




Quantitative spectral micro-CT of a CA4+ loaded osteochondral sample with a tabletop system

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Abstract Micro-computed tomography (μ CT) is the gold standard for nondestructive 3D imaging of biomedical samples in the centimeter scale, but it has limited effectiveness in revealing intricate soft tissue details due to the limited attenuation contrast. Radiopaque contrast agents that accumulate in the structures of interest are employed to enhance their visibility. However, the increased attenuation provided by the contrast agents does not guarantee discrimination among tissues. This issue can be solved by spectral μ CT ($S\mu$ CT) systems employing small-pixel chromatic photon-counting detectors. These detectors, combined with material decomposition algorithms, allow the generation of high-resolution material-specific 3D maps. This work aims to demonstrate the potential of photon-counting X-ray $S\mu$ CT on osteochondral samples loaded with a cationic iodinated contrast agent (CA4+) at a spatial resolution below 50 μ m, and to compare the results against a conventional μ CT system. An osteochondral sample extracted from a bovine stifle joint was loaded with CA4+ and imaged with a novel multimodal X-ray imaging system, featuring a 62 μ m pixel CdTe spectral detector (Pixirad1-PixieIII). After material decomposition, quantitative 3D density maps of iodine and hydroxyapatite were reconstructed. The same sample was also scanned with a commercial μ CT scanner with matched spectrum and exposure time. $S\mu$ CT images at a (measured) spatial resolution comparable with the commercial scanner (\sim 45 μ m) were obtained. Spectral images allowed for a fully automatic segmentation of cartilage and subchondral bone. The unambiguous discrimination between iodine and hydroxyapatite revealed a more realistic representation of proteoglycan distribution compared to conventional imaging.

1 Introduction

Articular cartilage (AC) is a soft tissue conferring nearly frictionless and smooth motion at the articular level. The interplay among its constituents, namely collagen, proteoglycans (PGs), and interstitial fluid, delivers excellent mechanical properties to healthy AC [1]. Compositional and morphological modifications of AC, identified as fibrillation of collagen fibers and depletion of PGs, alter the homeostasis of AC with a severe negative impact on its mechanics. As a consequence, progressive wear of AC triggers the onset of joint-affecting diseases such as osteoarthritis [2]. Further hallmarks of AC degeneration are also detected on the subchondral bone, the dense mineralized layer supporting AC in load-bearing events [3]. For these reasons, the availability of imaging tools enabling the identification and monitoring of the progression of osteoarthritis on both AC and subchondral bone is of paramount importance.

Nowadays, X-ray micro-computed tomography (μ CT) provides high-spatial resolution 3D reconstructions of biological samples. For advanced systems featuring synchrotron radiation, spatial resolution reaches even the cellular level [4, 5]. Several studies demonstrated that μ CT is a powerful tool for the evaluation of mineralized tissues [6]. However, the low radiopacity of AC hinders the evaluation of the progression of the pathological state through μ CT. Recently, the adoption of dedicated contrast agents (CAs) allowed advances in terms of qualitative and quantitative assessment of AC. In fact, CAs based on high atomic number (Z) elements, such as iodine and gadolinium, significantly enhance X-ray visualization of soft tissues [7]. Depending on the electrostatic properties of CAs, they can be categorized into non-ionic and ionic CAs. Ionic CAs can be further subdivided into anionic and cationic, if the corresponding molecules host negative or positive charge density, respectively. The ionic nature of CA molecules determines the electrostatic interaction with biological structures [8]. In this context, conventional commercial non-ionic and anionic CAs were

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tested for X-ray visualization of AC, displaying negative or weak correlation to PG content, which exhibits a negative fixed charge density [9]. As a result, high concentrations and long exposure times were required to yield an effective AC imaging [10]. In recent times, dedicated CAs have been developed to improve cartilage visualization, as in the case of cationic iodine-based CA4+ [11]. The positive charge density generates electrostatic attraction between CA4+ molecules and negatively-charged PGs, resulting in shorter diffusion times, lower CA concentrations required, and direct correlation of CA distribution with PG content [10].

Although the use of CAs addresses the poor visibility of the cartilage, contrast-enhanced μ CT (CE μ CT) still fails in distinguishing tissues exhibiting similar X-ray attenuation, such as contrast-enhanced AC from subchondral bone, potentially hindering their exact segmentation, quantification, and, more generally, a detailed evaluation of osteoarthritis progression [12]. This limitation can be overcome by using X-ray spectral imaging (XSI). XSI relies on measurements at two (or more) X-ray energy levels (or bins) and provides tissue separation by exploiting the different attenuation energy dependence of the CA.

Historically, XSI has been implemented by using dual-energy or multi-energy methods based on acquisitions of the sample performed with different X-ray spectra [13]. This typically implies the use of complex dual source or fast kilovoltage switching systems or, alternatively, requires multiple scans, posing concerns in terms of image registration and, for *in-vivo* applications, of deposited radiation dose [14]. Along with studies based on conventional X-ray tubes, various XSI tests have been carried out at synchrotron facilities for the visualization of AC with different combinations of ionic contrast media [15–18]. Despite the demonstration of high-quality imaging, the peculiar features of synchrotron radiation are hardly reproducible in laboratory-based setups.

The recent advent of photon-counting detectors (PCDs) is going to revolutionize XSI in preclinical and clinical imaging applications, thus overcoming these concerns [19–21]. In fact, the adoption of PCD devices brings a simplification in the hardware and, by employing a broad X-ray spectrum, allows to target applications making use of different contrast media by simply adjusting the energy-calibrated thresholds. The possibility of acquiring images over multiple energy bins in a single shot guarantees exact spatial and temporal registration of spectral images and does not require additional radiation dose [22]. Moreover, with respect to conventional integration devices, the design of PCDs implies advantages in terms of electronic noise suppression (Poisson-dominated noise), artifact suppression, and contrast-to-noise-ratio, the latter due to their intrinsic absence of spectral weighting upon detection [21]. Even more recently, spectral μ CT (S μ CT) has been made possible by the availability of devices featuring a small pixel size ($\sim 50 \mu\text{m}$) and charge-sharing compensation or clustering mechanisms guaranteeing both spectral performance and high-spatial resolution [23, 24].

Focusing on AC applications, previous studies implemented XSI of AC with anionic and non-ionic CAs, exploiting the anti-correlation between their distribution across the tissue and PG content [25, 26]. Cationic CAs were considered for quantitative imaging of AC with dual-energy techniques implemented with indirect conversion detectors by using monochromatic synchrotron radiation [17, 18, 27] and recently with a PCD-based CT system by Paakkari et al. [28], although in the latter attention was drawn exclusively to the assessment of AC and not to the underlying subchondral bone, and the achieved spatial resolution was in the order of $200 \mu\text{m}$.

In this framework, our research work demonstrates the potential of S μ CT based on a novel system integrating a chromatic PCD (Pixirad1-PixieIII) in the context of osteoarticular imaging at a spatial resolution below $50 \mu\text{m}$. Following the treatment to CA4+ targeting PG's structures, osteochondral samples were scanned with scan time and X-ray spectrum, matched to a conventional state-of-the-art μ CT scanner. Spectral decomposition has been performed in two basis materials, and imaging performance on the same sample was directly compared to a commercial CE μ CT system. Results provide a simultaneous evaluation (both qualitative and quantitative) of cartilage and bone tissues, with the smallest pixel size reported so far referring to a tabletop PCD system, to the best of the authors' knowledge. Noteworthy, the S μ CT system allowed a better understanding of the distribution of CA4+ at the bone/CA interface and enabled the automatic segmentation of cartilage and subchondral bone.

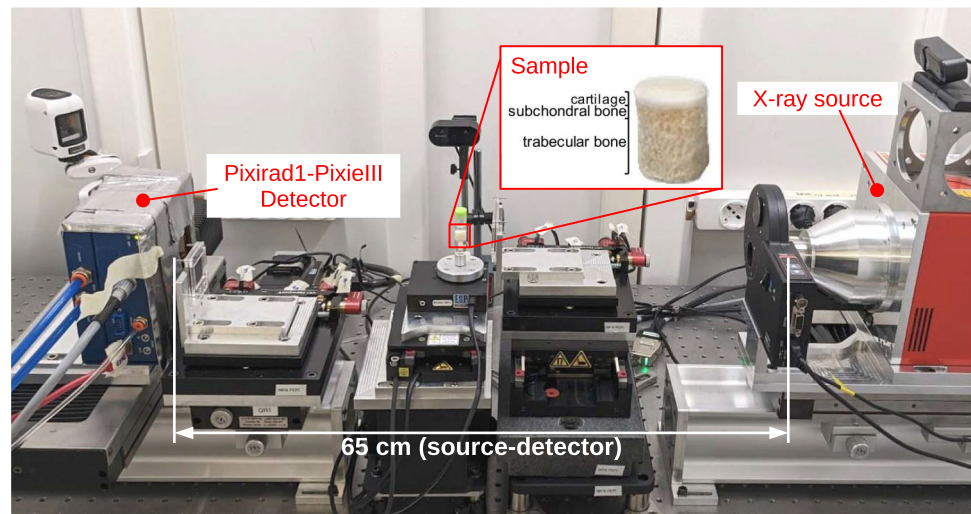
2 Materials and methods

2.1 Preparation of sample and contrast agent

The imaged sample was one cylindrical osteochondral plug ($\varnothing = 10 \text{ mm}$, height = 10 mm) extracted from a bovine stifle joint, provided by a local slaughterhouse, and stored in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) solution-soaked lint at $T = -20^\circ\text{C}$. Before the image acquisition, the sample was thawed in PBS solution at $T = 4^\circ\text{C}$ overnight, inserted in a custom-made polymethyl-metacrylate (PMMA) sample holder and immersed in CA solution [29]. The sample holder had an inner diameter of 10 mm , so that a single cylindrical sample could fit inside, and a height of 30 mm , to fit both the sample and the CA bath.

The used contrast agent was CA4+ (5, 50-[Malonylbis(azanediyl)]bis[N1,N3-bis(2-aminoethyl)-2, 4, 6-triiodoisophthalamide] chloride), which contains six iodine atoms per molecule. The net positive charge ($q = +4$ per molecule) confers the characteristic affinity of CA4+ to PGs, which have instead a negative fixed charge density. CA4+ salts were synthesized according to the work of Stewart et al. [30], and dissolved in PBS solution to reach the desired iodine concentration of 10 mgI/ml . The pH of the resulting aqueous compound was balanced to 7.4 by adding NaOH 4 M. The CA4+ solution was poured on the surface of the cartilage tissue after the insertion of the plug in the sample holder. In addition to the 10 mgI/ml solution, three other CA4+ solutions, with

Fig. 1 Photograph of the $S\mu$ CT experimental setup at PEPILab. The inset shows a zoomed image of the osteochondral sample where its main components are outlined



iodine concentrations of 20 mgI/ml, 15 mgI/ml, 5 mgI/ml, and 0 mgI/ml (pure water), respectively, were prepared and used for the calibration of the $S\mu$ CT system.

2.2 μ CT acquisition

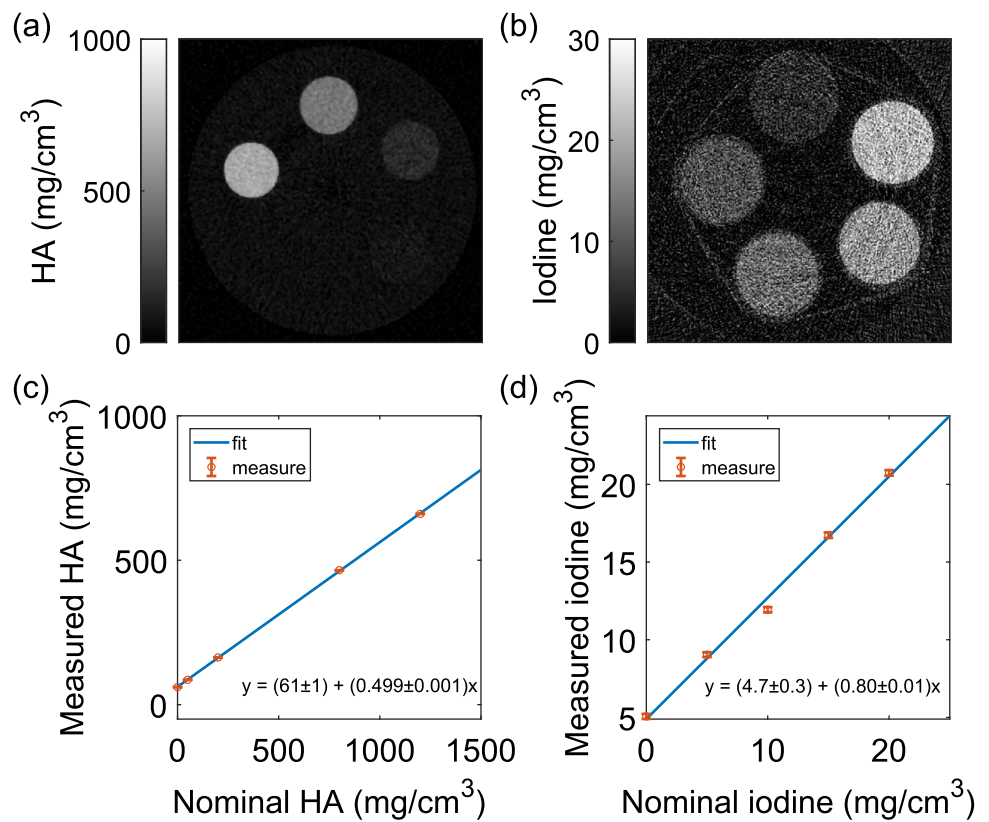
$S\mu$ CT acquisitions were performed at the multipurpose X-ray laboratory PEPILab [31] at the Italian National Institute for Nuclear Physics (INFN) in Trieste: the experimental setup used for the acquisition is shown in Fig. 1. X-rays are produced by a conventional microfocus source (Hamamatsu L10101), operated at 50 kV and 200 μ A. A filtration of 0.12 mm of Cu and 0.2 mm of Al was introduced, resulting in a spectrum peaked at the iodine K-edge energy (33.2 keV). From previous characterization measurements, the focal spot size was estimated to be 16 ± 3 μ m for the used voltage and current settings [31]. The used chromatic PCD is a Pixirad1-PixieIII, featuring a 62 μ m pixel size and a sensitive area of 512×402 pixels, corresponding to 31.7×24.9 mm^2 [24].

The overall source-to-detector distance was set to 65 cm, while geometric magnification was 1.83, corresponding to a reconstruction voxel size of 34 μ m and a field-of-view of 17.2×13.7 mm^2 . The detector was operated in the charge-summing mode that compensates for the effect of charge sharing and optimizes the intrinsic spatial resolution, corresponding to the dimension of one pixel [32]. Spectral images were generated by using the two-color mode, which yields two independent images corresponding to low and high-energy bins. Bins are defined by two energy-calibrated thresholds, which were set to 26 keV and 33 keV. The second threshold was chosen to maximize the iodine signal, while the first was adjusted to reject the cadmium fluorescence (K_{α} at 23.2 keV), hence reducing the spectral cross-talk between energy bins. It should be noted that in a CdTe sensor also tellurium fluorescence is produced. However, it is locally self-absorbed in the sensor with high probability as its energy (K_{α} at 27.5 keV) is just above the cadmium K-edge (26.7 keV) [32]. Exposure time was set to 7.2 s per projection and 1000 projections were acquired over a 360-degree rotation, corresponding to an overall acquisition time of 120 min. No relevant polarization time-dependent effects [33] were observed during the acquisition, owing to the relatively low X-ray flux (order of 500 photons/pixel/s) and the fast polarization/depolarization cycles between consecutive projections enabled by the step-and-shoot acquisition procedure. A random jittering motion of the detector was introduced in between projections to mitigate ring artifacts [34].

In addition to the osteochondral sample, two calibration phantoms were imaged to achieve accurate quantification of iodine concentration and bone density. The first was an epoxy resin phantom (QRM, Moehrendorf, Germany) containing five inserts with different hydroxyapatite (HA) densities. The second was custom-made phantom including five cuvettes filled with different concentrations of CA^{+} , as described in the previous section.

After the spectral scan, the same osteochondral core was acquired with a commercial μ CT system (Skyscan 1072, SkyScan, Aartselaar, Belgium) at the Medical Technology Laboratory of Istituto Ortopedico Rizzoli in Bologna. Between acquisitions (~ 48 h), the sample was stored in CA^{+} solution at $T = 4^{\circ}\text{C}$. $\text{CE}\mu\text{CT}$ acquisitions were performed with the parameters routinely used for osteochondral samples. The X-ray tube was operated at a voltage of 50 kV and 200 μ A (as for the $S\mu$ CT scan) with an added filtration of 1 mm-Al. 410 projections over 185° were acquired with an exposure time of 11.8 s per frame, leading to a total scan time (including dead time) of 112 min, which is comparable to the $S\mu$ CT scan. Given the similar X-ray beam quality, total exposure time and source-to-sample distance of $S\mu$ CT and commercial $\text{CE}\mu\text{CT}$, the number of projections used matched the integrated fluence at the sample. Images were collected with an energy-integrating detector (Hamamatsu C4742-55), consisting of a CCD camera coupled to a scintillator. The CCD array features a pixel size of 6.7 μ m, and an active area of 1024×1024 pixels. The scintillator is coupled to the sensor with optical fibers and a 3.7:1 size ratio. Provided a source-to-detector distance of 84 cm and geometric magnification of 2.2, the final reconstruction voxel size was 11.5 μ m and the field-of-view 11.8×11.8 mm^2 .

Fig. 2 HA (a) and iodine (b) density maps of the two calibration phantoms, respectively. In (c) and (d), the respective measured against nominal density values and the linear fit functions. Fit parameters and associated uncertainties are reported in the plots



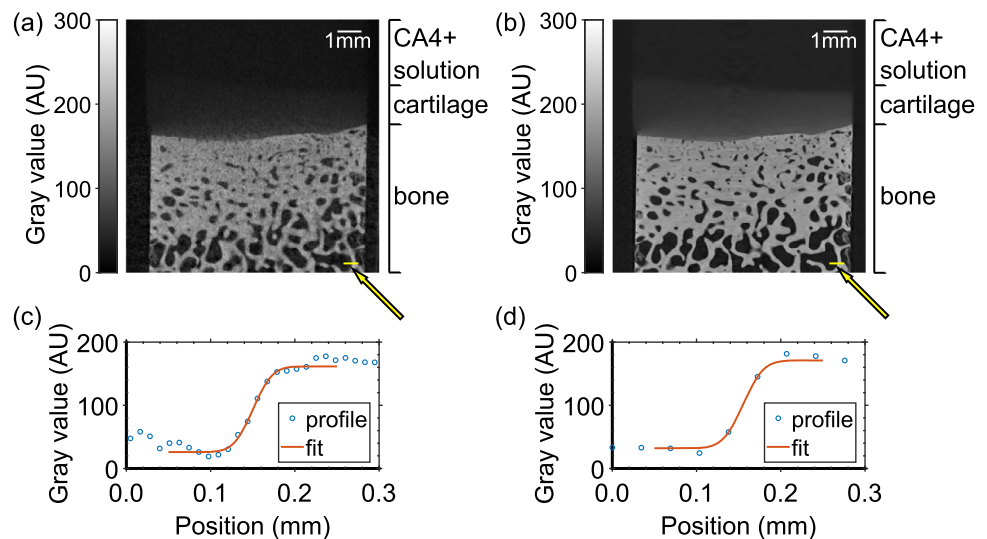
2.3 Calibration, data processing, and analysis

High- and low-energy projection images of the two calibration phantoms underwent a dedicated preprocessing procedure to mitigate detector-specific artifacts [35]. Preprocessed projections were reconstructed via conventional cone-beam FDK [36] with Shepp-Logan filtering, by using the implementation available in the open-source software library TIGRE [37]. Spectral basis material decomposition was performed on the 3D reconstructed volumes through matrix inversion. The mass attenuation coefficient system matrix accounts for the X-ray spectrum and the detector spectral response (including fluorescence), which is obtained with an experimentally validated custom simulation software [38, 39]. The basis materials chosen for the decomposition of the two phantoms were HA and iodine. From the resulting HA and iodine maps, shown in Fig. 2 a and b, mean densities were measured from circular areas within the inserts/cuvettes and plotted against their nominal value. Uncertainty on the measured data was calculated as the standard error of the mean. Data were fitted with a linear function, whose parameters are used to calibrate the osteochondral sample's images. Calibration results are reported in Fig. 2 c and d.

The osteochondral sample's data followed the same pipeline described for the calibration phantom except for the addition of a self-supervised deep denoising procedure that is applied to reconstructed datasets [35]. This processing step is carried out to mitigate noise amplification occurring in the following spectral decomposition step [40]. Consistently with the calibration, the materials chosen for the spectral decomposition of the osteochondral core were iodine and HA, for cartilage and bone tissues, respectively. The former element accounts for the radiopacity of CA4+ targeting PGs in the cartilage tissue. The latter is a mineral constituent of bone tissue and hosts calcium as its radiopaque counterpart. As a result, mass density 3D maps of iodine and HA were obtained from the reconstructed volumes. To carry out the direct comparison with CE μ CT, a non-spectral attenuation reconstruction was produced by summing high- and low-energy projections prior to processing. The availability of spectrally decomposed volumes allowed for the implementation of an automatic segmentation procedure for separating bone and cartilage based on the Otsu thresholding algorithm [41]. The obtained volumetric masks were then applied on both (non-spectral) attenuation and material decomposition volumes.

The CE μ CT reconstruction was performed by using the manufacturer's software (NRecon, Skyscan, Aartselaar, Belgium). Since the two scans feature different voxel sizes and detector technologies, the spatial resolution has been estimated from the reconstructed images for both CE μ CT and (attenuation) S μ CT scans. Spatial resolution was evaluated by fitting with an error function (erf) the intensity profile obtained across a sharp bone detail, and defined as the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the Gaussian obtained deriving the erf fit. Additionally, to apply the same segmentation masks on the CE μ CT image, the reconstructed attenuation volumes were co-registered. The registration of volumes was performed in Matlab, by using the function *imregister*. Among the possible registration methods, the similarity criterion was selected, which allows for rotation, translation and dilation of target volume

Fig. 3 Section of reconstructed volume from CE μ CT (a) and from S μ CT (b). In both sections, the three main layers of the osteochondral plug, namely CA4+ bath, cartilage, and bone are highlighted. In the bottom panels, the line profiles for CE μ CT (c) and S μ CT (d) are reported together with the erf fit. Profiles are extracted from the yellow line ROI drawn in (a) and (b), respectively, pointed out by the arrows



(CE μ CT) to the reference volume (S μ CT). The metrics used is the *mean square difference* and the optimizer is *regular step gradient descent*. The results of the registration were evaluated by visual inspection of the voxel-by-voxel subtraction of the registered and target volumes.

After registration, the depth-wise intensity concentration profiles across the cartilage were extracted and compared for both attenuation images obtained with the two systems and for the iodine decomposed image of the S μ CT system. Attention was focused on the differences between attenuation and iodine density (i.e., PG) distributions close to the AC tidemark, which is the narrow region of interface between calcified cartilage and subchondral bone. In fact, modifications to the cartilage tidemark can be considered as a hallmark for recognition of osteoarthritic pathologies like osteoarthritis [3]. For this reason, the tidemark voxels of all the images were realigned to a planar surface via translation in order to study the profiles across the whole volume as a function of the distance from the cartilage-bone interface. The tidemark position for each voxel column was identified as the first pixel separating the subchondral bone from the segmented volume of cartilage.

3 Results

One transverse slice obtained from the CE μ CT reconstruction and the corresponding detail from the (nonspectral) attenuation volume obtained with the S μ CT are reported in Fig. 3. In both images, three layers of the sample are fairly visible, corresponding (from top to bottom) to the CA4+ bath, the contrast-enhanced cartilage, and the underlying bone tissue. As demonstrated by the line profiles across a sharp bone detail, the spatial resolution of the two systems is similar and the FWHM is estimated to be $45 \pm 15 \mu\text{m}$ for the S μ CT and $43 \pm 15 \mu\text{m}$ for the CE μ CT, where uncertainties correspond to the 95% confidence level given by the fitting procedure.

The same transverse slice reconstructed from the high- and low-energy bins of the S μ CT dataset is shown in panels (a) and (b) of Fig. 4. From the images, it is clear that, while the bone tissue signal decreases at high energy, the cartilage signal has an opposite behavior due to the presence of CA4+. Panels (c) and (d) show the iodine and HA mass density maps after spectral decomposition and automatic segmentation.

The intensity distributions across the cartilage volumes obtained from the CE μ CT, (non-spectral) attenuation S μ CT, and the iodine mass density distribution obtained from the S μ CT are shown in panels (a) to (c) of Fig. 5, respectively.

Their respective normalized intensity profiles are reported in panels (d) to (f). From the profiles, it can be noted that, regardless of the system used, attenuation-only μ CT images have a signal peaked at the bone/cartilage interface, while the spectral image reveals an iodine peaking approximately $150 \mu\text{m}$ above the interface. Albeit this value can be affected by possible misregistration errors (order of 1 pixel), the fact that the shift in the peak appears systematically across the whole volume indicates a clear difference between the S μ CT and CE μ CT profiles.

Starting from material decomposition volumes, a 3D rendering of the scanned sample was also produced, as shown in Fig. 6. The CA4+ perfused cartilage has been rendered in blue, where a darker color is related to a higher concentration, while the underlying bone structure is rendered with a light brown palette.

Fig. 4 Section of the reconstructed volume of laboratory S μ CT, taken from low-energy (a) and high-energy bins reconstructions (b). Spectral decomposition in iodine (c) and HA basis (d) after the application of the automatic segmentation

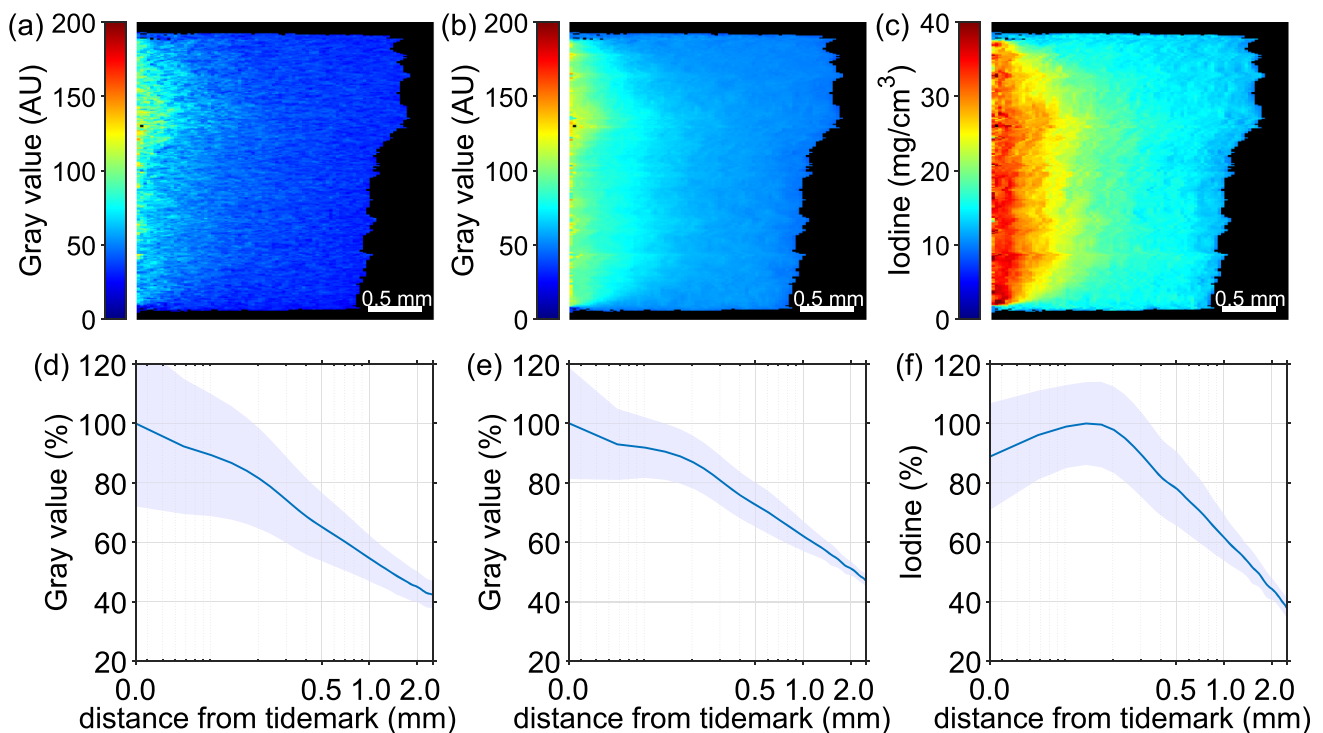
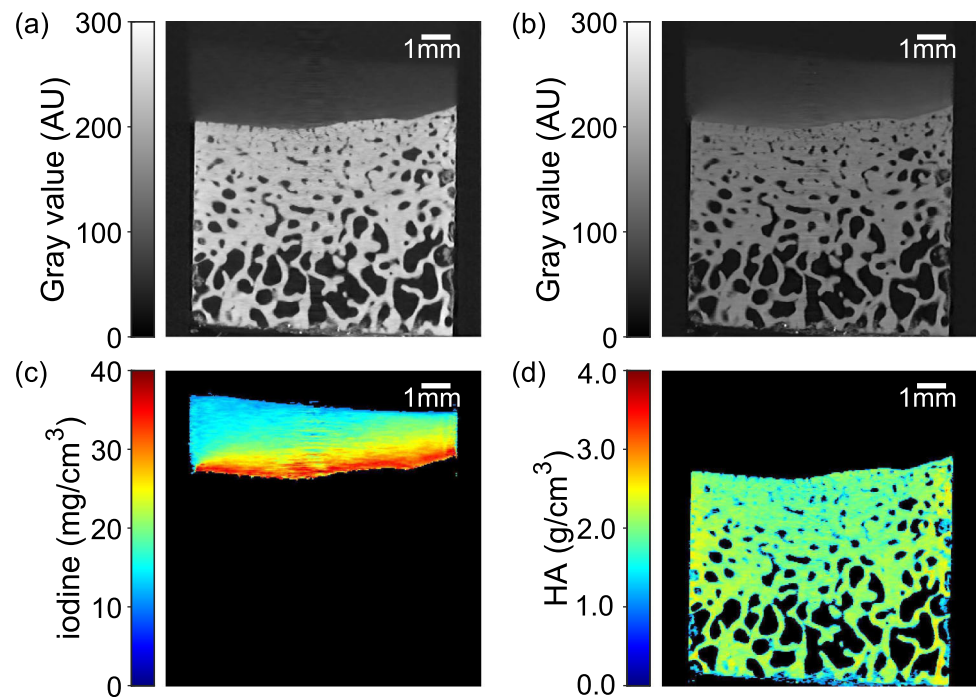
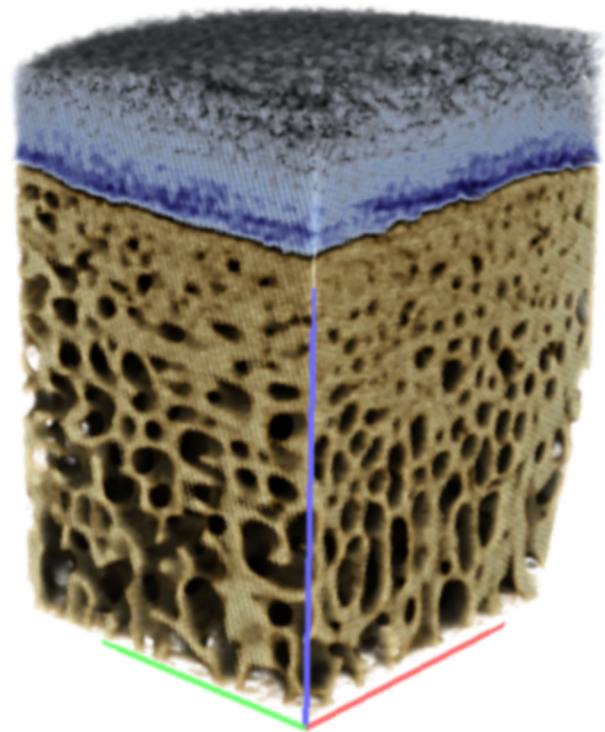


Fig. 5 Sections from volumes realigned to a planar tidemark surface, from CE μ CT (a), and absorption (b) and iodine-base decomposition (c) from S μ CT. Their respective intensity profiles (solid lines), corresponding to the volume average as a function of the distance from the tidemark, are shown in (d), (e), and (f). Similarly, for each profile, the data dispersion (shaded area) corresponds to one standard deviation. For comparison, each profile is normalized to its maximum value. The distance from the tidemark position (0 mm) is reported in logarithmic scale in plots (d), (e), and (f)

4 Discussion

Given similar parameters in terms of acquisition time and X-ray spectrum, a qualitative comparison between the conventional CE μ CT and the (non-spectral) attenuation images acquired with the S μ CT reveals comparable results in terms of image appearance, as seen in Fig. 3. This also demonstrates that the sample was not significantly altered in the time elapsed between the two scans (48 h).

Fig. 6 3D rendering of the sample acquired with the S μ CT system. The blue palette displays iodine content (darker at higher concentrations), the light brown palette displays the HA distribution



Quantitatively, the two systems revealed a similar spatial resolution in the order of $45\mu\text{m}$, despite a factor of 3 difference in voxel size. This is related to the high efficiency and sharp response of the PCD detector used in the S μ CT. In both scans, features within the mineralized tissue, namely the characteristic trabeculae found in cancellous bone, could be easily distinguished. On the other hand, even if the S μ CT image shows a generally higher image quality, the interface between cartilage and CA4+ remained ambiguous. The same observation holds for the interface between cartilage tissue and subchondral bone.

This limitation is overcome by spectral images delivered by the S μ CT. A higher intensity of dense structures is found in the low-energy channel with respect to the high-energy one, while the opposite behavior is observed in the presence of iodine. This allows for the discrimination between the cartilage and the mineralized tissue as well as for masking out the CA4+ bath that contains a lower iodine concentration with respect to the cartilage, as reported in panel (c) of Fig. 4. Moreover, further quantitative examination of bone tissue, based on quantification of the mineral density, is promptly accessible in spectral modality, as shown in panel (d), while calibration curves are required in attenuation modality.

Focusing on the cartilage layer, a depth-wise intensity/concentration dependence could be observed, generally decreasing from the deep cartilage, rich in PG, to the superficial layer, as demonstrated in Fig. 5. Noteworthy, the comparison between profiles from absorption and spectral imaging outlines the potential of material decomposition. In particular, while the attenuation-based CTs show a similar monotonically decreasing behavior regardless of the used imaging system, the peak in the spectral density profile is shifted with respect to the bone/cartilage interface. This is due to the fact that only the spectral decomposition can discriminate between different contributions to the attenuation at the cartilage tidemark, distinguishing between the iodine, related to PG concentration, and the calcified tissue. From a biological perspective, the PG distribution shown in the material decomposition can be understood by considering that the cartilage tissue close to the tidemark shows increased content of calcification, at the expense of PG concentration. These results are consistent with previous literature. The work of Bansal et al. [10] demonstrated the correlation between CA4+ uptake and GAG overall content in the cartilage in bovine osteochondral samples from the femoral condyles. The 3D CA4+ distribution reported in their study showed a clear gradient, with increasing CA uptake in the deeper layer of cartilage. Similarly, the work by Honkanen et al [17] performed on human cadaver samples showed that, at diffusion equilibrium (72 h of immersion), CA4+ distribution at increasing depths in the cartilage correlates with PG concentration. The hypothesis that the PG concentration decreases in calcified cartilage close to the tidemark is supported in the literature by independent methods, which provided direct measurements of thickness of calcified cartilage. Values of the order of $200\mu\text{m}$ were found in Kauppinen et al. [42], by segmenting histological images from healthy human tissues.

In this context, the calcium quantification capabilities enabled by S μ CT, could provide a powerful tool for the nondestructive 3D assessment of the calcified cartilage region. Indeed, the simultaneous but differentiated assessment of cartilage and subchondral bone is considered to be of great importance for the understanding of pathologies such as osteoarthritis, which concurrently develops in both tissues [3]. In previous works, the use of cationic CA4+ for the evaluation of cartilage tissue [43] was extensively validated using reference methods [44], conventional CT, and synchrotron μ CT [27, 45–47], but it was faced with the problem of comparable

radiopacity of contrast-enhanced cartilage and calcified tissue [12]. This further implies that manual segmentation procedures are typically used for the delineation of articulating surfaces and cartilage-bone surfaces [15–18], potentially being imprecise and/or subject to operator-dependent bias. On the other hand, spectral data-based material decomposition enables the automatic segmentation of heterogeneous structures as demonstrated, for instance, in the 3D rendering of Fig. 6.

Despite only few studies making use of detector-based spectral systems have been reported in the literature on osteochondral samples, those works focused either on the diffusion of anionic CAs, which anticorrelates with PG [25], or on PG-affine CA4+ but at a much coarser spatial resolution (order of 200 μm) [28]. In this framework, to the best of the authors' knowledge, our work reports the first $\text{S}\mu\text{CT}$ on an osteochondral sample loaded with an iodine-based cationic contrast agent to be scanned with a laboratory spectral PCD system at a (measured) spatial resolution below 50 μm .

It is understood that the promising results demonstrated in this paper have been obtained on a single sample, and need to be confirmed on a larger number of samples. This should also account for the fact that the features in the articular cartilage strongly depend on the location in articulating sites [48], hence differences in morphology (i.e., thickness) and composition (i.e., PG content) might impact the imaging outcome. Another limitation of the study is the simplified (cylindrical) geometry of osteochondral samples. In fact, the relatively small size and constrained geometry might overestimate the potential of automatic segmentation provided by spectral imaging. A comprehensive evaluation should include samples with complex geometries and greater size or, alternatively, whole-sized condyles from small animal models.

5 Conclusion

The present study investigated the potential of the $\text{S}\mu\text{CT}$ on an osteochondral sample perfused with the iodine-based cationic contrast agent CA4+ and compared the results against a commercial $\text{CE}\mu\text{CT}$ system. For similar acquisition time and spectrum, the results demonstrate that the $\text{S}\mu\text{CT}$ provides a better distinction among tissues, also enabling automatic segmentation, at comparable spatial resolution. Spectral capabilities allowed for a more realistic description of proteoglycan distribution across the cartilage. The material decomposition approach makes possible the unambiguous discrimination between iodine and hydroxyapatite at the cartilage/bone interface, having a potential impact for the assessment of osteoarticular pathologies. Future studies will be aimed at extending the analysis to a larger number of samples and sample types, while further improving spatial resolution (by a factor between 1.5 and 2) using a higher magnification and the extended field-of-view acquisition modality.

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Data Availability Statement Tomographic data described in this work are available in an open access repository at the following link: <https://doi.org/10.15161/oar.it/143144>. The manuscript has associated data in a data repository.

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