Preliminaries of FL Building Blocks

Let us consider a network of K devices, each with a local dataset D_k for $k \in 1,2,..., K$. Each local dataset is composed of n_k examples, represented by tuples $(x_{k,i},y_{k,i})$ for $i\epsilon 1,2,...$, n_k [1 - 6] . The goal of FTL is to train a global model f that can make predictions based on new examples given by (x, y) , using the information from all the decentralized datasets $D_k[1 - 6]$. One way to perform FTL is through federated averaging [1-12]. This involves training a local model f_k on each decentralized dataset D_k , and then averaging the model weights across all the devices to create the global model:

$$
f = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} f_k
$$

Another approach is to use a federated learning server, which coordinates the training process across the decentralized datasets $\lceil 1 - 6 \rceil$. The server sends a global model f to each device, and the device uses its local data samples to compute model updates Δf_k [1 - 6]. The server then aggregates the updates to create a new global model:

$$
f_{t+1} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \Delta f_k
$$

One effective optimization technique for both local model training and model updating is stochastic gradient descent (SGD) [1-12]. The objective is to reduce the discrepancy between the predicted image or loss functions and the ground truth image $\lceil 1 - 6 \rceil$. After building the global model using the FL concept, the model is fine-tuned in each center separately to have knowledge from different centers and specified for each center separately (transfer learning) $[1 - 6]$.

Differential Privacy

By introducing noise to the data, differential privacy protects individuals' privacy within a dataset [3]. Differential privacy aims to ensure that the inclusion or exclusion of any individual from the dataset has no appreciable influence on the outcomes of statistical analysis [3, 13]. This is accomplished using a randomization mechanism, such as the Laplace or Gaussian mechanisms, to introduce noise into the data [3, 13-17]. The privacy budget ε , representing the maximum amount of privacy loss deemed acceptable, determines how much noise is added to the data [3]. The "sensitivity" of the function, also known as the difference in probability between any two outcomes, is a common way to define the privacy budget [13- 17]. The maximum change in the function's output brought on by including or excluding a single subject in the dataset is referred to as the sensitivity [3, 13-17].

If algorithm M is randomized, it's considered (ϵ, δ) -differentially private when, for any two closely related datasets D1 and D2, and any specified event E in set R, the differences in the algorithm's output distributions for these datasets are within the bounds of $(e \mid (\epsilon, \delta)[3, 13-17]$. This means that, for any event E , the probability of the event occurring in the output distribution of the algorithm on the dataset D_1 is no more than e^{ϵ} times the probability of the event occurring in the output distribution of the algorithm on the dataset D_2 , plus δ [3]. If $\delta = 0$, and $\delta > 0$, the algorithm is termed pure differentially private (DP) and approximate DP, respectively [3].

The Gaussian noise mechanism is an effective technique for implementing DP [3, 13-17]. It adds zeromean multivariate Gaussian noise with a standard deviation of $\sigma.\psi_f$, to the output of a function f with L_2 -sensitivity ψ_f , which is defined as the maximum difference in the output of the function for any two

neighboring datasets [3]. The parameter σ is chosen based on ψ_f^2 and δ . Gaussian noise can be applied to local model parameters before server aggregation, to global parameters on the server before distribution, and during local training[3].

Supplemental Table 2. Summary statistics of quantitative parameters for different centers trained for each center separately (CeBa) and tested on all test sets (centers 1-8). i.e., column Center 1 represents the results of testing on the whole test set when training is performed only using the Center 1 data set. All test sets represent the results of models, in which training and testing are performed at the same center (whole 20% of the clean dataset).

Supplemental Table 3. Summary statistics of quantitative parameters for the different centers using FTL and tested on all test sets (centers 1-8). i.e., column Center 1 represents the results of testing on the whole data set when training is performed only using the Center 1 data set. All test sets represent the results of models, in which training and testing are performed at the same center (whole 20% of the clean dataset).

Supplemental Table 4. Comparison of image quality between CT-ASC and FLT-ASC The P-value is based on the McNemar test; P-value[§] is based on the marginal homogeneity test.

Supplemental Table 5. Comparison of diagnostic confidence between CT-ASC and FLT-ASC. The Pvalue is based on the McNemar test; P-value^{\$} is based on the marginal homogeneity test.

Supplemental Table 6. Comparison of artifact between CT-ASC and FLT-ASC. The P-value is based on the McNemar test; P-value^{\$} is based on the marginal homogeneity test.

Supplemental Figure 1. Neural network architecture implemented in the current study.

Supplemental Figure 2. Comparison between various scenarios using different quantitative metrics.

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