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1 Breast Ultrasound Lesions Recognition: End-to-end Deep Learning 2 Approaches

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11 **Abstract.** Multi-stage processing of automated breast ultrasound lesions recognition is dependent on the performance
12 of prior stages. To improve the current state of the art, we propose the use of end-to-end deep learning approaches
13 using Fully Convolutional Networks (FCNs), namely FCN-AlexNet, FCN-32s, FCN-16s and FCN-8s for semantic
14 segmentation of breast lesions. We use pre-trained models based on ImageNet and transfer learning to overcome the
15 issue of data deficiency. We evaluate our results on two datasets, which consist of a total of 113 malignant and 356
16 benign lesions. To assess the performance, we conduct 5-fold cross validation using the following split: 70% for
17 training data, 10% for validation data, and 20% testing data. The results showed that our proposed method performed
18 better on benign lesions, with a top *Mean Dice* score of 0.7626 with FCN-16s, when compared to the malignant
19 lesions with a top *Mean Dice* score of 0.5484 with FCN-8s. When considering the number of images with *Dice*
20 score > 0.5 , 89.6% of the benign lesions were successfully segmented and correctly recognised, while 60.6% of the
21 malignant lesions were successfully segmented and correctly recognised. We conclude the paper by addressing the
22 future challenges of the work.

23 **Keywords:** breast ultrasound, breast lesions recognition, fully convolutional network, semantic segmentation.

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25 1 Introduction

26 Breast cancer is the most common cancer in the UK [1], where one in eight women will be di-
27 agnosed with breast cancer in their lifetime and one person is diagnosed every 10 minutes [1].

28 Over recent years, there has been significant research into using different image modalities [2] and
29 technical methods have been developed [3, 4] to aid early detection and diagnosis of the disease.

30 These efforts have led to further research challenge and demand for robust computerised methods
31 for cancer detection.

32 Two view mammography is known as the gold standard for breast cancer diagnosis [2]. How-
33 ever, ultrasound is the standard complementary modality to increase the accuracy of diagnosis.

34 Other alternatives include tomography and magnetic resonance, however, ultrasound is the most
35 widely available option and widely used in clinical practice [5].

36 Conventional computerised methods in breast ultrasound cancer diagnosis comprised multi-
37 ple stages, including pre-processing, detection of the region of interest (ROI), segmentation and
38 classification [6–8]. These processes rely on hand-crafted features including descriptions in the
39 spatial domain (texture information, shape and edge descriptors) and frequency domain. With the
40 advancement of deep learning methods, we can detect and recognise objects without the need for
41 hand-crafted features. This paper presents the limitation of the state of the art and conducts a fea-
42 sibility study on the use of a deep learning approach as an end-to-end solution for fully automated
43 breast lesion recognition in ultrasound images.

44 Two-Dimensional (2D) breast ultrasound lesion segmentation is a challenging task due to the
45 speckle noise and being operator dependent. So far, image processing and conventional machine
46 learning methods are deemed as preferable methods to segment the breast ultrasound lesions [9].
47 These are dependent on the human designed features such as texture descriptors [10, 11] and shape
48 descriptors [7]. With the help of these extracted features, image processing algorithms [12] are
49 used to locate and segment the lesions. Some of the state-of-the-art segmentation solutions consist
50 of multiple stages [13, 14] - preprocessing or denoising stage, initial lesion detection stage to iden-
51 tify a region of interest [15] and segmentation [16]. Recently, Huang et al. [9] reviewed the breast
52 ultrasound image segmentation solutions proposed in the past decade. In their study, they found
53 that due to the ultrasound artifacts and to the lack of publicly available datasets for assessing the
54 performance of the state-of-the-art algorithms, the breast ultrasound segmentation is still an open
55 and challenging problem.

56 **2 Related Work**

57 This section summarises the state-of-the-art segmentation and classification approaches for breast
58 ultrasound cancer analysis.

59 *2.1 BUS Segmentation Approaches*

60 Achieving an accurate segmentation in BUS images is considered to be a big challenge [17], be-
61 cause of the appearance of sonographic tumors [18, 19], the speckle noise, the low image contrast,
62 and the local changes of image intensity [20]. Considering radiologist interaction within the seg-
63 mentation process, it could have semi-automatic or fully automatic segmentation approaches [21].

64 Semi-automated segmentation approaches require an interaction with the user such as setting
65 seeds, specifying an initial boundary or a region of interest (ROI). For instance, in [22], a com-
66 puterized segmentation method for breast lesions on ultrasound images was proposed. First, a
67 contrast-limited adaptive histogram equalization was applied. Then, in order to enhance lesion
68 boundary and remove speckle noise, an anisotropic diffusion filter was applied, guided by texture
69 descriptors derived from a set of Gabor filters. Further, the derived filtered image was multiplied by
70 a constraint Gaussian function, to eliminate the distant pixels that do not belong to the lesion. To
71 create potential lesion boundaries, a marker-controlled watershed transformation algorithm was
72 applied. Finally, the lesion contour was determined by evaluating the average radial derivative
73 function.

74 In order to segment ultrasonic breast lesions, Gao et.al. [18] proposed a variant of a normal-
75 ized cut (NCut) algorithm that was based on homogeneous patches (HP-NCut) in 2012. Further,
76 HPs were spread within the same tissue HP region, which is more reliable to distinguish the different
77 tissues for better segmentation. Finally in the segmentation stage, they used the NCut framework

78 by considering the fuzzy distribution of textons within HPs as final image features. More recently,
79 Prabhakar et.al. [23] developed algorithm for an automatic segmentation and classification of
80 breast lesions from ultrasound images. As a pre-processing step, speckle noise was removed us-
81 ing the Tetrolet filter and, subsequently, active contour models based on statistical features were
82 applied to obtain an automatic segmentation. For the classification of breast lesions, a total of
83 40 features were extracted from the images, such as textural, morphological and fractal features.
84 Support Vector Machines (SVM) with a polynomial kernel for the combination of texture, optimal
85 features were used to classify the lesions from BUS images.

86 Fully automatic segmentation needs no user intervention at all. In [24], instead of using a
87 term-by-term translation of diagnostic rules on intensity and texture, a novel algorithm to achieve
88 a comprehensive decision upon these rules was proposed. This was achieved by incorporating im-
89 age over-segmentation and lesion detection in a pairwise conditional random field (CRF) model.
90 In order to propagate object-level cues to segments, multiple detection hypotheses were used. Fur-
91 ther, a unified classifier was trained based on the concatenated features. This algorithm could avoid
92 the limitations of bottom-up segmentation, and capable to handle very complicated cases. In the
93 same year, a novel algorithm was proposed [19], making no assumptions about lesions, in which
94 a hierarchical over-segmentation framework was used for collecting heterogeneous features. Con-
95 sidering multiscale property, the superpixels were classified with their confidences nested into the
96 bottom layer. An efficient CRF model was used for making the ultimate segmentation. Compared
97 with other two different approaches, Hao et.al [19] algorithm was superior in performance, and
98 was able to handle all kinds of tumors (benign and malignant).

99 In [25], two new concepts of neutrosophic subset and neutrosophic connectedness (neutro-
100 connectedness) were defined to generalize the fuzzy subset and fuzzy connectedness. The newly

101 proposed neutro-connectedness models the inherent uncertainty and indeterminacy of the spatial
102 topological properties of the image. The proposed method was applied to a BUS dataset with 131
103 cases, and its performance was evaluated using the similarity ratio, false positive ratio and average
104 Hausdroff error. In comparison with the fuzzy connectedness segmentation method, the proposed
105 method was more accurate and robust in segmenting tumors in BUS images.

106 *2.2 BUS Classification Approaches*

107 The majority of state-of-the-art methods are multi-stage. First to detect a lesion, i.e. where a lesion
108 is localised on the image [26]. The localisation of a lesion can be done by manual annotation or
109 using automated lesion detection approaches [6, 15]. Subsequently, next step is to identify the le-
110 sion type using feature descriptors. Amongst different proposed approaches considering solid mass
111 classification, there are two main feature descriptors [27], i.e. echo texture [28] [11] and shape and
112 margin features [29]. We present a couple of works on multi-stage machine learning methods. For
113 a full review, please refer to Cheng et al. [26]. Liu et al. [30] proposed a novel breast classification
114 system for Color Doppler flow imaging and B-Mode ultrasound. In order to obtain features from
115 B-Mode ultrasound, many feature extraction methods were used to provide both the texture and
116 geometric features. The first stage was an extraction of color Doppler features, which was achieved
117 by applying blood flow velocity analysis to Doppler signals to extract several spectrum features.
118 In addition, the authors proposed a velocity coherent vector method. Furthermore, using a sup-
119 port vector machine classifier, selected features were used to classify breast lesions into benign or
120 malignant classes. They achieved an area under the ROC curve of 0.9455 when validated on 105
121 cases with 50 benign and 55 malignant. In the same year, Yap et al. [31] carried out a compre-
122 hensive analysis of the best feature descriptors and classifiers for breast ultrasound classification.

123 They experimented with 19 features (texture, shape and edge), 22 feature selection methods and
124 ten classifiers. From their findings, the best combination was the feature set of 4 shape descrip-
125 tors, 1 edge descriptor and 3 texture descriptors using a Radial Basis Function Network, with an
126 area under the ROC curve of 0.948. In 2016, Yap and Yap [32] conducted study to evaluate the
127 performance of machine learning on human delineation and computer method. They found that
128 there were no significant differences for benign lesions but computer segmentation showed better
129 accuracy for malignant lesion classification.

130 There is increasing interest in deep learning for medical imaging [33] and two research groups
131 have been successful in using this in breast ultrasound. In 2016, Huynh et al. [34] proposed the use
132 of a transfer learning approach for ultrasound breast images classification. The authors used 1125
133 cases and 2393 regions of interest for their experiment, where the ROIs were selected and labeled
134 by the experts. To compare with the hand-crafted features, CNN was used to extract the features.
135 When classify the CNN-extracted features with support vector machine on the recognition task of
136 benign and malignant, they achieved an area under the ROC curve of 0.88. However, their solution
137 was multi-stage and they did not share their dataset. In 2017, Yap et al. [35] demonstrated the
138 use of deep learning for breast lesions detection, which outperformed the previous state-of-the-art
139 image processing and conventional machine learning methods. They achieved an F-measure of
140 0.92 on breast lesions detection and made one of the dataset available for research purposes.

141 Recently, Yap et al. [36] demonstrated the practicality and feasibility of using a deep learning
142 approach for automated semantic segmentation for BUS lesion recognition. However, they only
143 performed one fold validation using one type of FCNs, i.e. FCN-AlexNet. This paper extends
144 Yap et al. [36] to 5-fold cross validation on four types of FCNs, namely, FCN-AlexNet, FCN-32s,
145 FCN-16s and FCN-8s. We are the first to implement semantic segmentation on BUS images.

146 **3 Methodology**

147 This section provides an overview of the breast ultrasound datasets, the preparation of the ground
148 truth labeling, the proposed method and the type of performance metrics used to validate our
149 results.

150 *3.1 Datasets*

151 To date, data deficiency in medical imaging analysis is a common problem. To form a larger
152 dataset, we combined two datasets, which were the only two datasets made available for re-
153 searchers. We provide a summary for each dataset and the details can be found in [35].

154 In 2001, a professional didactic media file for breast imaging specialists [37] was made avail-
155 able. It was obtained with B&K Medical Panther 2002 and B&K Medical Hawk 2102 US systems
156 with an 8-12 MHz linear array transducer. Dataset A consists of 306 images from different cases
157 with a mean image size of 377×396 pixels. From these images, 306 contained one or more lesions.
158 Within the lesion images, 60 images presented malignant masses (as in Fig. 1 first row (a)) and
159 246 were benign lesions (as in Fig. 1 first row (b)). To obtain Dataset A, the user needs to purchase
160 the didactic media file from Prapavesis et al. [37]. Yap et al. [35] named it as Dataset A in their
161 description.

162 In 2012, the UDIAT Diagnostic Centre of the Parc Taulí Corporation, Sabadell (Spain) has col-
163 lected Dataset B with a Siemens ACUSON Sequoia C512 system 17L5 HD linear array transducer
164 (8.5 MHz). The dataset consists of 163 images from different women with a mean image size of
165 760×570 pixels, where the images presented one or more lesions. Within the 163 lesion images,
166 53 were malignant lesions (as in Fig. 1 first row (c)) and 110 with benign lesions (as in Fig. 1

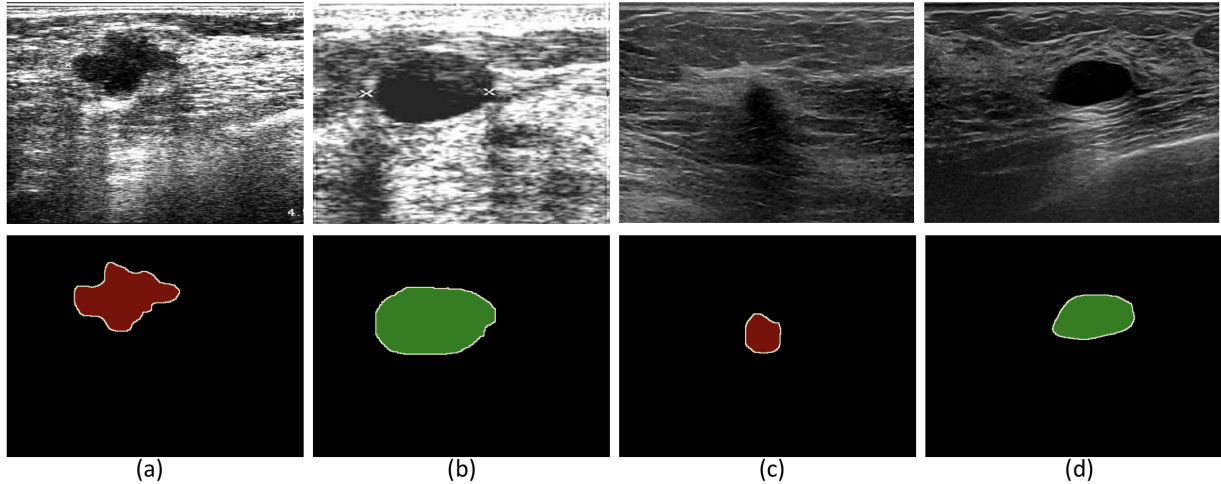


Fig 1 Illustration of some images from the datasets and its ground truth labeling in PASCAL-VOC format.(a) and (b) are images from Dataset A; (c) and (d) are images from Dataset B; and index 1 (RED) indicates malignant lesion and index 2 (GREEN) indicates benign lesion.

167 first row (d)). Dataset B and the respective delineation of the breast lesions are available online for
 168 research purposes, please refer to [35], where they named it as Dataset B in their description.

169 3.2 Ground Truth

170 Since deep learning models for semantic segmentation are widely evaluated for the PASCAL-
 171 VOC 2012 training and validation dataset, these trained models are tested for various performance
 172 metrics on the PASCAL-VOC 2012 test set [38, 39]. In the PASCAL-VOC 2012 dataset, the RGB
 173 images are used as input images. The dimensions of both input images and label images should be
 174 the same size [40]. Although the images used in training are not required to be the same size for
 175 deep learning models in segmentation tasks, all the images are required to be of same size due to
 176 the use of fully connected layers in these models. In the labelled image, every pixel value for each
 177 class is an index ranging from 0 to 255. In the PASCAL-VOC 2012 dataset, there are a total of
 178 21 classes used so far, hence, 21 indexes are used for labelling the images. For breast ultrasound
 179 images, the format in digital media is generally grayscale. Hence, to make this compatible with the

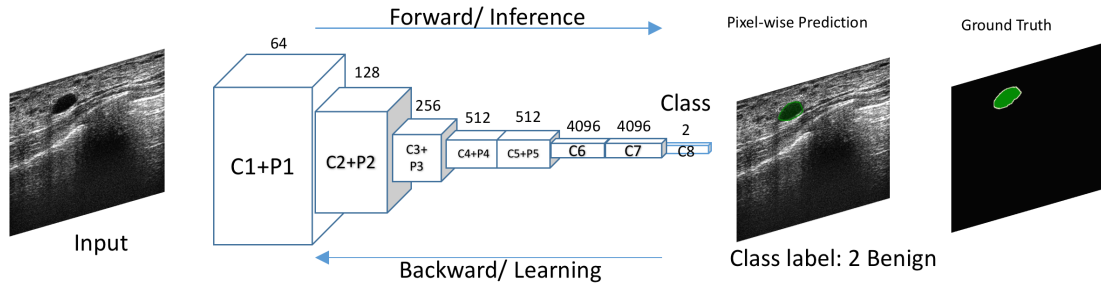


Fig 2 Overview of the semantic segmentation architecture.

180 pre-trained models and networks that are trained for PASCAL-VOC 2012 dataset (RGB images),
 181 we converted the grayscale images to RGB images with the help of channel conversion. The
 182 ground truths in binary masks format are converted into the 8-bit paletted label images. Fig. 1
 183 illustrates the breast ultrasound images with the corresponding ground truth labeling in PASCAL-
 184 VOC format, where index 1 (RED) indicates malignant lesion and index 2 (GREEN) indicates
 185 benign lesion.

186 3.3 Deep Learning Framework

187 The deep learning methods proved its superiority over image processing methods and traditional
 188 machine learning in the detection of abnormalities in medical imaging of various modalities [35,
 189 41]. There are two main types of tasks associated with medical imaging i.e. classification and
 190 semantic segmentation [42,43]. However, a known limitation of the classification is its inability to
 191 locate the abnormalities in medical imaging. Hence, semantic segmentation deep learning methods
 192 address this issues by classifying each pixel of the medical images rather than single prediction per
 193 image in the classification task. A popular group of deep learning methods for end-to-end semantic
 194 segmentation are fully convolutional networks (FCNs) [44].

195 FCN-AlexNet is a FCN version of the original AlexNet classification model with a few ad-
 196 justments in the network layers for the segmentation task [44]. This network was originally used

197 for the classification of 1000 different objects of classes on the ImageNet dataset [45]. FCN-32s,
198 FCN-16s, and FCN-8s are three models inspired by the VGG-16 based net which is a 16-layer
199 CNN architecture that participated in the ImageNet Challenge 2014 and secured the first position
200 in localization and second place in classification competition. All deep learning frameworks rely
201 on feature extraction through the convolution layers, but classification networks throw away the
202 spatial information in the fully connected layers. In contrast with classification network which
203 ignores spatial information using fully connected layers, FCN incorporates this information by
204 replacing fully connected layers with convolution layers. Feature maps from those convolution
205 layers are later used for classifying each pixel to get the semantic segmentation.

206 Transfer Learning is a procedure where a CNN is trained to learn features for a broad domain
207 after which layers of the CNN are fine-tuned to learn features of a more specific domain. Under
208 this setting, the features and the network parameters are transferred from the broad domain to
209 the specific one depending on several factors such as size of the new dataset and similarity to
210 the original dataset. The use of deep learning methods for semantic segmentation in medical
211 imaging suffer from the problem of data deficiency, which can be overcome with the help of
212 transfer learning approaches [41,42]. In this work, the pre-trained models on the ImageNet dataset
213 which contains more than 1.5 millions images of 1000 classes was used for transfer learning [45].
214 The weights trained on ImageNet dataset are transferred for semantic segmentation of BUS with
215 minor adjustments in the convolutionized fully connected layers [44]. We initialised the weights
216 of convolutional layers from these pre-trained models rather than setting up the random weights
217 for the limited medical datasets such as BUS dataset. Otherwise, it is very hard to converge the
218 models based on the limited medical datasets. Hence, we fine-tuned these models by using pre-
219 trained models and training on two classes i.e. benign and malignant in the BUS dataset as shown

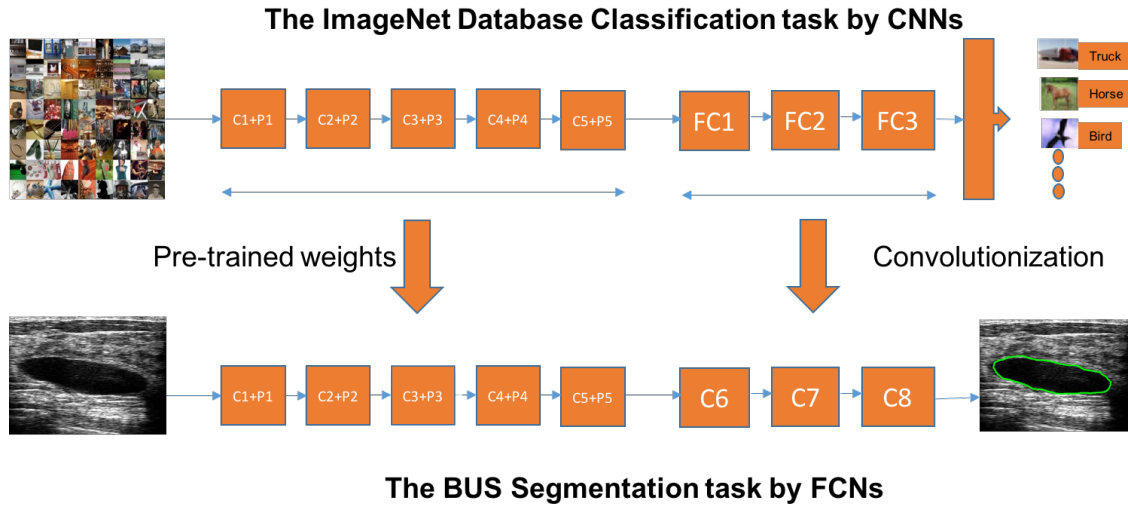


Fig 3 Transfer learning procedure of deep CNNs to obtain optimized weights initializations. Three fully connected layers of CNN were removed and replaced by three convolutional layers, making the pre-trained model fully convolutional.

220 in the Fig. 3.

221 The combination of Dataset A and Dataset B forms a larger dataset with a total of 113 malignant
 222 lesions and 356 benign lesions. We used the combined dataset to form better training and transfer
 223 learning to overcome the problem of data deficiency. We used DIGITS V5 which acts as a wrapper
 224 for the deep learning Caffe framework on the GPU machine of the following configuration: (1)
 225 Hardware: CPU - Intel i7-6700 @ 4.00Ghz, GPU - NVIDIA TITAN X 12Gb, RAM - 32Gb DDR5
 226 (2) Deep Learning Framework: Caffe [46].

227 We assessed the performance of the model using 5-fold cross validation using the following
 228 split: 70% for training data, 10% for validation data, and 20% testing data. We trained the model
 229 using stochastic gradient descent with a learning rate of 0.0001, 60 epochs with a dropout rate of
 230 33%. The number of epochs was kept at 60 as in [47] where convergence has already happened
 231 when we performed the empirical experiments. Fig. 2 illustrates the process of the end-to-end
 232 solution using semantic segmentation.

Table 1 Summary of the performances for different lesion types for four semantic segmentation methods in *Mean*. *SD* is standard deviation.

Lesion Type	Method	Sensitivity <i>Mean±SD</i>	Precision <i>Mean±SD</i>	Dice <i>Mean±SD</i>	MCC <i>Mean±SD</i>
Benign	FCN-AlexNet	0.8000±0.2404	0.7282±0.2191	0.7199±0.1964	0.7304±0.1762
	FCN-32s	0.8271±0.2250	0.7471±0.1923	0.7473±0.1896	0.7554±0.1689
	FCN-16s	0.8374±0.2392	0.7674±0.1953	0.7626±0.2095	0.7733±0.1857
	FCN-8s	0.8092±0.2683	0.7940±0.1960	0.7564±0.2373	0.7659±0.2172
Malignant	FCN-AlexNet	0.4708±0.3078	0.7599±0.2364	0.4894±0.2757	0.5080±0.2488
	FCN-32s	0.4492±0.2983	0.7737±0.2925	0.3267±0.2870	0.4001±0.2577
	FCN-16s	0.3790±0.2978	0.7481±0.2718	0.4212±0.2804	0.4616±0.2527
	FCN-8s	0.5696±0.3350	0.7044±0.2528	0.5484±0.2785	0.5842±0.2358

233 3.4 Evaluation criteria

234 Even though the method is an end-to-end solution, we evaluated the results using standard perfor-
 235 mance metrics from the literature. To measure the accuracy of the segmentation results, the *Dice*
 236 *Similarity Coefficient (Dice)* (henceforth *Dice*) [48, 49] was used. We report our findings in *Dice*,
 237 *Sensitivity*, *Precision* and *Matthew Correlation Coefficient (MCC)* [50] as our evaluation metrics.

238 4 Results and Discussion

239 Table 1 summarises the performance of our proposed methods on benign and malignant lesions.
 240 Overall, all the methods performed better on benign lesions, with a top *Dice* score of 0.7626,
 241 compared to the malignant lesions with a top *Dice* score of 0.5484. The results showed that the
 242 performance of the proposed method was dependent on the size of the dataset. In our datasets,
 243 we have more benign images (356) than malignant images (113). Overall, FCN-16s has the best
 244 performance in benign lesions recognition that achieved 0.8374 in *Sensitivity*, 0.7626 in *Dice Score*
 245 and 0.7733 in *MCC*. FCN-8s has the best *Precision* of 0.7940. For Malignant lesions, FCN-8s is
 246 the best method with 0.5696 in *Sensitivity*, 0.5484 in *Dice* and 0.5842 in *MCC*.

247 According to Everingham et al. [51], the results with *Dice* score > 0.5 is considered correct de-
 248 tection. Fig. 4 compares the performances of the proposed methods when considering the number

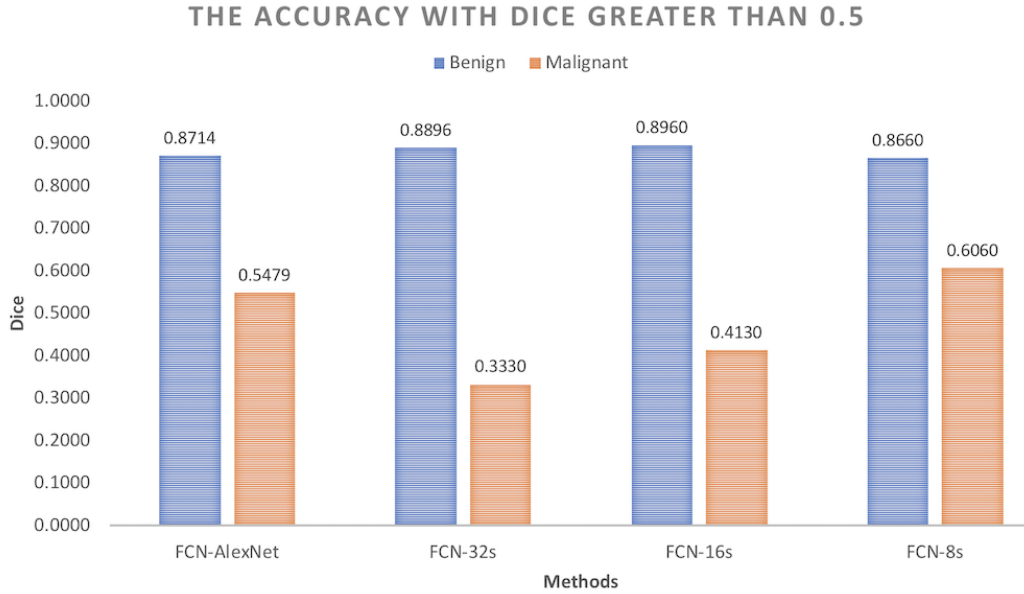


Fig 4 The accuracy of the proposed methods when considering the number of images with *Dice* score > 0.5 .

249 of images with *Dice* score > 0.5 . Overall, benign lesions had higher Dice score, with top accuracy
 250 of 0.8960 for FCN-16s. This implies that 89.6% of the benign lesions were successfully segmented
 251 and correctly recognised. The results were comparable across four different methods. For malig-
 252 nant lesions, the top accuracy is 0.6060 with FCN-8s, where only 60.6% of the malignant lesions
 253 were successfully segmented and correctly recognised. The worst performance in malignant le-
 254 sions recognition was FCN-32s, where only 33.3% of the lesions was successfully segmented and
 255 recognised. *The poor performances were due to data deficiency in malignant class, which is a*
 256 *common issue for deep learning approaches.*

257 To further illustrate the results, we visually compared the segmented regions for the proposed
 258 methods. Four examples of the successful and failed cases for our experiment are illustrated in Fig.
 259 5. The first row is a benign lesion, where the lesion is well-defined with clear boundaries. All the
 260 methods achieved high *Dice* score. Fig. 5 second row illustrates a malignant lesion with irregular
 261 boundaries and ill-defined shape. We observed that all the methods had classified the lesion to the

262 correct class. However, only FCN-16s managed to produce the closest segment when compared to
263 the ground truth. The third row of Fig. 5 shows a benign lesion where all the methods failed to
264 segment the lesion. This is due to the appearance of fibroadenoma are less hypo-echoic and poor
265 image quality. The final row illustrates that even though the methods are able to segment the lesion,
266 misclassification is an issue where FCN-AlexNet and FCN-32s have classified the hypo-echoic
267 region as benign. FCN-8s are able to classify the lesion correctly however it also detected some
268 benign regions within the lesion. Overall, the lesions with small area, ambiguity in the boundary
269 and irregular shape are harder for semantic segmentation due to the lack of data to represent these
270 categories.

271 **5 Conclusion**

272 The common problem in conventional machine learning are: 1) It is based on hand-crafted features;
273 2) In some cases, it requires human intervention where the radiologists has to select the ROI; and 3)
274 It is multi-stage and there is dependency from one stage to the next. In this paper, the problem was
275 solved by using a deep learning approach where we have shown four types of FCNs in designing a
276 robust end-to-end solution for breast ultrasound lesions recognition.

277 Conventional methods classified the lesion into single type, but using semantic segmentation,
278 we observed that it is not necessarily the case. In one lesion, as illustrated in Fig. 5 row 3 and row
279 4, it may have malignant tissue and benign tissue. This is an interesting finding for future research
280 in understanding the tumour from both the computer vision and clinical perspectives.

281 This paper has provided a new insight for future research to by investigating four types of deep
282 learning techniques. However, proposing an accurate end-to-end solution for breast ultrasound
283 lesions recognition remains a challenge due to the lack of datasets to provide sufficient data repre-

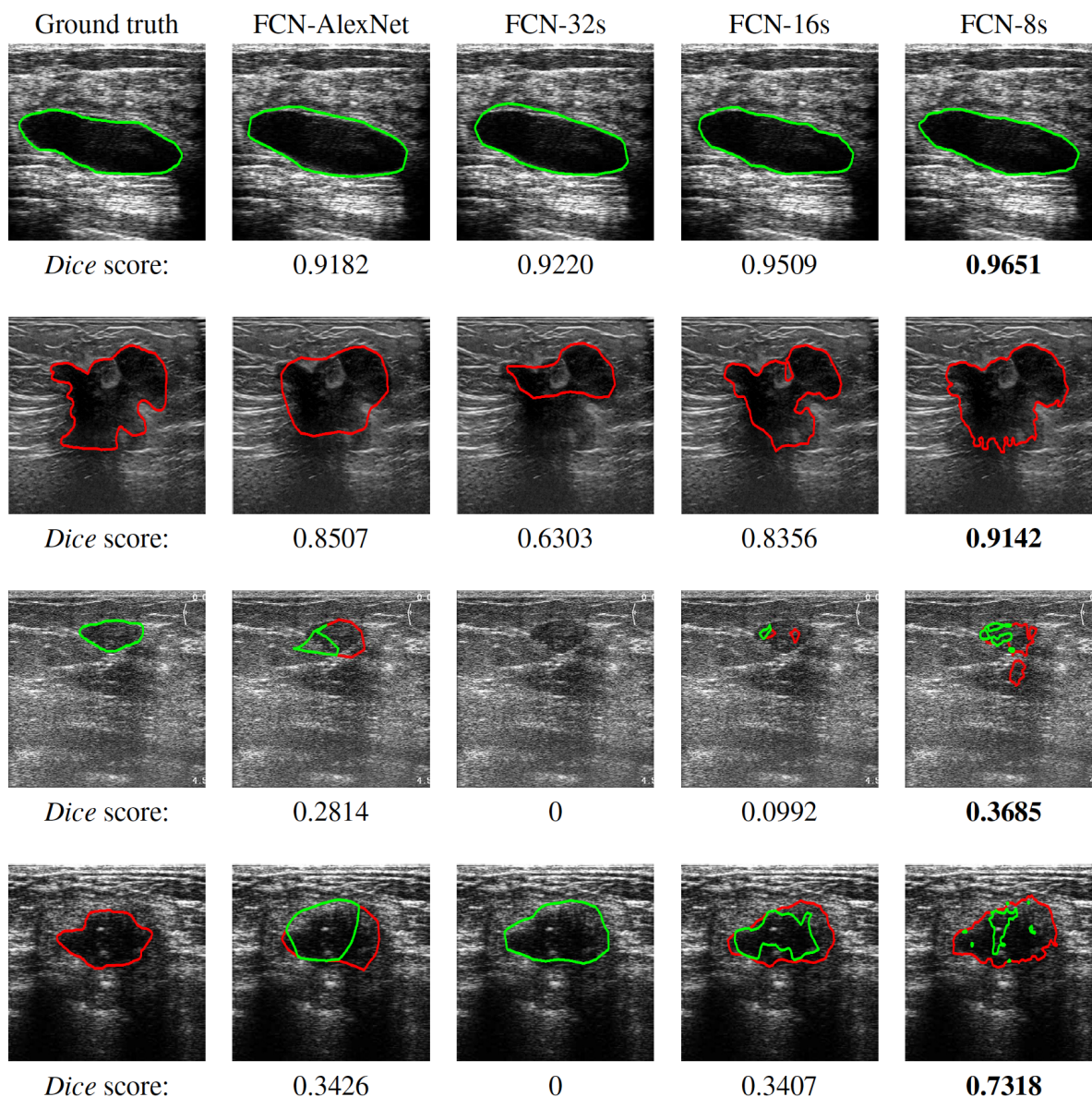


Fig 5 Visual comparison of the lesions segmentation and recognition with FCNs. The first column is the ground truth delineation, the second column is the proposed transfer learning FCN-AlexNet, the third column is the proposed transfer learning FCN-32s and the fourth column is the proposed transfer learning FCN-16s and the last column is the proposed transfer learning FCN-8s. The first and second rows showed the best case scenarios where the lesions were correctly segmented and classified. The third and fourth rows showed difficult cases where FCNs failed in those cases.

284 sentation. In the future, with the growth of big data and data sharing efforts, an end-to-end solution
285 based on deep learning approach may find wide applications in breast ultrasound computer aided
286 diagnosis.

287 *Disclosures*

288 No conflicts of interest, financial or otherwise, are declared by the authors.

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