



Impact of Deep Learning-Based Image Conversion on Fully Automated Coronary Artery Calcium Scoring Using Thin-Slice, Sharp-Kernel, Non-Gated, Low-Dose Chest CT Scans: A Multi-Center Study

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Objective: To evaluate the impact of deep learning-based image conversion on the accuracy of automated coronary artery calcium quantification using thin-slice, sharp-kernel, non-gated, low-dose chest computed tomography (LDCT) images collected from multiple institutions.

Materials and Methods: A total of 225 pairs of LDCT and calcium scoring CT (CSCT) images scanned at 120 kVp and acquired from the same patient within a 6-month interval were retrospectively collected from four institutions. Image conversion was performed for LDCT images using proprietary software programs to simulate conventional CSCT. This process included 1) deep learning-based kernel conversion of low-dose, high-frequency, sharp kernels to simulate standard-dose, low-frequency kernels, and 2) thickness conversion using the raysum method to convert 1-mm or 1.25-mm thickness images to 3-mm thickness. Automated Agaston scoring was conducted on the LDCT scans before (LDCT-Orig_{auto}) and after the image conversion (LDCT-CONV_{auto}). Manual scoring was performed on the CSCT images (CSCT_{manual}) and used as a reference standard. The accuracy of automated Agaston scores and risk severity categorization based on the automated scoring on LDCT scans was analyzed compared to the reference standard, using the Bland-Altman analysis, concordance correlation coefficient (CCC), and weighted kappa (κ) statistic.

Results: LDCT-CONV_{auto} demonstrated a reduced bias for Agaston score, compared with CSCT_{manual}, than LDCT-Orig_{auto} did (-3.45 vs. 206.7). LDCT-CONV_{auto} showed a higher CCC than LDCT-Orig_{auto} did (0.881 [95% confidence interval {CI}, 0.750–0.960] vs. 0.269 [95% CI, 0.129–0.430]). In terms of risk category assignment, LDCT-Orig_{auto} exhibited poor agreement with CSCT_{manual}.

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(weighted $\kappa = 0.115$ [95% CI, 0.082–0.154]), whereas LDCT-CONV_{auto} achieved good agreement (weighted $\kappa = 0.792$ [95% CI, 0.731–0.847]).

Conclusion: Deep learning-based conversion of LDCT images originally obtained with thin slices and a sharp kernel can enhance the accuracy of automated coronary artery calcium score measurement using the images.

Keywords: Calcium; Coronary vessels; Tomography, X-ray computed; Thorax; Artificial intelligence

INTRODUCTION

The coronary artery calcium (CAC) score derived from electrocardiogram (ECG)-gated computed tomography (CT) is a well-established marker for risk stratification of future cardiovascular events, offering incremental value beyond conventional risk factors [1-3]. The increasing use of chest CT scans and the advent of CT lung cancer screening have heightened interest in the incidental findings of CAC on non-ECG-gated chest CT scans [4]. The presence and severity of CAC detected on these scans can serve as prognostic markers for future cardiovascular outcomes across various populations [5-13]. Consequently, the assessment of CAC on non-ECG-gated chest CT scans has gained recognition. Acknowledging this, the 2016 guidelines of the Society of Cardiovascular Computed Tomography/Society of Thoracic Radiology recommend evaluating and reporting CAC on all non-contrast chest CT scans in patients aged ≥ 40 years [14]. Furthermore, the importance of reporting CAC as a significant incidental finding on low-dose chest CT (LDCT) performed for lung cancer screening is emphasized [15].

However, incidental CAC findings on non-ECG-gated CT scans are often underreported despite their clinical significance, primarily because these scans are typically performed for purposes other than cardiac evaluation. Additionally, performing manual Agatston scoring on LDCT scans is a skill-intensive task that demands additional processing time and dedicated software [14,16]. The use of automatic scoring methods for performing CAC assessment on LDCT scans could enhance reporting rates and broaden the utilization of this information. Several deep learning (DL)-based automated CAC scoring techniques developed for ECG-gated calcium scoring CT (CSCT) [17-21] have also been validated for use on LDCT scans, demonstrating generally favorable performance, albeit with variability across institutions that are largely attributable to differences in the scanning protocols employed [22,23]. This variability can contribute to inconsistencies in the performance of automatic software on LDCT scans [23]. Recently, DL-based image conversion techniques, such as adjusting

slice thickness [24] or modifying the reconstruction kernel [25,26], have been applied to chest CT to improve reproducibility in quantifying emphysema or radiomic features of thoracic lesions. Implementation of these image conversion techniques is expected to mitigate the effects of variability in LDCT scanning protocols. Therefore, we hypothesized that the application of DL-based image conversion techniques would enhance the performance of automated CAC quantification on LDCT images reconstructed with thin slicethickness and a sharp kernel.

This study aimed to evaluate the impact of image conversion on the accuracy of automated CAC quantification using 1-mm or 1.25-mm, sharp-kernel, non-gated LDCT images collected from multiple institutions.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study was approved by the Institutional Review Boards of the participating hospitals (IRB Nos. KC22RID10156, 2021-12-027, 2022GR0064, 2021AS0371, 2022-01-001, 2021-0303, 2021-12-029, and 4-2021-1589). The requirement for informed consent was waived due to the retrospective design of the study.

Participants

In this study, we conducted a post-hoc analysis using data from a large retrospective cohort to evaluate the reliability of CAC scoring on LDCT scans. The original cohort comprised participants who met the eligibility criteria and were retrospectively enrolled from eight participating academic hospitals (Fig. 1). The inclusion criteria were as follows: 1) being an adult (age ≥ 18 years) and having undergone both non-ECG-gated LDCT and ECG-gated CSCT within a 6-month interval between January 2010 and December 2020 and 2) acquisition of CT scans using a scanner with 64 or more detector rows. A total of 1569 participants met these inclusion criteria. The exclusion criteria were as follows: 1) having previously undergone coronary stent insertion or coronary bypass graft surgery before the CT scan ($n = 12$), 2) inadequate LDCT image

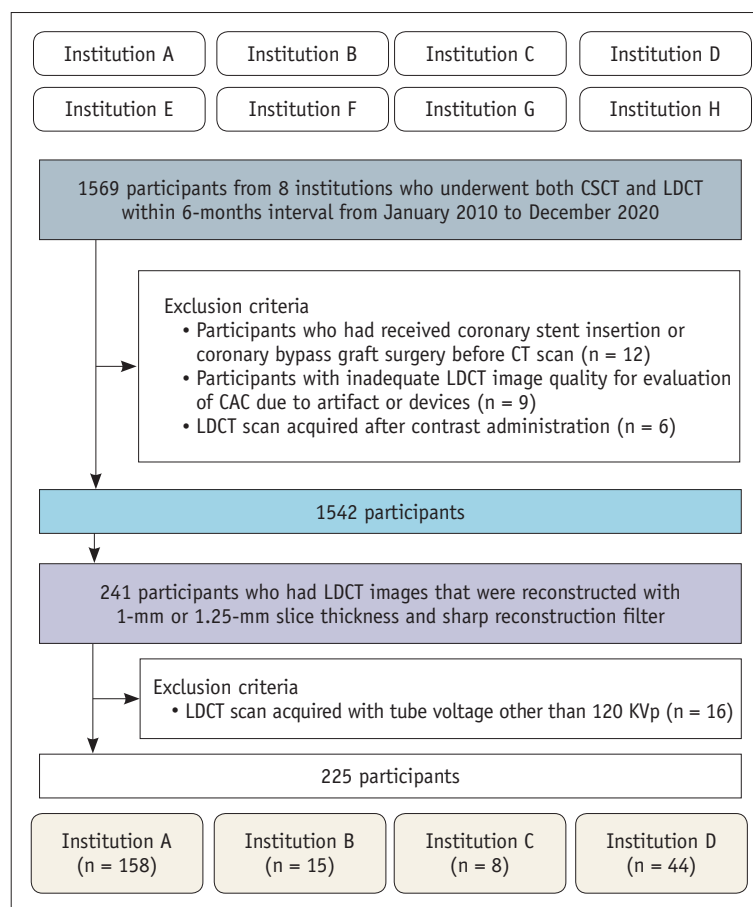


Fig. 1. Participant flowchart. CSCT = calcium scoring computed tomography, LDCT = low-dose computed tomography, CAC = coronary artery calcium

quality for CAC evaluation due to artifacts or the presence of devices ($n = 9$), and 3) acquisition of LDCT scans after contrast administration ($n = 6$). Ultimately, 1542 CSCT and 1542 LDCT scans were used for CAC scoring. From these, we selected the CT scans of 241 participants whose LDCT images were reconstructed with a slice thickness of 1-mm or 1.25-mm and a sharp kernel. Additionally, we excluded 16 participants whose LDCT scans were acquired using a tube voltage other than 120 kV, considering that the standard protocol for CSCT scanning uses 120 kV and that various tube voltage settings in LDCT can affect CAC. Finally, 225 participants were included in this study.

CT Datasets: Image Acquisition and Reconstruction

The detailed CT image acquisition and reconstruction protocols are summarized in Supplementary Table 1. All CSCT scans were reconstructed with a standard kernel and a slice thickness of 2.5-mm or 3-mm. Non-ECG-gated LDCT scans were reconstructed with a slice thickness of 1-mm or 1.25-mm and a sharp reconstruction filter (kernel).

Image Conversion

For LDCT, image conversion was performed to simulate conventional CSCT using a proprietary software program (AVIEW CAC, version 1.1.43; Coreline Soft, Co., Ltd., Seoul, South Korea), which incorporated two algorithms: 1) DL-based kernel conversion (KC) algorithm, which generates CT images simulating standard-dose, low-frequency kernels from low-dose, high-frequency kernels [27,28]. It enables direct transformations on reconstructed images without the need for sinogram data. KC was performed using a weighting of 0.5. 2) Thickness conversion (TC), which constructs volume data using the raysum method, employing an average value for each ray for the desired plane in volume rendering. TC was performed to convert images with a thickness of 1-mm or 1.25-mm to 3-mm. Four sets of LDCT images were used for analysis (Fig. 2): original images without conversion (LDCT-Org), images with KC only (LDCT-KC), images with TC only (LDCT-TC), and images with both KC and TC (LDCT-CONV). Image noise was measured on four LDCT datasets and was defined as the standard deviation (SD)

of the measured Hounsfield units (HU) within the circular region of interests in the ascending aorta on the slice image at the level of the left main coronary artery.

Automated CAC Scoring

Automated CAC scoring was performed on four image datasets of LDCT scans for each participant using a commercial software (AVIEW CAC, Coreline Soft, Co. Ltd.). The software was developed using the concept of an atlas-based automated CAC scoring system empowered by DL technology [21] and has been validated for automated CAC scoring in both CSCT and LDCT in previous studies [22,23,29,30]. For each CT scan, the Agatston score, CAC volume score (mm^3), and peak CAC density were calculated at the per-artery level for the four main coronary arteries

and at the per-subject level.

Reference CAC Scoring

Manual CAC scoring was performed on CSCT scans ($\text{CSCT}_{\text{manual}}$) and used as a reference standard. Manual scoring was performed independently by two board-certified expert radiologists, each with 10 and 11 years of experience in cardiothoracic imaging, using commercial software (AVIEW CAC, Coreline Soft, Co. Ltd.), without the assistance of an automatic algorithm. Following thresholding (>130 HU) with a colored overlay, the CACs were manually labeled by the readers according to their anatomical location (i.e., left main, left anterior descending [LAD], left circumflex, and right coronary arteries). The manual scoring results of the two radiologists were extracted, and the Agatston score,

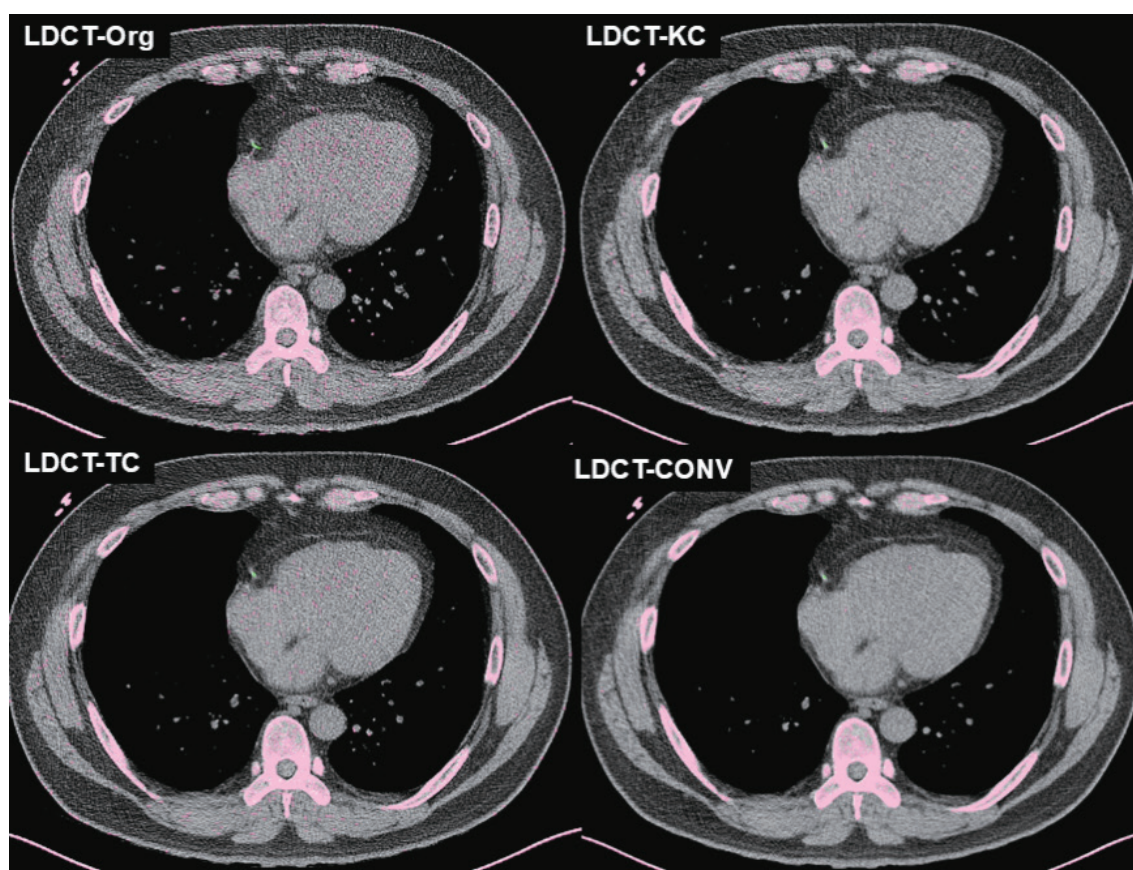


Fig. 2. Examples of image conversion. Original image without conversion (LDCT-Org), image with kernel conversion only (LDCT-KC), image with slice thickness conversion only (LDCT-TC), and image with both kernel and slice thickness conversion (LDCT-CONV). The Agatston scores of the reference standard ($\text{CSCT}_{\text{manual}}$), LDCT-Org_{auto}, LDCT-KC_{auto}, LDCT-TC_{auto}, and LDCT-CONV_{auto} were 56, 106, 64, 67, and 58, respectively. LDCT = low-dose chest computed tomography, LDCT-Org = original image without conversion, LDCT-KC = LDCT image with kernel conversion only, LDCT-TC = LDCT image with slice thickness conversion only, LDCT-CONV = LDCT image with both kernel and slice thickness conversion, CSCT = calcium scoring computed tomography, $\text{CSCT}_{\text{manual}}$ = manual scoring on calcium scoring CT, LDCT-Org_{auto} = automatic scoring on original LDCT images without conversion, LDCT-KC_{auto} = automatic scoring on LDCT images with kernel conversion, LDCT-TC_{auto} = automatic scoring on original LDCT images with slice thickness conversion, LDCT-CONV_{auto} = automatic scoring on LDCT images with both kernel and slice thickness conversion

volume score, and number of CAC lesions were compared at the per-subject and per-artery levels. When the two radiologists' results differed, a consensus reading session was conducted to resolve the disagreement in CAC scoring results. The results obtained through the consensus reading sessions were used to establish the reference standard.

Statistical Analyses

The results of the image noise analysis of the four LDCT datasets were compared using repeated-measures analysis of variance.

The accuracies of the quantitative CAC parameters (Agatston score, volume score, and peak density) and risk categorization according to the automated Agatston score on the four LDCT datasets were assessed by comparing them to the CSCT_{manual} as the reference standard. To analyze the accuracy of the quantitative parameters, Bland–Altman analysis was employed to determine the bias, and 95% limits of agreement and Lin's concordance correlation coefficient (CCC) were employed. CCC was interpreted as follows: values >0.90, 0.80–0.90, 0.65–0.80, and <0.65 indicate excellent, substantial, moderate, and poor agreement, respectively [31]. To analyze the accuracy of cardiovascular

risk stratification using the automated Agatston score, CAC severity was categorized into the following groups based on the Mayo criteria [32]: 0, 1–10, 11–100, 101–400, and >400. The agreement of CAC severity categories between automated scoring on LDCT-Orig (LDCT-Orig_{auto}) and that on LDCT-CONV (LDCT-CONV_{auto}) with CSCT_{manual} was assessed using the Cohen linearly weighted kappa (κ) statistic. In cases of disagreement in the risk category between CSCT_{manual} and LDCT-CONV_{auto}, we determined the underlying reasons for this disagreement. In addition to the analysis including all participants, a subgroup analysis was performed including participants with CAC >0 on CSCT_{manual}.

Bonferroni-adjusted post-hoc *P*-values <0.0083 were considered as indicative of a statistically significant difference for multiple comparisons of image noise between the four LDCT datasets. Otherwise, a *P*-value <0.05 was considered as indicative of a statistically significant difference.

RESULTS

Participants

The baseline clinical characteristics and CT imaging

Table 1. Baseline characteristics of the participants in the study cohorts

	All (n = 225)	Institution A (n = 158)	Institution B (n = 15)	Institution C (n = 8)	Institution D (n = 44)
Sex, male	163 (72.4)	110 (69.6)	12 (80.0)	5 (62.5)	36 (81.8)
Age, yrs	57.3 ± 9.2	58.0 ± 8.6	57.71 ± 6.8	57.4 ± 13.8	54.6 ± 10.7
Body mass index, kg/m ²	24.3 ± 3.4	24.7 ± 3.7	24.5 ± 3.0	24.8 ± 2.1	25.0 ± 2.8
Heart rate, beats/min	58.3 ± 8.6	56.8 ± 7.5	66.2 ± 9.3	71 ± 10.1	N/A
Hypertension	75 (33.3)	61 (38.6)	3 (20.0)	2 (25.0)	9 (20.5)
Diabetes mellitus	31 (13.8)	22 (13.9)	1 (6.7)	3 (37.5)	5 (11.4)
Smoking					
Current smoker	62 (27.6)	46 (29.1)	2 (13.3)	3 (37.5)	11 (25.0)
Ex-smoker	55 (24.4)	38 (24.1)	1 (6.7)	0 (0)	16 (36.4)
Dyslipidemia	48 (21.3)	37 (23.4)	5 (33.3)	2 (25.0)	4 (9.1)
Indication of LDCT					
Screening	180 (80.0)	115 (72.8)	14 (93.3)	7 (87.5)	44 (100)
Symptomatic or other clinical purpose	45 (20.0)	43 (27.2)	1 (6.7)	1 (12.5)	0 (0)
Agatston score on CSCT _{manual}	0 (0–28.9)	0 (0–43.7)	110.2 (0–23.2)	0 (0–14.3)	0 (0–4.0)
Agatston score-based risk category in CSCT _{manual}					
0	132 (58.7)	90 (57.0)	7 (46.7)	5 (62.5)	30 (68.2)
1–10	16 (7.1)	11 (7.0)	1 (6.7)	0 (0)	4 (9.1)
11–100	48 (21.3)	31 (19.6)	7 (46.7)	2 (25.0)	8 (18.2)
101–400	18 (8.0)	17 (10.8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (2.3)
>400	11 (4.9)	9 (5.7)	0 (0)	1 (12.5)	1 (2.3)

Data are presented as the number of patients (%), mean ± standard deviation, or median (interquartile range).

N/A = not available, LDCT = low-dose computed tomography, CSCT_{manual} = manual scoring on calcium scoring computed tomography

Table 2. Accuracy of automated Agatston score, CAC volume, and peak density on LDCT-Orig_{auto}, LDCT-KC_{auto}, LDCT-TC_{auto}, and LDCT-CONV_{auto} in all participants (n = 225)

	Agatston score				Volume score				Peak density			
	LDCT-Orig _{auto}	LDCT-KC _{auto}	LDCT-TC _{auto}	LDCT-CONV _{auto}	LDCT-Orig _{auto}	LDCT-KC _{auto}	LDCT-TC _{auto}	LDCT-CONV _{auto}	LDCT-Orig _{auto}	LDCT-KC _{auto}	LDCT-TC _{auto}	LDCT-CONV _{auto}
Total												
Mean bias	206.7	36.22	37.63	-3.45	210.77	39	36.83	-3.61	551.27	241.08	185.75	6.48
B-A	-389.15	-143.65	-212.48	-147.01	-334.90	-123.18	-181.42	-119.52	-98.48	-87.28	-167.88	-252.03
95% LOA	-802.54	-216.09	-287.74	-140.10	-756.45	-201.18	-255.08	-112.30	-1201.01	-569.43	-539.37	-264.99
CCC	0.269	0.851	0.710	0.881	0.212	0.818	0.675	0.883	0.388	0.681	0.737	0.891
(95% CI)	(0.129, 0.430)	(0.767, 0.906)	(0.549, 0.848)	(0.750, 0.960)	(0.100, 0.350)	(0.720, 0.883)	(0.515, 0.821)	(0.748, 0.964)	(0.341, 0.436)	(0.628, 0.734)	(0.687, 0.780)	(0.854, 0.919)
LM												
Mean bias	14.97	3.02	2.85	-1	15.27	3.09	2.69	-0.76	359.64	125.87	90.37	1.81
B-A	-44.18	-27.18	-40.98	-34.07	-37.32	-22.09	-33.95	-27.41	-225.26	-245.52	-226.67	-229.71
95% LOA	-74.12	-33.23	-46.69	-32.06	-67.85	-28.27	-39.33	-25.89	-944.53	-497.26	-407.41	-233.33
CCC	0.502	0.842	0.704	0.785	0.441	0.834	0.684	0.795	0.333	0.613	0.686	0.775
(95% CI)	(0.301, 0.670)	(0.729, 0.921)	(0.555, 0.836)	(0.598, 0.908)	(0.253, 0.606)	(0.714, 0.916)	(0.526, 0.817)	(0.631, 0.908)	(0.243, 0.427)	(0.501, 0.716)	(0.577, 0.767)	(0.663, 0.865)
LAD												
Mean bias	56.59	12.82	11.37	1.48	55.48	12.05	9.88	0.39	457.26	180.28	130.98	-5.01
B-A	-147.01	-69.58	-84.54	-60.75	-125.99	-52.98	-67.56	-45.21	-214.96	-195.26	-267.83	-208.47
95% LOA	-260.19	-95.21	-107.28	-63.72	-236.94	-77.08	-87.32	-45.98	-1129.48	-555.82	-529.80	-198.45
CCC	0.456	0.878	0.809	0.921	0.382	0.872	0.798	0.929	0.375	0.689	0.715	0.914
(95% CI)	(0.208, 0.681)	(0.763, 0.937)	(0.590, 0.925)	(0.820, 0.971)	(0.158, 0.607)	(0.758, 0.933)	(0.586, 0.921)	(0.819, 0.981)	(0.319, 0.429)	(0.630, 0.747)	(0.642, 0.777)	(0.878, 0.943)
LX												
Mean bias	46.27	9.15	9.88	-0.43	48.42	10.47	9.68	0.01	370.95	151.11	91.51	3.78
B-A	-121.34	-63.30	-80.90	-67.75	-107.96	-54.88	-69.84	-56.64	-3.29	-129.54	-187.79	-192.68
95% LOA	-213.87	-81.59	-100.66	-66.90	-204.79	-75.82	-89.20	-56.66	-745.19	-431.75	-370.81	-200.24
CCC	0.339	0.763	0.656	0.733	0.287	0.739	0.631	0.742	0.298	0.588	0.690	0.820
(95% CI)	(0.129, 0.514)	(0.636, 0.853)	(0.431, 0.818)	(0.364, 0.971)	(0.104, 0.458)	(0.617, 0.817)	(0.412, 0.796)	(0.400, 0.964)	(0.183, 0.420)	(0.430, 0.721)	(0.541, 0.806)	(0.714, 0.892)
RCA												
Mean bias	88.94	11.27	13.52	-3.49	91.55	13.4	14.56	-3.29	420.13	175.05	134.85	4.81
B-A	-167.68	-54.23	-92.83	-58.59	-145.78	-51.77	-81.17	-51.57	30.64	-124.31	-178.82	-236.99
95% LOA	-345.56	-76.76	-119.88	-51.61	-328.88	-78.57	-110.29	-44.99	-809.62	-474.42	-448.53	-246.62
CCC	0.124	0.796	0.527	0.815	0.097	0.732	0.489	0.807	0.294	0.547	0.586	0.757
(95% CI)	(0.055, 0.200)	(0.656, 0.895)	(0.376, 0.695)	(0.717, 0.869)	(0.040, 0.164)	(0.539, 0.852)	(0.353, 0.642)	(0.707, 0.870)	(0.216, 0.372)	(0.453, 0.634)	(0.472, 0.685)	(0.668, 0.825)

CAC = coronary artery calcium, LDCT = low-dose computed tomography, LDCT-Orig_{auto} = automatic scoring on original LDCT images without conversion, LDCT-KC_{auto} = automatic scoring on LDCT images with kernel conversion, LDCT-TC_{auto} = automatic scoring on original LDCT images with slice thickness conversion, LDCT-CONV_{auto} = automatic scoring on LDCT images with both kernel and slice thickness conversion, B-A = Bland-Altman, LOA = limits of agreement, CCC = concordance correlation coefficient, CI = confidence interval, LM = left main artery, LAD = left anterior descending artery, LCX = left circumflex artery, RCA = right coronary artery

parameters are presented in Table 1 and Supplementary Table 1. Six types of CT machines from two companies were used for acquiring CSCT scans, and eight types of CT machines from three companies were used for obtaining LDCT scans. The CSCT and LDCT scans were acquired using machines from the same companies in 222 participants (98.7%) and using the same type of machine in 184 participants (81.8%). The median Agatston score was 0 (interquartile range [IQR], 0 to 28.9) on CSCT_{manual}.

Comparison of Image Noise Among the Four LDCT Datasets

The median image noise was significantly different between the four LDCT datasets, showing the highest values in LDCT-Orig (104.9 HU, IQR 90.1 to 125.1 HU) and decreasing in the order of LDCT-TC (67.0 HU, IQR 57.8 to 83.1 HU), LDCT-KC (59.6 HU, IQR 51.3 to 73.4 HU), and LDCT-CONV (38.2 HU, IQR 33.3 to 48.0 HU) (uncorrected $P < 0.0083$, indicating statistical significance for multiple comparisons).

Accuracy of Automatic Quantitative CAC Parameters on LDCT Before and After Image Conversion

The Bland–Altman analysis and CCCs for automatic CAC parameters on the four LDCT image datasets compared with CSCT_{manual} are shown in Table 2 and Figure 3. The mean biases with the SD of the Agatston scores on LDCT-Orig_{auto}, LDCT-KC_{auto}, LDCT-TC_{auto}, and LDCT-CONV_{auto}, compared with CSCT_{manual}, were 206.7, 36.22, 37.63, and -3.45, respectively. The CCCs for the Agatston score, volume score, and peak density were highest between CSCT_{manual} and LDCT-CONV_{auto} (0.881 [95% CI 0.750–0.960], 0.883 [95% CI 0.748–0.964], and 0.891 [95% CI 0.854–0.919], respectively), whereas

they were lowest between CSCT_{manual} and LDCT-Orig_{auto} (0.269 [95% CI 0.129–0.430], 0.212 [95% CI 0.100–0.350], and 0.388 [95% CI 0.341–0.436], respectively). The accuracies of the volume score and peak density were highest for LDCT-CONV_{auto} and lowest for LDCT-Orig_{auto}. The per-artery analysis showed a tendency similar to that of the per-subject analysis in terms of the Agatston score, volume score, and peak density. However, in all images processed using DL-based image conversion, the CCC values for the Agatston score, volume score, and peak density were higher in the LAD than in the other vessels. Notably, in the case of LDCT-CONV_{auto}, the CCC values for the Agatston score, volume score, and peak density demonstrated excellent reliability only in the LAD, whereas the other vessels showed moderate to substantial reliability.

Accuracy of Risk Category Assignment Using Automatic Agatston Scoring on LDCT Before and After Image Conversion

Table 3 presents the kappa coefficients comparing both LDCT-Orig_{auto} and LDCT-CONV_{auto} with CSCT_{manual}. Figure 4 and Supplementary Figure 1 present confusion matrices comparing the automatic scoring on the four LDCT image datasets with CSCT_{manual}. LDCT-Orig_{auto} demonstrated poor agreement with CSCT_{manual}, with a weighted κ value of 0.115 (95% CI 0.082–0.154). In contrast, LDCT-CONV_{auto} achieved good agreement with CSCT_{manual}, showing a weighted κ value of 0.792 (95% CI 0.731–0.847).

LDCT-CONV_{auto} correctly assigned 77.3% (174/225) to the same risk category as CSCT_{manual}. 19.1% (43/225) were placed in a neighboring category, and 3.6% (8/225) differed by two categories from CSCT_{manual}. Among the 51 (22.7%)

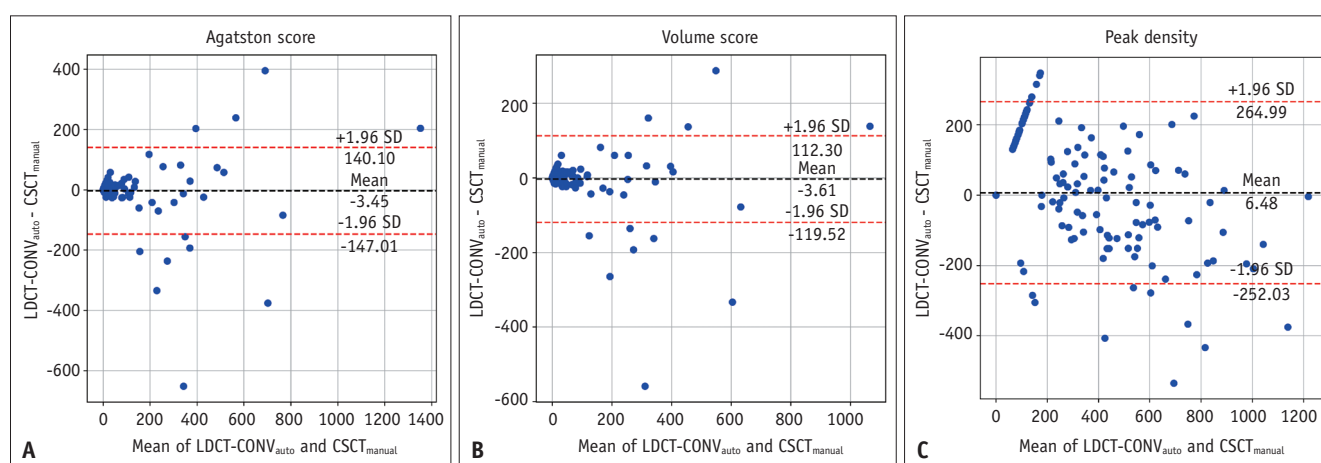


Fig. 3. Bland–Altman plots for the (A) Agatston score, (B) volume score, and (C) peak density on LDCT-CONV_{auto} compared with CSCT_{manual} in all participants ($n = 225$). LDCT = low-dose computed tomography, LDCT-CONV_{auto} = automatic scoring on LDCT images with both kernel and slice thickness conversion, CSCT_{manual} = manual scoring on calcium scoring computed tomography, SD = standard deviation

participants showing one or more category differences, the risk categories of 37 (16.4%) were overestimated and 14 (6.2%) were underestimated. Overestimations primarily occurred because of noise near the coronary artery areas being misinterpreted as CAC (23/37, 62.2%), pulmonary veins adjacent to the heart being mistaken for left circumflex artery calcification (8/37, 21.6%), and motion artifacts (4/37, 10.8%) (Supplementary Figs. 2, 3). In two cases of overestimation (5.4%), calcifications that were not visible on CSCT scans were detected on LDCT scans (Supplementary Fig. 3). All 14 cases of underestimation occurred entirely due to detection failure, which resulted from the reduction

Table 3. Agreement in risk category assignment using Agaston scoring between LDCT and CSCT_{manual} in all participants (n = 225)

Index	Weighted kappa (95% CI)
LDCT-Orig _{auto}	0.115 (0.082, 0.154)
LDCT-KC _{auto}	0.424 (0.360, 0.492)
LDCT-TC _{auto}	0.442 (0.375, 0.510)
LDCT-CONV _{auto}	0.792 (0.731, 0.847)

LDCT = low-dose computed tomography, CSCT_{manual} = manual scoring on calcium scoring computed tomography, CI = confidence interval, LDCT-Orig_{auto} = automatic scoring on original LDCT images without conversion, LDCT-KC_{auto} = automatic scoring on LDCT images with kernel conversion, LDCT-TC_{auto} = automatic scoring on original LDCT images with slice thickness conversion, LDCT-CONV_{auto} = automatic scoring on LDCT images with both kernel and slice thickness conversion

		LDCT-CONV _{auto}				
		0	1–10	11–100	101–400	>400
CSCT _{manual}	0	102	24	6	0	0
	1–10	3	9	4	0	0
	11–100	1	5	40	2	0
	101–400	0	0	2	15	1
	>400	0	0	1	2	8

Fig. 4. Confusion matrices of LDCT-CONV_{auto} with CSCT_{manual} for risk category assignment. LDCT-CONV_{auto} = automatic scoring on LDCT images with both kernel and slice thickness conversion, CSCT_{manual} = manual scoring on calcium scoring computed tomography

of calcification to <130 HU during the image reconstruction process (Supplementary Fig. 4).

Subgroup Analysis

In the subgroup of participants with CAC > 0 (n = 93) according to CSCT_{manual}, the mean biases for the Agatston score on LDCT-Orig_{auto}, LDCT-KC_{auto}, LDCT-TC_{auto}, and LDCT-CONV_{auto}, compared with CSCT_{manual}, were 261.96, 65.98, 56.23, and -10.65, respectively (Supplementary Table 2). LDCT-Orig_{auto} exhibited the lowest CCC, indicating poor reliability (0.281 [95% CI, 0.084–0.496]) of the Agatston score in the per-subject analysis. In contrast, LDCT-KC_{auto} and LDCT-TC_{auto} showed moderate to substantial reliability (CCC 0.823 [95% CI, 0.712–0.891] and 0.664 [95% CI, 0.441–0.831], respectively). LDCT-CONV_{auto} demonstrated the highest CCC (0.855 [95% CI, 0.700–0.951]) among the datasets, indicating excellent reliability. For risk category assignment, LDCT-Orig_{auto} demonstrated poor agreement with CSCT_{manual} with a weighted κ value of 0.194 (95% CI, 0.103–0.292, Supplementary Table 3). In contrast, LDCT-CONV_{auto} achieved good agreement with CSCT_{manual}, showing a weighted κ value of 0.740 (95% CI, 0.624–0.836).

DISCUSSION

The present study demonstrated the effect of combined KC and TC techniques on fully automated CAC scoring in non-gated LDCT scans with thin slices and sharp kernel reconstruction. The image conversion performed for LDCT images significantly decreased image noise and improved the agreement and reliability of automatic CAC scoring, compared with CSCT_{manual}, at both per-subject and per-artery levels.

LDCT is usually reconstructed with thin slice thickness and a sharp kernel to achieve a higher spatial resolution, which is beneficial for imaging high-contrast structures, such as bones or lungs [33,34]. However, this setting increases image noise and compromises the evaluation of low-contrast structures, such as the mediastinum or soft tissue, hindering accurate CAC measurement on LDCT scans [23]. Previous studies indicated that reconstruction of LDCT scans with a smooth kernel, as opposed to a sharp kernel, is more reliable method for evaluating CAC [35]. Additionally, thinner slices significantly increase the CAC scores [22,36]. Moreover, the performance of the automatic CAC scoring software, in addition to the CAC score itself, could potentially be influenced by the LDCT scanning protocol. Although several

studies have shown the clinical utility of DL-based automatic CAC measurement in LDCT, such as the correlation between DL-based CAC on CSCT and LDCT scans [22,37-39], or its prognostic value [40], the LDCT scans in these studies were typically reconstructed with smooth/soft tissue kernels or thicker slices. Indeed, a recent multi-center study found that the imaging protocols of LDCT datasets varied across participating institutions, leading to performance differences in automatic software for CAC measurement based on the reconstruction kernel or slice thickness used [23]. We hypothesized that image conversion, including the conversion of kernel and slice thickness in LDCT scans, could facilitate a more accurate evaluation of CAC.

Our image conversion technique may offer a potential solution for minimizing the influence of variations among LDCT protocols. Using DL-based image conversion, we effectively reduced image noise, which likely contributed to the improved accuracy of automated CAC scoring. Consequently, the Agatston score, volume score, and peak density demonstrated excellent agreement with the reference standard for the multi-center datasets acquired using CT scanners from various manufacturers. These findings demonstrate the potential clinical utility of automated CAC scoring on converted LDCT images. This approach is a potential practical solution for achieving faster and more efficient CAC evaluation in clinical practice.

In addition to image conversion, performing additional image reconstruction of LDCT scans using the same parameters as CSCT (e.g., 2.5-mm or 3-mm slice thickness and soft kernel) could also be considered a solution. However, this approach has limitations, as previous studies have indicated that the CAC evaluation accuracy may decrease when LDCT images are acquired at slice thicknesses ≥ 2.5 mm. One study demonstrated higher agreement with CSCT for CAC severity classification with automated measurement at a slice thickness of 1-mm ($\kappa > 0.8$) compared with 2.5-mm slice thickness ($\kappa = 0.776$) [22]. Similarly, another study reported that CAC measurement on LDCT scans with 2.5-mm slice thickness tended to be underestimated, with 12.8% of high-risk CAC scores underestimated, compared with ECG-gated CT with 2.5-mm slice thickness [41]. Although these studies did not thoroughly examine variations in other CT parameters or among CT vendors, the findings suggest that LDCT with thinner slice thickness may offer a more accurate CAC assessment than does LDCT with 2.5-mm or 3-mm slice thickness. In fact, two cases of CAC overestimation on LDCT-CONV_{auto} in our study were

due to the identification of small calcifications that were undetected on CSCT. Practical considerations, such as data storage capacity, radiologist workload and preferences, when reviewing multiple image series, and institutional differences in clinical practice should also be considered before performing additional image reconstructions. Therefore, further well-designed research is necessary to compare the accuracy between automated CAC measurement on converted LDCT images that were originally reconstructed with thin slices and sharp kernel and those reconstructed with 2.5-mm or 3-mm slices and soft kernel.

Despite the implementation of image conversion in our study, several unresolved issues concerning automated CAC measurement on LDCT remain, necessitating further investigation. First, in addition to the impact of high image noise, motion artifacts caused by the absence of ECG-gating contribute to inaccurate CAC scoring and the misclassification of risk categories. In our study, 10.8% (4/37) of the overestimations of CAC severity categories on LDCT-CONV_{auto} were due to motion artifacts. These are challenging to overcome due to the inherent characteristics of non-ECG-gated chest CT. Second, 72.0% of cases in our study used iterative reconstruction (IR) on LDCT scans. Previous studies have reported that IR tends to yield lower CAC scores, compared with filtered back projection [42-44]; however, IR does not significantly affect CAC severity classification. Given that LDCT scans without IR have high image noise and reduced image quality, omitting IR or performing additional filtered back projection for CAC measurement on LDCT scans may not be practical from the standpoint of resources and reader workload. Nonetheless, as this study was not specifically designed to evaluate the influence of IR on CAC scoring, further research is needed to explicitly address this issue. Finally, the most common cause of CAC score underestimation on LDCT scans was the attenuation values of calcifications being < 130 HU as a result of image conversion. The 130-HU threshold currently remains critical for CAC measurement in clinical practice; thus, future studies should either consider adjusting this threshold or develop an optimized method for weighting KC.

Our study has some limitations. First, our datasets consisted of a high percentage of participants with CAC = 0 in the reference standard and CT scans acquired using scanners from a specific manufacturer, which could have overestimated the impact of image conversion or limited the capacity to generalize the findings to a broader spectrum of scanner models. Although LDCT-CONV_{auto} demonstrated good

performance in our subgroup analysis of participants with CAC >0, further studies using a large number of participants with positive CAC or CT scans with varying protocols and equipment are required to establish the broader applicability of DL-based image conversion. Second, we included participants who underwent CSCT and LDCT within a 6-month interval. Although performing two CT scans on the same day would be optimal to minimize the impact of potential CAC progression, we set the scan interval based on the results of previous studies. A previous study utilizing data from the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis found that the annual incidence rate of CAC in Asian individuals (Chinese) free of CAC at baseline was 4.7% among women and 4.4% among men [45]. Furthermore, among Chinese patients with detectable CAC at baseline, the median annual progression rate of CAC was observed to be 12.7 Agatston units per year. Additionally, previous studies comparing the CAC scores between CSCT and LDCT demonstrated a high correlation and accuracy for intervals up to a median of 7–10 months [46,47]. Therefore, a 6-month interval was deemed acceptable for maintaining consistency between the CAC scores obtained from CSCT and LDCT. Third, we did not correlate the cardiovascular outcomes of the participants with our results owing to the relatively small sample size. Additional multi-center studies are needed to validate the image conversion and correlate the findings with clinical prognosis.

In conclusion, automated CAC measurement using image conversion on LDCT scans originally obtained with thin slices and sharp kernel demonstrated excellent accuracy, compared with manual scoring, in multi-institutional datasets. However, further improvements in image conversion techniques are required to achieve more accurate results.

Supplement

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Availability of Data and Material

The datasets generated or analyzed during the study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Conflicts of Interest

Dong Hyun Yang, a Section Editor of the *Korean Journal of Radiology*, was not involved in the editorial evaluation or decision to publish this article.

Sehyun Hong, is an employee of Coreline Soft, Co., Ltd., which provided the software and technical support. The remaining authors have declared no conflicts of interest.

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