Atlas registration and ensemble deep convolutional neural network-based prostate segmentation using magnetic resonance imaging Haozhe Jia, Yong Xia, Yang Song, Weidong Cai, Micheal Fulham, David Dagan Feng

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Presented by: Tahereh Hassanzadeh

Abstract

- Propose a coarse-to-fine segmentation strategy.
- Segment <u>endorectal coil</u> prostate images and <u>non-endorectal coil</u> prostate images separately.
- present a registration-based coarse segmentation.
- Train deep neural networks as <u>pixel-based classifier</u> to predict whether the pixel in the potential boundary region is prostate pixel or not.
- A boundary refinement is used to eliminate the outlier and smooth the boundary.

Introduction

- 220,800 men were diagnosed with prostate cancer in the United States in 2015.
- Magnetic resonance (MR) imaging, due to its superior spatial resolution and tissue contrast, is the main imaging modality used to evaluate the prostate gland.
- The challenges mainly relate to the variability in size/shape/contours of the gland, heterogeneity in signal intensity around endorectal coils (ERCs), imaging artifacts and low contrast between the gland and adjacent structures.

Introduction

• Two contribution

- First, we show that the use of pre-trained VGG-19 can alleviate overfitting and transfer the knowledge about image representation learned on the ImageNet dataset to characterizing prostate images.
- Second, the experimental results demonstrate the use of ensemble learning can substantially improve the performance of prostate segmentation.

Introduction

Dataset

- Prostate MR Image Segmentation Challenge 2012 (PROMISE12).
- <u>https://promise12.grand-challenge.org/</u>
- SPIE-AAPM-NCI PROSTATEx Classification Challenge 2017 (PROSTATEx17) datasets.
- <u>https://wiki.cancerimagingarchive.net/display/Public/SPIE-AAPM-NCI+PROSTATEx+Challenges</u>

Method

- Voxel value normalization
- Atlas- based coarse segmentation
- Ensemble DCNN-based fine segmentation
- Boundary refinement



• Uniform voxel size

- $0.65 \times 0.65 \times 1.5 \text{ mm } 3$
- The re-slicing procedure in the Statistical Parametric Mapping (SPM) software.
- <u>https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/neuroscience/statistical-parametric-mapping</u>
- Normalizing voxel values
 - non-ERCs
 - ERC











non-ERC $I_{x} = \begin{cases} Equation 1 \\ \frac{1}{255 * (I_{x} - I_{min})/(I_{max} - I_{min})}{255}, I_{x} > \tau \end{cases}$

• τ is truncate threshold

• τ set to 4096 if $I_{max} > 4096$ and 1024 otherwise.

• ERC

• Poisson image editing

• <u>https://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?doid=1201775.882269</u>

• Poisson image editing

- It is a seamless editing and cloning tool.
- Cloning allows the user to remove and add objects seamlessly.
- This approach is based on Poisson partial differential equation and Dirichlet boundary condition which specifies the Laplacian of the unknown function over domain of interest.

- Step 1: The region near the ERC that contains spikes was extracted by a threshold.
- Step 2: The voxel value normalization problem was converted into seeking an adjusted image f: $\Omega \rightarrow R$
 - Ω is spike region
 - f: $\Omega \rightarrow R$ adjusted image intensity
 - f = I on the boundary of Ω
 - R set of real number
 - R² is two dimensional real number vector space
 - $g(x) = (I G_{\sigma} * I)(x)$ is the high pass filtered image
 - By minimization of equation 2 is the solution for Poisson equation

Equation 2

$$E(f) = \min \int_{\Omega} |\nabla f - \nabla g|^2 dx,$$

Equation 3

$$\nabla^2 f = \nabla^2 g$$

- **Step 3:** Voxel values in the spike region were replaced by the corresponding values on the adjusted image f.
- **Step 4:** The spike suppressed image is applied to equation 1 to further normalize the voxel values.



Fig. 2. MR images, using the ERC, showing: (a) the transaxial image, (b) detected spike region and (c) result from voxel value normalization.

Atlas-based coarse segmentation

- The coarse segmentation of the gland was achieved via an atlas-based joint registration comparison analysis.
 - S: target image
 - I_i: training MR scan
 - L_i: corresponding ground truth
- The deformable registration via attribute matching and mutual- saliency weighting (DRAMMS) applied for registration to estimate a nonlinear transformation T that maps the training scan I_i to the target scan S.
- The estimated transformation T is applied to the ground truth L_i , and thus generates a prostate atlas A(S).
- Finally probabilistic atlas is constructed by averaging all atlases.

Eq

uation 4
$$A^{(S)} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} A_i^{(S)}$$

Atlas-based coarse segmentation



IND: Segmentation using a single individual atlas.



SIM: Segmentation using the "most similar" individual atlas.



AVG: Segmentation using an average shape atlas.



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MUL: Independent segmentation using multiple individual atlases with decision

Atlas-based coarse segmentation

The target scan was partitioned into positive, boundary, and negative volumes by applying a low threshold 0.25 and a high threshold 0.75 to the probabilistic atlas.





Fig. 3. Outline of atlas-based coarse prostate segmentation. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

- The fine segmentation step further classifies each voxel in the boundary volume into prostate or non-prostate using the ensemble DCNN classifier.
- Fine segmentation is performed on a slice-by-slice basis from the axial view.

VGG-19

16 convolutional layers

- 3*3 kernels
- 3 fully connected layers
 - 4096, 4096 and 1000 neurons
- 5 max pooling layers
 - 2*2 receptive fields
- ReLU
- Number of kernels from 64 to 512
- Dropout= 0.5 in fully connected layers
- Softmax- loss layer
- Previously trained by ImageNet
 - a 1000-category natural image database





Adapt VGG-19 for prostate segmentation

- Randomly selected two neurons in the last fully connected layer and removed other output neurons and the weights attached to them.
- Fine-tuned by using image patches extracted from the training studies.
- A boundary region was defined as the difference between the dilation and erosion of the ground truth slice using a disk whose radius was 20 pixels.
- Seed pixels were sampled with a 5×5 sliding window with a stride of 5.
- Extracted 48 × 48 image patch cantered in seed pixel.





Fig. 5. Prostate patches (green) and non-prostate patches (blue) on a training slice. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Learning rate to 0.00001 Batch size to 100 7 individual VGG-19 models





Boundary Refinement

- This process included 3×3 median filtering.
 - First calculated the distances between consecutive boundary points and the centroid.
 - Then removed 10% boundary points whose distance was most different from the mean distance.
 - Finally fitted a cubic B-spline to the remaining boundary points to obtain the refined segmentation.

Data sets

• PROMISE12- 50 volumes for training and 30 volumes for testing.

Table 1 Details of the dataset acquisition protocols.						
Center	Field strength	ERC	Resolution	Manufacturer		
Hk	1.5	Y	0.625/3.6	Siemens		
BIDMC	3	Y	0.25/2.2-3	GE		
UCL	1.5/3	Ν	0.325-0.625/3-3.6	Siemens		
RUNMC	3	Ν	0.5-0.75/3.6-4.0	Siemens		

- The PROSTATEx17 database has 204 training MR.
 - T2- weighted
 - Ktrans
 - Apparent Diffusion coefficient Images



HK: 1.5T with ERC1 BIDMC: 3.0T with ERC UCL: 3.0T without ERC RUNMC: 3.0T without ERC

Fig. 7. Example image slices from PROMIS 12 dataset (left two scans with ERC; right: two scans without ERC).



Fig. 8. Example image slices from the PROSTATEx dataset.

• Experiment setting and evaluations

- Four-fold cross-validation (each fold has ERC and non-ERC images)
- Evaluation
 - Dice Similarity Coefficient (DSC)
 - DSC ranges from 0 to 1
 - a higher value representing a more accurate segmentation result
 - Relative Volume Difference (RVD)
 - A positive RVD reflects under-segmentation
 - A negative RVD reflects over-segmentation

$$RVD(X,Y) = 100 \times \left(\frac{|X|}{|Y|} - 1\right)$$

 $D(X,Y) = \frac{2|X \cap Y|}{|X| + |Y|}$

Evaluation

- Average Boundary Distance (ABD)
- 95% Hausdorff Distance (95% HD)
- Hausdorff Distance (HD)

$$ABD(X_{s} + Y_{s}) = \frac{1}{|X_{s}| + |Y_{s}|} \left(\sum_{x \in X_{s}} \min_{y \in Y_{s}} \|x - y\| + \sum_{y \in Y_{s}} \min_{s \in X_{s}} \|x - y\| \right),$$

$$HD_{a}sym(X_{s}, Y_{s}) = \max_{x \in X_{s}} (\min_{y \in Y_{s}} \|x - y\|)$$

• ABD and HD are classical shape distance-based evaluation metrics



Fig. 9. ERC segmentation results with our algorithm; obtained boundaries are highlighted in green; the ground truth is outlined in red. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)



Fig. 10. Non-ERC segmentation results of our algorithm; obtained boundaries are highlighted in green; the ground truth is outlined in red. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Table 2

Mean \pm standard deviation of quantitative results for segmentations obtained by different algorithms.

Algorithm	DSC	RVD(%)	ABD(mm)	HD(mm)	95%HD(mm)
3D AAM (one shape model) [54]	0.784 ± 0.120	1	1	7.320 ± 4.910	1
3D AAM (two shape model) [54]	$0.810\pm \ 0.120$	1	1	$6.430 \pm \ 4.630$	7.300 ± 4.900
Atlas fusion (local atlases and patch weighting) [55]	$0.847 \pm \ 0.044$	1	1	1	1
Probabilistic ASM [56]	0.860 ± 0.006	1	$1.600\pm \ 0.630$	1	$9.510 \pm \ 2.730$
Automated AAM [37]	$0.880 \pm \ 0.030$	1	1	4.170 ± 1.350	1
Our algorithm	$\textbf{0.910} \pm \textbf{ 0.036}$	$\textbf{4.674} \pm \textbf{ 9.401}$	$\textbf{1.583} \pm \textbf{ 0.441}$	$\textbf{2.813} \pm \textbf{1.292}$	$\textbf{4.579} \pm \textbf{1.791}$



Fig. 11. Segmentation results using our approach on examples from the PROSTATEx dataset. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

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Table 3

Comparison of segmentation performance with different patch sizes.

Patch size	DSC	RVD(%)	ABD(mm)	HD(mm)	95%HD(mm)
48 56 64	$\begin{array}{rrr} \textbf{0.887} \pm \ \textbf{0.041} \\ 0.882 \pm \ 0.042 \\ 0.867 \pm \ 0.054 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 6.367 \pm \ 13.745 \\ \textbf{5.927} \pm \ \textbf{15.658} \\ 9.174 \pm \ 21.419 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{rrr} \textbf{1.715} \pm & \textbf{0.356} \\ 1.883 \pm & 0.400 \\ 2.056 \pm & 0.520 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} \textbf{3.788} \pm \ \textbf{1.153} \\ 5.043 \pm \ 1.260 \\ 6.352 \pm \ 1.450 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{rrr} \textbf{5.736} \pm & \textbf{1.574} \\ \textbf{7.579} \pm & \textbf{1.791} \\ \textbf{8.991} \pm & \textbf{1.626} \end{array}$

Table 4

Comparison of segmentation performance with different ensemble numbers.

Ensemble number	DSC	RVD(%)	ABD(mm)	HD(mm)	95%HD(mm)	Total training time(h)
3 5	$\begin{array}{r} 0.891 \pm \ 0.040 \\ 0.903 \pm \ 0.034 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 6.300 \pm \ 12.666 \\ 5.410 \pm \ 12.700 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 1.700 \pm \ 0.354 \\ 1.667 \pm \ 0.335 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{rrr} 3.715 \pm & 1.232 \\ 3.295 \pm & 1.122 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 4.890 \pm \ 1.733 \\ 4.612 \pm \ 1.593 \end{array}$	24 40
7	$\textbf{0.910} \pm \textbf{ 0.036}$	$\textbf{4.674} \pm \textbf{ 9.407}$	$\textbf{1.583} \pm \textbf{0.441}$	$\textbf{2.813} \pm \textbf{ 1.292}$	$\textbf{4.579} \pm \textbf{1.791}$	56

- Pre-trained versus fully-trained DCNN
 - Replaced the pre-trained VGG-19 model with the LeNet-5 model
 - fully-trained by using extracted image patches

Pre-trained versus fully-trained DCNN

Table 5

Mean \pm standard deviation of quantitative results for segmentations obtained by different algorithms.

Algorithm		DSC	RVD(%)	ABD(mm)	HD(mm)	95%HD(mm)
Single model	LeNet-5	0.859 ± 0.065 0.887 ± 0.041	10.079 ± 14.695 6 367 ± 13 745	1.858 ± 0.626 1.715 ± 0.356	5.320 ± 1.612 3.788 + 1.153	7.251 ± 2.756 5 736 ± 1 574
Ensemble model	LeNet-5 VGG-19	$\begin{array}{r} 0.837 \pm \ 0.041 \\ 0.877 \pm \ 0.072 \\ \textbf{0.910} \pm \ \textbf{0.036} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 7.320 \pm 10.268 \\ \textbf{4.674} \pm \textbf{9.401} \end{array}$	1.753 ± 0.687 1.583 ± 0.441	5.738 ± 1.155 5.071 ± 1.698 2.813 ± 1.292	7.091 ± 2.862 4.579 ± 1.791

Computational Complexity

Table 6

Details and times for our approach.

Parameter		Value		
		Registration	Other work	
Algorithm	Platform: Language: Libraries: Multi-threaded: User interaction:	Mac OS X 10.10 system C++ DRAMMS None None	Ubuntu 14.04 64 bit system MATLAB 2016 b, Python Keras, Tensorflow None None	
Machine	CPU: CPU clock speed: Machine memory: GPU:	Intel core i5 CPU 1.4 GHz 8 GB None	Intel core i7-4790 CPU 3.2 GHz 32 GB Nvidia GTX titan X	
Time	Normalization and enhancement: Registration: Label fusion: Off-line DCNNs training: DCNNs prediction: Boundary refinement: Total segmentation:	\leq 1s (per study) 30-40 min (per study registration) \approx 1 s (per study) 3.5 h (randomly initialization) \approx 2 min (per study) \leq 1 s (per study) \approx 40 min (per study)	on by 10 atlas) 2 h (pre-trained weights)	

Conclusion

- Present an automated coarse-to-fine segmentation.
- The coarse segmentation was achieved by using a probabilistic atlas.
- The fine segmentation was done using a cohort of trained DCNNs.
- Results suggest that ensemble DCNNs initialized with pre-trained weights substantially improve segmentation accuracy.

Thank You