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4 Networks
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25 **Abstract**

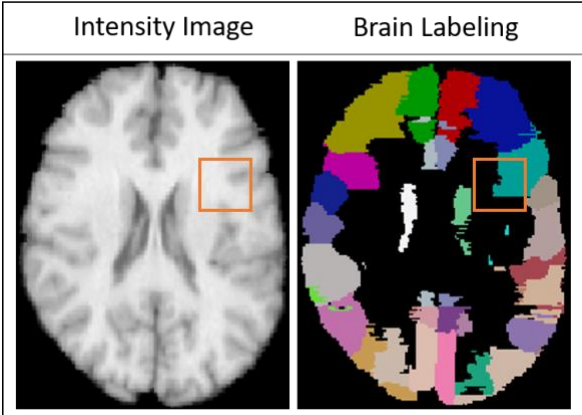
26 Multi-atlas-based methods are commonly used for MR brain image labeling, which alleviates the
27 burdening and time-consuming task of manual labeling in neuroimaging analysis studies.
28 Traditionally, multi-atlas-based methods first register multiple atlases to the target image, and
29 then propagate the labels from the labeled atlases to the unlabeled target image. However, the
30 registration step involves non-rigid alignment, which is often time-consuming and might lack
31 high accuracy. Alternatively, patch-based methods have shown promise in relaxing the demand
32 for accurate registration, but they often require the use of hand-crafted features. Recently, deep
33 learning techniques have demonstrated their effectiveness in image labeling, by automatically
34 learning comprehensive appearance features from training images. In this paper, we propose a
35 *multi-atlas guided fully convolutional network (MA-FCN)* for automatic image labeling, which
36 aims at further improving the labeling performance with the aid of prior knowledge from the
37 training atlases. Specifically, we train our MA-FCN model in a patch-based manner, where the
38 input data consists of *not only* a training image patch *but also* a set of its neighboring (i.e., most

39 similar) affine-aligned atlas patches. The guidance information from neighboring atlas patches
40 can help boost the discriminative ability of the learned FCN. Experimental results on different
41 datasets demonstrate the effectiveness of our proposed method, by significantly outperforming
42 the conventional FCN and several state-of-the-art MR brain labeling methods.

43
44 **Keywords:** Brain image labeling, multi-atlas-based method, fully convolutional network, patch-
45 based labeling

46
47 **1.Introduction**

48 Anatomical brain labeling is highly desired for region-based analysis of MR brain images,
49 which is important for many research studies and clinical applications, such as facilitating
50 diagnosis [1, 2] and investigating early brain development [3]. Also, brain labeling is a
51 fundamental step in brain network analysis pipelines, where regions-of-interest (ROIs) need to
52 be identified prior to exploring any connectivity traits [4-7]. But it is labor-intensive and
53 impractical to manually label a large set of 3D MR images, thus recent developments focused on
54 automatic labeling of brain anatomy. However, there are multiple challenges in automatic
55 labeling: 1) complex brain structures, 2) ambiguous boundaries between neighboring regions as
56 observed by the highlighted region in Figure 1, and 3) large variation of the same brain structure
57 across different subjects.



58
59 Figure 1: Typical example of brain MR intensity image (left) and its label map (right). The
60 region inside the orange rectangle has a blurry boundary, which is challenging for automatic
61 brain labeling.

62 Recently, many attempts have been made to address these challenges in MR brain labeling
63 [8-15]. In particular, the multi-atlas-based labeling methods have been widely used as standard
64 approaches for their effectiveness and robustness. Basically, through defining an atlas as a
65 combination of the intensity image with its manually-labeled map, one can label a target image
66 in two steps: 1) registering the atlas image to the target image, and then 2) propagating the atlas
67 label map to the target image. This generalizes to multi-atlas labeling methods, where multiples
68 atlases are first registered to the target image, and then labels from all labeled atlases are
69 propagated to the target unlabeled image. Generally, the multi-atlas-based methods can be
70 classified into two categories: *registration-based* and *patch-based* methods. Typically,
71 *registration-based* methods first align multiple atlases to the target image in the registration step
72 [16, 17], and then fuse the respective warped atlas label maps to obtain the final labels in the
73 label fusion step [8, 18-20]. The main drawback of such methods is that the labeling performance
74 highly depends on the reliability of non-rigid registration techniques used, which is often quite
75 time-consuming [21].

76 *Patch-based* methods, on the other hand, have gained increased attention in image labeling,
77 since they can alleviate the need for high registration accuracy through exploring several
78 neighboring patches within a local search region [22-27]. For such methods, affine registration of
79 the atlases to the target image is often used. Specifically, for each target patch, similar patches
80 are selected from the affine-aligned atlas images according to patch similarities within a search
81 region. Then, the labels of those selected atlas patches are fused together to label the subject
82 patch. The underlying assumption of patch-based methods is that, when two patches are similar
83 in intensity, they are also similar in labels [28]. To measure the similarity between patches,
84 several feature extraction methods have been proposed based on anatomical structures [22, 29] or
85 intensity distributions [23, 24]. However, these hand-crafted patch-driven features have a key
86 limitation. For example, they are limited by using a pre-defined set of features (i.e., color,
87 gradient, shape, intensity distribution etc.), without exploring other possible features that can be
88 considered and learned when comparing patches for our target task.

89 Recently, the convolutional networks (ConvNet) methods have shown great promise and
90 performance in several medical image analysis tasks, including image segmentation [30-33] and
91 image synthesis [34-36]. An appealing aspect of ConvNet is that it can automatically learn the
92 most comprehensive, high-level appearance features that can best represent the image.

93 Specifically, the fully convolutional network (FCN) [37] have demonstrated its effectiveness in
94 medical image segmentation. For example, Nie *et al.* [38] adopted the FCN model for brain
95 tissue segmentation, which significantly outperformed the conventional segmentation methods in
96 terms of accuracy.

97 In this paper, we propose a novel *multi-atlas guided fully convolution network (MA-FCN)*
98 aiming at further improving the labeling performance with the aid of patch-based manner and the
99 registration-based labeling. To guide the learning of a conventional FCN for automatic brain
100 labeling by leveraging available multiple atlases, we align a subset of the training atlases to the
101 target images. Note that we only implement affine registration (with 12 degree of freedom using
102 normalized correlation as cost function) to roughly align atlases to the target image, instead of
103 non-rigid registration, which ensures efficiency and also demonstrates the ability of the FCN for
104 inferring labels from local regions. In the training stage, we propose a novel candidate target
105 patch selection strategy for helping identify the optimal set of candidate target patches, thus
106 balancing the large variability of ROI sizes. Both target patches and their corresponding
107 candidate atlas patches (two training sources) are used for training the FCN model. We take our
108 proposed FCN model one step further by devising three novel strategies to incorporate the
109 extracted appearance features from the two training sources in a more effective way, i.e., atlas-
110 unique pathway, target-patch pathway, and atlas-aware fusion pathway. Specifically, atlas-
111 unique pathway and target-patch pathway process the atlas patch and target patch separately,
112 while atlas-aware fusion pathway merges these pathways together. The main contributions of our
113 method are two-fold:

- 114 (1) We guide the learning of FCN model by leveraging the available information in multiple
115 atlases.
- 116 (2) The proposed method does not need a non-rigid registration step for aligning atlases to
117 the target image, which is more efficient for brain labeling.

118 **2. Related Works**

119 **Registration-based labeling.** Registration based methods leverage both non-linear
120 registration and label fusion techniques. Many relevant works were proposed to improve the
121 performance of the registration step, including the LEAP method [39] which constructs an image
122 manifold according to the similarities between all training and test images. The sophisticated

123 tree-based group-wise registration strategy developed in [40] employed pairwise registration
124 strategy that concatenated precomputed registrations between pairs of atlases (Wang et al. 2013).
125 For the label fusion step, the voting-based strategies proposed by [8, 41-47] are popular for
126 fusing the warped atlas labels. For instance, Langerak *et al.* [8] defined a global weight for each
127 atlas by its similarity in intensity to the target image, and then performed a weighted sum of all
128 atlas labels to get the final label. They used a single weight for the whole atlas image, which
129 overlooks the fact that subject-to-subject similarity varies across anatomical regions. To address
130 this limitation, Artaechevarria *et al.* [42] proposed a local weighted voting method to fuse
131 weights in a voxel-wise manner. Specifically, the weight of each voxel is computed using the
132 mutual information similarity of the atlas image and the target image in a small region. The local
133 weighted strategy can boost the accuracy of label propagation; however, it may fail in highly
134 variable anatomical regions that cannot be simultaneously captured by *all* atlases. To avoid this
135 limitation, Isgum *et al.* [43] used an atlas selection strategy to select a subset of atlases with the
136 highest similarities to the target image by statistical pattern recognition theory. Then, the
137 propagated labels were combined by spatially varying decision fusion weights. In a different
138 work, Sanroma et al. [48] combined a learning-based atlas selection strategy with nonlocal
139 weighted voting to label a brain. The best atlases were selected based on their expected labeling
140 accuracy by learning the relationship between the pairwise appearance of the observed instances
141 and their final labeling performance, and then the final label value was voted from both local and
142 neighboring voxels in the selected atlases. The limitation of this method is that the weights are
143 computed independently for each atlas, without taking into account the fact that different atlases
144 may produce similar label errors. Wang et al. [20] solved this limitation by proposing a joint
145 label fusion strategy (JLF), in which joint probability of pairwise atlases is modeled to estimate
146 the segmentation error at a voxel, and then weighted voting is formulated in terms of minimizing
147 the total expectation of labeling error. One major limitation of registration-based methods is that
148 it takes lots of time to align atlases to the target image.

149 **Patch-based labeling.** Patch-based labeling methods use a non-local strategy to alleviate
150 the need for high registration accuracy. They propagate the label information of the selected
151 similar atlas patches, which are identified within a local neighborhood of the target patch. Most
152 patch based methods are constructed assuming only affine registration as a prerequisite to align
153 the atlases to the target image because affine registration is much faster than non-rigid

154 registration. Some methods use sparse patch selection strategy to select the most similar intensity
155 patches for the target training patch to improve the label fusion step. Zhang et al. [49] segmented
156 the brain by using a sparse patch-based label fusion (SPBL) strategy. Candidate image patches
157 are selected from a neighborhood region to build a graph, and then a sparse constraint is applied
158 to the candidate atlas patches to derive the graph weights. Finally, the patches are fused together
159 by a weighted fusion function. In other works, the learning strategies are proposed to learn the
160 mapping from the input intensity patch to the final label map. Zhang et al. [29] proposed to label
161 the brain by using a hierarchical random forest. They clustered similar patches together to learn a
162 bottom-level forest, and then the bottom-level forests were clustered together by their
163 capabilities. Finally, the high-level forest was trained by clustering bottom-level forests and all
164 atlases. The limitation of their method is that the performance can be easily influenced by the
165 cluster strategy. Zikic et al. [24] proposed to build atlas forests (AF) by using a small and deep
166 classification forest, which encodes each atlas individually in reference to an aligned
167 probabilistic atlas map. Each atlas forest produces one probability label estimation, and then all
168 label estimations are averaged to get the final label. Their method is fast since only one
169 registration is needed to align the target image to the probabilistic atlas map. However, this
170 method requires manually designed features to train the forest, without exploring other possible
171 image features, which may not best represent the target image. Some methods combine
172 registration-based method with patch-based method together to improve the labeling
173 performance. Wu et al. [11] proposed a hierarchical feature representation and label-specific
174 patch partition method (HSPBL), which is a combination of registration-based method and
175 patch-based method. Specifically, they use non-rigid registration to preprocess the atlas data, and
176 then each image patch is represented by multi-scale features that encode both local and semi-
177 local image information to increase the fidelity of similarity calculation. Finally, the atlas patch
178 is further partitioned into a set of label-specific partial image patches by atlas label information.

179 **ConvNet labeling.** ConvNet, on the other hand, can automatically learn the high-level
180 features of the image. One of the widely used ConvNet architectures in image labeling is
181 convolutional neural networks (CNN) [50, 51], which learns convolution kernels to simulate the
182 receptive fields of our visual system [52] and extracts the deep features from the image. The
183 parameters of the convolution kernels are updated by back-propagation of the errors. However,
184 CNN is limited by a lack of efficiency in processing the whole brain image as it uses a patch-to-

185 voxel prediction strategy, which can only predict the label of a center voxel for each input patch.
186 To solve this issue, fully convolutional networks (FCN) [37, 38] were developed by using a
187 patch-to-patch training strategy without using the fully connected layer. FCN typically inputs a
188 patch and outputs the predicted label of the whole patch. U-Net [30] and V-Net [31] were also
189 introduced to label brains by combining shallow layers with corresponding deep layers in FCN.
190 This allows merging learned features at different depths of the network and helps avoid gradient
191 degeneration when reaching shallow layers, thus guaranteeing the convergence of the network
192 training.

193 **3. Method**

194 In this section, we detail the proposed MA-FCN framework for automatic brain labeling.
195 Our goal is to improve the labeling performance of a typical FCN by guiding and boosting its
196 learning using multiple aligned atlases. Our method comprises *training* and *testing* stages. In the
197 *training* stage, we randomly select several training images as atlases. Specifically, we first select
198 3D patches from the training images using a random selection strategy. Next, for each selected
199 training 3D patch, we select the K most similar candidate atlas patches within a specific search
200 window. Then, all training patches and their corresponding selected candidate atlas patches are
201 input into the MA-FCN model for training. Note that the atlas patch refers to the combination of
202 atlas intensity patch and its corresponding label patch. In the *testing* stage, each testing 3D patch
203 is concatenated with its K most similar atlas patches, and then fed into MA-FCN to predict the
204 label patch. Since each target voxel \mathbf{x} in the brain belongs to many overlapping 3D patches, we
205 fuse all the predicted labels from all patches containing \mathbf{x} to finally label the target voxel by
206 majority voting.

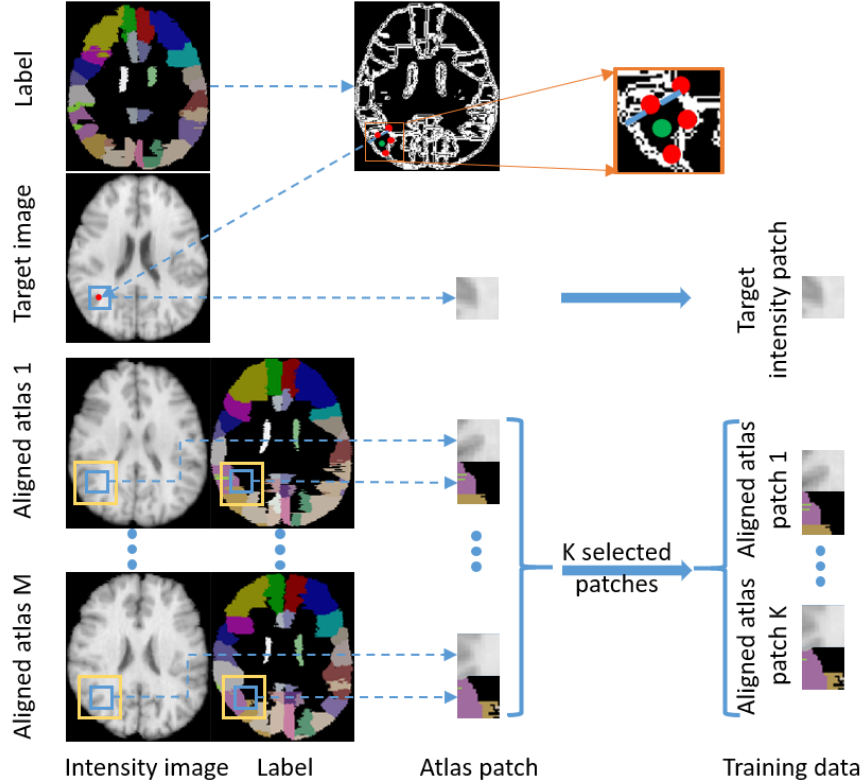
207 *3.1. Data Preparation*

208 Prior to the atlas patch selection step, we affine register all atlases (i.e., intensity images and
209 their corresponding label maps) to the training data using FLIRT in FSL toolkit [53]. Next, we
210 propose a patch sampling and selection strategy to identify the most similar atlas patch to the
211 target patch. Figure 2 presents the flowchart of our novel strategies for training patch sampling
212 and atlas patch selection, which are further detailed in Sections 3.1.1 and 3.1.2, respectively.

213 *3.1.1. Training patch sampling*

214 Noting the large variability in size across anatomical ROIs, randomly sampling from the
215 whole brain will create an imbalance in training samples across different ROIs. For instance, a
216 whole-brain sampling strategy might select many more locations within large ROIs than smaller
217 ones, which will weaken the model learning for small brain anatomical regions. On the other
218 hand, ROI boundaries are very important in labeling since they contain direct structural
219 information, but voxels near the boundaries are more difficult to classify than the inside voxels.
220 Therefore, more training samples should be sampled along the boundaries of the target ROIs.

221 We proposed a boundary-focused patch extraction strategy to solve the imbalance samples
222 by randomly sampling patches across the whole brain. For each labeled ROI, we detect its
223 boundary using the Canny edge detector, thereby creating an edge map for each target intensity
224 image (Figure 2). We also extract the inner voxels within each ROI while excluding the edge to
225 build an inner voxel location map. Then, we randomly sample locations from both edge and
226 inner voxel maps while ensuring that: 1) the number of samples extracted from each ROI is the
227 same, and 2) the number of patches extracted around the boundary is larger than that from the
228 inside of each ROI. In our experiment, the ratio between the boundary and inside patches is set to
229 4:1. We have tested the ratios 1:1 and 2:1 and found that the performance of 2:1 is better than
230 1:1. Then we tested the ratio 4:1 and found that it has the same performance as 2:1. Thus, we
231 choose ratio 4:1.



232

233 Figure 2: Flowchart illustrating *patch sampling* and *similar atlas patches selection*. (Top) We
 234 sample patches both around the boundary (e.g., red dots) and inside (e.g., green dot) the target
 235 anatomical regions of interest. (Bottom) The blue box represents a selected patch and the yellow
 236 box delineates its corresponding search neighborhood. For each target intensity patch, we
 237 identify its K most similar atlas patches. Then, each selected intensity atlas patch is coupled with
 238 its corresponding label patch to make up the training atlas data (paired with the target training
 239 patch).

240 3.1.2. Candidate atlas patch selection

241 An atlas set A contains M atlases, which is defined as $A = \{I_{A(i)}, L_{A(i)} | i = 1, 2, \dots, M\}$, where
 242 $I_{A(i)}$ and $L_{A(i)}$ represent the i -th atlas intensity image and its corresponding atlas label map,
 243 respectively. For convenience, the atlas set is represented as Ω , where $\Omega = \{1, 2, \dots, M\}$. A target
 244 image set B contains N samples, each defined as follows: $B_i = \{I_{B(i)}, L_{B(i)} | i = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$, where
 245 $I_{B(i)}$ and $L_{B(i)}$ represent the j -th training intensity image and its corresponding label map,
 246 respectively. For each target patch $I_{B(i)}^j$ centered at location j , the most similar atlas intensity
 247 patches are extracted from each atlas $I_{A(i)}$ within a search neighborhood $N(j)$ based on a

248 predefined image similarity measure. As shown in Equation 1 below, \hat{P} is the collection of
 249 selected candidate atlas patches from all existing atlases. $P_{A(m)}^n = \{I_{A(m)}^n, L_{A(m)}^n\}$ denotes the
 250 selected label and intensity patches from atlas m at location n , and $I_{A(m)}^n, L_{A(m)}^n$ denote the
 251 intensity and label patches, respectively. $\|\cdot\|_2$ is the Euclidean distance.

$$\hat{P} = \{P_{A(m)}^n, m \in \Omega \mid \min_{n \in N(j)} \|I_{B(i)}^j - I_{A(m)}^n\|_2\} \quad (1)$$

252 To reduce the computational time of our model, we divide our patch selection strategy into
 253 two steps. For each atlas image, we first extract their atlas patches within the first search window
 254 (with the same center location as the intensity patch and spaced out by a step size of 2 voxels).
 255 Among these patches, we find the candidate patch that has the highest similarity with the
 256 intensity patch. Then, we set up the second search window (with the same center location as the
 257 aforementioned candidate patch and spaced out by a step size of 1 voxels), and reselect the
 258 candidate patch following the same criterion, and within that new search region. Note that, to use
 259 our method on different datasets, all brain MR data are first normalized within a fixed intensity
 260 range $[0, 255]$ using Min-Max normalization strategy before performing atlas patch selection.
 261 For example, in our validation datasets, image intensity of LONI dataset falls within a range of
 262 $[0, 3000]$, while image intensity of SATA dataset falls within a range of $[0, 4000]$. We suppress
 263 the intensity value to the 85% of the max intensity value of the input image, and then normalize
 264 the image intensity value from 0 to 255. We should also note that the range $[0, 255]$ is not very
 265 important. We have also normalized the MR data using $[0, 1]$ and $[-0.5, 0.5]$ intervals
 266 respectively, which did not affect the labeling performance when using a normalization interval
 267 of $[0, 255]$. Next, we identify the set of most similar atlas intensity patches to the target intensity
 268 patch using the Euclidean distance as follows:

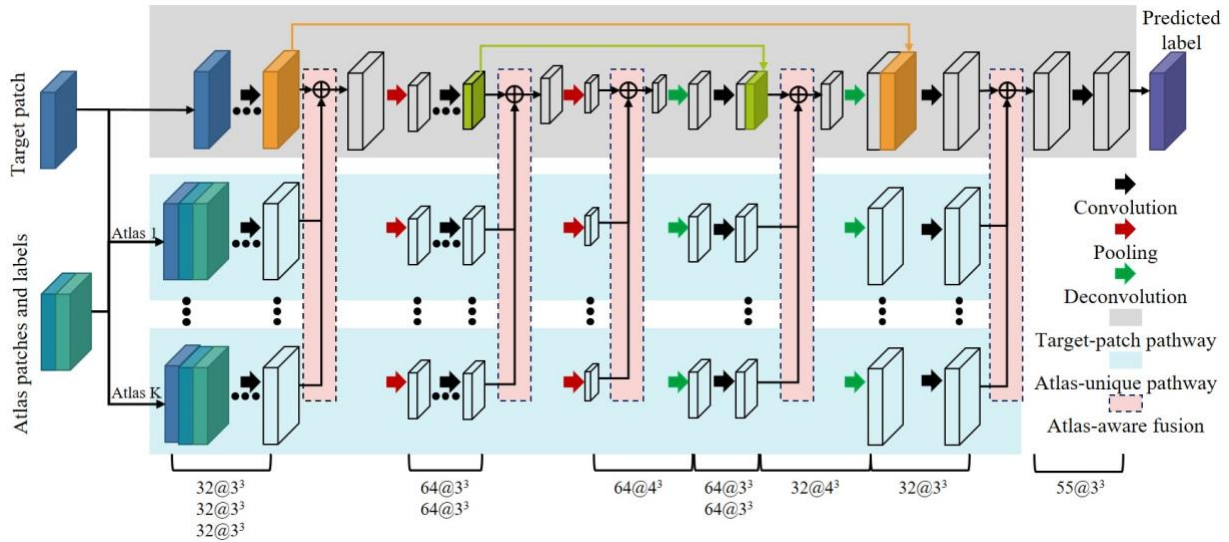
$$\bar{P} = \{P_{A(m)}^n, m \in R, |R| = K \mid \|I_{B(i)}^j - I_{A(m)}^n\|_2 \leq \|I_{B(i)}^j - I_{A(t)}^n\|_2; I_{A(m)}^n, I_{A(t)}^n \in \hat{P}; t \in \Omega - R\} \quad (2)$$

269 By ranking all selected atlas image patches \hat{P} , the top K most similar patches \bar{P} can be
 270 selected from the M similar patches using Equation 2. Then, the training patch $I_{B(i)}^j$ and its K
 271 selected atlas image patches are combined as joint input to our proposed model. R is a subset of
 272 Ω , which contains the indices of the final selected similar atlases. $|R|$ denotes the cardinal of R .

273 Figure 2 shows both *patch sampling* and *similar atlas patches selection* steps. In the
 274 sampling step, we extract many patches around the ROI boundary (red points) and fewer patches
 275 inside the target ROI (green point).

276 **3.2. Multi-atlas Guided Fully Convolutional Networks (MA-FCN)**

277 The flowchart of our proposed framework is summarized in Figure 3, which comprises
 278 three components: 1) *atlas-unique pathway*, 2) *target-patch pathway*, and 3) *atlas-aware fusion*
 279 *pathway*. For each candidate atlas patch, it is concatenated with the target patch to propagate
 280 independently using an *atlas-unique pathway*. On the other hand, an *atlas-aware-fusion* pathway
 281 is proposed to merge separate atlas pathways into the *target-patch* pathway. In particular, the
 282 *target-patch pathway* propagates the target patch along with the fused atlas intensity and label
 283 patches to get the final label map. Note that each training patch propagates *not only* using an
 284 independent path (*target-patch pathway*), *but also* along the *atlas-unique* pathway as it
 285 concatenates with the selected candidate atlas patch. We detail each of these three components in
 286 Sections 3.2.1, 3.2.2 and 3.2.3, respectively.



287 Figure3: The flowchart of the proposed Multi-Atlas Fully-Convolution Network (MA-FCN).
 288 The three pathways in MA-FCN are highlighted in gray, cyan, and pink bands. The batch
 289 normalization layer and the ReLU layer are each followed by the convolution and deconvolution
 290 layers. The symbol \oplus denotes the concatenation of all the data together and then being convolved
 291 by a $1 \times 1 \times 1$ kernel. The parameters under the figure are the parameters of the single pathway.

293 **3.2.1 Atlas-unique pathway**

294 The atlas-unique pathway is designed based on the fully convolutional network (FCN),
 295 which aims to convert the atlas information (intensity and label) into comprehensive features to
 296 enhance the discrimination capacity of the model. In our previous work [54], we concatenated

297 the atlas image and the target image together directly as input to the neural network, in order to
298 learn the mapping from intensity image to the label map. In this method, we adopt a patch-wise
299 ‘atlas and target’ integration strategy, where the atlas patch is treated as an enhanced feature of
300 the target patch. However, this enhanced information might misguide the learning process since
301 the label of the selected atlas patch might not correspond well with the true label of the target
302 patch. To tackle this issue, instead of directly combining the atlas with the target intensity patch,
303 we design an *atlas-unique pathway* to process each atlas patch independently.

304 For each atlas-unique pathway, we concatenate the target intensity patch and the atlas patch
305 (i.e., intensity and label atlas patches) together as input to our FCN. The reason for adding atlas
306 label patch is that the label represents strong semantic information, which can better guide the
307 learning process. An example of the atlas-unique pathway is highlighted in cyan band in Figure
308 3. The structure of each atlas-unique pathway is an FCN. In the proposed model, we have several
309 atlas-unique pathways, each processing a single atlas patch. Note that all pathways are processed
310 independently and the weights between different pathways are not shared. The reason for
311 designing the model in such way is that we want to build the relationship between the target
312 patch and each atlas label patch, while taking into account the fact that different atlases have
313 different mappings between the target patch and its label patch. In the proposed model, we order
314 the atlas patches by the decreasing similarity, where the top atlas-unique pathway includes the
315 most similar atlas patch, and the second pathway includes the second most similar atlas patch,
316 etc.

317 *3.2.2 Target-patch pathway*

318 The target-patch pathway is used to learn the features of the target patch, as shown in the
319 gray band in Figure 3. It is designed based on a U-Net model. We select U-Net as a basic
320 architecture in the target-patch pathway, since U-Net architecture can combine the shadow layer
321 feature with deep layer feature. Shadow layer features can help compensate the information loss
322 caused by max pooling operation. Moreover, the proposed architecture will fuse the atlas feature
323 in the latter layers, so that the U-Net structure can combine pure target information (without atlas
324 information) into the latter layer to increase the weights of target patch features.

325 *3.2.3. Atlas-aware fusion pathway*

326 For each atlas, we create an atlas-unique pathway, along which the atlas patches are
327 propagated. Hence, we create multiple independent atlas-unique pathways, each associated with

328 a single atlas. To ultimately merge all atlas features with the target image feature, an atlas-aware
 329 fusion procedure is applied in the MA-FCN by using a convolution operation. Specifically, for
 330 all the atlas-unique pathways, the feature maps in each level are concatenated together following
 331 several convolutions. Then, a convolution layer with $1 \times 1 \times 1$ kernel is used to fuse them
 332 together, which is denoted by \oplus in Figure 3. As the size of convolution kernel is one, the atlas-
 333 aware fusion is similar to a weighted sum of the learned feature maps of atlases. Unlike existing
 334 methods that define the weight based on the similarity, the weights in our framework are learned
 335 automatically by the model itself. In this paper, we use atlas-aware fusion in a hierarchical
 336 manner, instead of just using it at the very end of the model in order to make full use of the
 337 image features of the model. Specifically, we use atlas-aware fusion at each image scale (e.g.,
 338 preceding each pooling layer and also following each deconvolution layer). Different image
 339 scales contain different image features. For example, in the first three layers of the model, the
 340 features contain lots of original intensity related information. But after several max pooling
 341 operations, the features may contain more advanced information such as edge.

342 3.2.4. Loss function

343 In the training stage, the output of the MA-FCN is the probability map of each class of the
 344 output patch. Suppose we have N voxels, $\hat{y}(i), i = 1, 2, \dots, N$, denotes the probability of voxel i .
 345 If the class label for the corresponding golden standard is u , the loss function is defined as
 346 Equation 3:

$$L = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{u=1}^C I(y^{(i)}, u) \log(\hat{y}(i)) \quad (3)$$

347 Where $I(y^{(i)}, u)$ means the similarity between $y^{(i)}$ and u . $I(y^{(i)}, u) = \begin{cases} 0 & y^{(i)} \neq u \\ 1 & y^{(i)} = u \end{cases}$, and $y^{(i)}$ is
 348 the predicted label value. We use stochastic gradient descent with the standard back-propagation
 349 in [52] to minimize the loss function L .

350 4. Experiments and Results

351 We evaluated the proposed method on the LONI LBPA40¹ [55] dataset and SATA MICCAI
 352 2013 challenge dataset² [56]. LONI dataset and SATA dataset are the two widely-used datasets

¹ <http://www.loni.ucla.edu/Atlases/LPBA40>

353 for evaluating 2D [11, 24, 57] or 3D [22, 58, 59] labeling algorithms. They contain different
 354 anatomical regions of the brain, which can provide several ways for demonstrating the validity of
 355 our proposed method. Both datasets include different anatomical regions of the brain. The
 356 LONI_LPBA40 dataset contains 40 T1-weighted MR brain images with 54 manually labeled
 357 ROIs, provided by the Laboratory of Neuro Imaging (LONI) from UCLA [55]. Most of the ROIs
 358 are distributed within cortical regions of the brain. Here, we used the images and their
 359 corresponding labels in our experiments. The SATA dataset is provided by MICCAI 2013
 360 segmentation challenge workshop, in which 35 subjects (each with both intensity image and
 361 label map) are provided with 14 manually labeled ROIs. These 14 ROIs are inner regions of the
 362 brain, which cover accumbens, amygdala, caudate, hippocampus, pallidum, thalamus and
 363 putamen on both hemispheres. Both raw images and non-rigidly aligned images are provided by
 364 this dataset. Our goal in this section is to demonstrate the capability of our proposed framework
 365 in dealing with various challenges in brain image labeling.

366 We used CAFFE [60] framework to train our MA-FCN. The kernel weights were initialized
 367 by Xavier function, and stochastic gradient descent (SGD) was used for backpropagation. We set
 368 the start learning rate to 0.01 and used inverse learning policy, where gamma was set to 0.0001,
 369 momentum to 0.9, and the weight decay to 0.00005. These hyper parameters are chosen by trial
 370 and error, and we also use the training and validation errors to help infer the choice of hyper-
 371 parameters.

372 Our proposed method was implemented on GPU server (GeForce GTX TITAN X, RAM
 373 12GB, 8 Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-6700K CPU@4.00GHz). For LONI dataset, the training batch
 374 size is 16, and for SATA dataset, the training batch size is 64.

375 We used Dice Similarity Coefficient (DSC) and Hausdorff Distances (HD) [61] to measure
 376 the degree of overlap between two ROIs for assessing the labeling accuracy. DSC is calculated
 377 using Equation 4, where $|\cdot|$ denotes the volume of an ROI, S_1, S_2 are two regions in the brain,
 378 and \cap denotes the intersection operator. The Hausdorff Distance between sets A and B is
 379 calculated using Equation 5 and Equation 6, where $\|a - b\|$ is Euclidean distance.

$$DSC(S_1, S_2) = 2 \times |S_1 \cap S_2| / (|S_1| + |S_2|) \quad (4)$$

$$HD(A, B) = \max(h(A, B), h(B, A)) \quad (5)$$

² https://masi.vuse.vanderbilt.edu/workshop2013/index.php/Main_Page

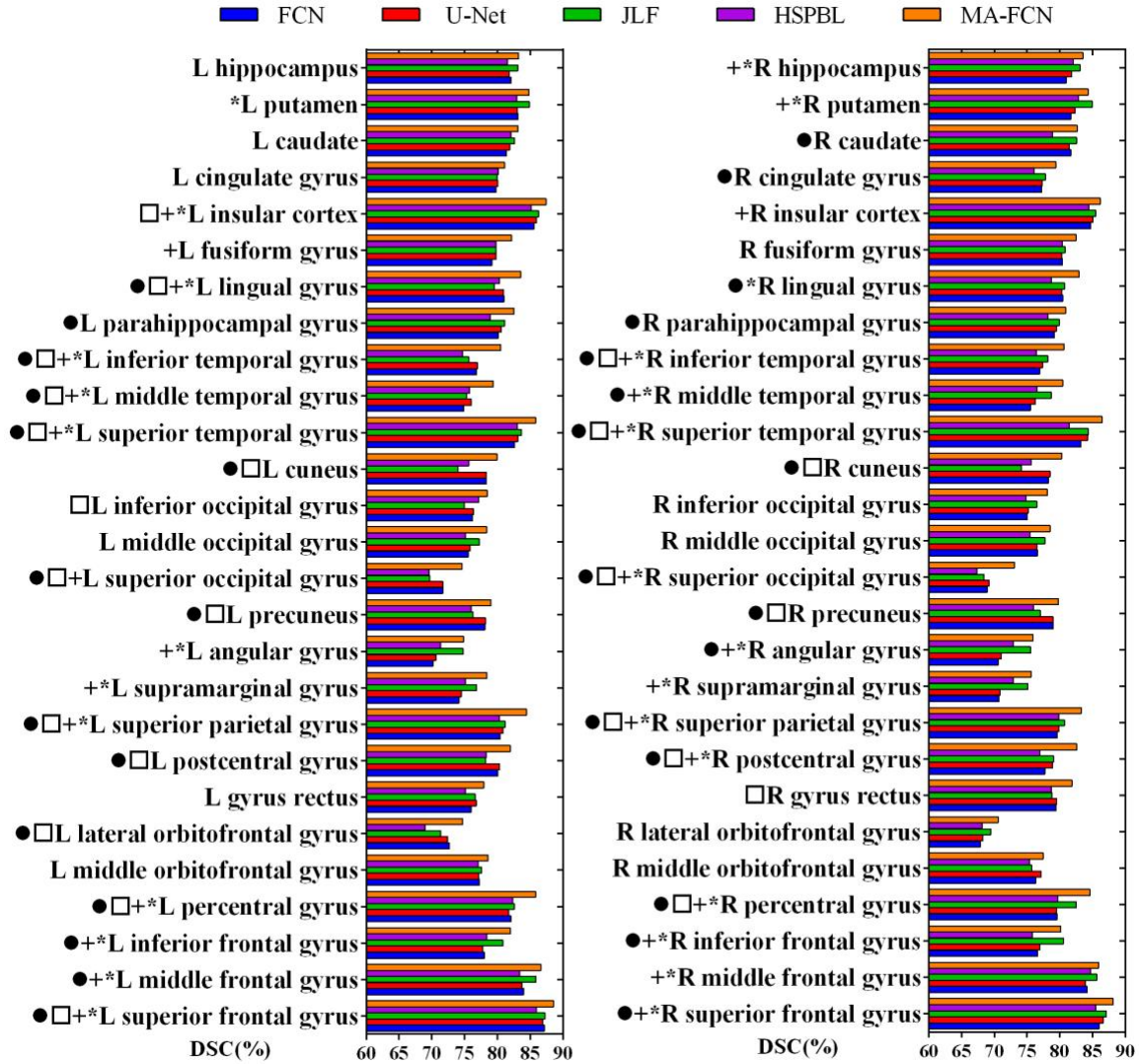
$$h(A, B) = \max_{a \in A} \min_{b \in B} \|a - b\| \quad (6)$$

380 4.1. Evaluation on LONI LPBA40 dataset

381 Four-fold cross-validation is used to validate the proposed method. Specifically, in each
 382 experiment, one-fold (10 images) is randomly selected as atlases, two image folds are used for
 383 training, and the remaining fold is used for testing. The training patch size is $24 \times 24 \times 24$, and
 384 we select 8100 patches from each training image. We don't use data augmentation strategies
 385 such as flipping or rotating the cropped training patches. We increase the number of the data by
 386 densely cropping training patches from original MR image. Specifically, 150 patches are selected
 387 from each ROI, with 120 from ROI boundaries and 30 from the inside of each ROI. In the testing
 388 stage, to ensure that the testing patch can cover the entire image and have a sufficient overlap
 389 with the neighboring patches, the step size should be defined at least less than half the patch size;
 390 otherwise, there will be only one prediction for some locations. We sample the testing image
 391 with a fixed step size where patches are visited with a step size of 11 voxels. Since each voxel
 392 belongs to several overlapping patches, we use majority voting to get a final label value from all
 393 overlapping predicted label patches. For selecting candidate atlas patches, the size of the search
 394 neighborhood is set to 12 voxels, larger than the patch size in all three directions. Typically, the
 395 search region size is usually 1-2 times bigger than that of the patch size [9]. In our case, we
 396 chose the search region 1 time bigger than the patch size. For the LONI dataset, if we define the
 397 search region as 1 time bigger than the patch size, the computing time would be very high. So,
 398 we reduced the search region size. We had compared the similar patch selection result by 12
 399 voxels larger and 24 voxels larger, and found that 87% of the selected locations remained
 400 unchanged. In the proposed architecture, the number of candidate atlas patches is set to $K=3$.

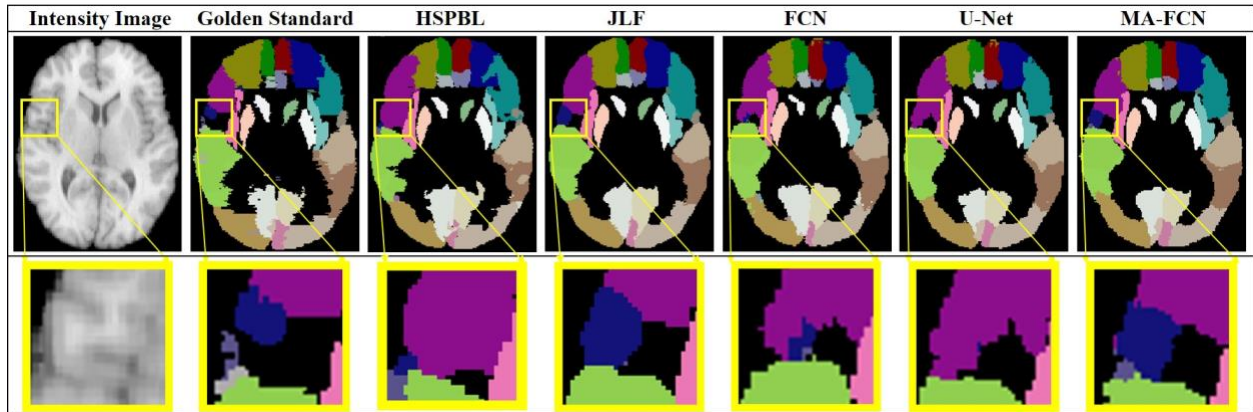
401 We compare our proposed method with U-Net (Ronneberger, Fischer et al. 2015) and FCN
 402 (Long, Shelhamer et al. 2015) architectures. The structure of the used U-Net is same as the
 403 target-patch pathway, which is shown in gray band in Figure 3. The structure of FCN is same as
 404 the atlas-unique pathway, which is shown in cyan band in Figure 3. For fair comparison, both the
 405 U-Net and FCN architectures share the same number of parameters in proposed structure.
 406 Specifically, in each layer, the number of the convolution kernels is 4 times the number of
 407 kernels in each pathway. Also, both models input 3D patches of the same size (without
 408 corresponding atlas patch compared with the input of MA-FCN). The hyper parameters such as

409 learning rate, gamma, momentum, and the weight decay are set similarly to MA-FCN. We
410 evaluated U-Net and FCN architectures on SATA dataset as baseline methods. Table 1 displays
411 the mean and standard deviation of DSC for all 54 ROIs. The proposed method achieves 1.8%
412 improvement over U-Net and 2.3% over FCN, respectively. For the HD, proposed model is
413 smaller than both of them. Figure 4 displays the results of our method in comparison with the
414 FCN and U-Net on all 54 ROIs. The symbol ‘+’ indicates that MA-FCN has a statistically
415 significant ($p < 0.05$ by paired t -test) improvement compared with the conventional FCN method
416 in 29 ROIs, while the symbol ‘*’ indicates that MA-FCN has a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$
417 by t -test) improvement compared with the U-Net in 28 ROIs. Figure 5 shows the visual
418 comparison of the proposed MA-FCN with FCN and U-Net. The labeling result of the region
419 inside the yellow box shows that, with the integration of multiple atlases, the labeling ability of
420 our model is improved. In Figure 5 and 6, the labeling result produced by our proposed method
421 is smoother than the ground truth. Since the ground truth is manually labeled, the discontinuity
422 error might be occurred between adjacent slices. However, the smoother result is more
423 biologically feasible, and our method has not reproduced this discontinuity error. Therefore, our
424 labeling performance is not attributed by simple overfitting the data. Moreover, we also teste the
425 trained model by using the training image, and achieve the labeling DSC of 84.3% on LONI
426 dataset. This demonstrates that the labeling results are not overfitting the dataset.



427

428 **Figure 4: DSC for each ROI by FCN, U-Net, JLF, HSPBL and MA-FCN, respectively. MA-**
 429 **FCN outperforms both the conventional FCN and U-Net in all ROIs. The symbol ‘+’**
 430 **indicates statistically significant improvement ($p < 0.05$ by paired t -test) with respect to the**
 431 **conventional FCN. The symbol ‘*’ indicates statistically significant improvement ($p < 0.05$**
 432 **by paired t -test) with respect to U-Net. The symbol ‘□’ indicates statistically significant**
 433 **improvement ($p < 0.05$ by paired t -test) with respect to the JLF. The symbol ‘●’ indicates**
 434 **statistically significant improvement ($p < 0.05$ by paired t -test) with respect to the HSPBL.**



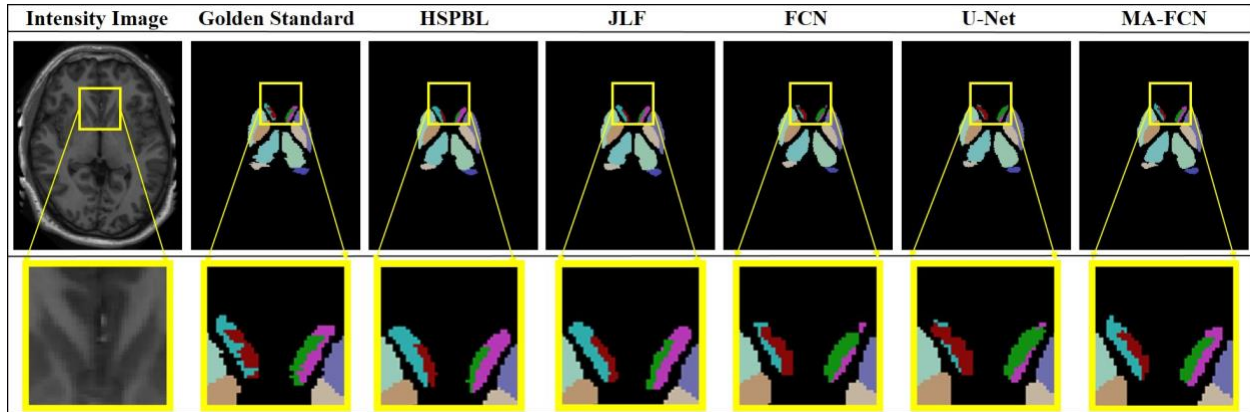
435

436 **Figure 5: Visual comparison of labeling results by HSPBL, JLF, 3D patch-based FCN, U-**
 437 **Net, and MA-FCN for a representative subject. Our method produces more accurate labels**
 438 **for the regions inside the yellow box.**

439 *4.2. Evaluation on SATA MICCAI 2013 dataset*

440 7-fold cross-validation is used in this experiment. Specifically, we divide 35 subjects into 7
 441 groups, each group containing 5 subjects. Next, we randomly select 2 folds as atlas images, 4
 442 folds as our training set, and the remaining fold as our test set. Since the number of ROIs to label
 443 is smaller than that in LONI dataset, we set the training patch size to $12 \times 12 \times 12$, and select
 444 4200 patches from each training image. Note that 300 patches are selected from each ROI,
 445 including 240 around the boundary and 60 inside the ROI. We evenly visit patches with a step
 446 size of 5 voxels. For selecting the candidate atlas patches, the size of the search neighborhood is
 447 set to 12 voxels larger than the patch size in all three directions. The number of candidate atlas
 448 patches is set to $K=3$.

449 The mean and standard deviation of DSC for all comparison methods are listed in Table 1.
 450 In terms of DSC, our proposed method has a 0.8% improvement compared with U-Net and 1.2%
 451 improvement compared with FCN. The HD of the proposed model is smaller than both
 452 comparison models. Figure 6 gives visual comparison of our labeling results with the golden
 453 standard. The labeling result of the region inside the yellow box shows that, with the integration
 454 of multiple atlases, the labeling ability of our model is improved.



455
 456 **Figure 6: Visual comparison of labeling results by HSPBL, JLF, 3D patch-based FCN, U-**
 457 **Net, and MA-FCN for a representative subject from SATA dataset. Our method produces**
 458 **more accurate labels for the regions inside the yellow box.**

459 4.3. Parameter tuning

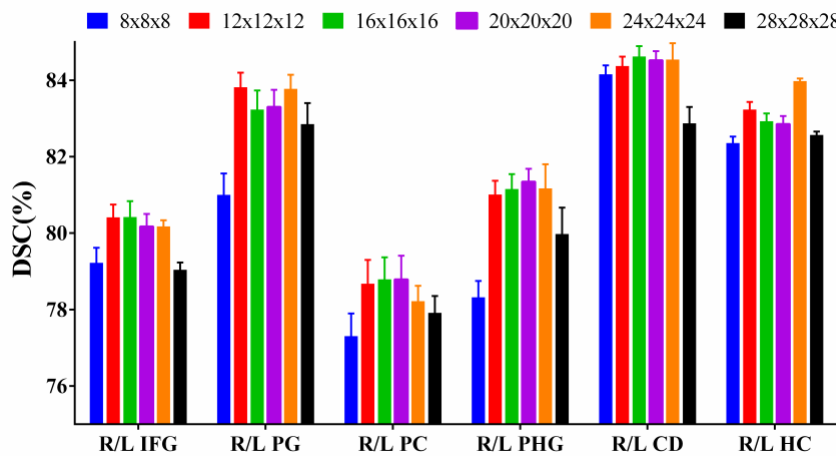
460 4.3.1 Patch size

461 In order to evaluate the influence of the patch size on labeling ROIs with different sizes, we
 462 selected 12 representative ROIs with different volume sizes from the LONI_LPBA40 dataset and
 463 6 representative ROIs with different volume sizes from SATA MICCAI 2013 dataset.
 464 Specifically, for LONI dataset, these ROIs include the right/left inferior frontal gyrus (IFG),
 465 right/left precentral gyrus (PG), right/left precuneus (PC), right/left para hippocampus gyrus
 466 (PHG), right/left caudate (CD) and right/left hippocampus (HC). The volumes of right/left IFG
 467 and left/right PG contain about 25,000 voxels, the volumes of right/left PC and PHG contain
 468 about 10,000 voxels, and the volumes of right/left CD and HC contain about 5,000 voxels. For
 469 SATA dataset, these ROIs include the right/left accumbens (AC), right/left caudate (CA) and
 470 right/left putamen (PU). The right/left AC contains about 500 voxels, the right/left CA contains
 471 about 3000 voxels, and the right/left PU contains about 8000 voxels.

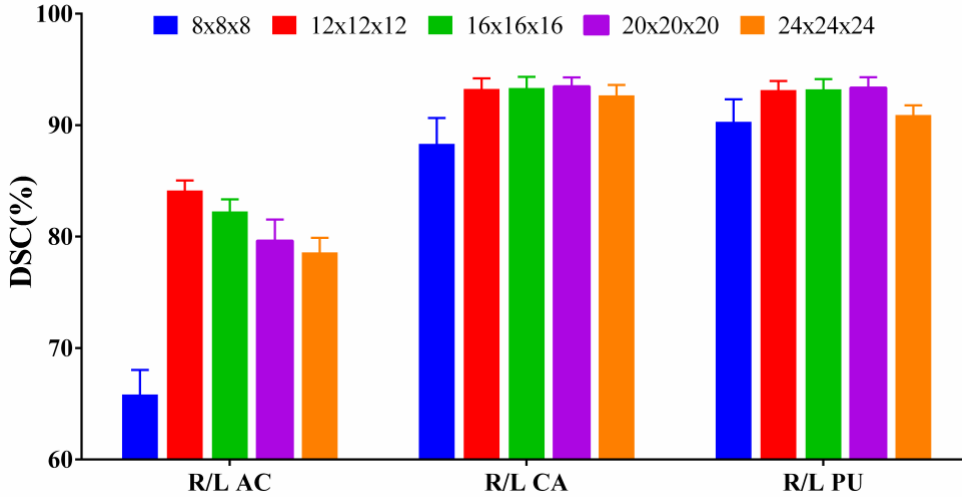
472 We varied the patch size between $8 \times 8 \times 8$ and $28 \times 28 \times 28$ for the LONI dataset by 4-
 473 fold cross-validation. Figure 7 shows the labeling performance using different patch sizes. We
 474 note that the performance has been improved when increasing the patch size from 8 to 12 and
 475 then remains stable when the patch size falls between 12 and 24. However, when the patch size
 476 exceeds 24, the labeling accuracy starts to decrease. This is mainly because a small patch
 477 contains less structural information while two patches from different locations may look similar.
 478 This may cause the model to fail in distinguishing between them. Conversely, using larger

479 patches would decrease similarity with the selected atlas patches. The larger the patch size, the
 480 more structure is included in the patch, so the dissimilarity between target patch and selected
 481 atlas patches is increased. For the target patch, the number of the wrong label will increase (if the
 482 atlas label is directly used as target patch label), thereby causing a drop in the labeling accuracy.

483 We also varied the patch size between $8 \times 8 \times 8$ and $24 \times 24 \times 24$ for the SATA dataset
 484 by 7-fold cross-validation. Figure 8 shows the labeling performance using different patch sizes.
 485 The performance increases from patch size 8 to 12 for all ROIs and keeps stable from 12 to 20
 486 on large and mediate ROIs, but decreases in small ROIs. When the patch size keeps increasing,
 487 the labeling accuracy decreases in all ROIs. The reason that the labeling accuracy of small ROI
 488 keeps decreasing from patch size 12 is because of small size of those ROIs. If the patch size is
 489 large, those small ROIs only account for a small portion of the patch, thus causing the poor
 490 learning in these ROIs.



491
 492 Figure 7: The influence of using different label patch sizes on labeling 12 representative ROIs on
 493 the LONI_LPBA40 dataset. By enlarging the patch size between $8 \times 8 \times 8$ and $12 \times 12 \times 12$,
 494 the performance largely increases, and then remains stable between patch sizes of $12 \times 12 \times 12$
 495 and $24 \times 24 \times 24$. As the patch size continues to increase, the performance decreases. Note that
 496 the DSC is the average value across all four-fold cross-validation.

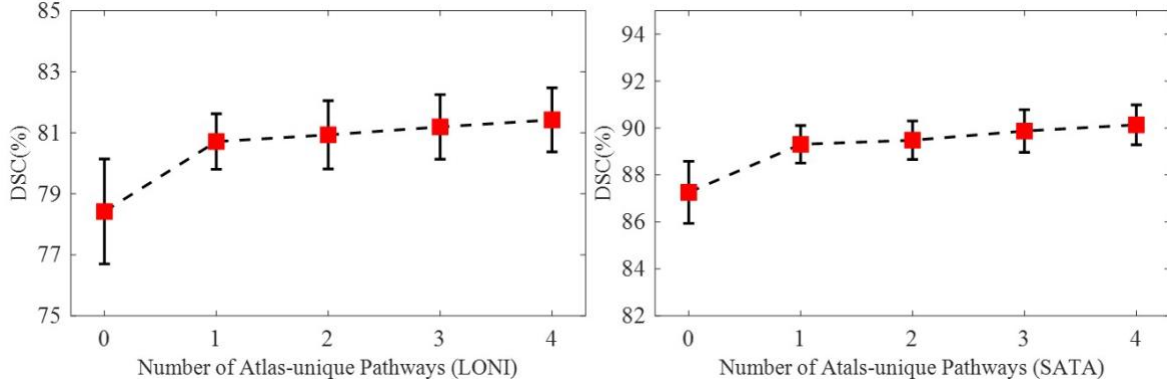


497

498 Figure 8: The influence of using different label patch sizes on labeling 6 representative ROIs on
 499 the SATA MICCAI 2013 dataset. By enlarging the patch size between $8 \times 8 \times 8$ and $12 \times 12 \times$
 500 12 , the performance largely increases on all ROIs, while remaining stable between patch sizes of
 501 $12 \times 12 \times 12$ and $20 \times 20 \times 20$ on mediate and large ROIs but beginning decreasing for small
 502 ROIs. As the patch size continues to increase, the performance decreases. The DSC is the
 503 average of all the 35 testing data by seven-fold cross-validation.

504 4.3.2 The number of atlas-unique pathways

505 In the proposed method, the top K similar candidate atlas patches are selected from affine-
 506 aligned atlases as input to the atlas-unique pathways for helping improve the labeling
 507 performance. We evaluated the performance by tuning the parameter K on both LONI and
 508 SATA datasets. The value of K ranges from 0 to 4. Figure 9 shows the evaluation result *with*
 509 *respect to* the number of the atlas-unique pathways. We can clearly see that the performance of
 510 our model increases significantly from 0 atlas-unique pathways to 1 atlas-unique pathway,
 511 indicating that the atlas and label information did aid in boosting the labeling quality. As the
 512 number of patches increases, the labeling quality is refined, but the memory and processing time
 513 cost also increase. To balance the performance and the memory cost (and also processing time),
 514 we use 3 atlas-unique pathways in our model.



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Figure 9: Evaluation on the number of atlas-unique pathways using both LONI and SATA dataset, in terms of DSC (%). The performance increases with the increase of the number of candidate atlas patches.

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4.4. Comparison with state-of-the-art methods

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To evaluate the labeling performance, we compare our proposed method with two state-of-the-art methods on both LONI and SATA datasets. The comparison methods include 1) HSPBL [11] and JLF [20] (antsJointFusion command in ANTs toolbox). JLF is a registration-based labeling method, and HSPBL is a patch-based labeling method. The detailed comparisons are listed in Table 1. We reproduced all results shown in Table 1. Both methods use leave-one-out strategy to evaluate all the test data and the configure parameters are same as the original papers.

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For LONI dataset, our proposed MA-FCN improved the labeling accuracy by 2% in comparison with JLF. Compared with the HSPBL method, our proposed method achieves 2.72% improvement. Figure 4 displays the results of our method in comparison with the HSPBL and JLF on all 54 ROIs. The symbol ‘●’ indicates that MA-FCN has a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$ by paired t -test) improvement compared with the HSPBL method in 31 ROIs, while the symbol ‘□’ indicates that MA-FCN has a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$ by t -test) improvement compared with the JLF in 23 ROIs. Figure 5 shows the visual comparison of the proposed MA-FCN with HSPBL and JLF on LONI dataset. For SATA dataset, our proposed MA-FCN improved the labeling accuracy by 1.81% in comparison with JLF and 2.91% more than the HSPBL method. For the Hausdorff distance, our method has the smallest value for both datasets. Figure 6 gives visual comparison of our labeling results with the HSPBL and JLF on SATA dataset.

538

Table 1. Comparison with state-of-the-art methods on two datasets.

LONI LPBA40					
Method	HSPBL	JLF	FCN	U-Net	MA-FCN
HD(voxel)	22.95±4.81	17.59± 3.14	21.50±4.69	16.25±4.00	14.11±3.22
DSC(%)	78.47±2.33	79.19± 0.98	78.88±1.07	79.42±1.12	81.19±1.06

SATA					
Method	HSPBL	JLF	FCN	U-Net	MA-FCN
HD(voxel)	4.18±1.73	3.84±1.30	3.34±0.92	2.76±0.81	2.38±0.71
DSC(%)	86.13±2.75	87.23±1.91	87.82±1.37	88.25±1.42	89.04±1.30

539 The average testing time is 7 minutes for each subject. In particular, 5 minutes are used for
540 preparing the test patches on CPU and about 2 minutes used for inferencing the test patches by
541 the trained model on the GPU platform. For the registration-based method [20], the average
542 labeling time for one subject is 120 minutes on CPU. Our proposed method is much faster than
543 registration-based method. For the patch-based method [11], the labeling time is 40 minutes.
544 Notably, our method is faster. For example, for ConvNet-based methods, the average labeling
545 time is 2 minutes. On the other hand, although ConvNet-based methods are faster than MA-FCN,
546 MA-FCN can achieve higher labeling accuracy, as indicated in Section 4.1. The specific time
547 usage and memory cost is listed in Table 2. The sign “-” means no this step in the method.

548 Table 2. The comparison of time usage and memory cost for different methods

	Affine reg.	Deform reg.	Patch selection	Label fusion	Inference	Training
Memory	<1G	<1G	<1G	3G	1G	12G
	CPU	CPU	CPU	CPU	GPU	GPU
HSPBL	8 min (4 threads)	240 min (4 threads)	-	40 min	-	-
JLF	8 min (4 threads)	240 min (4 threads)	-	120 min	-	-
FCN	-	-	-	-	90 s	12 h
U-Net	-	-	-	-	90 s	14 h
MA-FCN	8 min (4 threads)	-	5 min (2 threads)	-	140 s	20 h

549 5. Discussion

550 In this paper, we proposed an automated labeling framework of brain images, by integrating
551 multiple-atlas based labeling approaches into an FCN architecture. Previously, several neural
552 network-based methods aimed to integrate data from multiple sources or different modalities by

553 concatenating them together for network training [54, 62-64]. Our proposed MA-FCN falls into
554 the same category, but it has more appealing aspects. For instance, Fang *et al.* [54] simply
555 concatenate the training patch, atlas intensity patches, and label maps together as inputs to the U-
556 Net, whereas the atlas information is propagated independently and fused together in our MA-
557 FCN architecture.

558 The proposed MA-FCN outperformed U-Net [54] as it increased the labeling accuracy by
559 0.8%. We note that atlas label patches are selected from the atlas, not from the target image,
560 hence the label values might not perfectly match with the ground-truth label of the target patch.
561 To address this issue, we defined the *atlas-unique pathway* in our FCN, where label information
562 can be propagated independently. Guided by the ground truth, the label can be refined by the
563 convolution operation. Then, the refined label maps are fused into target patch to get the final
564 label maps.

565 The label map is a strong semantic information that is leveraged and integrated into our
566 proposed deep learning architecture. Both the feature information from the *target-patch pathway*
567 and the *atlas-unique pathway* make contributions to the labeling works in the MA-FCN. Here,
568 we further validate their importance in the framework, by conducting a labeling experiment
569 using our proposed method without the *target-patch pathway*, and leaving only the *atlas-aware*
570 *fusion* and the *atlas-unique pathways*. The labeling performance for the LONI-LBPA 40 is
571 reduced to $76.91 \pm 1.21\%$, compared with the MA-FCN method with all three components
572 included ($81.19 \pm 1.06\%$) as shown in Table 1. Meanwhile, the labeling performance for U-Net
573 FCN is $79.42 \pm 1.12\%$, which can also be considered as the MA-FCN method using only the
574 component of *target-patch pathway*. Therefore, this experiment validates that all three
575 components help improve the labeling performance for the MA-FCN method.

576 In Rousseau *et al.* [28], they found that accurate correspondences derived from non-rigid
577 registration could improve the labeling performance. Here, we evaluate the performance of our
578 proposed architecture by replacing the affine registration with non-rigid registration. For the
579 SATA dataset, the organizer had already provided non-rigid registration results. For the LONI
580 dataset, we use SyN registration method integrated in ANTs software to non-rigidly register
581 atlases to the target image. The DSC on SATA dataset is $89.27 \pm 1.07\%$, and the performance on
582 LONI dataset is 81.81%. These results show that non-rigid registration can slightly improve the
583 label performance of our proposed architecture than affine registration.

584 Despite its appealing aspects, our MA-FCN method is limited by a large memory cost when
585 compared with the conventional FCN and U-Net architectures. Although the added similar atlas
586 patches improve the labeling performance, the memory cost increases largely. For example, the
587 memory cost is almost two times the ordinary FCN for a MA-FCN with three pathways.
588 Moreover, even though our MA-FCN method needs fewer iterations to converge, the training
589 time for each iteration increase as the complexity of network architecture increases, which leads
590 to a longer training time. Future work will focus on how to reduce the parameters of the network.
591 Alternatively, we will consider using ResNet [65, 66] structure as a backbone structure in our
592 MA-FCN method. ResNet structure is proved to be more efficient and uses less memory than the
593 general convolutional network.

594 **6. Conclusion**

595 In this work, we have proposed a novel multi-atlas guided fully convolutional networks
596 (MA-FCN) for brain labeling. Different from conventional ConvNet methods, we integrated
597 atlas intensity and label information through new pathways embedded in the proposed FCN
598 architecture. The MA-FCN contains three propagation pathways: *atlas-unique pathway*, *atlas-*
599 *aware fusion pathway*, and *target-patch pathway*. The *atlas-unique pathway* can amend the
600 wrong labels in the atlas by using the convolution operation. The *atlas-aware fusion pathway*
601 gives each voxel in the candidate atlas patch a weight and fuses them together at the voxel level.
602 Last, the *target-patch pathway* propagates the target patch and the fused information. In this
603 way, MA-FCN combines the advantages of both multi-atlas-based and ConvNet labeling
604 methods. Our method does not require non-rigid registration, but it can still achieve better or
605 comparable results with the state-of-the-art multi-atlas-based methods on LONI dataset and
606 much better performance on SATA dataset. Moreover, the idea of our proposed architecture can
607 also be easily applied to other ConvNet methods such as RNN [67] or LSTM [68].

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