verdun et al. 2015), which is the noise spectral decomposition in the Fourier space. For each reconstruction the 2D NPS map was measured from equally sized homogeneous ROIs according to the following definition:

$$NPS(f_x, f_y) = \frac{d_x d_y}{N_x N_y} \frac{1}{N_{ROI}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{ROI}} |\mathcal{F}[I_i(x, y) - \bar{I}_i]|^2 \quad (4)$$

where f_x and f_y are the spatial frequencies, N_x and N_y are the ROI dimensions in number of pixels, d_x and d_y are the pixel dimensions in mm, N_{ROI} is the total number of selected ROIs, \mathcal{F} denotes the 2D Fourier transform, $I_i(x, y)$ is the pixel value at position (x, y) of the i -th ROI, while \bar{I}_i is the respective mean value. The corresponding image noise (σ) is obtained from the NPS as:

$$\sigma^2 = \int \int NPS(f_x, f_y) df_x df_y. \quad (5)$$

250 Given the radial symmetry of 2D NPS in CT reconstructions, 1D radially averaged NPS
 251 maps were also computed by using the identity $f_r^2 = f_x^2 + f_y^2$. Peak frequency (f_{peak})
 252 of radial NPS curves were used for the determination of image texture, where a high
 253 peak frequency corresponds to a high granularity and a low peak frequency corresponds
 254 to a coarse noise, resulting in a patchy appearance. On the test object both 2D and
 255 1D NPS distributions were evaluated by selecting in a homogeneous water region 25
 256 non-overlapping circularly distributed square ROIs with an area of $0.72 \times 0.72 \text{ mm}^2$, as
 257 shown in Fig. 1 (a). For the breast sample NPS measurements were performed over 10
 258 homogeneous ROIs within the adipose tissue (black squares in Fig. 1 (c)) at nearly the
 259 same distance from the center of the specimen. Each ROI within the tissue have $64 \times$
 260 64 pixels area ($0.36 \times 0.36 \text{ mm}^2$). To precisely determine their peak frequency, 1D NPS
 261 curves were oversampled by a factor of 4.

2.5.2. *Contrast-to-noise ratio*

The CNR was evaluated by using the following definition:

$$CNR = \frac{\bar{I}_d - \bar{I}_b}{\sqrt{(\sigma_d^2 + \sigma_b^2)/2}} \quad (6)$$

262 where \bar{I}_d and \bar{I}_b are the average pixel intensities of the detail d and the background b ,
 263 while σ_d and σ_b are the respective standard deviations (i.e. noise). In the phantom
 264 the CNR of each plastic insert was measured with respect to the water background. A
 265 square ROI of 64×64 pixels was selected within each rod, while, for the background
 266 estimation, 10 evenly spaced ROIs were selected in the neighbouring region (see Fig.
 267 1 (b)). The background's standard deviation was taken as the average of the background
 268 ROIs standard deviations. On the breast specimen CNR was measured as the average
 269 CNR value of three pairs of square ROIs selected within glandular (detail) and adipose
 270 (background) tissues, as shown by the green and red squares in Fig. 1 (c).

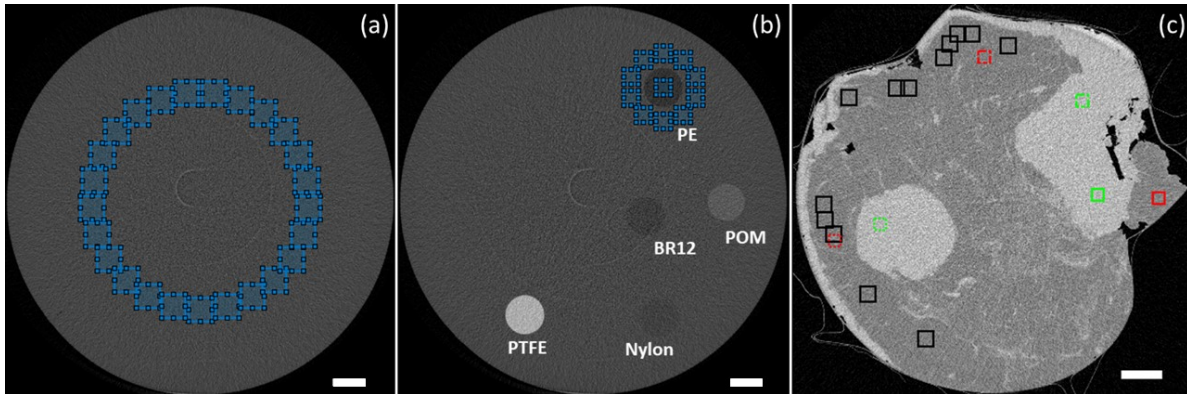


Figure 1. Homogeneous water-filled (a) and plastic details (b) regions of the test object. Blue squares represent the ROIs used to evaluate the NPS, in (a), and the CNR of the PE detail, in (b). Breast tissue reconstruction (c) where the ROIs for NPS (black squares), CNR (green squares for detail, red squares for background) are displayed. Scale bars correspond to 10 mm.

271 *2.5.3. Spatial resolution* In the test object the spatial resolution was characterized
 272 through the task transfer function (TTF), which is an object-dependent extension of
 273 the modulation transfer function (MTF) describing the spatial resolution for a specific
 274 object contrast and background noise (Li et al. 2014, Solomon et al. 2015). While
 275 MTF is usually measured on a single high-contrast detail, TTF is measured for various
 276 materials exhibiting different contrasts. TTF is useful in the characterization of non-
 277 linear/iterative algorithms where the spatial resolution is, in general, influenced by
 278 the image contrast level, meaning that different interfaces will show different levels
 279 of sharpness. It is worth noting that, when phase-retrieval filter is applied, this
 280 consideration applies also to FBP reconstructions and it will be discussed in more detail
 281 in subsection 3.1.2.

TTF was evaluated by using the circular edge method, which requires a polar coordinate transformation allowing to estimate the detail's edge-spread function from which TTF is derived (Richard et al. 2012, Chen et al. 2014b). TTF was measured on PE, Delrin and Teflon inserts whereas the contrast yielded by Nylon and BR12 inserts was insufficient for applying the circular edge method. Starting from the frequency corresponding to the 50% of the TTF curve ($f_{50\%}$), the spatial resolution was evaluated as the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the corresponding point-spread function (PSF) (Bartels 2013):

$$FWHM(mm) = \frac{1}{2.26 \times f_{50\%}(lp/mm)} \quad (7)$$

282 where this equation holds in the Gaussian approximation for both TTF and PSF.

283 Due to the lack of sharp interfaces in the breast specimen the spatial resolution
 284 was estimated through an alternative procedure recently introduced by Mizutani *et*
 285 *al.* (Mizutani et al. 2016), which has already been applied to bCT images (Brombal

et al. 2019). The main advantage of this approach, based on Fourier spectrum's fitting (Saiga et al. 2018), is that it allows to estimate the overall spatial resolution in terms of FWHM directly from general sample images, thus not requiring dedicated test objects. On the other hand, the model underlying this method contains the assumption of a Gaussian system's PSF, which is not rigorously true for many modern CT systems, is not material specific. In this context, Mizutani's method can be regarded as an approximate but easy way to assess spatial resolution from general samples images that is particularly useful for comparison studies. To cross-check the spatial resolution results, this technique is also applied to the test object images.

2.5.4. Segmentation and image comparison The last type of quantitative assessment in this study involved the tissue segmentation and the comparison against a high dose (50 mGy) ground-truth FBP reconstruction. Considering the breast tissue composition, a simple segmentation approach consists in using two thresholds, one for the separation of the background (air) and the other for the separation of glandular from adipose tissues. For the ground-truth image, which presents a low level of noise, the gray-level distributions of the tissue's components are well separated, so the segmentation thresholds were set at the local minima between each distributions pair. On the other hand, the gray-level distributions of adipose and glandular tissues in the low dose images present, in general, superposition, therefore requiring for a threshold optimization. The gray-level distributions of both ground-truth and low dose images are reported in Fig. S1 of the supplementary material.

The figure of merit chosen for the evaluation of segmentation quality and for the optimization of reconstruction parameters and segmentation thresholds was the macro-F1 score (Opitz & Burst 2019). This score is often used in multi-class classification problems (Wu & Zhou 2017, Lipton et al. 2014) and it is based on the image confusion matrix. In particular, let m_{ij} be the element i, j of the confusion matrix, where the second index j represents the ground-truth, while the first index i represents the output of the classification. In our application, m_{ij} is the number of pixels that belong to the class j in the segmented high-dose image and to the class i in the segmented low-dose image. Let P_i , R_i and $F1_i$ denote the precision, recall and F1 score for the class i :

$$P_i = \frac{m_{ii}}{\sum_j m_{ij}}; \quad R_i = \frac{m_{ii}}{\sum_j m_{ji}}; \quad F1_i = \frac{2P_i R_i}{P_i + R_i}. \quad (8)$$

The macro-F1 is computed as the arithmetic mean of the F1 scores of all the classes:

$$F1 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i F1_i \quad (9)$$

where n is the number of classes. Given its definition, the values of F1 range from 0 to 1, with 1 indicating a segmentation identical to the ground truth. The optimal cSART reconstruction in terms of segmentation will be the one which maximizes F1 with respect to all the four free parameters, namely $\sigma_{xy,z}$, σ_v , η and the threshold th between

glandular and adipose components. In this analysis the range of cSART reconstruction parameters has been further expanded by varying σ_{xy} and σ_z in the range $[2 : 10]$ pixels with a step of 1 pixel, σ_v in the range ~~$[0.004 : 0.020]$~~ $[0.004 : 0.030]$ with step of 0.002 and ηw in the range $[0.04 : 0.20]$ with step of 0.02.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Test Object

3.1.1. Noise power spectrum As stated in the introduction, the shift toward low frequencies of the NPS peak is followed by a change in the image texture demonstrated by Fig. 2. Panels (a)-(d) show homogeneous water ROIs reconstructed with FBP, cSART (with $\sigma_{xy,z} = 2$, $\sigma_v = 0.004$ and $\eta w = 0.04$), cSART (with $\sigma_{xy,z} = 6$, $\sigma_v = 0.014$ and $\eta w = 0.06$) and standard SART, respectively. Their respective 2D NPS plots are reported in color logarithmic scale in panels (e)-(h). The 2D NPS plots of FBP and cSART show a clear circular symmetry, while in the SART case a slightly higher noise contribution is observed along the Cartesian directions. From 2D NPS plots the average radial profiles are computed as shown in panel (i), resulting in peak frequencies of 0.89 mm^{-1} , 0.89 mm^{-1} , 0.44 mm^{-1} and 0.44 mm^{-1} , respectively. In terms of texture, it is clear that the cSART with low parameters values allows to produce images which are very similar to the reference FBP case, whereas larger values, as well as the use of standard SART, introduce more correlation resulting in a coarser noise. On the other hand, the cSART algorithm allows a reduction (by a factor larger than 2 with the largest parameters values) in the noise magnitude if compared with the FBP. Conversely, the standard SART yields a higher noise than FBP. Considering that in SART reconstructions the noise magnitude decreases for smaller iteration numbers, additional reconstructions have been performed with a decreasing number of iterations (from 5 to 1) but little differences (below 10%) in noise magnitude were found.

Focusing on the optimization of cSART parameters, panel (a) of Fig. 3 shows the radial NPS behaviour going from the smallest (noisiest image) to the largest (smoothest image) cSART parameter combination in comparison with the FBP case. **Results considering reconstruction performed with FBP filters other than Shepp-Logan are reported in Fig. S2 (a) of the supplementary material.** The double-arrow line indicates that the NPS peak frequency moves toward lower values as the image noise decreases. This behavior is further supported by the scatter plot in panel (b) where it is shown that the NPS peak frequency is strongly correlated with (as a first approximation linearly dependent to) the image noise magnitude. Moreover, having the possibility to finely modify the NPS peak frequency by tuning the cSART parameters, it is useful to define a threshold criterion to distinguish parameters preserving a noise texture similar to the FBP case from parameter sets yielding a coarse/patchy image appearance. Consequently, in panel (b) a threshold criterion has been introduced identifying images whose NPS peaks differ less than 15% from the FBP case (orange points). Despite

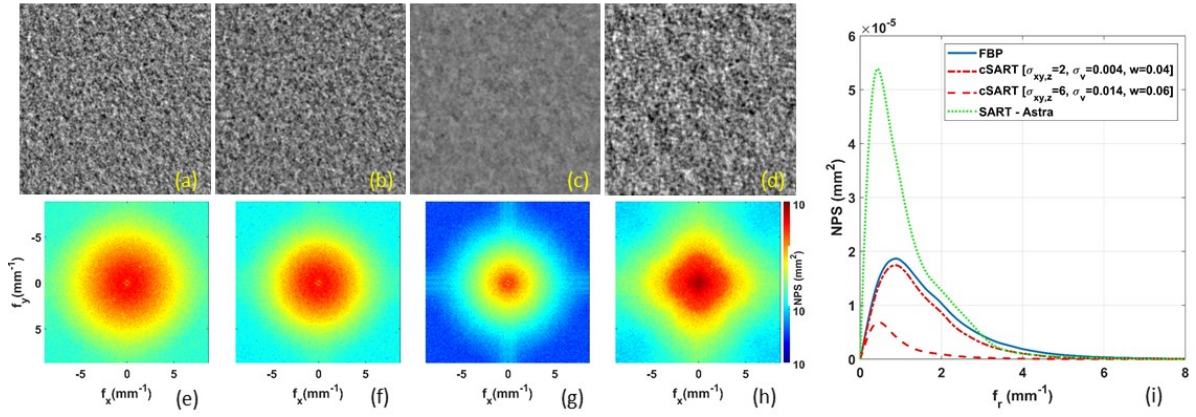


Figure 2. Homogeneous 256×256 pixel water ROIs obtained with FBP (a), cSART ($\sigma_{xy,z} = 2$, $\sigma_v = 0.004$, $\eta w = 0.04$) (b), cSART ($\sigma_{xy,z} = 6$, $\sigma_v = 0.014$, $\eta w = 0.06$) (c) and standard SART algorithm (d). In (e)-(h) the respective 2D NPS are reported in logarithmic color scale. In (i) the radial average NPS profiles for FBP (solid blue line), cSART (red dash/dash dotted lines) and standard SART (green dashed line).

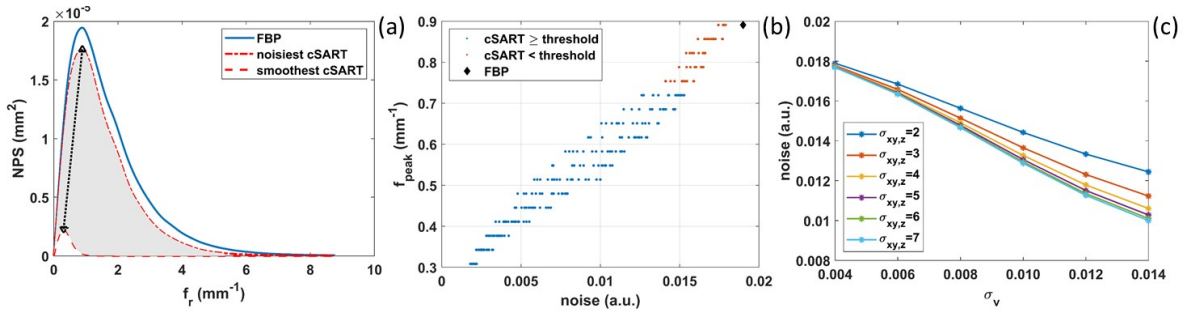


Figure 3. In (a) radial NPS curves measured from FBP (blue solid line), from cSART with the smallest parameter combination (red dot dashed line) and from cSART with the largest parameter combination (red dashed line). The gray shaded area represents the range of NPS curves obtained with intermediate cSART parameters. In (b) a scatter plot of the NPS frequency peaks as a function of the measured image noise: orange and blue points refer to reconstruction within and out of the NPS peak threshold criterion, respectively. The FBP result (black diamond) is reported for comparison, while standard SART (not shown) has frequency peak at 0.41 mm^{-1} . In (c) the image noise is plotted against the bilateral filter parameter σ_v , for different values of $\sigma_{xy,z}$ (different line colors) and at a fixed relaxation factor $\eta w = 0.04$.

350 being an arbitrary value and related to our imaging system, which can be in principle
 351 subject to dedicated optimization, this threshold is useful as a first line discrimination
 352 to rule out parameters yielding a too aggressive image filtration. Panel (c) shows the
 353 dependence of image noise versus the bilateral filter width σ_v for different values of
 354 $\sigma_{xy,z}$ at a fixed relaxation factor $\eta = 0.04$. From the figure it is clear that larger
 355 filter parameters monotonically bring to a lower image noise. The same consideration
 356 holds for increasing relaxation factor values. For this reason, each triplet of the cSART

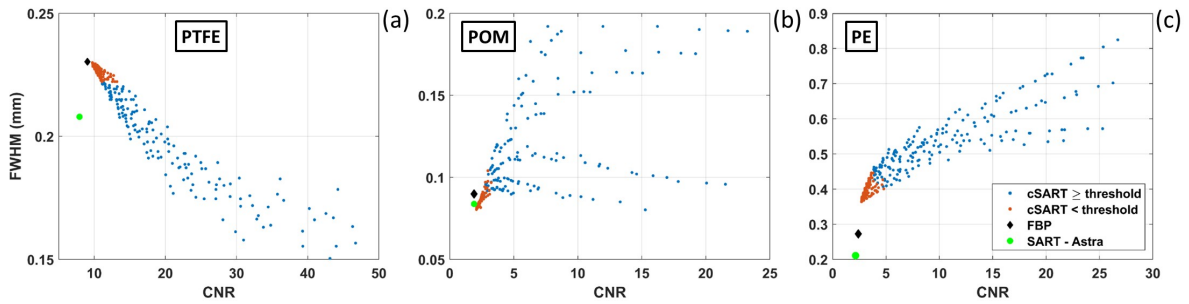


Figure 4. Scatter plots of the measured FWHM against the CNR across PTFE (a), POM (b) and PE (c) interfaces. Orange and blue points indicate cSART reconstructions within and out from the NPS peak threshold condition, respectively. Results of FBP (black diamond) and SART (green circle) are also reported.

357 parameters identifies the image filtration ‘strength’, where the increase of each single
 358 parameter brings to a lower noise magnitude and a lower NPS peak frequency. A
 359 similar behaviour has been discussed for other iterative filters used in clinical practice
 360 by a number of recent publications (Ghetti et al. 2013, Solomon et al. 2015, Euler
 361 et al. 2018).

362 *3.1.2. Contrast-to-noise ratio and spatial resolution* The scatter plots in Fig. 4 show
 363 the spatial resolution, measured with the circular edge technique, as a function of
 364 the CNR corresponding to the PTFE (a), POM (b) and PE (c) details, respectively,
 365 for the images reconstructed with cSART (dots), FBP (diamond marker) and SART
 366 (circular marker). **Results for the different FBP filters are reported in Fig. S2 (b) of the
 367 supplementary material** The results show that the use of cSART algorithm can yield
 368 a significant increase in CNR which, considering only the points within the threshold
 369 condition, is as high as 45%, 70% and 100% for PTFE, POM and PE details, respectively.
 370 In terms of spatial resolution, the cSART yields comparable or better results with
 371 respect to the FBP for the PTFE (a) and POM (b) details, while the resolution is
 372 degraded at the PE (c) interface by a 30% or more. Considering the trends of the
 373 cSART data for the different materials, it is interesting to observe that higher CNR
 374 values are associated with better spatial resolutions at PTFE interface (a) and with a
 375 generally worse resolutions at POM (b) and PE (c) interfaces. These different trends
 376 further justify the use of the TTF approach, as the results of the custom iterative
 377 reconstruction algorithm exhibit a material-specific behaviour. On the same topic, it
 378 should be noted that the FWHM broadly varies as a function of the interface also for
 379 FBP reconstructions, going from 0.09 mm for POM to 0.27 mm for PE. This effect, which
 380 should not be present in conventional attenuation-based CT, is due to the application
 381 of the phase-retrieval filter that is common to all the reconstructed images. In fact,
 382 the δ/β parameter of the phase-retrieval filter is material/interface specific. Since the
 383 scanned object is heterogeneous, the chosen δ/β cannot be optimal for all the interfaces

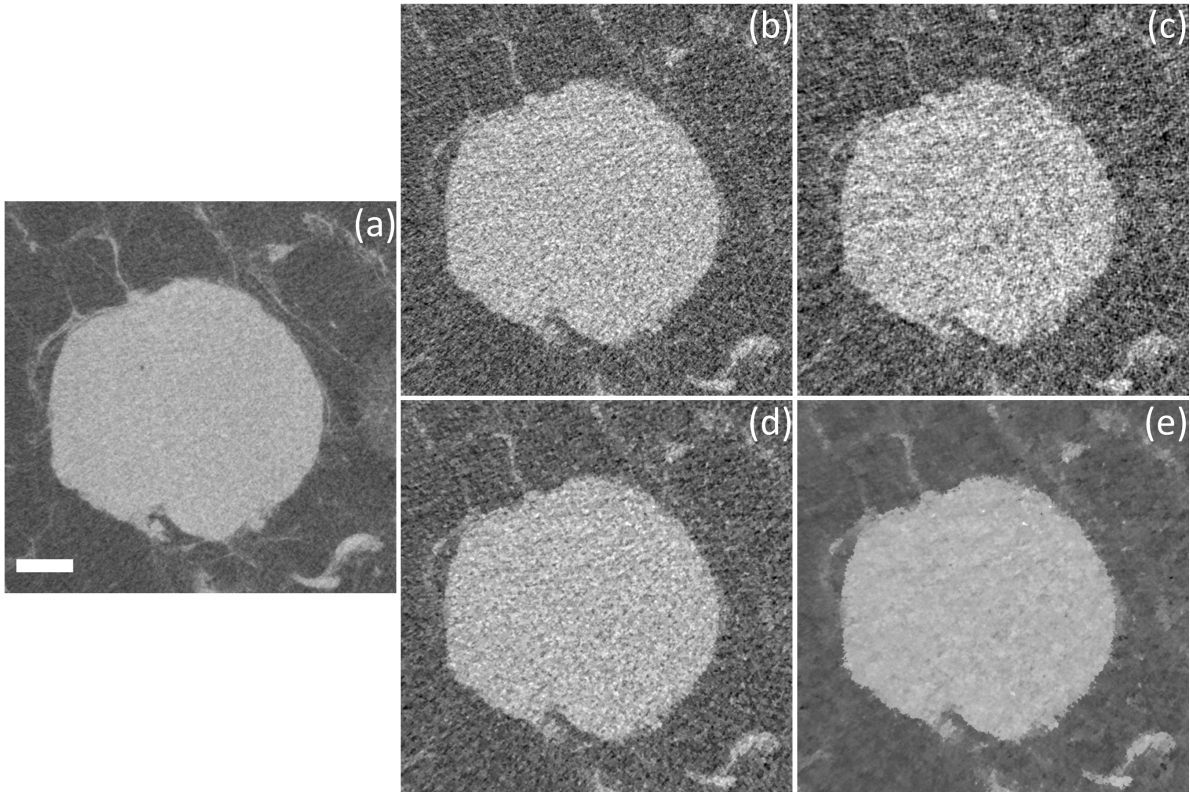


Figure 5. Breast sample detail depicting a tumor mass (light gray) in an adipose background (dark gray), acquired at 50 mGy MGD (a) and 5 mGy MGD (b)-(e). Reconstructions are performed with FBP in (a) and (b), standard SART in (c), cSART within the threshold condition in (d) and cSART out from the threshold condition in (e). Scalebar corresponds to 5 mm.

384 within the sample, resulting in an excessive blurring at the interfaces where δ/β is
 385 overestimated, and an enhanced sharpness due to uncompensated phase-contrast fringes
 386 at interfaces where δ/β is underestimated (Thompson et al. 2019). In our work, we set
 387 $\delta/\beta = 2308$, which corresponds to the breast tissue/air interface at 32 keV. On the other
 388 hand, the nominal δ/β values for the phantom inserts' interfaces with water are of 1448
 389 for PTFE, 41765 for POM and 427 for PE, respectively. Considering that, from a signal
 390 processing perspective higher δ/β values correspond to higher smoothing due to the
 391 phase retrieval (Beltran et al. 2010, Brombal et al. 2018b, Donato et al. 2019b), it is clear
 392 that the POM interface is under-smoothed, yielding the best spatial resolution, while
 393 both PTFE and PE interfaces are over-smoothed, the latter yielding the worst spatial
 394 resolution. To allow for a visual comparison the test object's images reconstructed with
 395 FBP, SART, cSART within and out from the threshold condition are reported in Fig. S3
 396 and Fig. S4 of the supplementary material.

397 3.2. Breast specimen

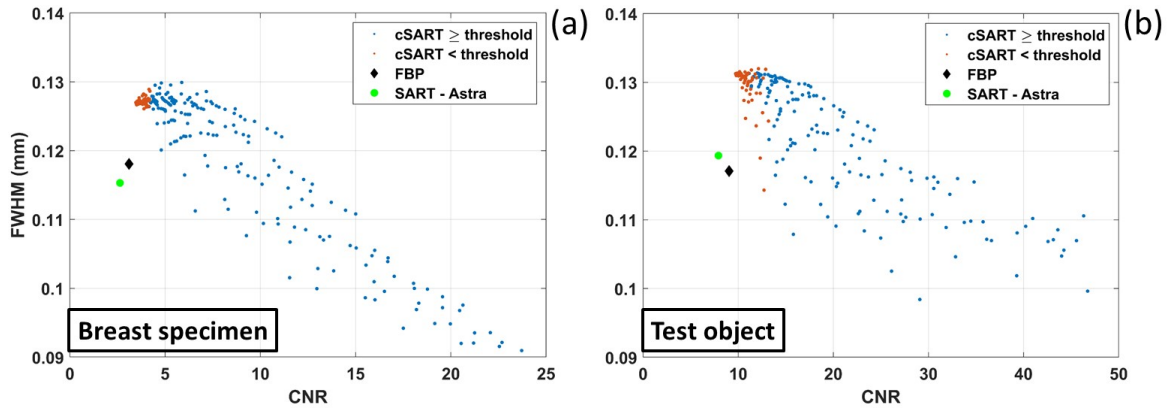


Figure 6. Scatter plots of FWHM (measured with Mizutani’s method) versus CNR for the breast specimen (a) and for PTFE insert in the test object (b). Orange and blue points indicate cSART reconstructions within and out from the NPS peak threshold condition, while black diamond and green circle indicate FBP and SART.

398 *3.2.1. Texture, contrast-to-noise and spatial resolution* A qualitative comparison on
 399 a detail of the breast sample centered on the tumor mass is shown in Fig. 5; in
 400 panel (a) the reference image acquired at high radiation dose (50 mGy) is reported,
 401 while from (b) to (e) there are the images acquired with the standard 5 mGy dose
 402 and reconstructed through FBP (b), standard SART (c), cSART within the threshold
 403 condition (d) ($\sigma_{xy,z} = 2$, $\sigma_v = 0.008$ and $\eta w = 0.06$) and out from the threshold
 404 condition (e) ($\sigma_{xy,z} = 7$, $\sigma_v = 0.014$ and $\eta w = 0.08$). As expected from the photon
 405 statistics, going from the high to the low dose images reconstructed via FBP a 3-fold
 406 decrease in CNR is observed (from 9.2 to 3.1). On the other hand, no advantage over
 407 FBP in terms of image quality is associated with the use of conventional SART, while
 408 the cSART image satisfying the threshold criterion features a higher CNR (4.2), similar
 409 texture and no apparent spatial resolution degradation. Interestingly, as shown in (e), by
 410 increasing the cSART parameters an image with the same CNR observed in the reference
 411 high dose image (CNR = 9.2) can be obtained at cost of an increased patchiness. The
 412 corresponding images of the whole sample are reported in Fig. S5 of the supplementary
 413 material.

414 The quantitative analysis on the specimen images is reported in Fig. 6. In
 415 particular, panel (a) shows the FWHM, evaluated with Mizutani’s approach, as a
 416 function of CNR measured on the breast specimen for cSART, FBP and SART
 417 reconstructions. Similar to the test object’s case, the cSART reconstructions satisfying
 418 the NPS frequency peak threshold criterion, yield a higher CNR (up to 35%) if compared
 419 to FBP, with only a marginal degradation (below 10%) in the spatial resolution. On the
 420 other hand, the standard SART reconstruction yields a spatial resolution comparable
 421 with FBP but with a 15% lower CNR. In absolute terms, the mean FWHM of cSART
 422 reconstructions satisfying the threshold condition is 0.13 mm, whereas for the FBP
 423 case it is around 0.12 mm. The latter value is in good agreement with previous

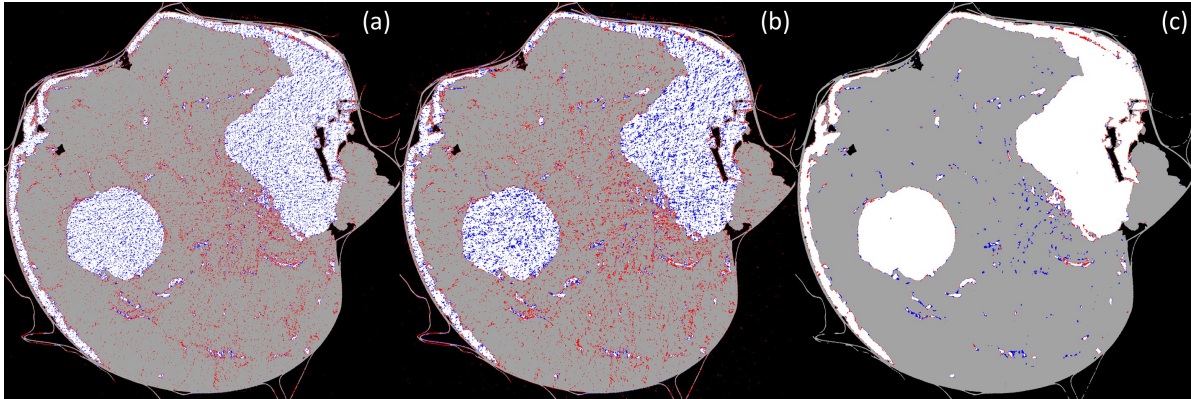


Figure 7. Segmented components of the FBP at 50 mGy shown overlapped with those of the FBP at 5 mGy (a), standard SART (b) and cSART at highest F1 score (c). Air background is shown in black, adipose component in gray, glandular component in white and misclassified pixels in ~~green~~ ~~blue~~ and ~~magenta~~ ~~red~~.

424 measurements performed with the same imaging setup on different samples (Brombal
 425 et al. 2019, Brombal et al. 2018a, Donato et al. 2019b), and it corresponds roughly to
 426 twice the detector’s pixel size. Interestingly, when applying the Mizutani’s approach to
 427 the test object, similar spatial resolution values are observed, as shown in panel (b).
 428 As mentioned, this approach aims at evaluating the overall spatial resolution of the
 429 imaging system, therefore it is expected that the FWHM does not change by changing
 430 the sample.

431 *3.2.2. Image segmentation* Qualitative results of the image segmentation are showed
 432 in Fig.7. Panels (a)-(c) show the overlay of the segmented ground-truth image with the
 433 segmented FBP (a), standard SART (b) and cSART at highest F1 (c) images. The three
 434 components of the segmentation, namely the air background, adipose and glandular
 435 tissue are showed, respectively, in black, gray and white. ~~Green~~ ~~Blue~~ and ~~magenta~~ ~~red~~
 436 pixels are the misclassified pixels of adipose and glandular classes, respectively (~~green~~
 437 ~~blue~~ is glandular classified as adipose and ~~magenta~~ ~~red~~ is vice versa). From the images
 438 it is clear that, when compared to the reference high-dose image, the cSART algorithm
 439 with adequately tuned parameters largely outperforms the FBP-based segmented image.

440 The quantitative analysis on the segmented images is reported in the plots of Fig. 8.
 441 In panel (a)-(c) the optimization of the segmentation threshold between glandular
 442 and adipose components for different cSART parameters combinations is reported.
 443 The optimal threshold was found to be loosely independent from the reconstruction
 444 parameters and, in all cases, was around 0.21. Considering the effect of each cSART
 445 parameter on segmentation quality, panel (a) demonstrates that F1 increases at higher
 446 σ_v values reaching a plateau for $\sigma_v > 0.014$. Conversely, panel (b) shows that higher
 447 F1 scores are related to lower $\sigma_{xy,z}$, hence to small spatial blurring which contributes to
 448 the preservation of fine details. Finally, panel (c) shows that F1 peaks for intermediate

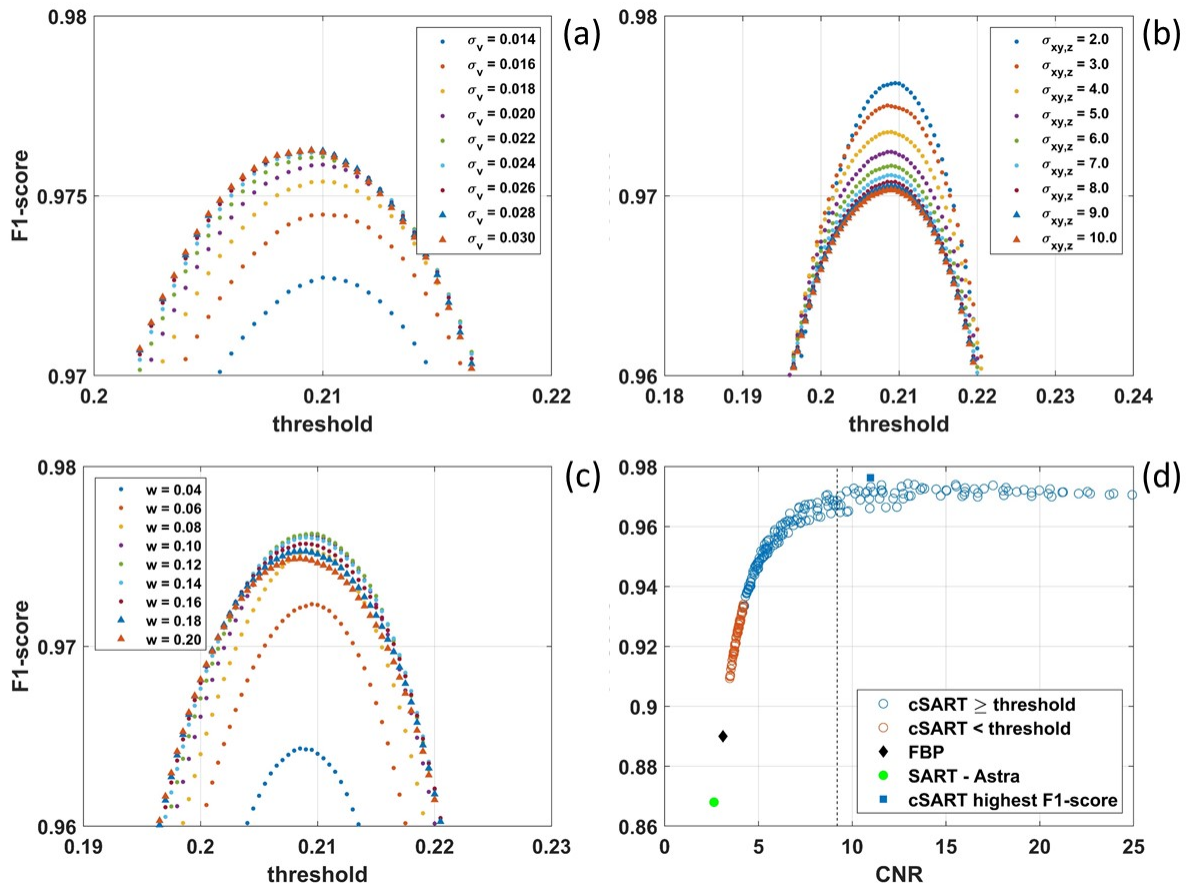


Figure 8. F1 score as a function of the adipose-glandular threshold th for: $\eta=0.14$ $w = 0.12$, $\sigma_{xy,z} = 2.0$ and different values for σ_v (a); $\eta=0.14$ $w = 0.12$, $\sigma_v = 0.020$ $\sigma_v = 0.028$ and different values for $\sigma_{xy,z}$ (b); $\sigma_{xy,z} = 2.0$, $\sigma_v = 0.020$ $\sigma_v = 0.028$ and different values for ηw (c). Panel (d) shows F1 as a function of the CNR where orange and blue open circles indicate cSART reconstructions within and out from the NPS peak threshold condition, black diamond is FBP, green circle is SART. The blue square indicates cSART yielding the highest F1 score. The dashed vertical line represents the CNR value of the FBP reconstructed reference image at 50 mGy.

449 values of ηw . In panel (d) the F1 scores are plotted against the respective CNR
 450 values, also including the FBP and SART reconstructions. The plot indicates that
 451 cSART reconstructions always result in a better segmentation with respect to FBP and
 452 SART. Moreover, it is interesting to observe that a higher fidelity in the segmentation
 453 is achieved for cSART reconstructions not comprised within the NPS frequency peak
 454 threshold condition, ~~confirming that the optimization of reconstruction parameters~~
 455 ~~for segmentation is different from the one for diagnostic visualization~~ **indicating that**
 456 **optimal parameters for segmentation are different with respect to the ones for diagnostic**
 457 **visualization**. The plot also indicates that when the cSART images reach the same CNR
 458 as the reference image (dashed line in the plot) the segmentation quality saturates and
 459 there is no advantage in pursuing higher CNR values. **In addition, segmentation results**

460 obtained with the cSART algorithm for different numbers of iterations, from 4 to 8, are
461 reported in Fig. S6 of the supplementary material and in the supplementary table 1.
462 The results show that the highest F1-score corresponds to 5 iterations, while neither
463 the optimal $\sigma_{xy,z}$ nor the optimal σ_v are dependent on the number of iterations. On the
464 other hand, when increasing the number of iterations, the optimal weighting factor w
465 tends to decrease.

466 4. Conclusions

467 This study shows that the adoption of iterative reconstruction techniques can provide
468 significant advantages in the context of breast CT imaging with monochromatic
469 synchrotron radiation and using free-space propagation and phase-retrieval. In
470 particular, based on images of a surgical breast sample, the use of the customized
471 GPU-based SART algorithm herein presented resulted in a contrast to noise ratio gain
472 up to 35% with an only marginal decrease in spatial resolution (less than 10%) and
473 image texture properties similar to the reference FBP case. Analogous indications were
474 obtained from the analysis on the dedicated test object, revealing a CNR gain from
475 45% to 100% across different plastic inserts at a comparable or slightly worse spatial
476 resolution and similar NPS peak frequency (difference less than 15%) when compared
477 with FBP. On the other hand, the use of standard SART algorithm did not provide any
478 advantage over FBP, generally resulting in noisier images and a coarser noise structure.
479 A threshold for NPS frequency peak was used as first line discrimination criterion to
480 identify those cSART parameters that preserve the image texture when compared to
481 FBP. In this study the threshold was arbitrarily set to 15% but, in the future, its
482 definition will be subject to a dedicated reader study. It is worth noting that the
483 triplets of parameters satisfying the threshold condition for the test object overlap with
484 those for the breast specimen. ~~This suggests that the phantom-based optimization of
485 the cSART algorithm is representative for the breast specimen.~~

486 Moreover, the presence of sharp plastic inserts in the phantom allowed for a task
487 transfer function (TTF) analysis, resulting in different trends in the spatial resolution
488 for different materials. This finding further confirms the need for careful optimization
489 of IR algorithms as their performances are dependent on the imaged object, plus it
490 suggests the usefulness of test objects closely reproducing the contrast characteristics of
491 the investigated organ. ~~When the latter condition is satisfied, the similar trends observed
492 in terms of CNR and spatial resolution for breast tissue and the test object, suggest
493 that the optimization of the cSART algorithm can be carried out based on test object
494 images, therefore being feasible virtually in any clinical system. It should be stressed
495 that this indication would need to be confirmed by scanning a larger number of samples
496 in different experimental conditions and focusing on specific features of clinical interest
497 (e.g., microcalcifications or margins sharpness), which will be the subject of future
498 studies. In this context, a dedicated investigation on cSART reconstructed images at
499 coarser angular stepping will be performed with the aim of reducing the scan time and~~

500 (optionally) the radiation dose.
 501 Additionally, The study also demonstrated that the proposed algorithm offers great
 502 flexibility, allowing to optimize image reconstruction either towards diagnostic evalua-
 503 tion, with a limited gain in CNR and textural properties similar to FBP, or towards
 504 image segmentation, with a major gain in CNR (by a factor of 3 or more) at cost of in-
 505 creased image patchiness allowing to optimize image reconstruction either for diagnostic
 506 evaluation images (limited CNR gain and textural properties similar to FBP) or for
 507 image segmentation (major CNR gain and increase patchiness). The latter feature is of
 508 great importance as it would enable, starting from low dose clinical images, for accurate
 509 glandular fraction estimation and straightforward realization of 3D breast models.

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