

DUAL: deep unsupervised simultaneous simulation and denoising for cryo-electron tomography

Xiangrui Zeng^{†,*,1}, Yizhe Ding^{†,2}, Yueqian Zhang³, Mostofa Rafid Uddin¹, Ali Dabouei¹ and Min Xu^{*,1}

Address: ¹Ray and Stephanie Lane Computational Biology Department, Carnegie Mellon University, Pittsburgh, PA, 15213, USA; ²Department of Statistics, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA, 16802, USA and ³School of Electrical and Electronic Engineering, Nanyang Technological University, 50 Nanyang Avenue, Singapore, 639798, Singapore

Email: Min Xu - mxu1@cs.cmu.edu

* Corresponding author; [†] Contributed equally

1 Abstract

2 Recent biotechnological developments in cryo-electron tomography allow direct visualization of
3 native sub-cellular structures with unprecedented details and provide essential information on
4 protein functions/dysfunctions. Denoising can enhance the visualization of protein structures and
5 distributions. Automatic annotation via data simulation can ameliorate the time-consuming manual
6 labeling of large-scale datasets. Here, we combine the two major cryo-ET tasks together in DUAL,
7 by a specific cyclic generative adversarial network with novel noise disentanglement. This enables
8 end-to-end unsupervised learning that requires no labeled data for training. The denoising branch
9 outperforms existing works and substantially improves downstream particle picking accuracy on
10 benchmark datasets. The simulation branch provides learning-based cryo-ET simulation for the
11 first time and generates synthetic tomograms indistinguishable from experimental ones. Through
12 comprehensive evaluations, we showcase the effectiveness of DUAL in detecting macromolecular
13 complexes across a wide range of molecular weights in experimental datasets. The versatility of
14 DUAL is expected to empower cryo-ET researchers by improving visual interpretability, enhancing
15 structural detection accuracy, expediting annotation processes, facilitating cross-domain model
16 adaptability, and compensating for missing wedge artifacts. Our work represents a significant
17 advancement in the unsupervised mining of protein structures in cryo-ET, offering a multifaceted
18 tool that facilitates cryo-ET research.

19

20 1 Introduction

21 Cellular cryo-electron tomography (cryo-ET) is a powerful 3D imaging technique that visualizes
22 sub-cellular structures at near-atomic resolution. Unlike single-particle cryo-EM, which isolates and
23 purifies the target protein structure through biochemical means, cryo-ET directly images the complex
24 sub-cellular structures in their native cytoplasm environment [1]. Given this unique advantage of
25 preserving their spatial organization *in situ*, cryo-ET has been extensively applied to the study of the
26 native structure, dynamic interaction, and spatial distribution of macromolecular complexes [2-4].
27 The 3D fine structures inside single cells provided by cryo-ET have potentially powerful applications
28 in medical diagnostics as the dysfunctions of cellular structures may appear before any clinical
29 symptoms [5-8]. Accordingly, interests in cryo-ET have been rapidly growing in the biomedical
30 research community in recent years [9].

31 Sophisticated computational data processing methods are necessary to achieve the ultimate goal of
32 visual proteomics: a complete structural description of the cell's native molecular landscape [10].
33 Since 2017, as a result of the rapid development of deep learning techniques, supervised learning
34 models have been proposed in cryo-ET for semantic segmentation [11,12], subtomogram classifi-
35 cation [13], and object detection [14]. Nevertheless, a large amount of ground truth training labels,
36 which mainly come from time-consuming annotation by a combination of traditional methods and
37 manual selection, is required to attain the superior performance of supervised learning models. Re-
38 searchers have tackled this new challenge by developing semi-supervised and unsupervised methods
39 for tomogram segmentation [15], tomogram denoising [16,17], subtomogram alignment [18,19], and
40 subtomogram clustering [20]. Despite being more sophisticated than supervised methods, unsuper-
41 vised methods do not require labeled training data so that the labeling effort and subjective biases
42 are considerably reduced. Consequently, with the fast development of unsupervised models in the
43 computer vision field, they are expected to be applied for more and more tasks in cryo-ET.

44 To address the issues of data annotation and processing cost in two related major cryo-ET tasks,
45 data simulation and denoising, we propose DUAL (Deep Unsupervised simultAneous denoising and

46 simuLation) to combine them together in a single unsupervised framework. We have systematically
47 evaluated DUAL on six datasets. Compared with popular denoising methods [16,21,22], DUAL
48 achieved the best performance on the SHREC 2021 benchmark dataset [23] and in improving the
49 particle picking accuracy on the *RELION* benchmark dataset [24]. For the tomogram simulation
50 task, DUAL generated synthetic tomograms with indistinguishable styles, noise levels, and missing
51 wedges to experimental tomograms. These realistic synthetic tomograms can be used to train seman-
52 tic segmentation neural network models. When predicting on experimental tomograms, membranes
53 and macromolecules of various molecular weights (from 560 to 3326 kDa), including ribosome, pro-
54 teasome, TRiC, ClpB, and rubisco, are successfully detected and validated by subsequent subtomog-
55 ram averaging. Furthermore, we have demonstrated other functionalities of DUAL: (1) DUAL can
56 convert the styles between experimental tomograms of different imaging sources, such as low-SNR
57 tomograms to high-SNR tomograms, for the purpose of noise reduction to desired levels, tomogram
58 simulation with natural packing models, and domain adaptation for neural network training; and (2)
59 DUAL can perform unsupervised learning based missing wedge compensation directly on the 3D re-
60 constructed tomograms for reducing resolution anisotropy. The tutorial, code, and demo models will
61 be available through the open-source Github software *AI Tom* [25] to provide easy and user-friendly
62 access to the cryo-ET community.

63 **2 Results**

64 **2.1 DUAL framework**

65 In cryo-ET, individual 2D projection images are collected under an electron microscope by tilting
66 the cellular specimen through a series of view angles. To prevent excessive electron beam dam-
67 age to subsequent imaging at different angles, researchers usually set a low electron dosage and a
68 limited tilt-angle range, resulting in the low Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR) and missing wedge effect
69 of reconstructed 3D tomograms [26]. Therefore, advanced data processing techniques are required
70 to assist researchers to interpret cryo-ET data both qualitatively and quantitatively. In this regard,
71 traditional geometric or statistical methods have been proposed in cryo-ET including 3D reconstruc-

72 tion [27,28], missing wedge compensation [29,30], noise reduction [31,32], target macromolecule
73 detection [33], membrane detection [34], subtomogram alignment [35,36], subtomogram classifi-
74 cation and averaging [37-39], structural variability analysis [40,41], and tomogram data simulation
75 [42,43].

76 Traditional geometric methods utilize pre-set rules and manually crafted features [44]. In contrast,
77 supervised learning models optimize their massive parameters automatically through the guidance
78 of training data labels. An important approach to reduce the dependency of deep learning models on
79 labeled training data is through cryo-tomographic data simulation. Synthetic tomograms have pre-
80 specified labels that can be used to test, benchmark, or tune relevant algorithms [45]. For example,
81 the robustness of an analysis algorithm can be tested through performing on synthetic datasets with
82 a range of imaging parameters such as spherical aberration, defocus, noise level, and missing wedge.
83 Existing simulation methods generally consist of a projection and reconstruction model following
84 a pre-processing packing model [46]. In the packing model, the structural density maps of target
85 structures, including the cellular ultrastructure and embedding ice layers, are packed together into a
86 3D structural density map (a.k.a. grand model) to mimic the crowded cellular environment. In the
87 projection and reconstruction model, the 3D structural density map is projected to 2D images and
88 re-projected back with parameters simulating the actual tomographic imaging and reconstruction
89 procedure. However, the existing algorithms [45-47] rely heavily on manually set parameters and
90 certain assumptions, such as Gaussian white noise, to add the imaging artifacts and noises. These
91 pre-defined factors and assumptions may produce unrealistic synthetic results. Utilizing the power
92 of deep learning, it would be beneficial to automatically learn the characteristics of experimental data
93 to simulate tomograms indistinguishable from experimental ones. With such realistically simulated
94 tomograms, deep learning models can be trained directly and applied effectively to experimental
95 data as a solution to the laborious training data annotation challenge.

96 A closely related cryo-ET task is denoising, which can be viewed as the inverse process of simula-
97 tion. In simulation, a noise-free structural density map is translated into a noisy tomogram whereas

98 in denoising, a noisy tomogram is translated into a noise-free structural density map. Due to the
99 low SNR of tomograms, denoising facilitates the visualization and biological interpretation as well
100 as downstream tasks such as particle picking [26], membrane detection [48], structural segmenta-
101 tion [49], and filament tracing [50]. Currently, there exist both traditional and deep learning based
102 methods for cryo-ET denoising. Traditional methods employ carefully designed mathematical or
103 statistical models, like wavelet-based filters [31] and Monte Carlo sampling [51], to enhance the
104 structural signal. Meanwhile, deep learning based methods avoid modeling the noise pattern explic-
105 itly. Supervised approach requires carefully prepared ground truth denoised version of tomograms by
106 averaging and aligning structures [52]. Unsupervised approaches have been proposed to learn from
107 2D projection images. *Topaz* [16] is trained with aligned and paired noisy 2D projection images.
108 *SC-Net* [17] learns 3D denoising from filtered subsets of 2D projection images. Yet the complicated
109 and time-consuming 3D reconstruction process may make this unsupervised approach less practi-
110 cal. So far, there is no unsupervised denoising approach to perform model training directly on 3D
111 tomograms.

112 Inspired by the *CycleGAN* model [53], we propose DUAL (Figure 1), an unpaired image-to-image
113 translation framework with a novel module to disentangle the noise latent factor from the underly-
114 ing structure. From an image-to-image translation perspective, the simulation task is to translate a
115 cryo-ET structural density map, generated from a packing model [23,54], into a synthetic tomogram
116 whereas the denoising task is to translate a tomogram, collected experimentally, into a realistic struc-
117 tural density map. We denote the sample space of the structural density maps as the clean domain
118 and the sample space of experimental tomograms as the noisy domain. Specifically, unlike most of
119 image-to-image translation tasks [55], this task is asymmetric as there exists a one-to-many corre-
120 spondence relationship between the clean domain and the noisy domain. A tomogram has only one
121 corresponding structural density map as denoising ground truth. In contrast, given a structural den-
122 sity map, there is an infinite number of possible corresponding synthetic tomograms with different
123 noises. Therefore, DUAL is designed to extract noise codes from the noisy domain and generate
124 random noise codes to create random synthetic noises.

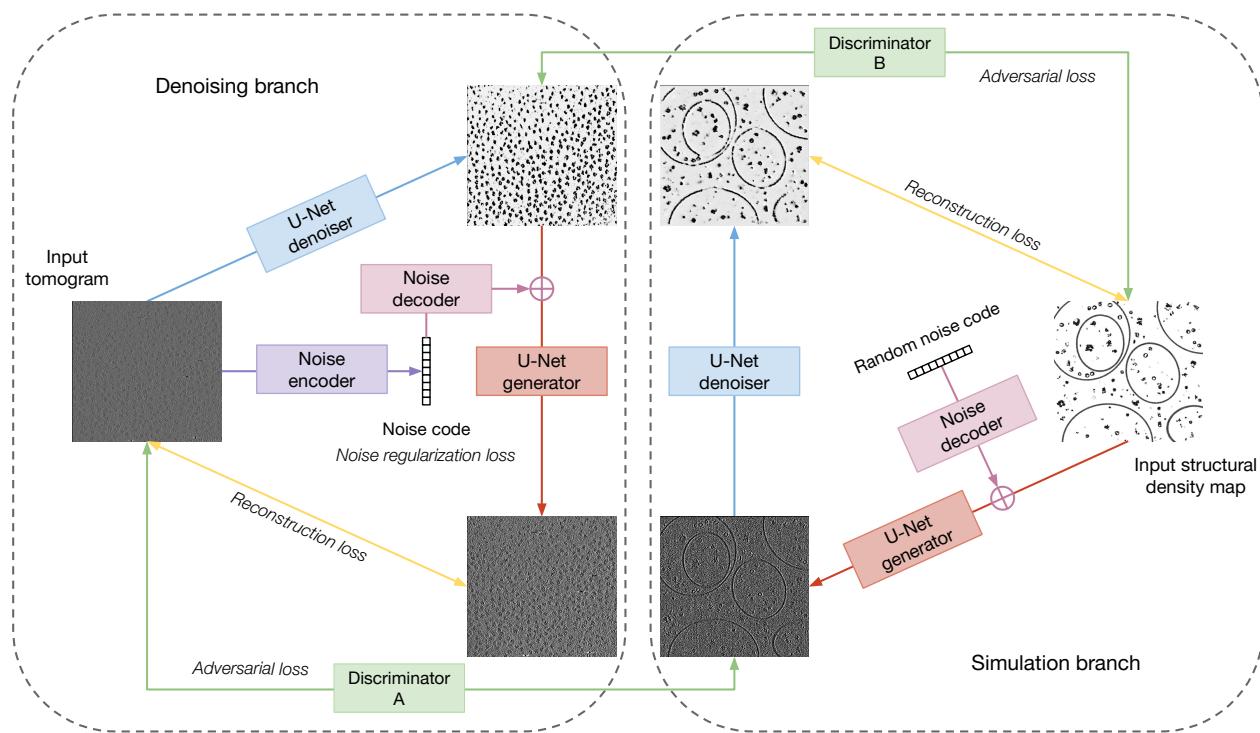


Figure 1: Conceptual workflow of DUAL. DUAL consists of six neural networks (detail architectures in supplementary note 1): U-Net denoiser, U-Net generator, noise encoder, noise decoder, and two discriminators. The inputs are a set of structural density maps from the clean domain and a set of tomograms from the noisy domain. We use two U-Nets [56] to translate images between the clean domain and the noisy domain. To address the one-to-many correspondence issue, we design a noise encoder to extract noise code from a noisy input and a noise decoder that could generate noise masks from noise codes. The noise decoder can take random noise codes to generate an infinite number of random noise masks for simulation. We employ discriminators [57] operating in both the spatial and the spectral space to learn the specific style of a domain in an adversarial fashion. In each epoch, the discriminators are trained to distinguish between real and fake images of a domain whereas the U-Net generators are trained with adversarial loss functions to “fool” the discriminators. In the simulation branch, the reconstruction loss function is used to preserve the structures. In the denoising branch, the reconstruction loss function and the noise regularization loss function are used together to correctly disentangle the noise pattern from structures. After training, the U-Net denoiser in the denoising branch can be deployed for tomogram denoising. Similarly, the U-Net generator and noise decoder in the simulation branch can be deployed for tomogram simulation.

125 **2.2 Tomogram denoising**

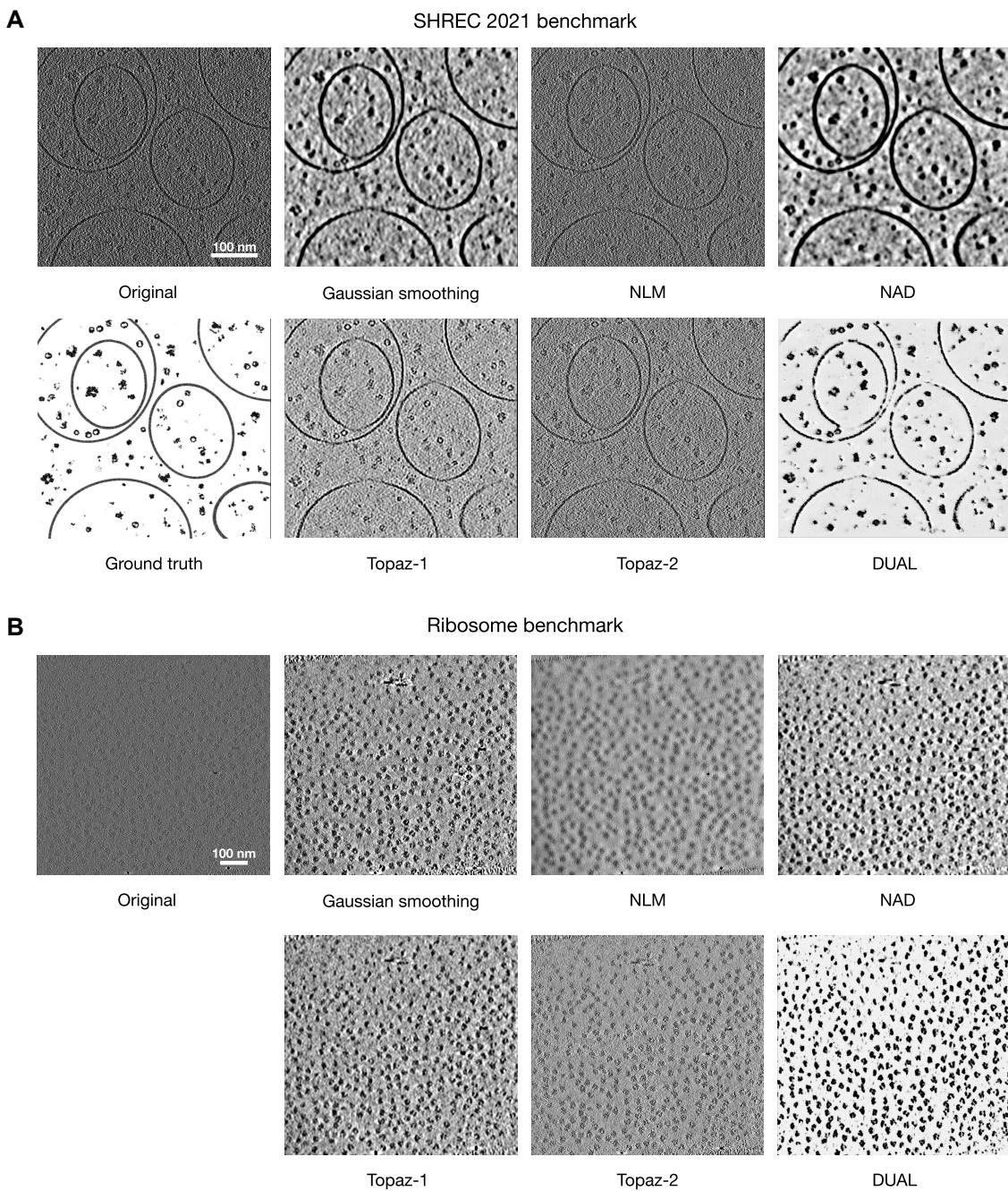


Figure 2: Tomogram denoising by DUAL and baseline methods. **A.** The original testing tomogram from the SHREC 2021 benchmark dataset, the grand model, and denoised versions by DUAL and four baseline methods. DUAL achieves visually cleaner results as indicated by the higher contrast between structure and background. The highest similarity between the DUAL denoised result and the ground truth evidences that DUAL provides the most effective noise reduction while preserving structural details. **B.** An example tomogram from the ribosome benchmark dataset and denoised versions by DUAL and four baseline methods. DUAL generates denoising results with the best contrast and visually clearest ribosome locations and shapes.

126 To evaluate the denoising performance of DUAL, we first applied it to the SHREC 2021 benchmark
127 dataset. After training on the training dataset consisting of unpaired images from the noisy domain
128 and the clean domain, the denoiser was applied to the testing tomogram (Figure 2A). We quan-
129 titatively evaluated DUAL and baselines (supplementary note 2) by measuring their Peak Signal-
130 to-Noise Ratio (PSNR) and Structural Similarity Index Measure (SSIM) to the ground truth grand
131 model. PSNR measures the ratio between the maximum power of structural signal and the power
132 of noise that affects the fidelity of the denoised representation. The higher the PSNR, the higher
133 the structural signal relative to noise. SSIM measures the preservation of structural information by
134 focusing on strongly inter-dependant pixels, such as the edge of an object, to assess the denoising
135 quality. SSIM ranges between 0 and 1. The higher the SSIM, the better the perceived structural
136 information. Table 1 presents the PSNR and SSIM of denoised versions in reference to the ground
137 truth. Compared to the tomogram without denoising (None), all methods showed some improve-
138 ments in PSNR or SSIM, confirming that noises are partially reduced by these methods. DUAL
139 achieves both the best SSIM and PSNR, confirming our qualitative observation that DUAL performs
140 the best in reducing noise while preserving structural information. It can be observed in Figure 2A
141 that NLM and Topaz-2 have relatively weaker noise reduction, which is reflected in their smaller
142 change in PSNR. NAD and DUAL have relatively stronger noise reduction, which is also reflected
143 in their larger improvements in PSNR. In cryo-ET, there is usually a trade-off between noise reduc-
144 tion and preservation of structural details, because both the noises and structural details exist mostly
145 as the high-frequency components of the spectral domain. When reducing the noise, fine structural
146 details may also be eliminated. SSIM is a more sophisticated metric which bases on three com-
147 parison functions of luminance, contrast, and structure in a small window size such as 7^3 . Without
148 denoising, the SSIM is measured as 0.011, DUAL has a much larger improvement to 0.568 whereas
149 all baselines have SSIM less than 0.1. Because the original tomogram, the ground truth, and all
150 the denoised versions are standardized by subtracting their mean and dividing by their standard de-
151 viation when computing the SSIM, there should be little difference in their luminance comparison
152 function. Therefore, the significant improvement in SSIM can be attributed to the better contrast

153 between the structure and background as well as the finer structural shapes in each small window
154 region.

Table 1: Quantitative denoising evaluation on the SHREC 2021 benchmark dataset

Methods	PSNR	SSIM
None	32.33	0.011
Gaussian smoothing	34.93	0.085
NAD	36.06	0.097
NLM	32.24	0.012
Topaz-1	34.48	0.057
Topaz-2	32.65	0.019
DUAL	37.01	0.568

155 We then evaluated the denoising performance of DUAL on the experimental ribosome benchmark
156 dataset (Figure 2B).

Table 2: Particle picking accuracy on denoised ribosome benchmark dataset. Each cell contains the mean and standard deviation of the corresponding statistic across seven tomograms.

Methods	Precision	Recall	F1
None	0.525 ± 0.098	0.645 ± 0.134	0.577 ± 0.110
Gaussian smoothing	0.535 ± 0.092	0.654 ± 0.125	0.586 ± 0.101
NAD	0.530 ± 0.092	0.648 ± 0.126	0.581 ± 0.102
NLM	0.453 ± 0.085	0.550 ± 0.120	0.495 ± 0.097
Topaz-1	0.476 ± 0.125	0.581 ± 0.122	0.521 ± 0.143
Topaz-2	0.513 ± 0.103	0.632 ± 0.147	0.564 ± 0.119
DUAL	0.641 ± 0.064	0.783 ± 0.044	0.702 ± 0.038

157 Unlike synthetic datasets, experimental datasets do not have the ground truth of structural density
158 maps for quantitative comparison. Therefore, we evaluated the denoising performance on experi-
159 mental datasets using indicators from downstream tasks. One important goal of cryo-ET denoising
160 is to improve the downstream particle picking accuracy. As better denoising generally leads to more
161 accurate particle picking, we utilized particle picking accuracy as the indicator of denoising per-
162 formance. Tomograms in the ribosome benchmark dataset contain isolated and purified 80S ribosome
163 complexes. The particle location ground truth has been provided by the authors through manual
164 picking [24]. We applied a popular template-free particle picking method, Difference of Gaussians
165 (DoG), to the tomograms and their denoised versions by each method. We controlled the hyper-
166 parameters to be the same in all experiments to pick the top 500 detections in each tomogram. Due

167 to the fact that the diameter of a yeast ribosome is around 28 nm, any DoG detection within 8 nm
168 distance of a ground truth particle location is considered an overlap and counted as a true positive.
169 The results are summarized in Table 2. The precision measures the percentage of DoG detections
170 that overlaps with the ground truth locations. The recall measures the percentage of ground truth
171 locations that have DoG detections overlapping with them. The F1 score is the harmonic mean
172 of precision and recall to provide a balance between them. DUAL had significant improvement in
173 particle picking precision, recall, and F1 score over baseline methods. Applying DoG directly to
174 the tomograms without denoising resulted in an average F1 score of 0.577. Applying DoG on tomo-
175 grams denoised by baseline methods results in average F1 scores ranging from 0.495 to 0.586, which
176 shows only marginal improvements. The F1 score after DUAL denoising is significantly improved
177 to 0.702. The standard deviations in the precision, recall, and F1 score of DUAL are also lower
178 than those of baseline methods, suggesting that the denoising performance of DUAL is stable and
179 consistent in improving the particle picking results across different tomograms. The deep learning
180 based *Topaz* model [16] is a Noise2Noise framework that trains on paired observations to minimize
181 the L2 reconstruction error across them. Models based on the Noise2Noise framework [58] require
182 carefully prepared paired observations for training, whereas DUAL only requires samples from an
183 unpaired clean domain such as publicly available structural density maps. The outperformance of
184 DUAL to Topaz is likely due to the adversarial training of DUAL that effectively recognizes macro-
185 molecular structures and hence successfully enhances the signal of ribosomes in this dataset.

186 **2.3 Tomogram simulation**

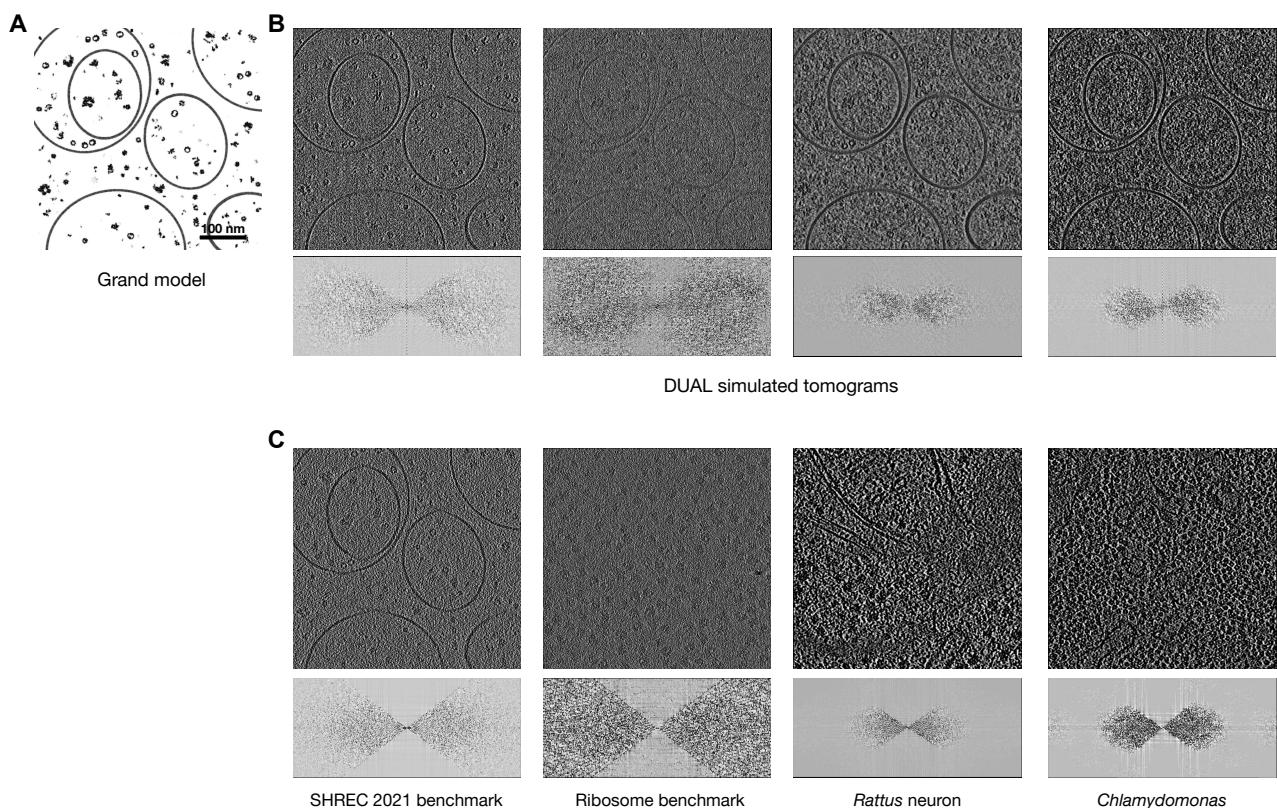


Figure 3: Tomogram simulation by DUAL. **A.** The grand model from the SHREC 2021 benchmark dataset. **B.** Synthetic tomograms simulated by DUAL learning from the cryo-tomographic styles of SHREC 2021 benchmark dataset, ribosome benchmark dataset, *Rattus* neuron dataset, and *Chlamydomonas* pyrenoid dataset. The Fourier space representations showing missing wedge effects are visualized below each tomogram. **C.** Original tomograms from corresponding dataset. The synthetic tomograms have visually similar noise levels and noise patterns to their corresponding experimental tomograms. The similar noise level and pattern can also be validated by the visualization of the spectral representation. The high-frequency components are usually dominated by noises. For example, the ribosome benchmark has a higher level of noise and therefore more high-frequency signals. The synthetic tomogram trained using the ribosome benchmark dataset also has more high-frequency components. In addition, the spectral representations show that DUAL has successfully learned the missing wedge patterns of different datasets.

187 As a multi-task model, the simulation branch of DUAL is equally important as the denoising branch.
188 Experimental tomograms are usually characterized by their low SNRs and missing wedge effects. To
189 investigate whether the noise level and missing wedge effects are properly learned, we visualize in
190 Figure 3B the synthetic tomograms simulated using the DUAL U-Net generators and noise decoders
191 trained on the four datasets. Existing cryo-ET simulation works [23,45] assume Gaussian white
192 noise and require the SNR and tilt-angle range to be set manually. DUAL is the first cryo-ET

193 simulation framework that can automatically learn the noise pattern, noise level, and missing wedge
194 effect through adversarial training to provide the most realistic synthetic results.

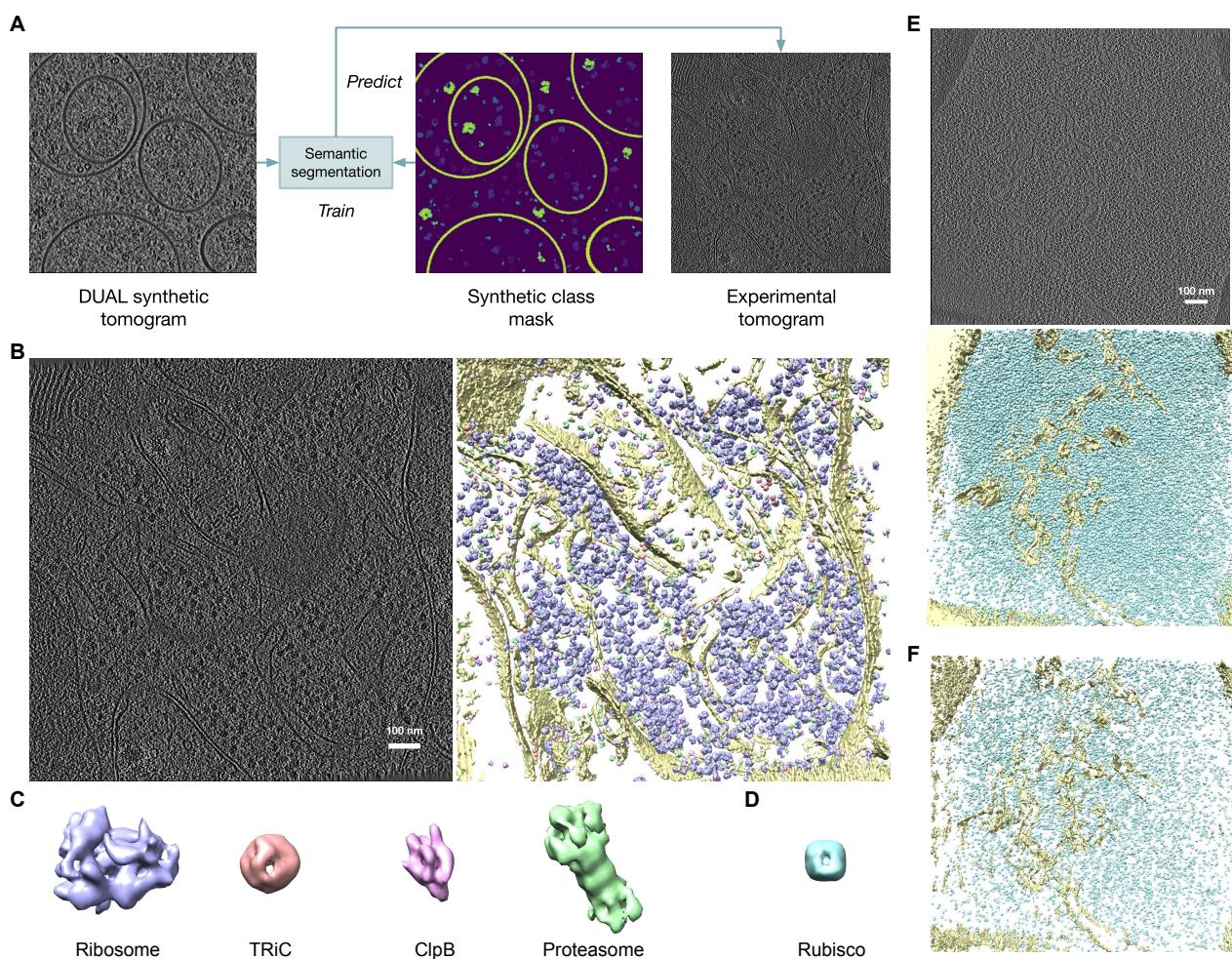


Figure 4: DUAL simulation-based transfer learning approach for semantic segmentation on experimental tomograms. **A.** Workflow: we first generated synthetic tomograms by applying the U-Net generators and noise decoders in DUAL to the grand models in the SHREC 2021 benchmark dataset. The DUAL models were trained using the *Rattus* neuron dataset and the *Chlamydomonas* pyrenoid dataset. Next, semantic segmentation neural network models, employing the network proposed in *Deepfinder* [11], were trained using the DUAL synthetic tomograms and segmentation ground truth masks in the SHREC 2021 benchmark dataset. Then the trained semantic segmentation neural network models were applied to the *Rattus* neuron dataset and the *Chlamydomonas* pyrenoid dataset, respectively. **B.** An example tomogram from the *Rattus* neuron dataset and corresponding iso-surface representation of 3D semantic segmentation of membrane structure (yellow), ribosome (indigo), TRiC (red), ClpB (pink), and 26S proteasome (green). **C.** Subtomogram averages of detected macromolecular complexes. **D.** Subtomogram average of detected rubisco structure. **E.** The tomogram from the *Chlamydomonas* pyrenoid dataset and corresponding iso-surface representation of 3D semantic segmentation of membrane structure (yellow) and rubisco (blue). **F.** 3D semantic segmentation on the *Chlamydomonas* pyrenoid dataset with neural network model trained on the SHREC 2021 benchmark tomograms.

195 Similar to the denoising evaluation, we measure the downstream task performance as an indicator of
196 the simulation performance. A major goal of realistically simulated tomograms is to provide training
197 data with readily available pre-specified labels for neural network training. The trained models can
198 then be applied to predict on experimental tomograms as a transfer learning approach to reduce the
199 training data annotation burden. Generally, the more similar the synthetic data to the experimental
200 data, the better the prediction results are.

201 Since there are 16 semantic classes in the SHREC 2021 benchmark dataset, we select classes with
202 significant abundance for visualization in Figure 4 and further subtomogram averaging analysis (sup-
203 plementary Figure S3-S7). Through manual selection and subtomogram classification, the authors
204 of the *Rattus* neuron dataset have discovered and recovered three macromolecular complexes: ri-
205 bosome, TRiC/CCT chaperonin, and 26S proteasome. Based on their observations, the authors
206 have concluded that neuronal poly-Gly-Ala aggregates recruit 26S proteasomes and exclude other
207 large macromolecular complexes such as ribosomes and TRiC/CCT chaperonins [59]. Our DUAL
208 simulation-based transfer learning semantic segmentation approach successfully segmented out the
209 membrane structure and detected four macromolecular complexes. We not only validated the origi-
210 nal authors' detection of ribosome, TRiC/CCT chaperonin, and 26S proteasome, but also detected a
211 new ClpB-like structure. ClpB (Caseinolytic peptidase B protein homolog) is a AAA ATPase chap-
212 erone that exists in the mitochondria. As shown in Figure 4B, the majority of ClpB-like structures
213 (pink) are detected inside the mitochondria. Furthermore, the detected macromolecular structures are
214 confirmed by subtomogram averaging with resolution $< 32\text{\AA}$ for effective recognition. The authors
215 of the *Chlamydomonas* pyrenoid dataset [11] have developed a supervised semantic segmentation
216 approach with manually prepared data annotation for training to detect rubisco holoenzymes. They
217 have also manually segmented the pyrenoid tubule membranes. Using our DUAL simulation-based
218 transfer learning approach, the pyrenoid tubule membranes and rubisco holoenzymes can be au-
219 tomatically segmented out. In comparison, if we train the semantic segmentation neural network
220 model using the synthetic tomograms provided in the SHREC 2021 benchmark dataset, the mem-
brane structure can be segmented out relatively successfully but most of the rubisco holoenzymes

222 were misclassified to other macromolecular classes (Figure 4F). This demonstrates that DUAL gen-
223 erated better synthetic tomograms than traditional cryo-ET simulation approaches with manually set
224 imaging parameters and additive Gaussian white noise. The realistic synthetic tomograms can be
225 used to effectively facilitate downstream tasks such as the training of neural network models.

226 **2.4 Clean domain construction**

227 In the experiments above, we used the grand models (noise-free 3D structural density maps) pro-
228 vided in the SHERC 2021 benchmark dataset to construct the clean domain. We note that it is also
229 possible to construct a clean domain from experimental tomograms with relatively high SNR. In
230 this way, the low-SNR experimental tomograms in the noisy domain can be converted to high-SNR
231 representations indistinguishable from the clean domain experimental tomograms, and *vice versa*.
232 We conduct experiments using the low-SNR tomograms from the ribosome benchmark dataset as
233 the noisy domain and the high-SNR tomograms from the *Chlamydomonas* chloroplast dataset and
234 the SARS-CoV-2 infection dataset as two clean domains.

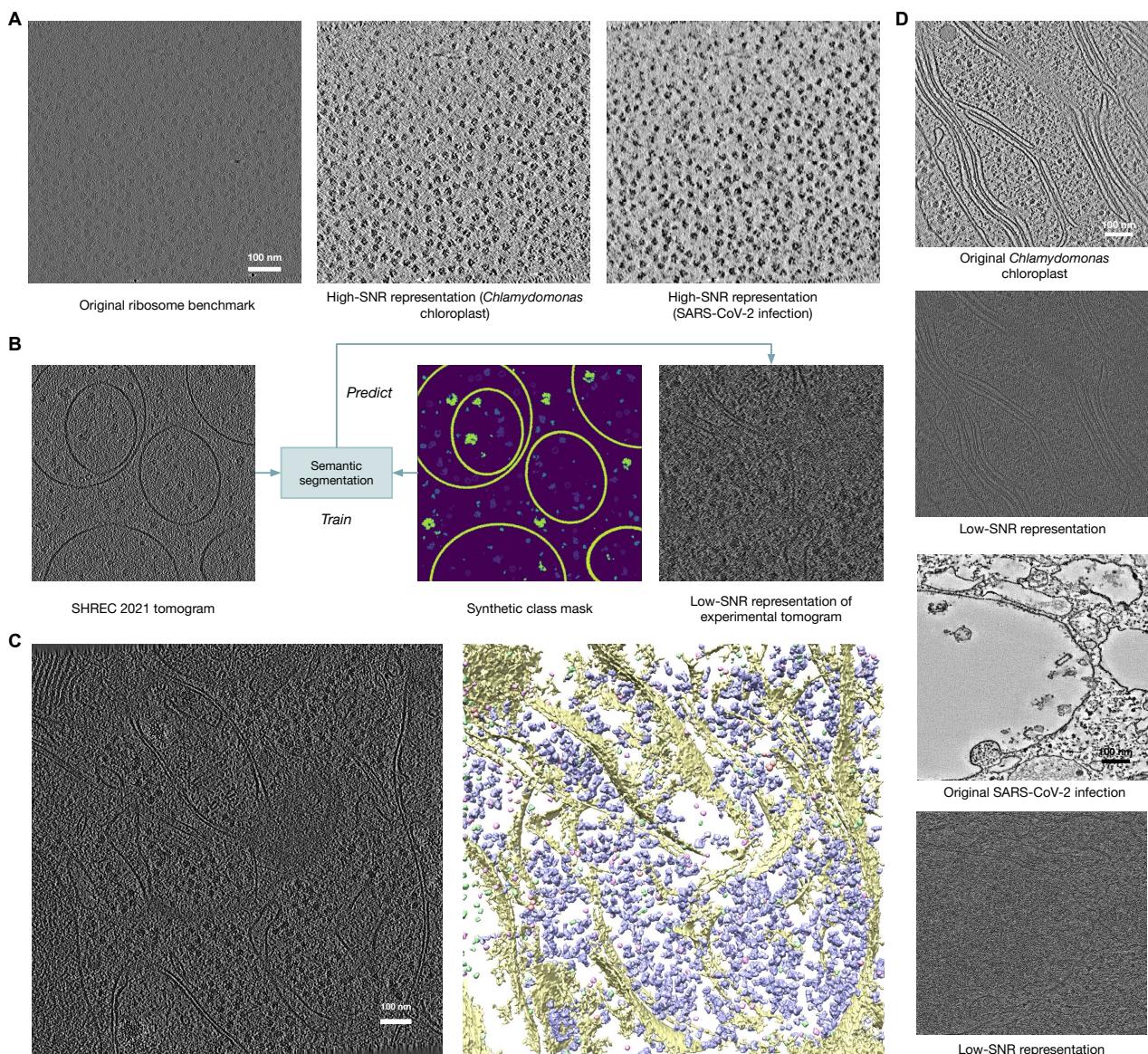


Figure 5: Clean domain constructed by high-SNR experimental tomograms. **A.** An example tomogram from the ribosome benchmark dataset and its high-SNR representations converted using DUAL U-Net denoiser. **B.** DUAL domain adaptation transfer learning approach for semantic segmentation on experimental tomograms. **C.** The example tomogram from the *Rattus* neuron dataset and corresponding iso-surface representation of 3D semantic segmentation. **D.** Example tomograms from the *Chlamydomonas* chloroplast dataset and SARS-CoV-2 infection dataset and their corresponding low-SNR representations converted using DUAL U-Net generator and noise decoder. DUAL can effectively convert the noisy tomogram from the ribosome benchmark dataset to its high-SNR representations and convert the relatively clean tomograms to their low-SNR representations. Both the high-SNR and low-SNR representations are visually similar to the style of their corresponding experimental tomograms. Therefore, desired noise reduction levels can be achieved through the choice of high-SNR experimental datasets for the clean domain.

235 Constructing the clean domain with high-SNR experimental tomograms comes with two potential

236 advantages. First, in the conventional simulation approach, grand models are generated by pack-
237 ing 3D structural densities together with manually set distributions. For example, the 13 types of
238 macromolecular complexes in the SHREC 2021 benchmark dataset [23] are manually chosen and
239 assumed to exhibit similar abundance and be distributed randomly according to 3D uniform dis-
240 tributions. Such packing models differ from the actual structural distributions and interactions in
241 experimental data. Instead, if we simulate synthetic tomograms by generating low-SNR representa-
242 tions of high-SNR experimental tomograms, the natural structural packing in high-SNR tomograms
243 will provide biologically plausible spatial organizations of structures. Second, this enables another
244 potential learning-based semantic segmentation approach. If a set of experimental tomograms have
245 available segmentation masks (preferably high-SNR ones as they are easily hand-segmented or ones
246 obtained with fluorescence labeling through cryo-CLEM [60]), neural network models can be trained
247 on this dataset. Then, another experimental dataset can be adapted to the high/low-SNR domain us-
248 ing DUAL and segmented using the trained semantic segmentation neural network model. As shown
249 in Figure 5, we converted the experimental tomogram from the *Rattus* neuron dataset to its low-SNR
250 representation using the tomograms in the SHREC 2021 benchmark dataset to construct the noisy
251 domain. Then, the semantic segmentation neural network trained on the SHREC 2021 benchmark
252 dataset was applied to the low-SNR representation of that experimental tomogram. We obtained
253 similar semantic segmentation results (Figure 5C) to the one shown in Figure 4B. We note that the
254 semantic segmentation of macromolecular complexes in Figure 5C is visually less clear compared
255 to that of Figure 4B. This is likely due to the structural information loss during the conversion as
256 the neural network is applied directly to the experimental tomogram in the DUAL simulation-based
257 approach whereas the neural network is applied to the converted experimental tomogram in this
258 domain adaptation approach. Therefore, the domain adaptation approach may be a sub-optimal
259 transfer learning solution to cryo-ET semantic segmentation compared to the simulation-based ap-
260 proach. Nevertheless, the DUAL domain adaptation approach has the advantage of being more
261 efficient. Only one semantic segmentation neural network needs to be kept rather than training a
262 separate network for each synthetic dataset in the simulation-based approach. In brief, DUAL is es-

263 essentially a flexible framework that can adapt diverse modalities for different biological meaningful
264 functionalities.

265 **2.5 Missing wedge compensation**

266 Due to increases in effective thickness of the imaging sample at higher tilt angles, the tilt-angle range
267 is typically limited to $\pm 60^\circ$ to prevent excessive radiation damage. This will result in the missing
268 wedge effect which causes severe artifacts in the reconstructed tomogram such as distortion and
269 elongation of sub-cellular structures [30]. The missing wedge effect hinders visual interpretation
270 and subtomogram averaging, which is key to the analysis of macromolecular structures and spa-
271 tial organizations *in situ*. Missing wedge compensation is a very challenging task in cryo-ET as the
272 missing information in the spectral domain needs to be imputed. Existing works [29,30,61] proposed
273 to compensate the missing wedge through *priori* assumptions during 3D reconstruction. A recent
274 work, IsoNet [62], has pointed out the limitation of these existing works and proposed an unsuper-
275 vised learning-based method to perform missing wedge compensation directly on 3D reconstructed
276 tomograms.

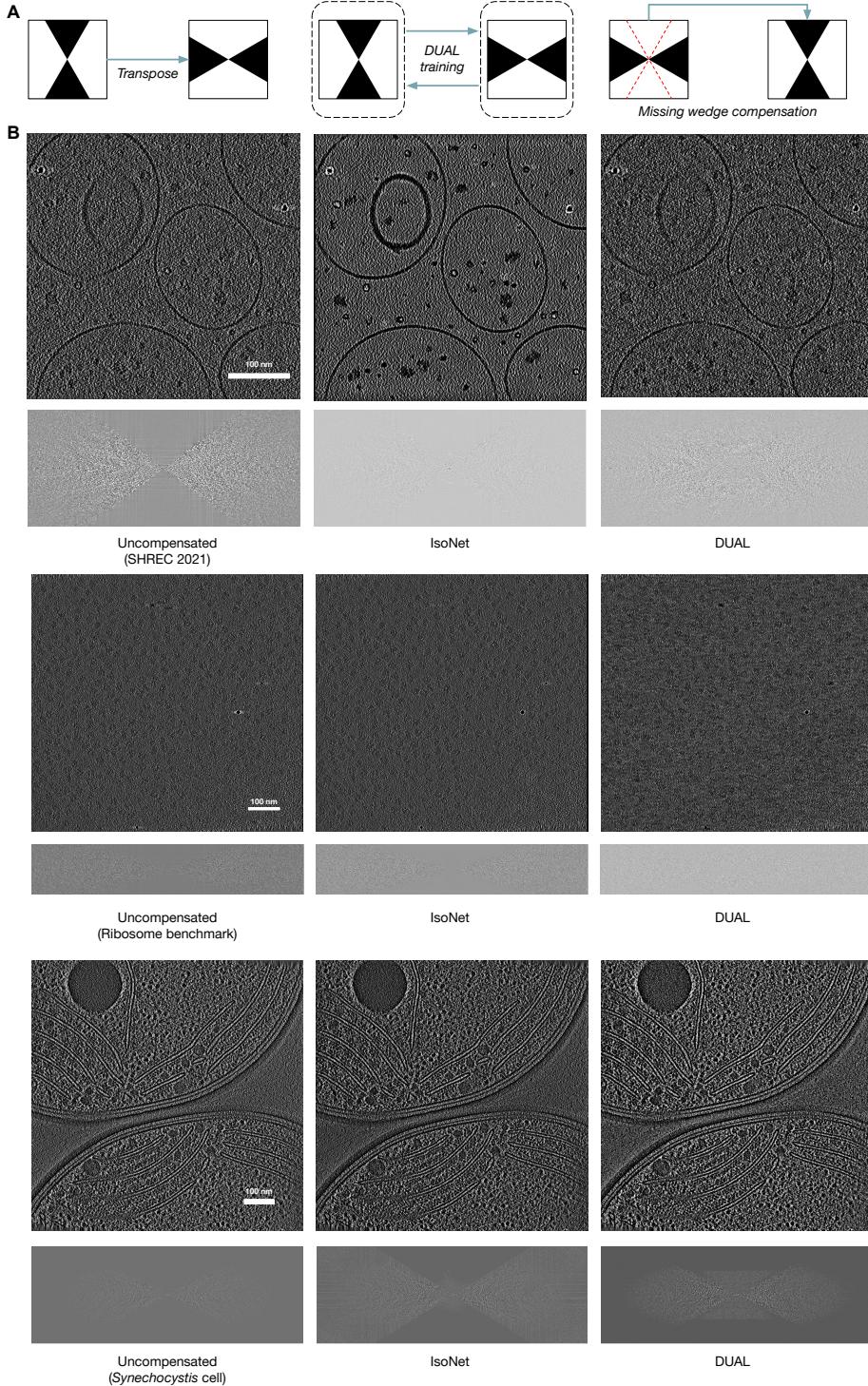


Figure 6: Missing wedge compensation using DUAL. **A.** We represent each tomogram as a mask of observed signals in the Fourier space and illustrate the workflow. Given a set of tomograms, for example, with tilt-angle range $\pm 60^\circ$, the y-axis as the tilt-axis and the z-axis as the light axis, we could construct one domain using the original tomograms. Then, we could transpose the tomograms to construct another domain such that the y-axis remains the tilt axis and the x-axis becomes the light axis. The missing cone regions in the Fourier space of the two domains are non-overlapping. After unpaired image-to-image translation between these two domains using DUAL, the missing wedge effect in the original tomograms can be compensated by the information from the translated domain. **B.** Performance of DUAL and IsoNet [62] on three datasets.

277 Here, we show that the DUAL framework can be extended according to Figure 6A to perform miss-
278 ing wedge compensation directly on 3D reconstructed tomograms. We evaluated the performance of
279 missing wedge compensation on the low-SNR ribosome benchmark dataset. As shown in Figure 6B,
280 the missing cone region is clearly visible in uncompensated tomograms. Comparatively, the high-
281 frequency region of the missing cone regions are filled more by DUAL than IsoNet. Since there is
282 no ground truth for the missing information, to quantitatively evaluate the performance of the two
283 methods, we first compensated the missing wedge ($\pm 60^\circ$ along the z light-axis) on a tomogram by
284 both methods. Then, we artificially created a non-overlapping missing wedge along the x light-axis
285 by masking out the information not in the $\pm 60^\circ$ tilt-angle range from the Fourier space. On the
286 tomogram with the artificial missing wedge, we performed missing wedge compensation again by
287 each method. The compensated information can be quantitatively compared with the ground truth
288 that was masked out.

Table 3: Missing wedge compensation performance on three demo datasets. Each cell contains the PSNR and SSIM as reconstruction similarity measure. We note that since each method was performed twice for each tomogram in our evaluation, the results are not indicative for a one-time performance.

	SHREC 2021	Ribosome benchmark	<i>Synechocystis</i> cell
IsoNet	33.27, 0.108	37.99, 0.118	29.40, 0.054
DUAL	33.63, 0.147	35.97, 0.146	28.89, 0.043

289 As shown in Table 3, both methods achieved similar performance. Since DUAL has more high-
290 frequency information compensated, it can be potentially used to complement IsoNet in missing
291 wedge compensation. Consequently, missing wedge compensation using DUAL can facilitate the
292 systematic analysis of cryo-ET data with improved imaging limits for biological discoveries *in*
293 *situ*.

294 3 Discussion

295 Cryo-electron tomography (cryo-ET) stands as a crucial method for precisely visualizing native sub-
296 cellular structures at high resolution, offering immense potential that can be harnessed through ad-
297 vanced data processing techniques. However, several bottlenecks in cryo-ET data analysis and inter-

298 pretraget persist. The low signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) limits the ability to identify protein structures
299 accurately and infer their functions or dysfunctions. Algorithms less robust to noise often struggle
300 with the highly noisy nature of cryo-ET data. Additionally, the vast amount of three-dimensional
301 data imposes high time costs on researchers for manual assessments and annotations, hindering
302 quantitative evaluations. Deep learning approaches, while providing high-throughput automatic an-
303 notation, still require annotated data for effective model training.

304 This paper introduces DUAL, an innovative end-to-end unsupervised deep learning framework that
305 simultaneously addresses two critical challenges in cryo-ET: denoising and data simulation. Lever-
306 aging a cyclic generative adversarial network with noise disentanglement, DUAL establishes an
307 effective framework with unpaired training criteria. This framework translates between a noisy
308 domain, comprising low-SNR tomograms, and a clean domain consisting of noise-free structural
309 density maps (or high-SNR tomograms). Notably, DUAL achieves unsupervised cryo-ET denoising
310 without relying on the sophisticated use of 2D projection images, marking a significant advancement.
311 Simultaneously, it pioneers learning-based cryo-ET data simulation, generating synthetic tomograms
312 with styles indistinguishable from experimental ones.

313 Our evaluation on the SHREC 2021 benchmark dataset showcases that the denoising branch of
314 DUAL outperforms popular cryo-ET denoising methods, as evidenced by both peak signal-to-noise
315 ratio and structural similarity index metrics. This noise reduction capability significantly enhances
316 downstream tasks such as particle picking. The simulation branch of DUAL autonomously learns
317 noise characteristics and missing wedge effects of experimental tomograms, producing highly re-
318 alistic synthetic cryo-ET data. Importantly, this data can be efficiently employed without manual
319 annotation to train neural network models for tasks like semantic segmentation, providing biologi-
320 cally valid results.

321 However, DUAL has its limitations. The reliance of the simulation branch on a pre-processing
322 packing model introduces potential unnatural structural distributions, overlooking dynamic protein
323 interactions. This limitation can be mitigated through the adoption of data-driven packing models

324 or constructing the clean domain from high-SNR experimental tomograms with natural packing.
325 Another limitation pertains to the level of noise reduction, as controlling noise reduction to preserve
326 fine structural details remains a challenge. While the use of higher-SNR experimental data in DUAL
327 partially addresses this, future work could focus on developing unsupervised learning-based cryo-ET
328 denoising models with direct control over the level of denoising.

329 In summary, DUAL is a practical fully unsupervised multi-task learning framework, empowering
330 cryo-ET researchers in various aspects. It enhances the visualization and annotation of sub-cellular
331 structures, aids in accurate structure segmentation and template matching, benchmarks algorithms
332 using simulated data, facilitates neural network model training using realistically generated synthetic
333 data, verifies biological findings on low-SNR data by converting to high-SNR representations, and
334 simplifies the cryo-ET imaging process. DUAL, characterized by its efficiency, completes training
335 in only a few hours with GPU support, providing a potent alternative to complement existing cryo-
336 ET data analysis approaches. By offering a powerful suite of functionalities, DUAL opens new
337 opportunities for important discoveries in the structural biology community.

338 Methods

339 Model formulation

340 DUAL achieves unpaired/unsupervised training by adversarial learning. In paired image-to-image
341 translation training, for each image, the ground truth translation target image is required for learning
342 their correspondence relationship [52]. In comparison, unpaired image inputs from the two domains
343 are sufficient in the unpaired/unsupervised setting. While the availability of paired tomogram and
344 structural density map datasets is limiting supervised learning models from being widely adopted,
345 unpaired training can facilitate denoising and simulating tomograms by focusing on the characteris-
346 tics of the two domains rather than two paired images in order to create more generalizable models.
347 Besides, the introduction of the noise disentanglement module enables DUAL to disentangle out and

348 learn the noise pattern separately from structures, so as to provide more realistic synthetic data for
349 downstream tasks.

350 Given a set of experimental tomograms sampled from the noisy domain $t_r \in T_r$ and noise-free struc-
351 tural density maps sampled from the clean domain $v_r \in V_r$, the DUAL framework learns to denoise
352 the experimental tomograms t_r to the structural density map level $v_f \in V_f$ and to simulate synthetic
353 tomograms $t_f \in T_f$ from V_r . We assume there are two types of noises in the simulation branch: ran-
354 dom non-structural noises and structure-related noises such as missing wedge effect, defocus, and
355 spherical aberration. The cyclic structure of DUAL consists of a denoising branch with denoiser
356 D_n and a simulation branch with generators G_s to generate structural noise and G_n to generate non-
357 structural noise. The loss functions ensure that the generated synthetic tomograms (noisy domain)
358 T_f and structural density maps (clean domain) V_f contain the essential structural information and be
359 indiscriminable from real ones. Now, we introduce the denoising branch, the simulation branch, and
360 the loss functions of DUAL in greater detail.

361 **Denoising branch**

362 The denoising branch includes a denoiser D_n to translate an experimental tomogram to a noise-free
363 structural density map. When applied to an experimental tomogram t_r , the denoiser outputs fake
364 structural density map: $v_f = D_n(t_r)$. When applied to fake tomograms t_f generated in the training
365 process, the denoiser outputs $\hat{v}_r = D_n(t_f)$, to reconstruct the input real density map v_r .

366 **Simulation branch**

367 The simulation branch includes two generators G_s and G_n and a noise encoder E to translate a noise-
368 free structural density map to a noisy synthetic tomogram. When applied to a real structural density
369 map v_r , we first generate non-structural noise to distort v_r . The non-structural noise is defined as
370 purely random noises not related to the underlying structure. The non-structural noise $G_n(z)$ is
371 generated by generator G_n , where z is a random noise code sampled from a multivariate Gaussian
372 distribution $N(0, I_K)$. We note that because of the highly non-linear nature of neural network G_n , the

373 output non-structural noise G_n is not necessarily Gaussian. Assuming that the non-structural noises
374 are independent for different voxels, we randomly permute (denoted by P) the non-structural noise
375 mask generated by G_n . Then, the synthetic tomogram is generated using the structural noise decoder
376 G_s :

377
$$t_f = G_s(v_r + P \circ G_n(z)). \quad (1)$$

378

379 When applied to fake structural density maps v_f generated in the training process, we first need to
380 learn the noise pattern in the input experimental tomograms t_r in order to reconstruct it. This is
381 done by the encoder E . With the learned noise code $E(t_r)$, we apply G_n and G_s in the same way to
382 reconstruct t_r :

383
$$\hat{t}_r = G_s(v_f + G_n(E(t_r))). \quad (2)$$

384

385 **Loss functions**

386 DUAL is trained with three loss functions with different purposes. The reconstruction loss function
387 ensures that the essential structural information is preserved in both branches and the noise pattern
388 is properly learned from experimental tomogram t_r . The adversarial loss function ensures that the
389 generated v_f and t_f are indiscriminable from real ones t_r and v_r in style, respectively. The noise
390 code regularization loss function ensures that the extracted noise code from t_r follows a standard
391 multivariate Gaussian distribution. The overall loss function is a linear combination of the three
392 types of loss functions with weight coefficients λ s:

393
$$L = \lambda_1 L^{rec} + \lambda_2 L_G^{adv} + \lambda_3 L^{KL}. \quad (3)$$

394

395 Reconstruction loss

396 The main idea behind the reconstruction loss function is that if the essential structural features are
397 well-preserved by the simulation branch, the denoising branch can successfully bring back v_r from
398 t_f . Similarly, if the essential structural features are well-preserved by the denoising branch and the
399 noise pattern is properly encoded by the noise code z , the simulation branch can successfully bring
400 back t_r from v_f and z .

401 To enforce the denoiser Dn to learn how to remove non-structural and structural noise from experi-
402 mental tomograms, we minimize the difference between v_r and \hat{v}_r , so as to maximize the consistency
403 between real and reconstructed structural density maps. Specifically, we choose the mean squared
404 error and Pearson's correlation coefficient as the measure of the difference between v_r and \hat{v}_r . The
405 reconstruction loss function for density maps is defined as:

$$406 \quad 407 \quad L_v^{rec} = \log(\|v_r - \hat{v}_r\|_2^2) + \log(1 - \frac{cov(v_r, \hat{v}_r)}{\sigma_{v_r} \sigma_{\hat{v}_r}}), \quad (4)$$

408 where $cov()$ is the covariance function and σ denotes the standard deviation, to minimize the Eu-
409 clidean distance and maximize the correlation.

410 Similarly, for the simulation branch, we minimize the ℓ_2 loss and maximize the correlation between
411 experimental tomogram v_r and the reconstructed one \hat{v}_r . It is expected that the encoder E can learn
412 to extract and encode non-structural noise information effectively. Therefore, when the noise code
413 extracted from v_r is decoded and added back in the simulation branch, the \hat{v}_r is expected to recon-
414 struct v_r with the correct noise pattern. The reconstruction loss function for tomograms is defined
415 as:

$$416 \quad 417 \quad L_t^{rec} = \log(\|t_r - \hat{t}_r\|_2^2) + \log(1 - \frac{cov(t_r, \hat{t}_r)}{\sigma_{t_r} \sigma_{\hat{t}_r}}). \quad (5)$$

418 We combine them with equal weights to get the overall reconstruction loss function: $L^{rec} = L_v^{rec} +$
419 L_t^{rec} .

420 **Adversarial loss**

421 In order to generate fake images t_f and v_f indistinguishable from real ones t_r and v_r , we train dis-
422 criminator to discriminate them and then train generators G_s and G_n , encoder E , and denoiser Dn
423 to minimize the adversarial loss function [57] from the discriminators. Because we do not have the
424 corresponding ground truth for v_f and t_f , we introduce discriminators and adversarial loss functions
425 to evaluate their similarity to v_r and t_f in style. To guide the discriminator for the noisy domain D_t to
426 assign higher scores to t_r and lower scores to t_f , we define the adversarial loss function for training
427 D_t as:

428
$$L_t^{adv} = -\log(1 - D_t(t_f)) - \log(D_t(t_r)). \quad (6)$$

429

430 Similarly, the adversarial loss function for training the discriminator for the noisy domain D_v is
431 defined as:

432
$$L_v^{adv} = -\log(1 - D_v(v_f)) - \log(D_v(v_r)). \quad (7)$$

433

434 The combined loss function for training the discriminators is: $L_D^{adv} = L_t^{adv} + L_v^{adv}$.

435 After training the discriminators to classify real and fake images in each domain, we utilize them
436 to improve the quality of t_f and v_f from generators and denoiser. To generate indistinguishable
437 fake images, it is expected to increase the scores of t_f and v_f assigned by the discriminators. As a
438 result, the adversarial loss function for training generators G_s and G_n , encoder E , and denoiser Dn
439 is defined as:

440
$$L_G^{adv} = -\log(D_t(t_f)) - \log(D_v(v_f)). \quad (8)$$

441

442 In each training iteration, the L_D^{adv} and L_G^{adv} are optimized in an alternative manner.

443 **Noise code regularization loss**

444 There are two sources of noise codes: when reconstructing \hat{t}_r , the noise code comes from encoder
445 $E(v_r)$; while generating synthetic tomogram t_f , we sample the noise code from a standard multi-
446 variate Gaussian distribution $N(0, I_K)$. As the non-structural noise is generated from the noise code,
447 generator G_n may produce non-structural noises with different patterns for these two heterogeneous
448 sources of noise codes. To overcome this issue, we introduce a noise code regularization loss func-
449 tion that aims to align the distributions of these two sources of noise codes.

450 To unify them, we enforce the noise codes from the encoder to follow a standard multivariate Gaus-
451 sian distribution $N(0, I_K)$. The Kullback–Leibler divergence loss on the two distributions is defined
452 as:

$$453 \quad L^{KL} = \text{KL}(N(0, I_K) \| N(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\Sigma})), \quad \hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{|V_r|} \sum_{v_r \in V_r} E(v_r), \quad \hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{|V_r| - 1} \sum_{v_r \in V_r} (E(v_r) - \hat{\mu})(E(v_r) - \hat{\mu})^\top, \quad (9)$$

454

455 where $\hat{\mu}$ and $\hat{\Sigma}$ are estimated mean and covariance matrix from $E(V_r)$, extracted noise code from a
456 training batch of samples from the noisy domain.

457 **Denoising quantitative measures**

458 To evaluate the denoising performance, we choose two criteria, namely Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio
459 (PSNR) and Structural Similarity Index Measure (SSIM). For a reconstructed image \hat{x} and its ground
460 truth x , PSNR is defined based on mean squared error [63]:

$$461 \quad \text{PSNR}(x, \hat{x}) = 10 \cdot \log_{10} \frac{2^B - 1}{\|x - \hat{x}\|_2^2}, \quad (10)$$

462

463 where B represents the number of bits for each pixel to be stored.

464 SSIM [64] is another important criterion for measuring imaging restoration quality. It is defined
465 as:

466

$$467 \text{SSIM}(x, \hat{x}) = \frac{(2\mu_x\mu_{\hat{x}} + c_1)(2\sigma_{x\hat{x}} + c_2)}{(\mu_x^2 + \mu_{\hat{x}}^2 + c_1)(\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_{\hat{x}}^2 + c_2)} \quad (11)$$

468 where μ_x ($\mu_{\hat{x}}$) and σ_x ($\sigma_{\hat{x}}$) are the mean and variance of x (\hat{x}). $\sigma_{x\hat{x}}$ is covariance between x and \hat{x} . c_1
469 and c_2 are two constants to avoid instability brought by extremely small denominator values.

470 **Datasets and training preparation**

471 SHREC 2021 benchmark: SHREC 2021 track: classification in cryo-electron tomograms [23] pro-
472 vides a synthetic cryo-ET benchmark dataset that consists of ten tomograms. Each tomogram cor-
473 responds to a noise-free grand model of structural density map of the same size. Each grand model
474 contains randomly distributed vesicles (membrane structure), fiducial markers, and thirteen types
475 of macromolecular complexes: TRiC (PDB ID: 4V94), 26S proteasome (4CR2), ClpB (1QVR),
476 rubisco (1BXN), P97/vcp (3CF3), Cand1-Cul1-Roc1 (1U6G), Sse1p, Hsp70 (3D2F), Hsp90-Sba1
477 (2CG9), GET3 (3H84), Ssb1, Hsp70 (3GL1), LJ0536 S106A (3QM1), Hsp70 ATPase (1S3X), and
478 yeast mito ribosome (5MRC). We split this dataset into three parts in an unpaired setting. The first
479 four tomograms are used to construct the noisy domain of tomograms. The grand model of the next
480 four tomograms are used to construct the clean domain of structural density maps. Similar to the
481 SHREC 2021 track [23], the last tomogram and grand model pair is used as the testing dataset for
482 evaluation.

483 Ribosome benchmark: this is a single-particle benchmark dataset to evaluate the subtomogram av-
484 eraging performance of *RELIION* [24]. A total of seven tomograms in this dataset contain purified
485 80S ribosomes from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Individual ribosome locations are provided by the
486 authors through manual picking. The original tomograms in this dataset are of voxel spacing 0.227
487 nm and tilt-angle range $\pm 60^\circ$.

488 *Rattus* neuron dataset: this dataset contains six cellular tomograms from primary *Rattus* neuron
489 culture [59]. Three types of macromolecular complexes: 26S proteasome, TRiC/CCT chaperonin,
490 and ribosome, are detected and recovered by the authors through manual picking and subtomogram
491 averaging. The original tomograms in this dataset are of voxel spacing 1.368 nm and tilt-angle range
492 -50° to $+70^\circ$.

493 *Chlamydomonas* pyrenoid dataset: this dataset contains one tomogram of the *Chlamydomonas rein-*
494 *hardtii* pyrenoid with abundant rubisco holoenzymes [11]. The original tomogram in this dataset is
495 of voxel spacing 1.368 nm and tilt-angle range $\pm 60^\circ$.

496 *Chlamydomonas* chloroplast dataset: this dataset contains four tomogram of the *Chlamydomonas*
497 *reinhardtii* chloroplast [65]. Compared with other experimental datasets, the tomograms are of
498 higher SNR due to their use of advanced direct detector cameras and the contrast-enhancing Volta
499 phase plate. The original tomograms in this dataset are of voxel spacing 1.368 nm and tilt-angle
500 range $\pm 60^\circ$.

501 SARS-CoV-2 infection dataset: this dataset contains three tomograms of human airway epithelium
502 infected by SARS-CoV-2 B.1.1.7 variant [66]. This dataset is collected under a conventional trans-
503 mission electron microscope with a relatively high SNR. The original tomograms in this dataset are
504 of voxel spacing 0.457 nm and dual-axis tilt-angle range $\pm 60^\circ$.

505 Because the experimental datasets do not have available corresponding structural density maps, the
506 four grand models the SHREC 2021 benchmark dataset is also used as the clean domain for exper-
507 imental datasets. As the clean domain from the SHREC 2021 benchmark dataset has voxel spacing
508 of 1 nm, we rescaled the voxel spacing of all tomograms in the five experimental datasets to 1 nm.
509 Then, we standardized each tomogram or grand model by subtracting its mean and dividing by its
510 standard deviation. To reduce memory consumption and increase the efficiency of neural network
511 training, we divide the tomograms and grand models into non-overlapping subvolumes of size 32^2
512 as inputs. We note that subvolumes of other sizes can also be processed. The larger the subvolume

513 size, the fewer inputs need to be processed but also slower training speed for each sample. Training
514 batches of samples were randomly selected and matched from the clean domain and noisy domain.
515 When predicting on testing datasets using the trained neural networks of DUAL, we employed the
516 overlap-tile strategy [56] to avoid artifacts at the boundary between subvolumes.

517 **Template-free particle picking**

518 We applied a popular template-free particle picking algorithm Difference of Gaussians (DoG) [67].
519 DoG picks potential particles by detecting local maxima in the subtraction of two Gaussian filtered
520 versions of the tomogram with different standard deviations. We chose σ_1 as 8.0 and σ_2 as 8.8
521 with a multiplication factor k of 1.1. Overlapping detected local maxima within 24 nm of pairwise
522 distances were filtered. Then, the top 500 DoG detections were selected for each tomogram and their
523 denoised versions by each method.

524 **Implementation details**

525 DUAL is implemented using *PyTorch* [68] with four Nvidia RTX 2080Ti GPU instances support.
526 We chose AdamW [69] as the optimizer for all networks with a learning rate of 10^{-4} , β_1 of 0.9, β_2
527 of 0.999, ϵ of 10^{-8} and weight decay of 10^{-6} . For each dataset, the model was randomly initialized
528 with an orthogonal kernel weight initializer and trained for 20 epochs. Loss coefficients were set
529 empirically based on the performance as $\lambda_1 = 1$, $\lambda_2 = 1$, and $\lambda_3 = 10^{-1}$. The training algorithm is
530 shown in supplementary note 4.

531 **Data source**

532 The SHREC 2021 benchmark dataset is obtained from [23]. The ribosome benchmark dataset is
533 obtained from EMPIAR 10045 [24]. The *Rattus* neuron dataset is obtained from [59]. The *Chlamy-*
534 *domonas* pyrenoid dataset is obtained from EMD-12749 [11]. The *Chlamydomonas* chloroplast
535 dataset is obtained from EMD-10780 to EMD-10783 [65]. The SARS-CoV-2 infection dataset is
536 obtained from EMD-14364, EMD-14365, and EMD-14367 [66].

537 **Code availability**

538 To directly benefit the cryo-ET research community, we will disseminate all the code into our open-
539 source cryo-ET data analysis software *AITom* [25]. Currently, we have disseminated 25 of our
540 existing published algorithms into *AITom*. There are more than 20 tutorials provided in *AITom*
541 for different cryo-ET analysis tasks with more than 30,000 lines of codes mainly written in python
542 and C++. We will also integrate our code with the software *Scipion* [70] as a plugin. User-friendly
543 tutorials will be provided on how to apply our models to users' own datasets.

544 **Data availability**

545 We will disseminate the subtomogram averages into EM Data Bank [71]. The trained models and
546 demo data will be disseminated into *AITom* [25].

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555 **Author contributions**

556 M.X. and X.Z. conceived the research. X.Z., and Y.D. designed the method. Y.D. and Y.Z. imple-
557 mented the method. M.U. and A.D. gave suggestions. X.Z. refined the method and conducted the
558 experiments. Y.D. and Y.Z. conducted the baseline experiments. X.Z., Y.D., and M.X. wrote the
559 manuscript. All authors edited the manuscript.

560 **Competing interests**

561 The authors declare no competing interests.

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