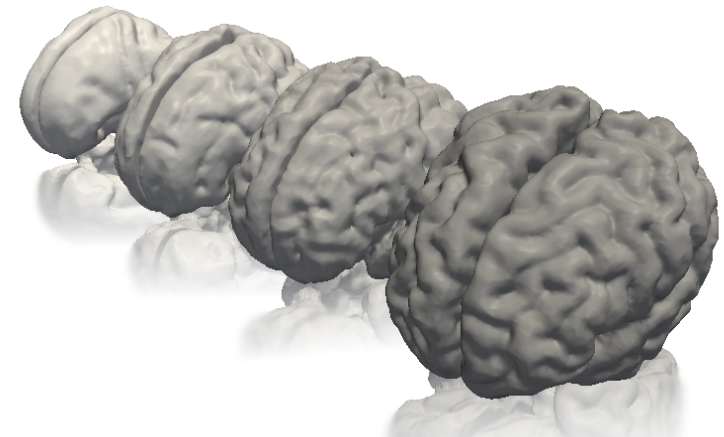




Deep Learning for medical image reconstruction, super-resolution, classification and segmentation

Daniel Rueckert
Biomedical Image Analysis Group
Department of Computing
Imperial College London, UK

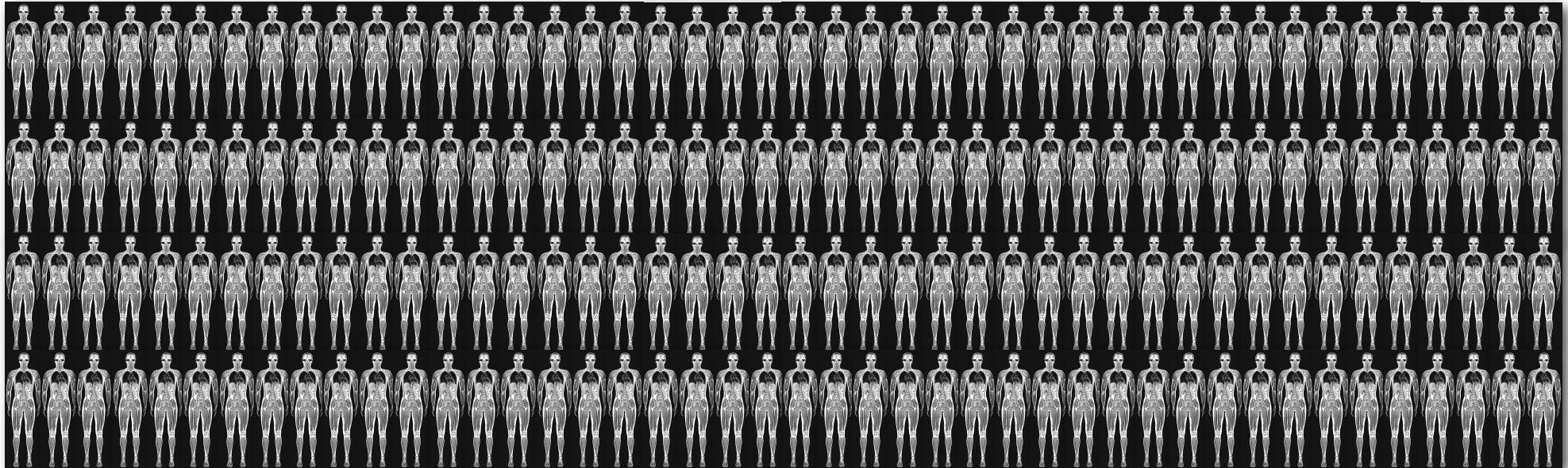


Machine learning for medical imaging: Opportunities



- Big data is slowly arriving in medical imaging

UK Biobank will provide large-scale imaging data from 100,000 subjects

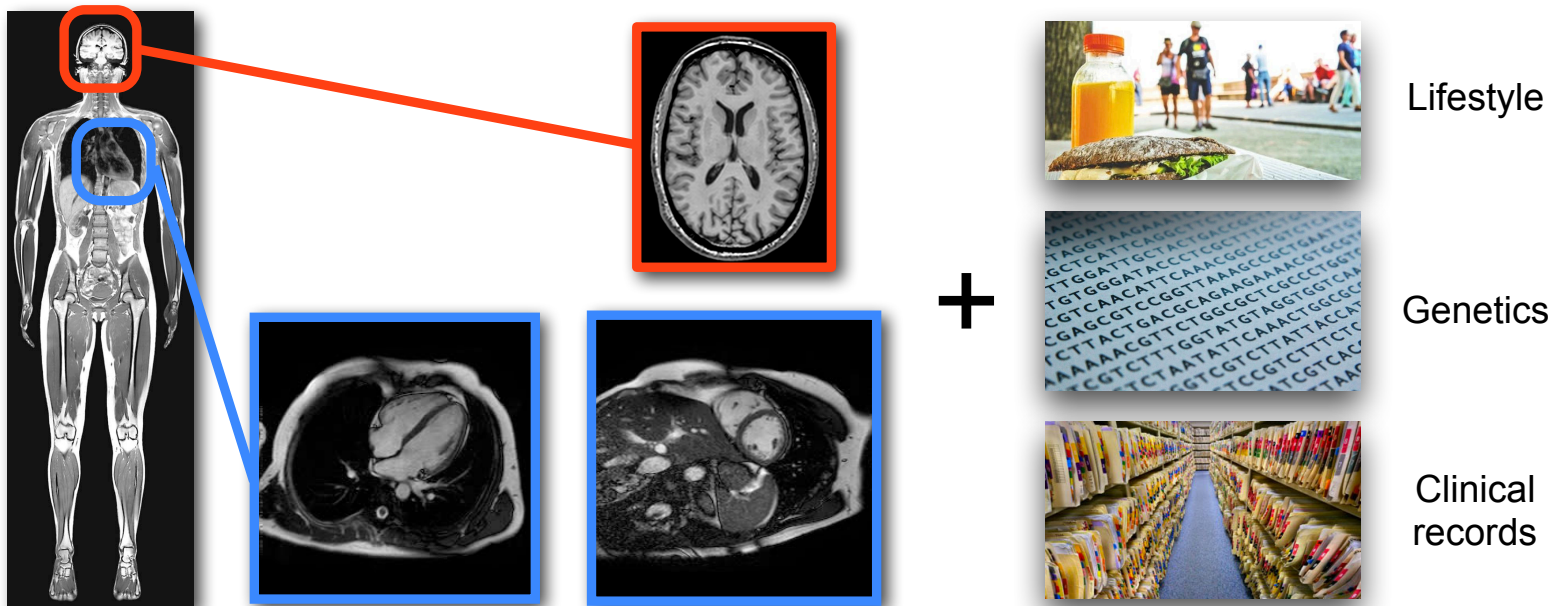


Machine learning for medical imaging: Opportunities



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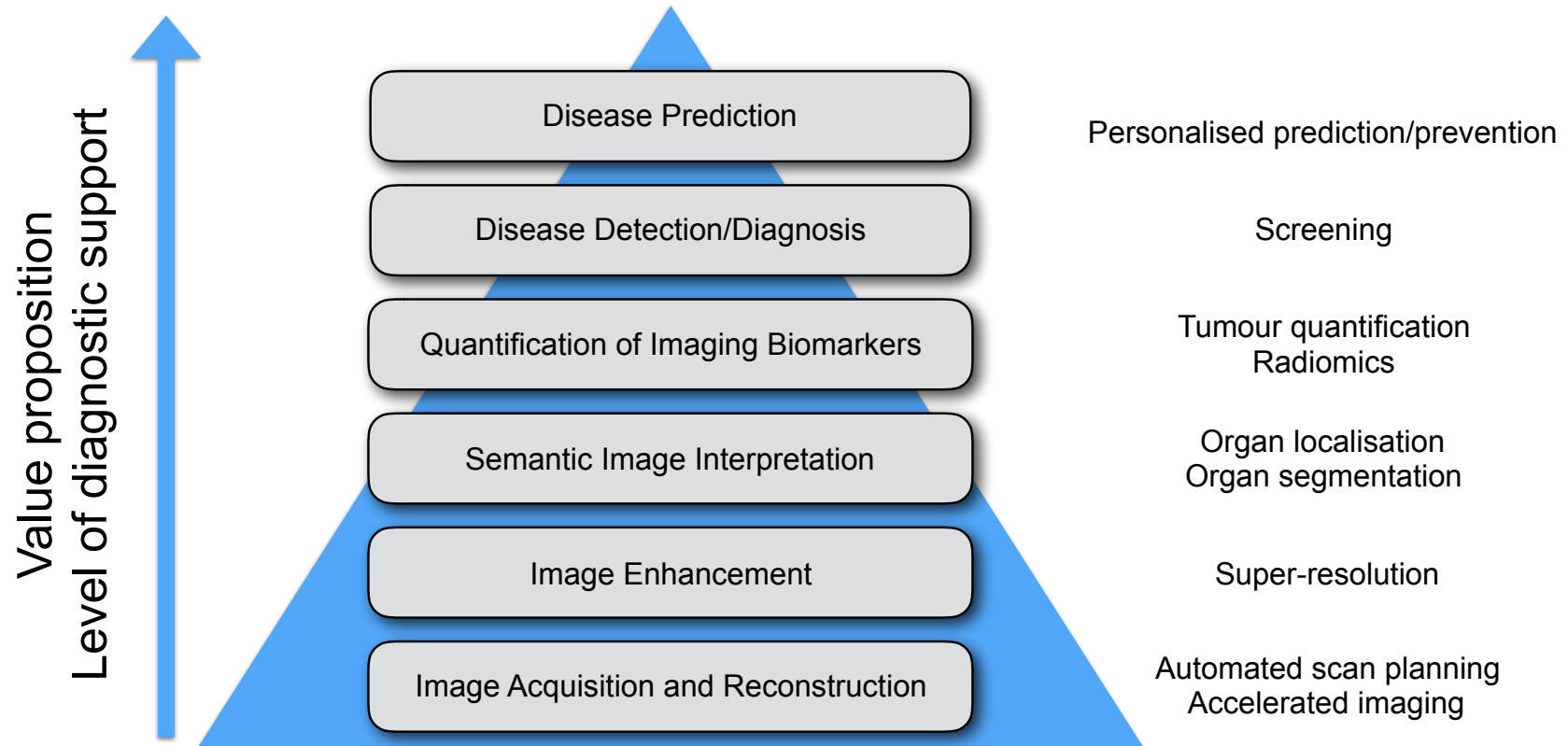
UK Biobank will provide large-scale imaging data from 100,000 subjects



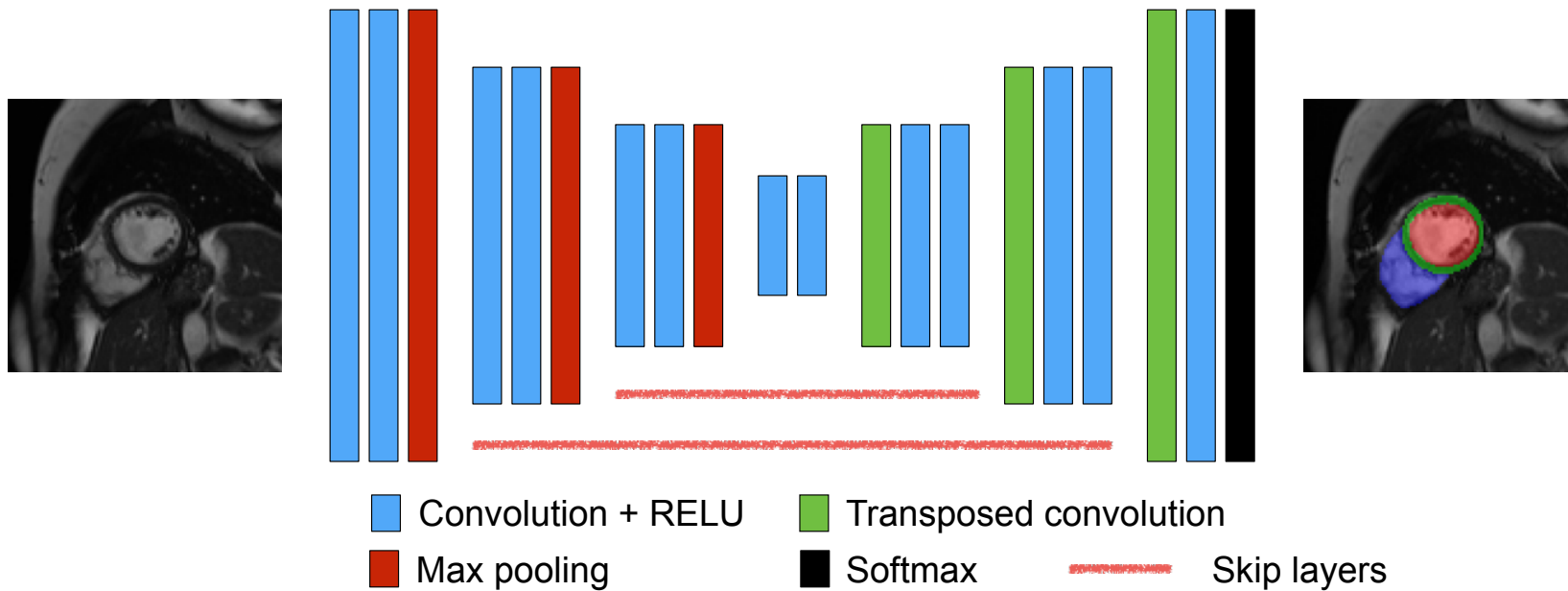
Machine learning for medical imaging: Opportunities



- Machine learning techniques are starting to reach levels of human performance in challenging visual tasks



Recall: CNNs: Encoder – Decoder networks

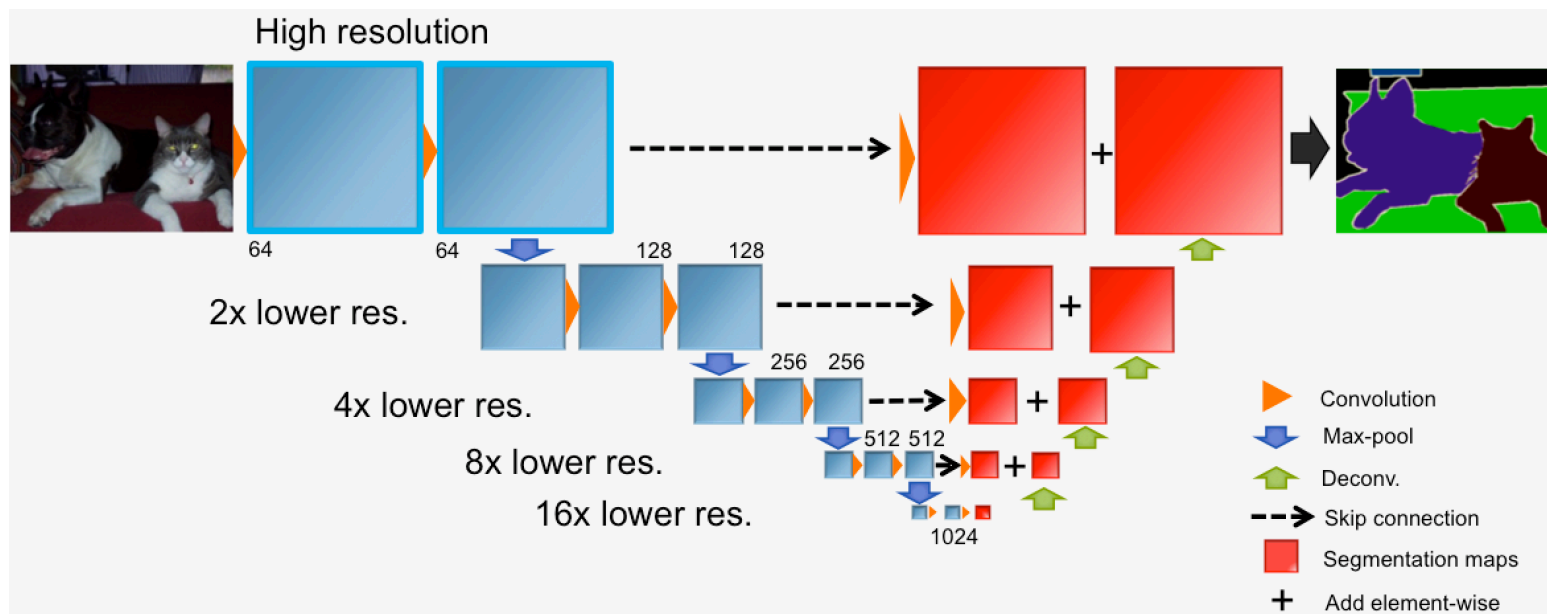


CNNs: Encoder – Decoder networks

Fully convolutional network (FCN)



- Long et al., *Fully convolutional networks for semantic segmentation*, CVPR 2015
 - Deconvolution to upsample segmentation.
 - Skip connections to combine multi-scale info for better accuracy.
 - Popularized fully conv net (previously [LeCun '98, Farabet '13])

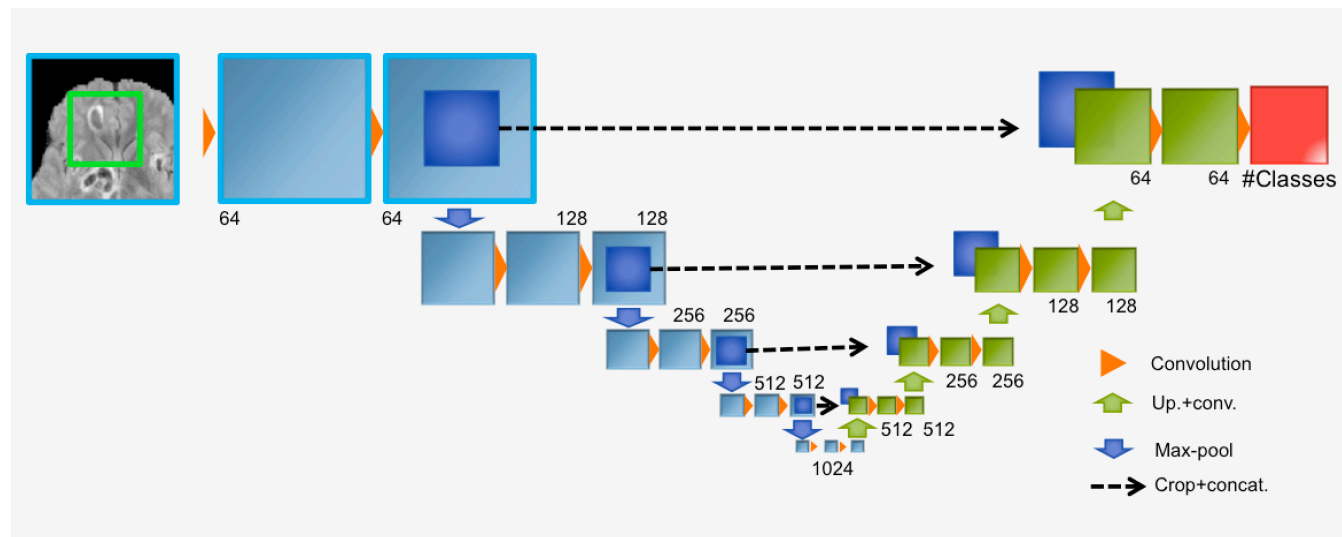


CNNs: Encoder – Decoder networks

U-Net



- Ronneberger et al., *U-net: Convolutional networks for biomedical image segmentation*, MICCAI'15.
 - Extended FCN decoder with more filters.
 - Learns to up-sample and combine multi-scale features, not segmentations (unlike FCN).
 - Original version uses only “valid” convolution (no padding), processing only real content.
 - Often works better than FCN, with the trade-off of more expensive decoder.



Overview

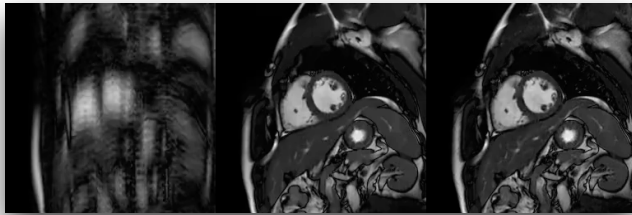


Image reconstruction

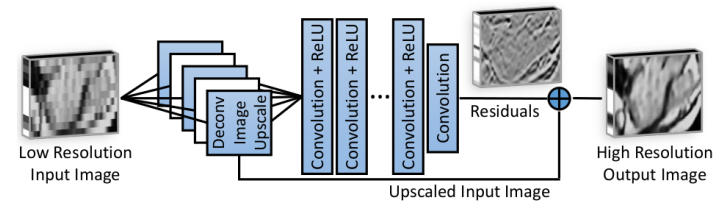


Image super-resolution

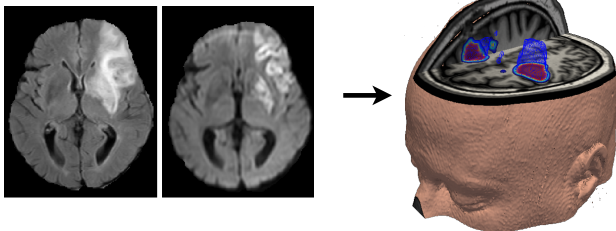


Image segmentation



Abdominal View
Confidence: 98%

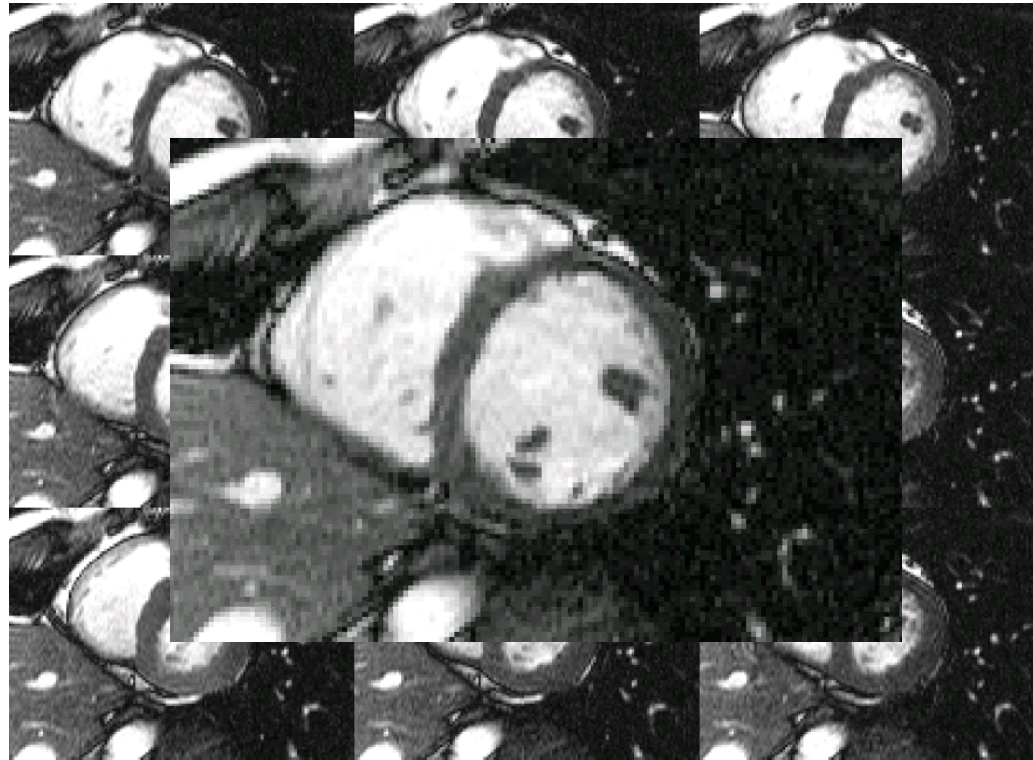
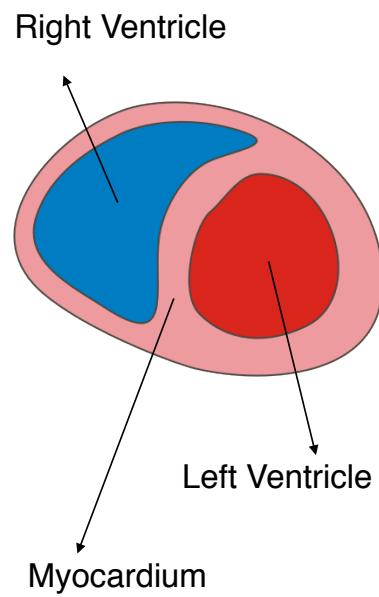
Image classification

MR image acquisition: Challenges



- Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI)
 - MRI acquisition is inherently a slow process
 - Slow acquisition is
 - ok for static objects (e.g. brain, bones, etc)
 - problematic for moving objects (e.g. heart, liver, fetus)
 - Options for MRI acquisition:
 - real-time MRI: fast, but 2D and relatively poor image quality
 - gated MRI: fine for period motion, e.g. respiration or cardiac motion but requires gating (ECG or navigators) leading to long acquisition times (30-90 min).

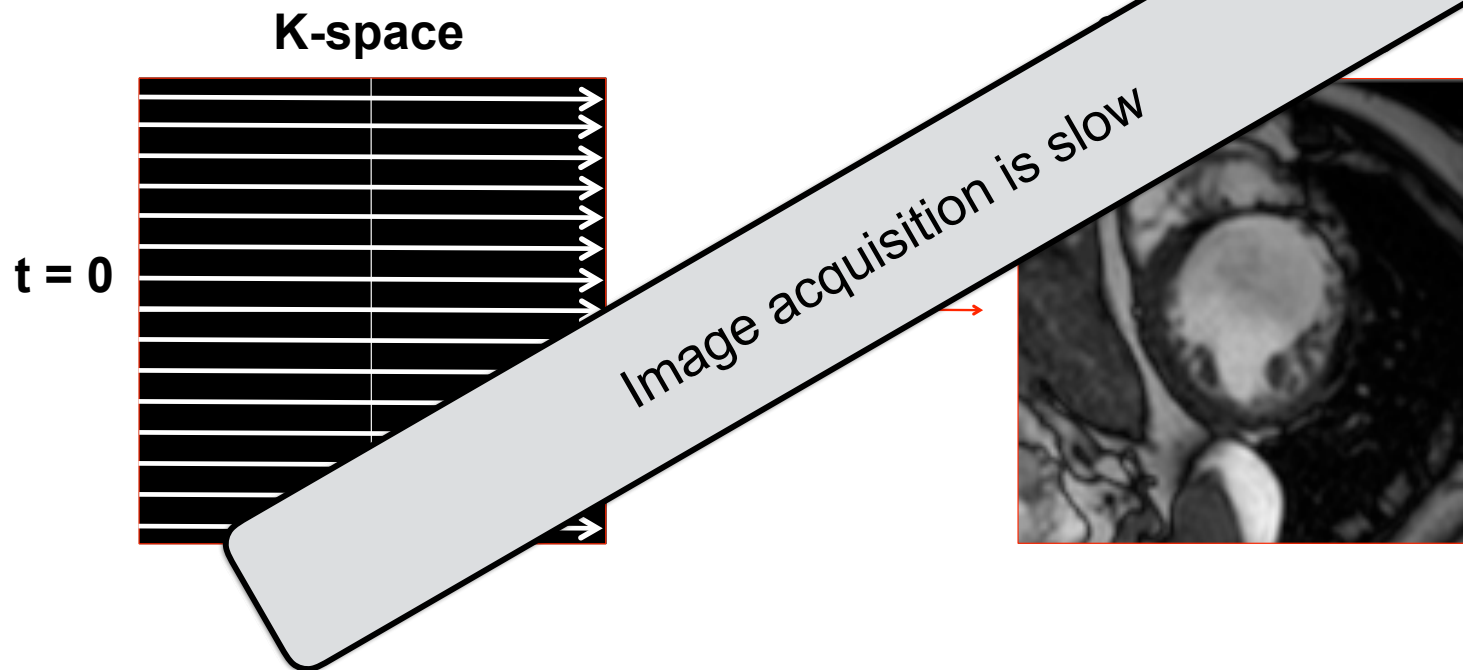
Example: Cardiac imaging





Cardiac MRI: Full acquisition is slow

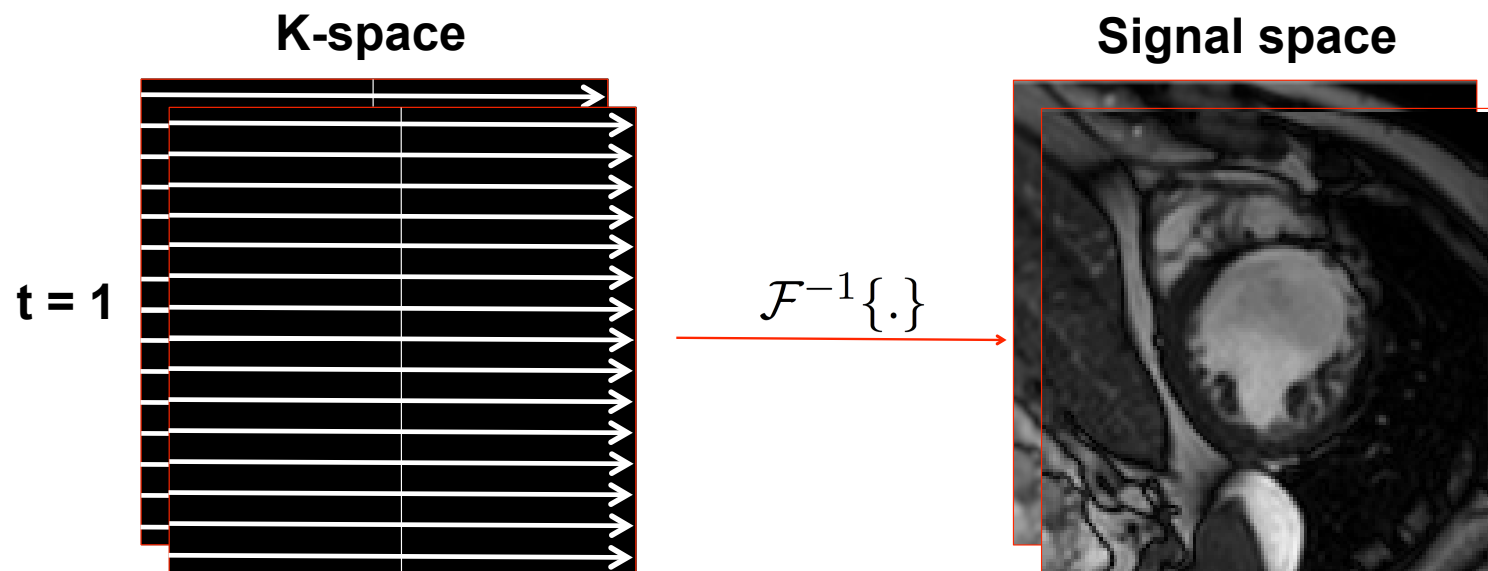
- MRI acquisition is performed in k-space by sequentially traversing sampling trajectories.





Cardiac MRI: Full acquisition is slow

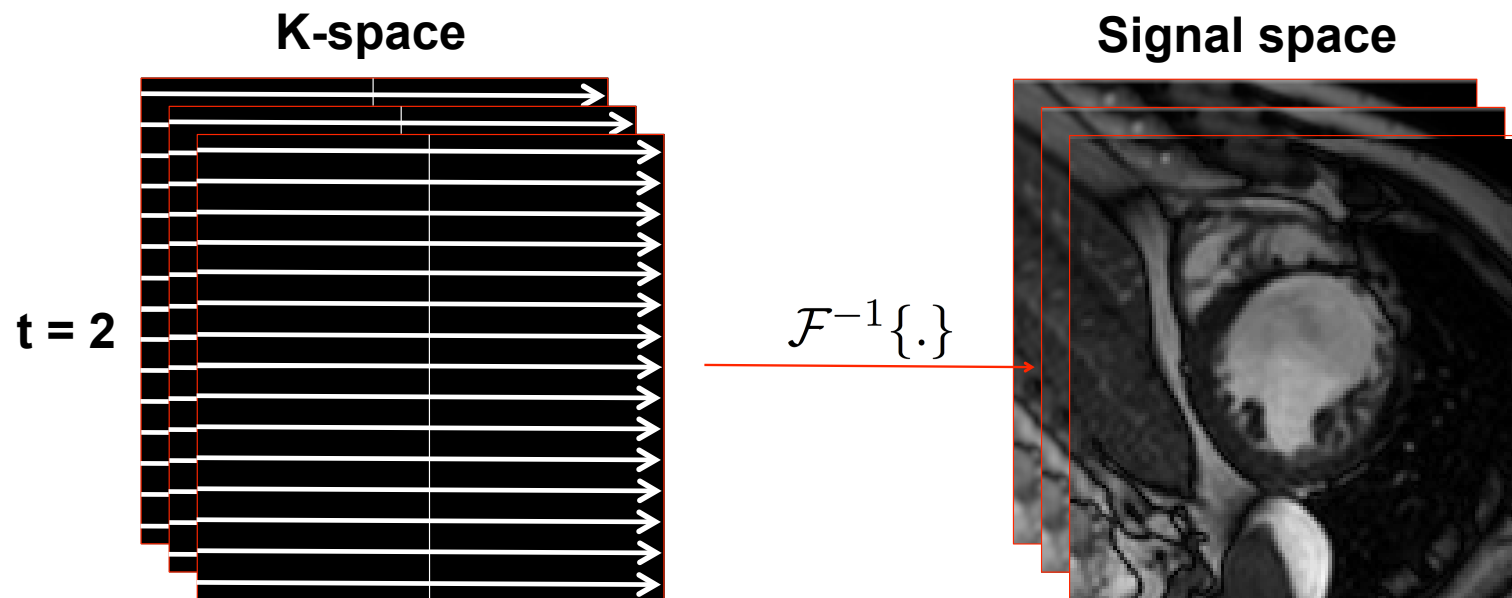
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Cardiac MRI: Full acquisition is slow

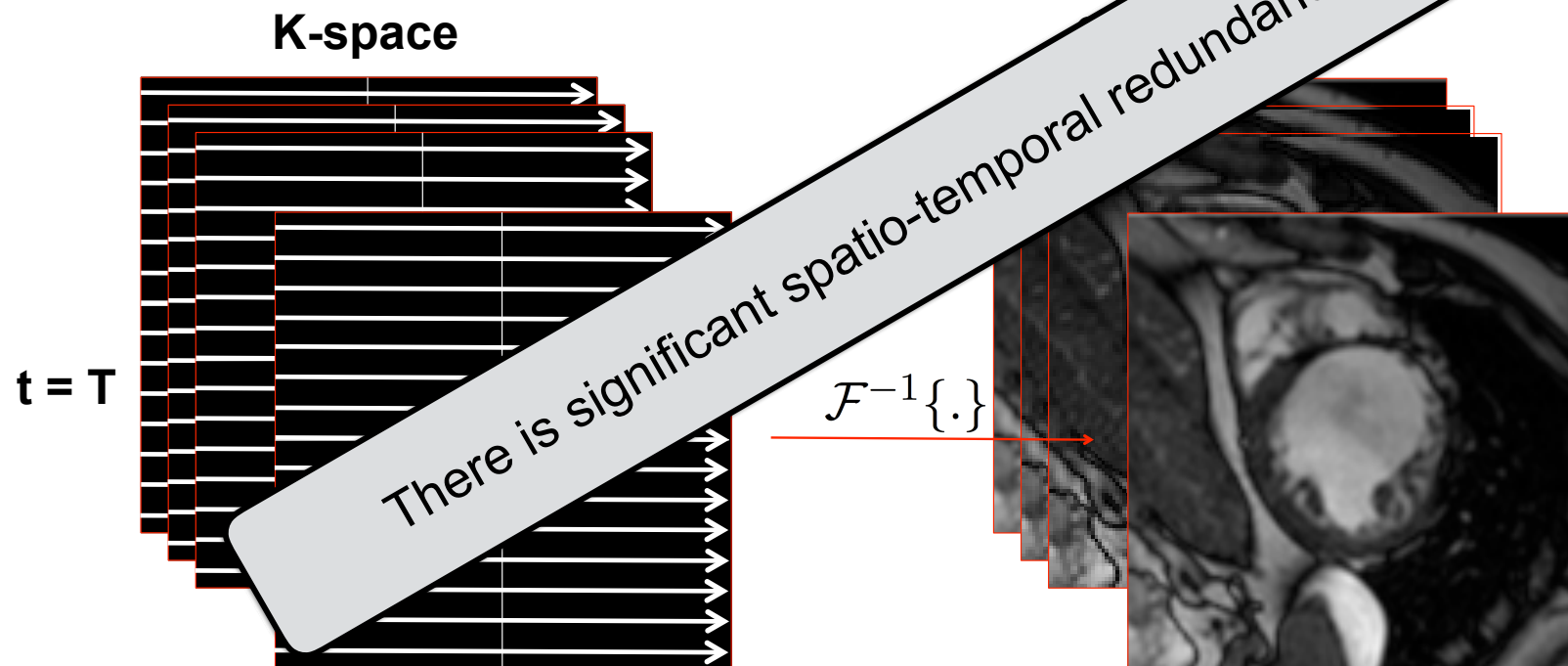
- MRI acquisition is performed in k-space by sequentially traversing sampling trajectories.





Cardiac MRI: Full acquisition is slow

- MRI acquisition is performed in k-space by sequentially traversing sampling trajectories.



K-space undersampling



- Acquiring a fraction of k-space **accelerates** the process but introduces **aliasing** in signal space.



K-space undersampling

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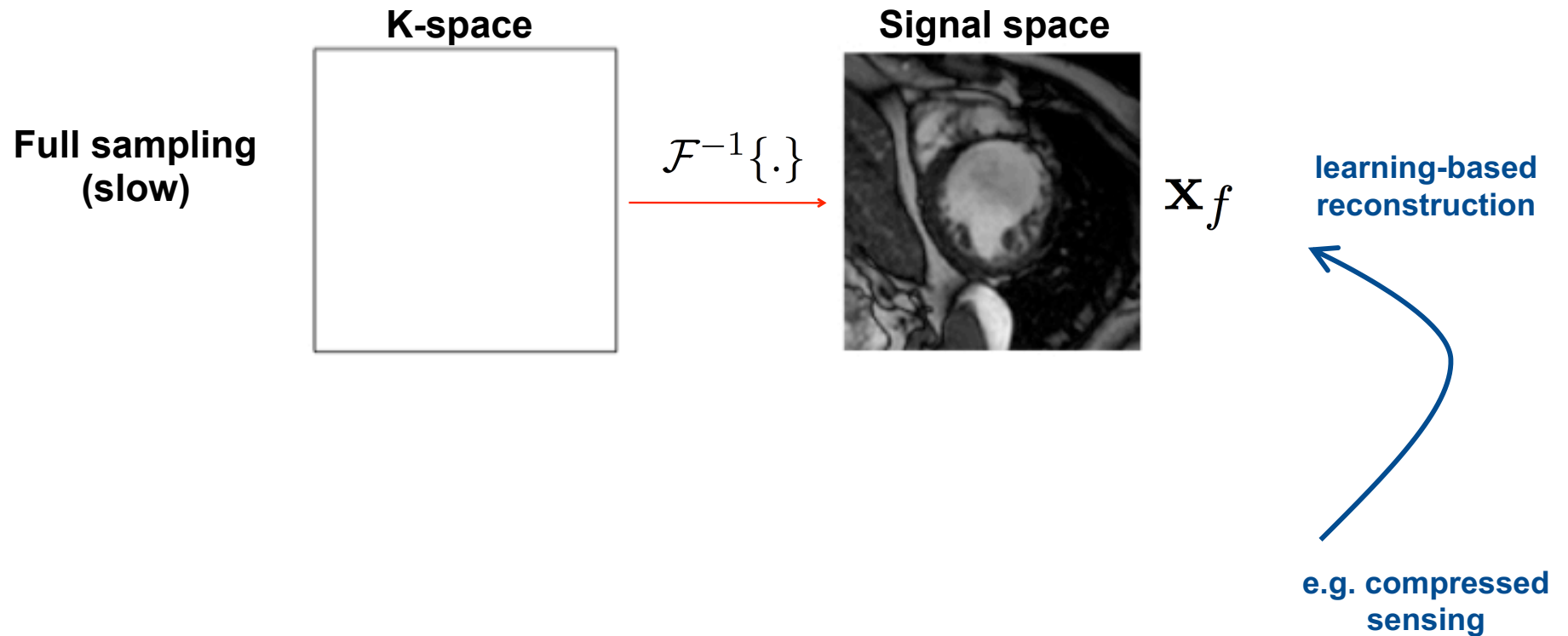


Image reconstruction from undersampled k-space



- One can recover full k-space through compressed sensing techniques:
 - Lustig et al., MRM 2007
 - Jung et al., MRM 2009
 - Otazo et al., MRM 2010
- More recently other techniques have shown to be powerful for this task as well:
 - Caballero et al., IEEE TMI 2014: Dictionary learning
 - Bhatia et al., MICCAI 2016: Manifold learning
 - Schlemper et al., IEEE TMI 2017: Deep learning for cardiac MRI
 - Hammernik et al., MRM 2017: Deep learning for knee MRI
 - Ye et al., SIAM IS 2018: Deep convolutional framelets



Based on generic priors, e.g. sparsity or low-rank

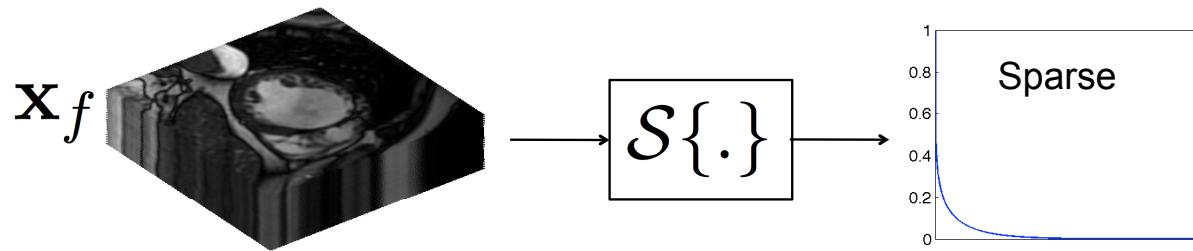


Based on learnt priors

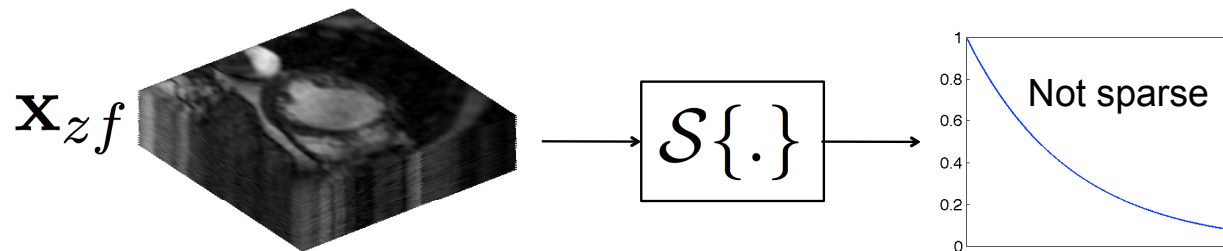


Sparsity

- Most natural signals are compressible under some domain.



- Aliasing makes this assumption break down, so it can be imposed on the reconstruction of a signal.



Compressed sensing




- Assume $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_u$ is the undersampled observation in k-space and \mathcal{F}_u is the undersampled Fourier operator.
- We look for solution \mathbf{x} such that:

Compressed sensing



- Assume $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_u$ is the undersampled observation in k-space and \mathcal{F}_u is the undersampled Fourier operator.
- We look for solution \mathbf{x} such that:
 - It is **consistent** with k-space observation


$$\|\mathcal{F}_u\{\mathbf{x}\} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_u\|_2^2 < \epsilon$$



Compressed sensing

- Assume $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_u$ is the undersampled observation in k-space and \mathcal{F}_u is the undersampled Fourier operator.
- We look for solution \mathbf{x} such that:
 - It is **consistent** with k-space observation \mathbf{x}
 - It has the **sparsest** representation under $\mathcal{S}\{\mathbf{x}\}$.

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathcal{S}\{\mathbf{x}\}\|_0$$

$$\|\mathcal{F}_u\{\mathbf{x}\} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_u\|_2^2 < \epsilon$$

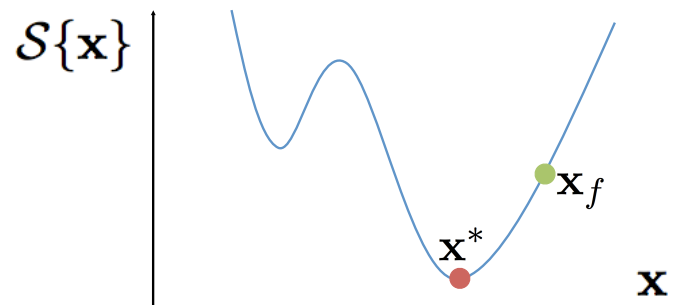


Compressed sensing

- Assume $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_u$ is the undersampled observation in k-space and \mathcal{F}_u is the undersampled Fourier operator.
- We look for solution \mathbf{x} such that:
 - It is **consistent** with k-space observation \mathbf{x}
 - It has the **sparsest** representation under $\mathcal{S}\{\mathbf{x}\}$.

Optimisation problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathcal{S}\{\mathbf{x}\}\|_0 \quad s.t. \quad \|\mathcal{F}_u\{\mathbf{x}\} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_u\|_2^2 < \epsilon$$



Need to ensure that transform $\mathcal{S}\{\mathbf{x}\}$ really does provide the sparsest representation in the solution space generated.

Compressed sensing and dictionary learning

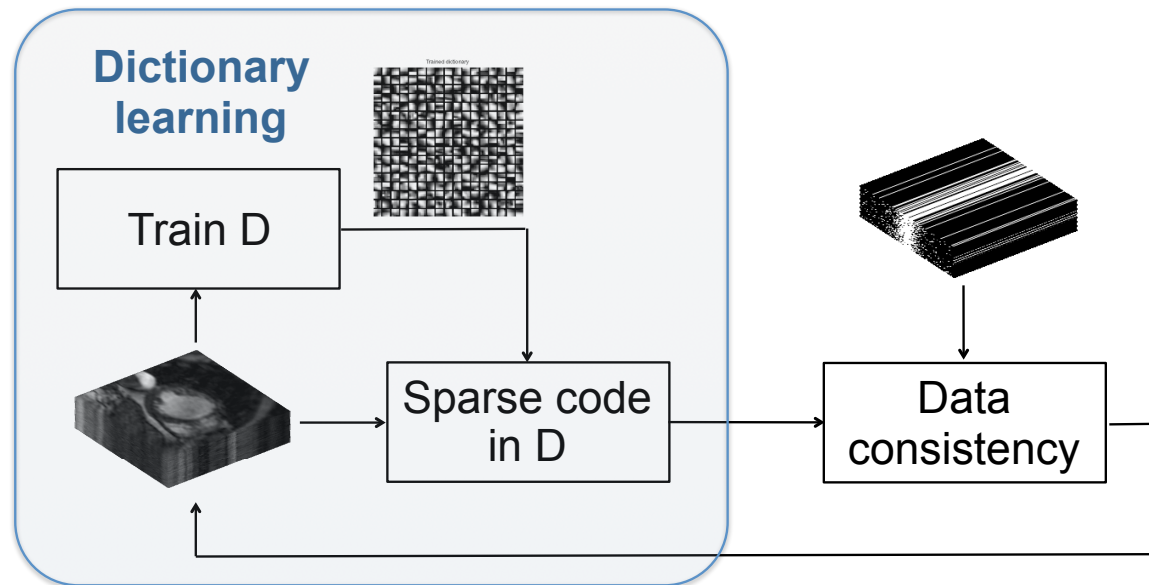


- Many compressed sensing approaches used fixed sparsity transforms (e.g. wavelets) for $\mathcal{S}\{\mathbf{x}\}$
- Adaptive sparsity transforms (or dictionary learning) can learn optimal sparsity transforms from the data
- Has been successfully used for CS-MRI
 - Ravishankar & Bresler, IEEE TMI 2011
 - Awate et al., IEEE ISBI 2012
 - Doneva et al., MRM 2010
- Can be extended to dynamic MRI

Dictionary learning for MR reconstruction



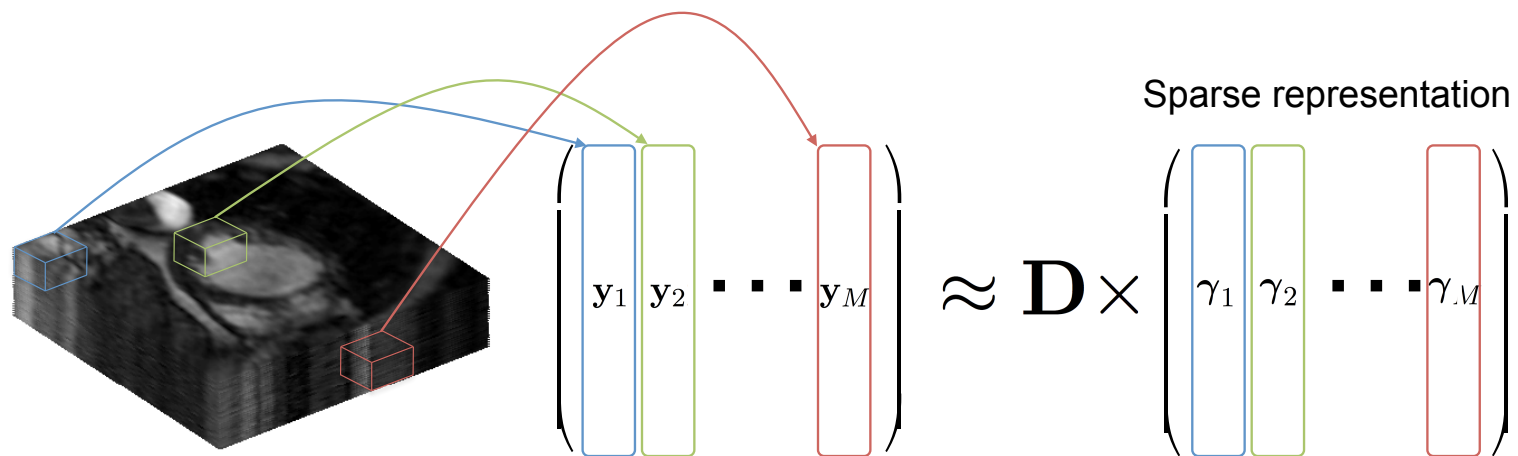
- Objective: Out of all solutions consistent with the acquired k-space, we look for the one that is sparsest under the learned dictionary.





Step 1: Dictionary learning

- **Training:** Learn a dictionary that will sparsely represent 3D patches randomly extracted from the corrupted sequence.



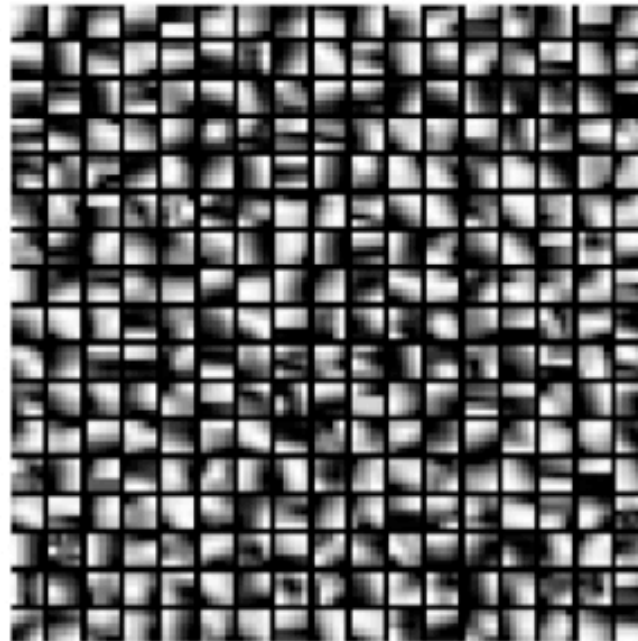
$$\min_{\Gamma, \mathbf{D}} \|\gamma_i\|_0 \quad s.t. \quad \|\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{D}\gamma_i\|_2^2 < \epsilon, \forall i$$

Dictionary learning – Example



- The dictionary is adapted to features in the data and by construction provides a sparse representation of it.


Trained dictionary





Step 2: Sparse coding

- **Coding:** The entire sequence is sparsely coded using \mathbf{D} .


$$\min_{\Gamma} \sum_{j=1}^P \|\gamma_j\|_0 \quad s.t. \quad \sum_{j=1}^P \|\mathbf{R}_j \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{D} \gamma_j\|_2^2 < \epsilon_1$$

A green curved arrow points from the MRI volume to the constraint term in the equation.

- The sparse coding Γ provides an approximation of the sequence excluding part of the aliasing.

$\mathbf{D}\Gamma$

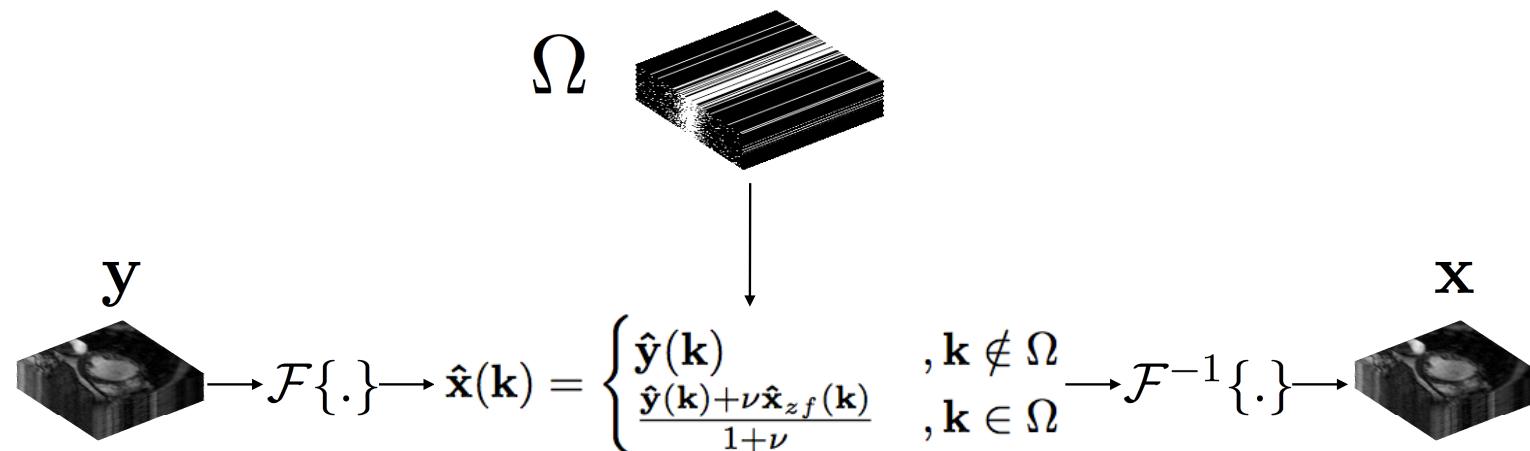
Γ : Sparse representation
under \mathbf{D}

$\mathbf{D}\Gamma$: Sparse approximation
of \mathbf{y}



Step 3: Data consistency

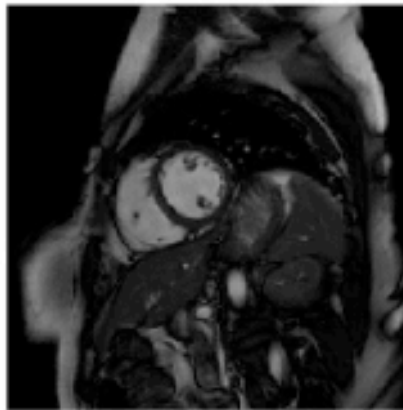
- Processing in signal space will make the k-space of solution different from the initial observations.
- Data consistency in k-space must be enforced.



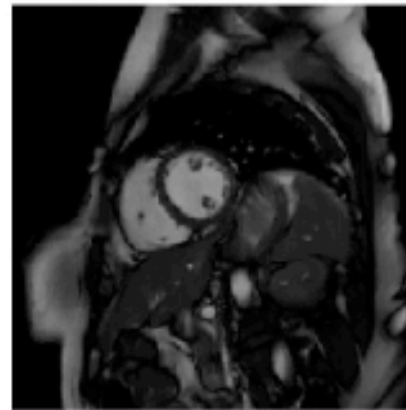
Magnitude reconstruction (8-fold)



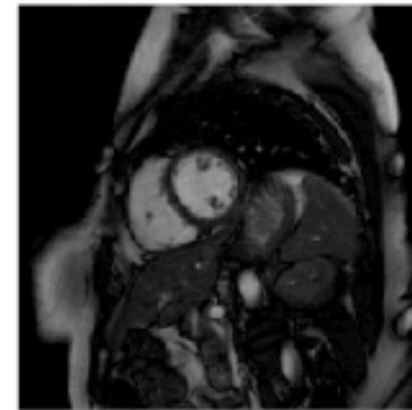
•]



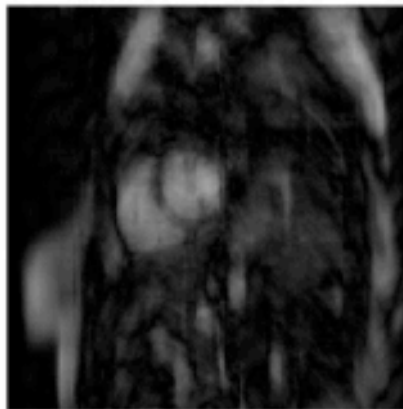
Original



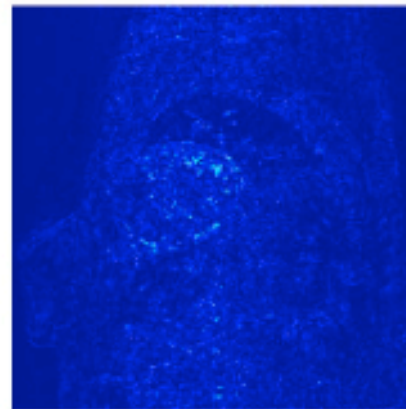
DLTG (36.7 dB)



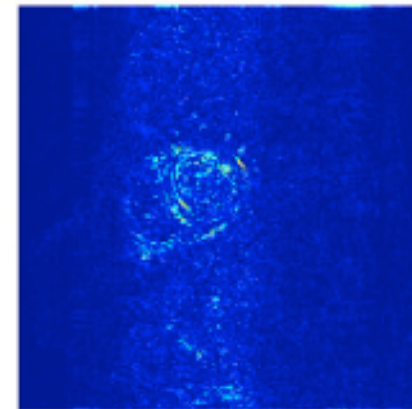
k-t FOCUSS (34.3 dB)



Zero-filled (22.7 dB)

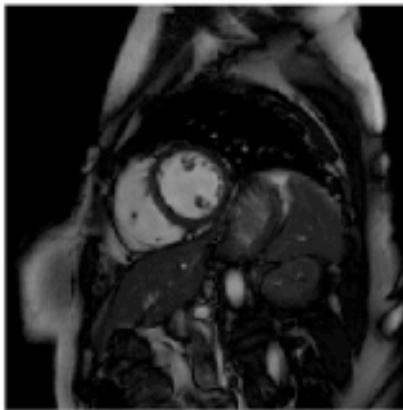


DLTG error x5

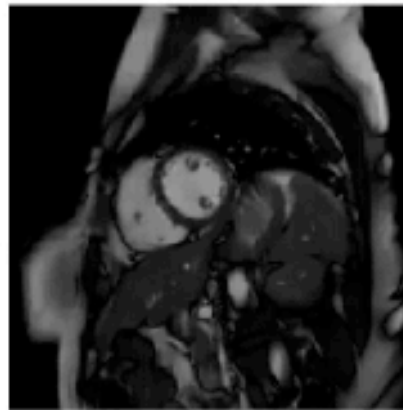


k-t FOCUSS error x5

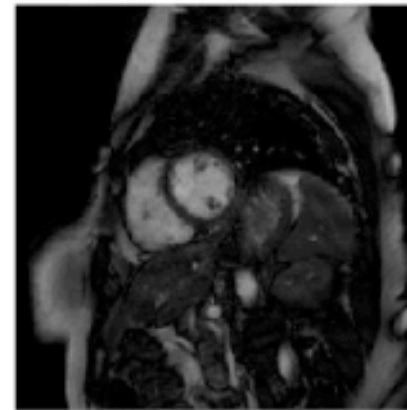
Magnitude reconstruction (12-fold)



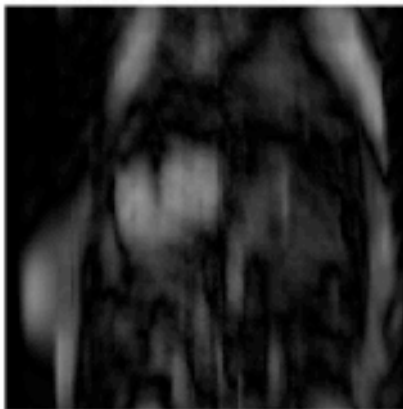
Original



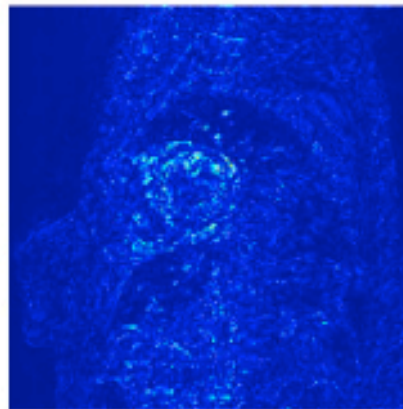
DLTG (34.0 dB)



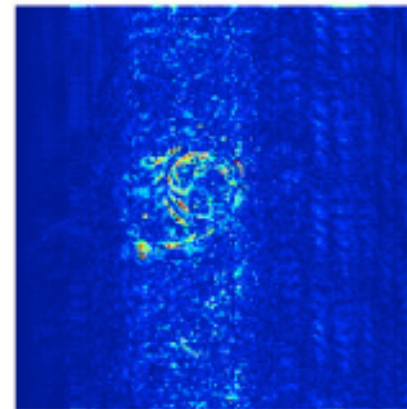
k-t FOCUSS (31.4 dB)



Zero-filled (21.9 dB)

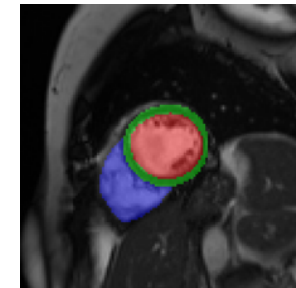
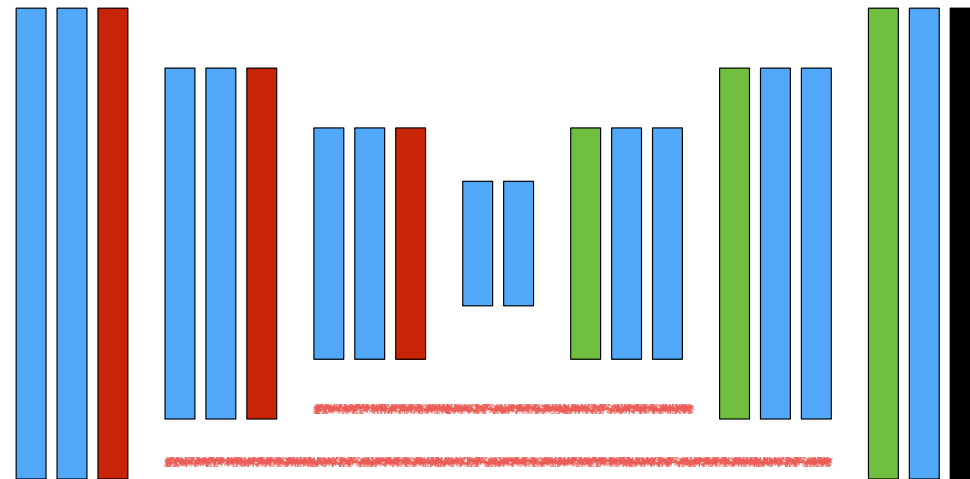
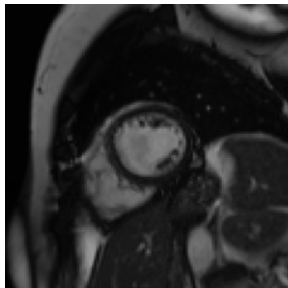


DLTG error x5



k-t FOCUSS error x5

What about deep learning?



- Convolution + RELU
- Max pooling
- Transposed convolution
- Softmax
- Skip layers



Problem formulation

- Reconstruct image $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^N$ given undersampled k-space measurements $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^M$ ($M \ll N$):

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{F}_u \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{e}$$

Undersampled Fourier encoding matrix

Acquisition noise



Problem formulation

- Reconstruct image $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^N$ given undersampled k-space measurements $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^M$ ($M \ll N$):

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{F}_u \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{e}$$

Undersampled Fourier encoding matrix

Acquisition noise

- In the case of Cartesian sampling we have $\mathbf{F}_u = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{F}$ where $\mathbf{F} \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times N}$ applies the 2D Fourier transform and $\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{C}^{M \times N}$ is the undersampling mask in k-space



Problem formulation

- We are trying to solve the following unconstrained optimisation problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{x}) + \lambda \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F}_u \mathbf{x}\|_2^2$$

Regularisation term
(in CS usually the l_0 or l_1 norm)

Data fidelity term



Problem formulation

- We are trying to solve the following unconstrained optimisation problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{x}) + \lambda \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F}_u \mathbf{x}\|_2^2$$

Regularisation term
(in CS usually the l_0 or l_1 norm)

Data fidelity term

- For CNN based reconstruction we formulate the problem as

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathbf{x} - f_{\text{cnn}}(\mathbf{x}_u | \boldsymbol{\theta})\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{F}_u \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2$$



Data consistency layer

- To ensure data fidelity, we add a data consistency layer. For fixed network parameters we can write:

$$\mathbf{s}_{\text{rec}}(j) = \begin{cases} \mathbf{s}_{\text{cnn}}(j) & \text{if } j \notin \Omega \\ \frac{\mathbf{s}_{\text{cnn}}(j) + \lambda \mathbf{s}_0(j)}{1 + \lambda} & \text{if } j \in \Omega \end{cases}$$

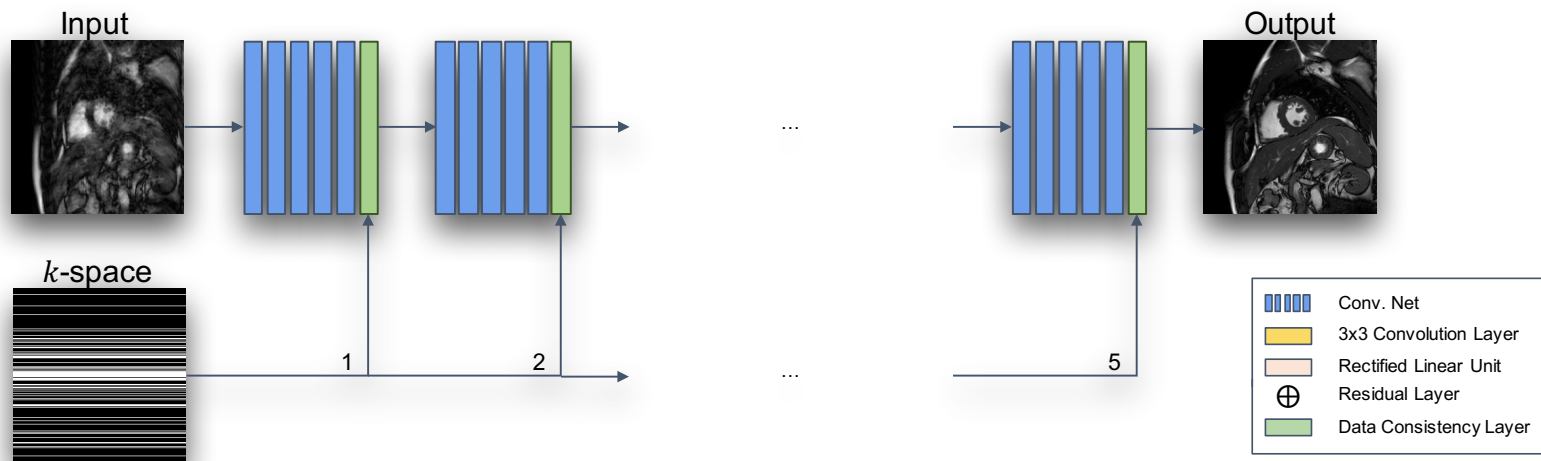
Missing part of k-space (red text)
Acquired part of k-space (green text)

Fourier-encoding of
reconstructed image

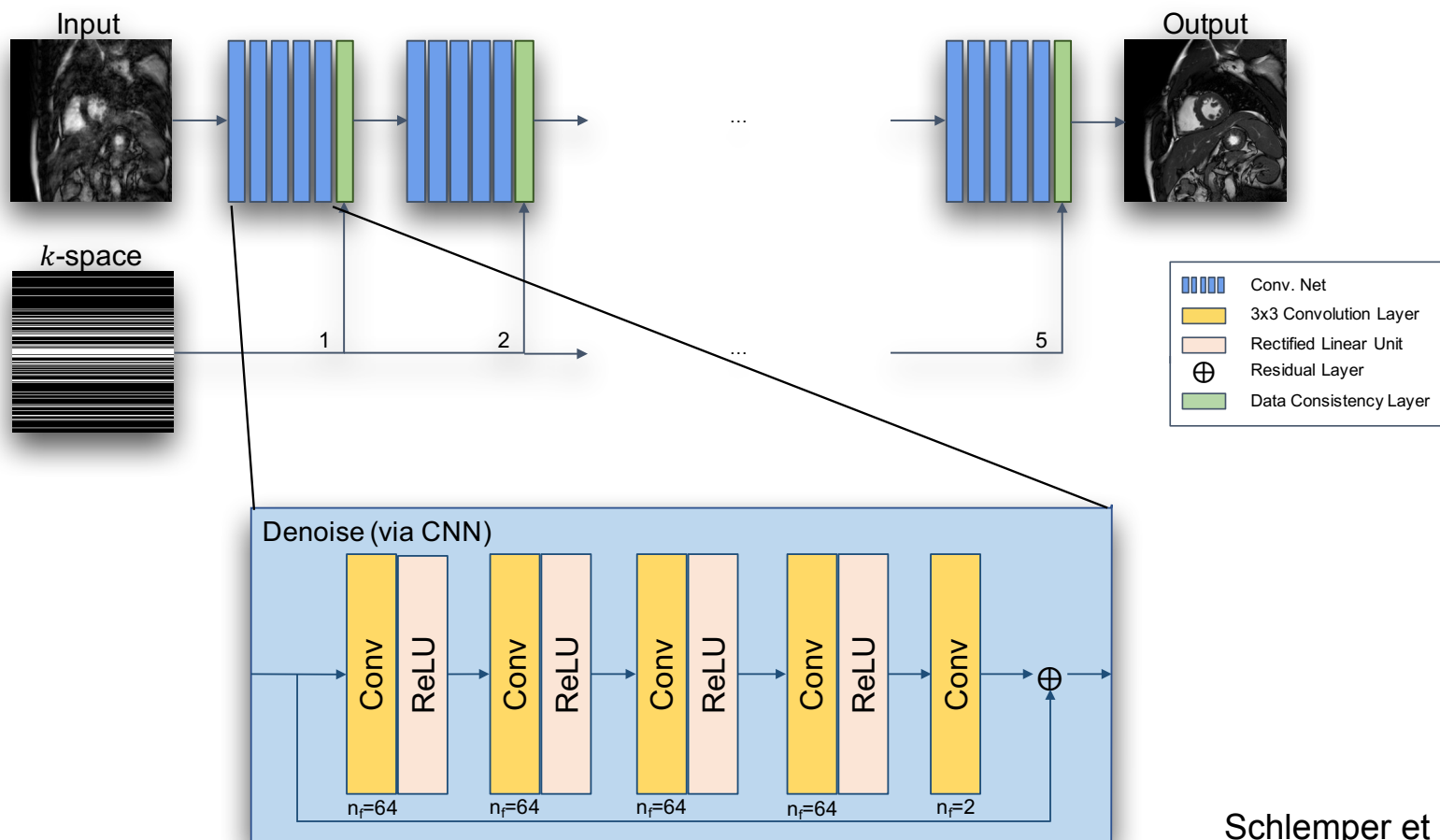
Zero-filled k-space

$$\mathbf{s}_{\text{cnn}} = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{x}_{\text{cnn}} = \mathbf{F}f_{\text{cnn}}(\mathbf{x}_u|\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

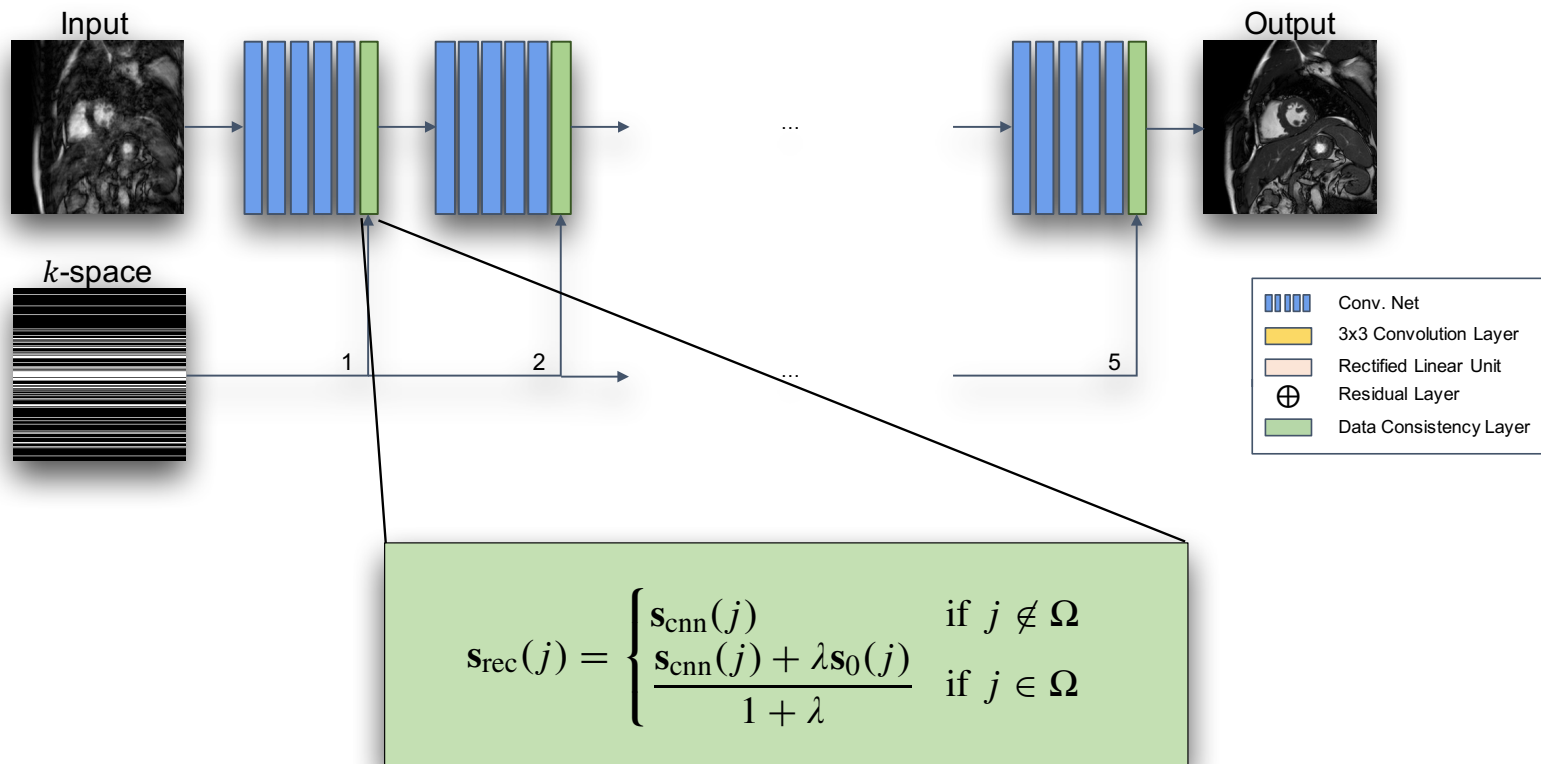
Deep Cascade of CNNs for MRI Reconstruction



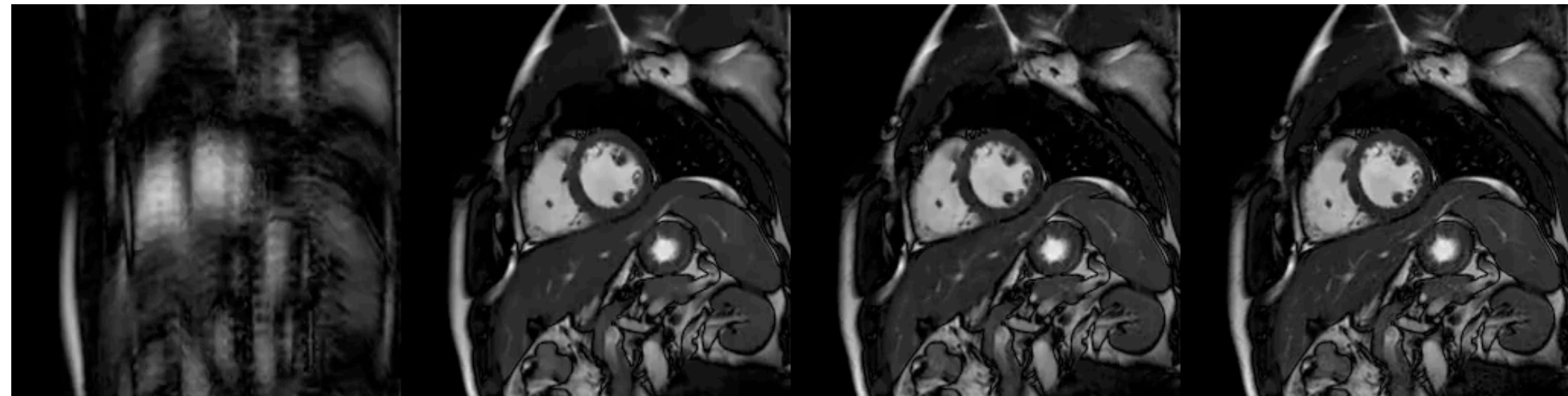
Deep Cascade of CNNs for MRI Reconstruction



Deep Cascade of CNNs for MRI Reconstruction



Magnitude reconstruction (6-fold)



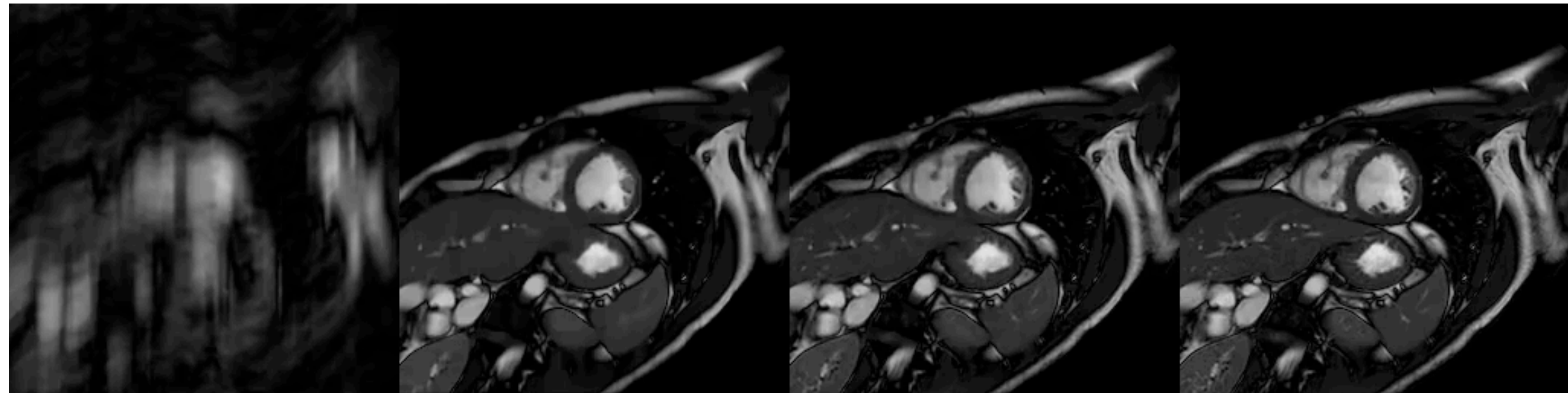
(a) 6x Undersampled

(b) DLTG

(c) CNN

(d) Ground Truth

Magnitude reconstruction (11-fold)



(a) 11x Undersampled

(b) DLTG

(c) CNN

(d) Ground Truth

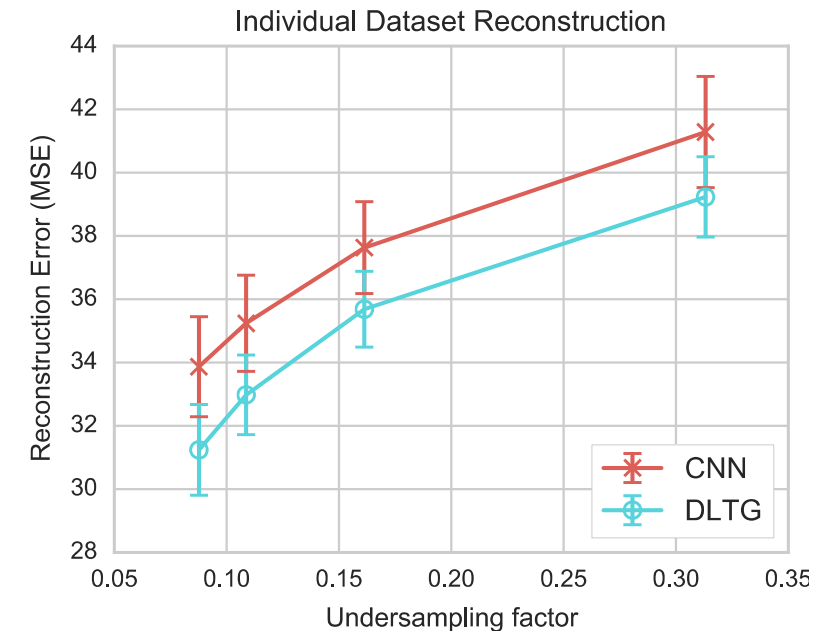
Deep Cascade of CNNs for MRI Reconstruction: Results



- Test error across 10 subjects:

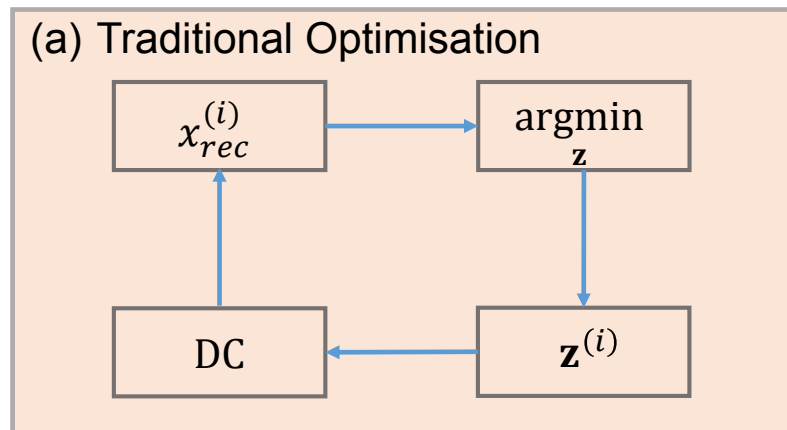
| | Model | R=4 (dB) | R=8 (dB) |
|------|-------|--------------------|--------------------|
| PSNR | DLTG | 27.5 (1.31) | 22.6 (0.95) |
| | CNN | 31.0 (1.08) | 25.2 (1.00) |

| | Model | Time |
|-------|------------|--------------|
| Speed | DLMRI/DLTG | ~6 hr (CPU) |
| | CNN (2D) | 0.69 s (GPU) |
| | CNN (2D+t) | 10 s (GPU) |



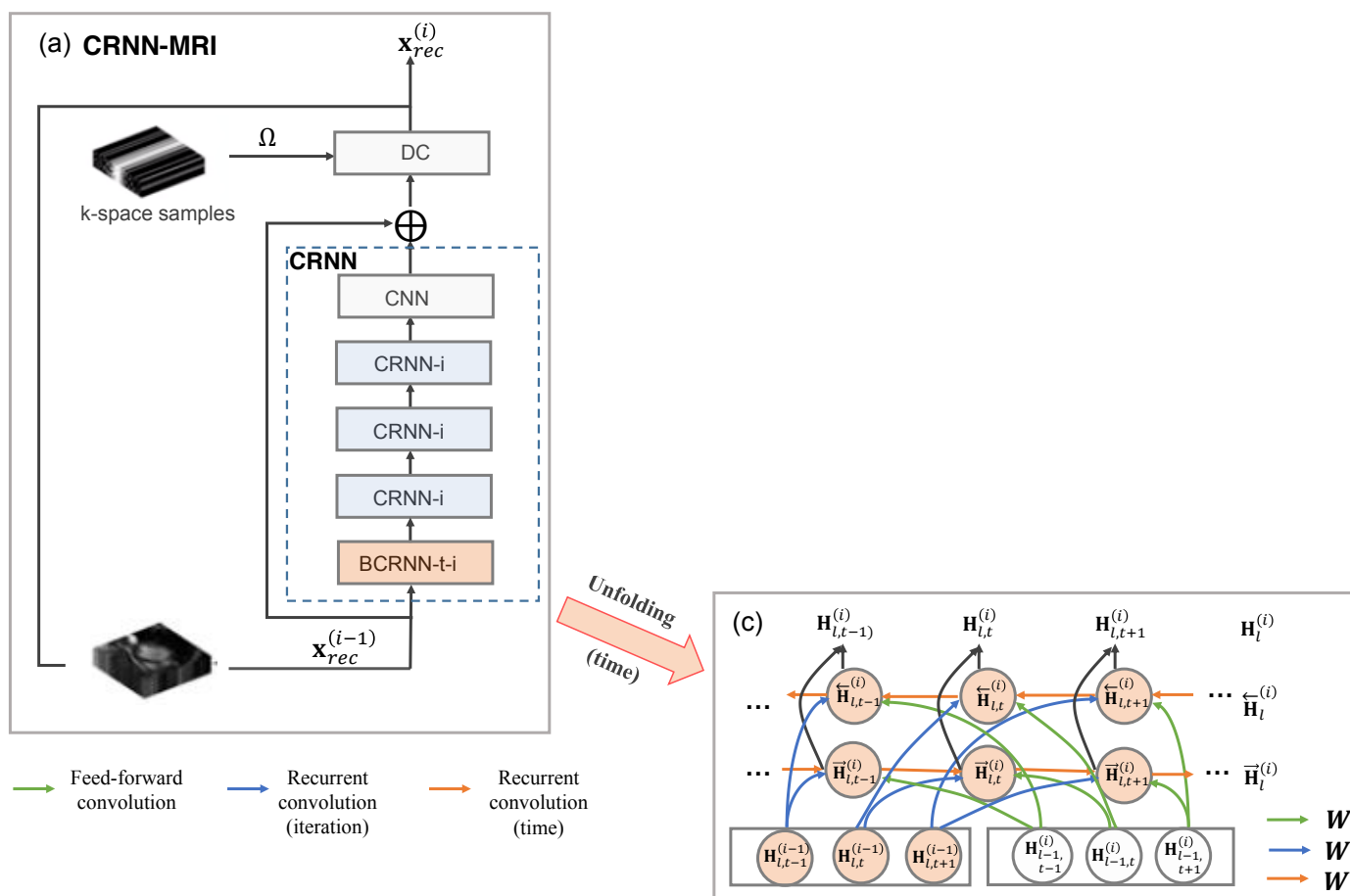
2D+t (vs. DLTG)

Replacing Deep Cascade of CNNs with Recurrent Neural Networks

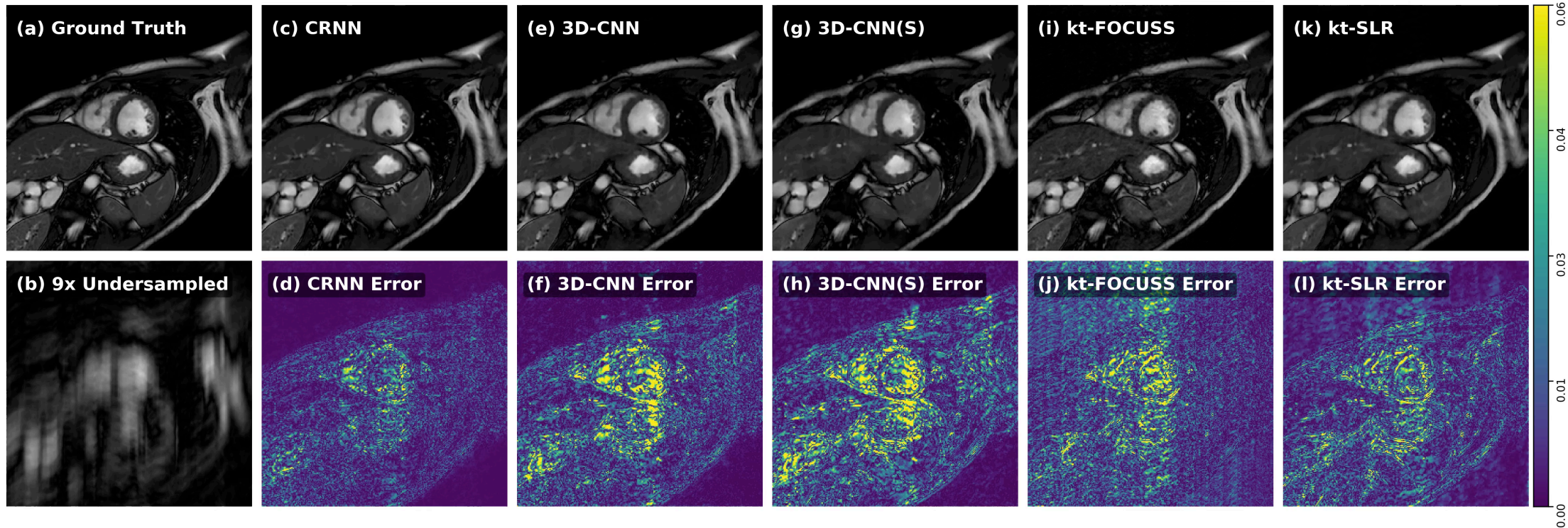




Replacing Deep Cascade of CNNs with Recurrent Neural Networks



Replacing Deep Cascade of CNNs with Recurrent Neural Networks



Overview

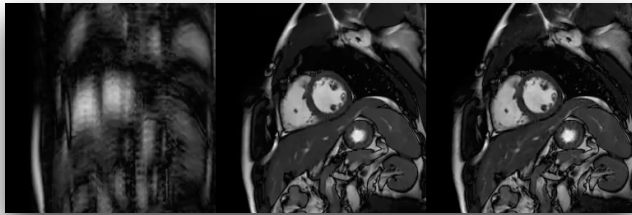


Image reconstruction

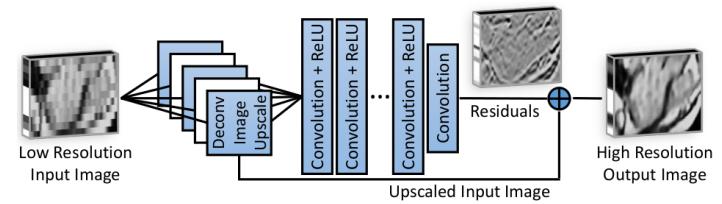


Image super-resolution

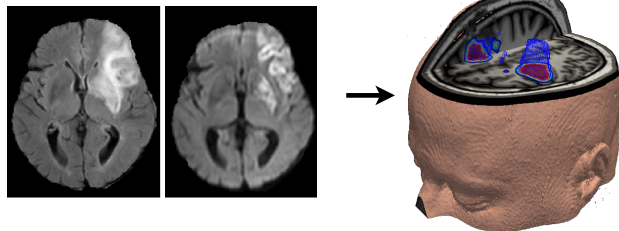


Image segmentation



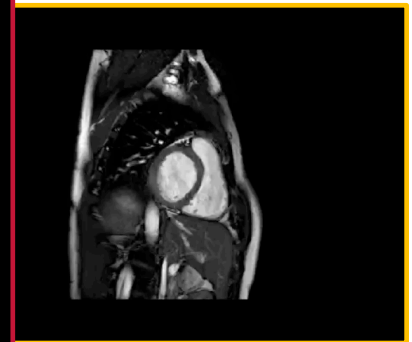
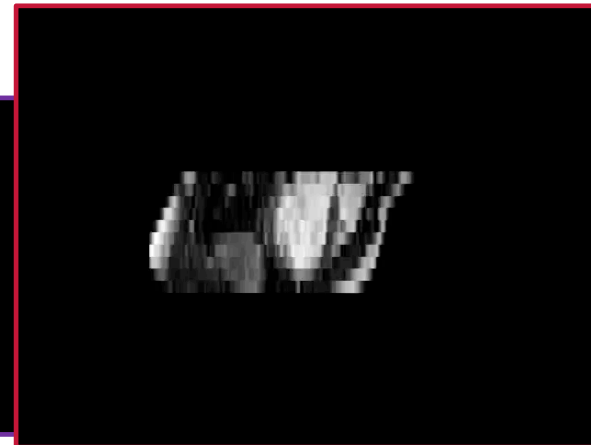
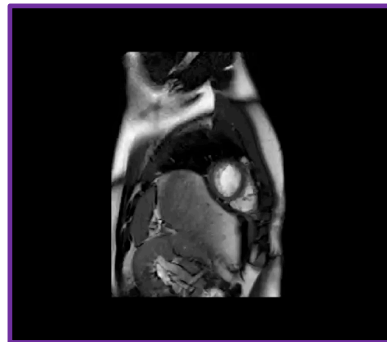
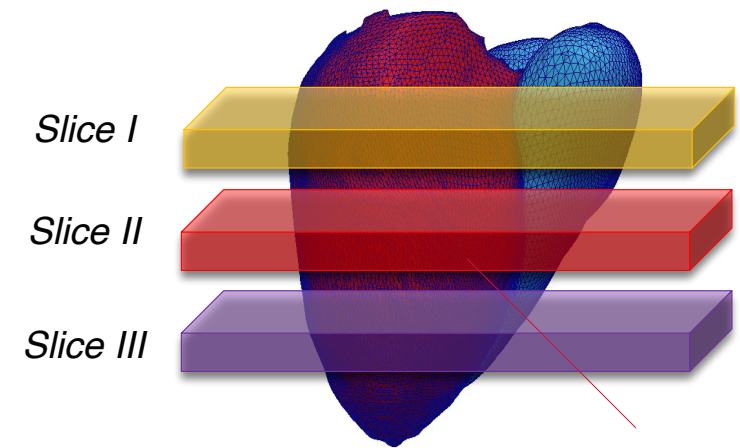
Abdominal View
Confidence: 98%

Image classification

Cardiac MR imaging is often low-resolution



- Acquisition of cardiac MRI typically consists of 2D multi-slice data due to
 - constraints on SNR
 - breath-hold time
 - total acquisition time
- This leads to thick slice data (thickness 8-10 mm per slice)



Cardiac MR imaging is often low-resolution

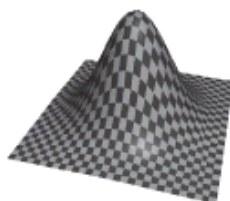


What we want

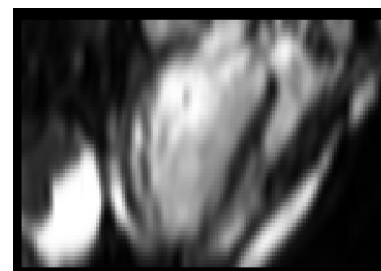


3D HR Image

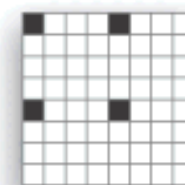
PSF kernel and patient motion



Sinc Filter



Down-sample

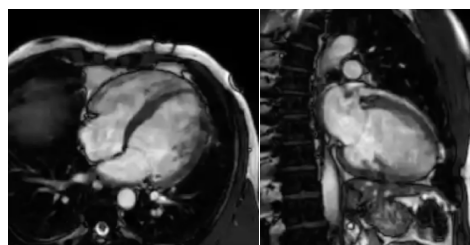


Sub-sampling grid

????
↑
Output

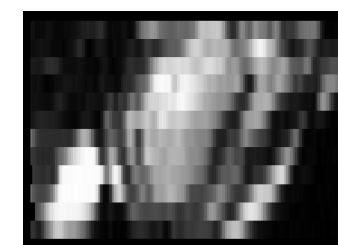
Image Super Resolution Model

Input



2D LAX Images

+



2D SAX Images

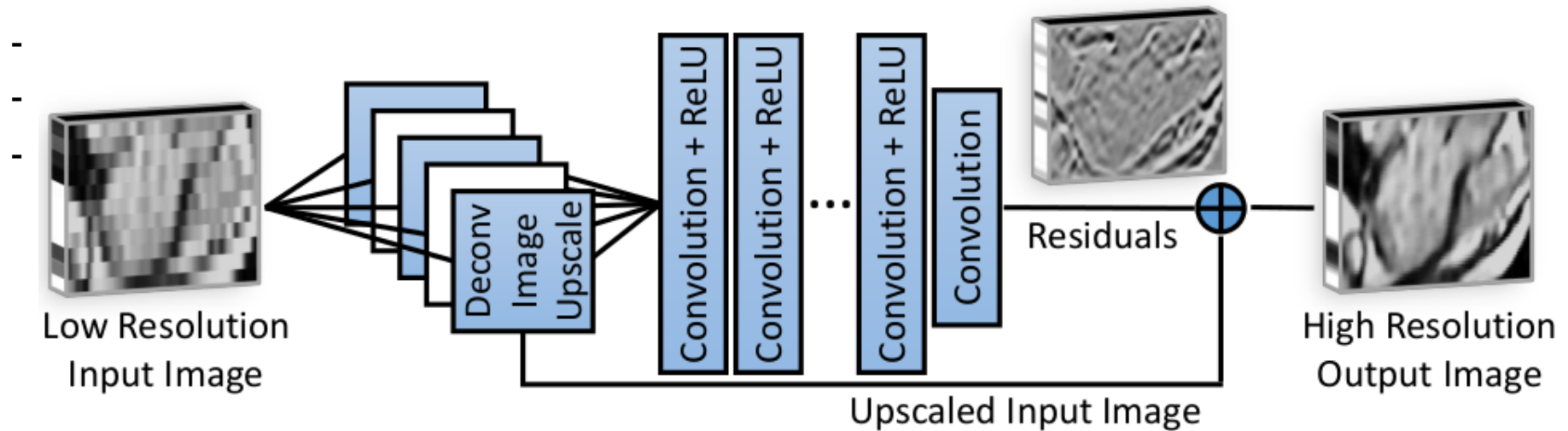
What we have

Super-resolution for cardiac MR imaging



Components of the model

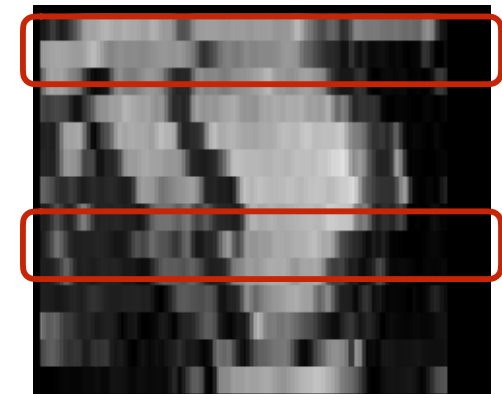
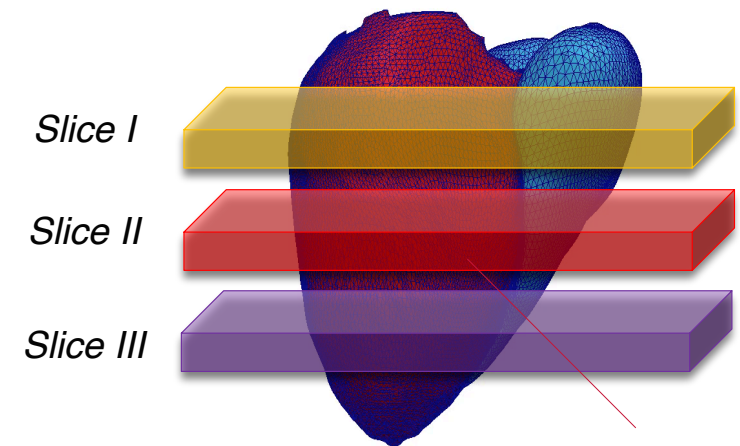
- 3D Convolution and Deconvolution (inverse convolution) Kernels



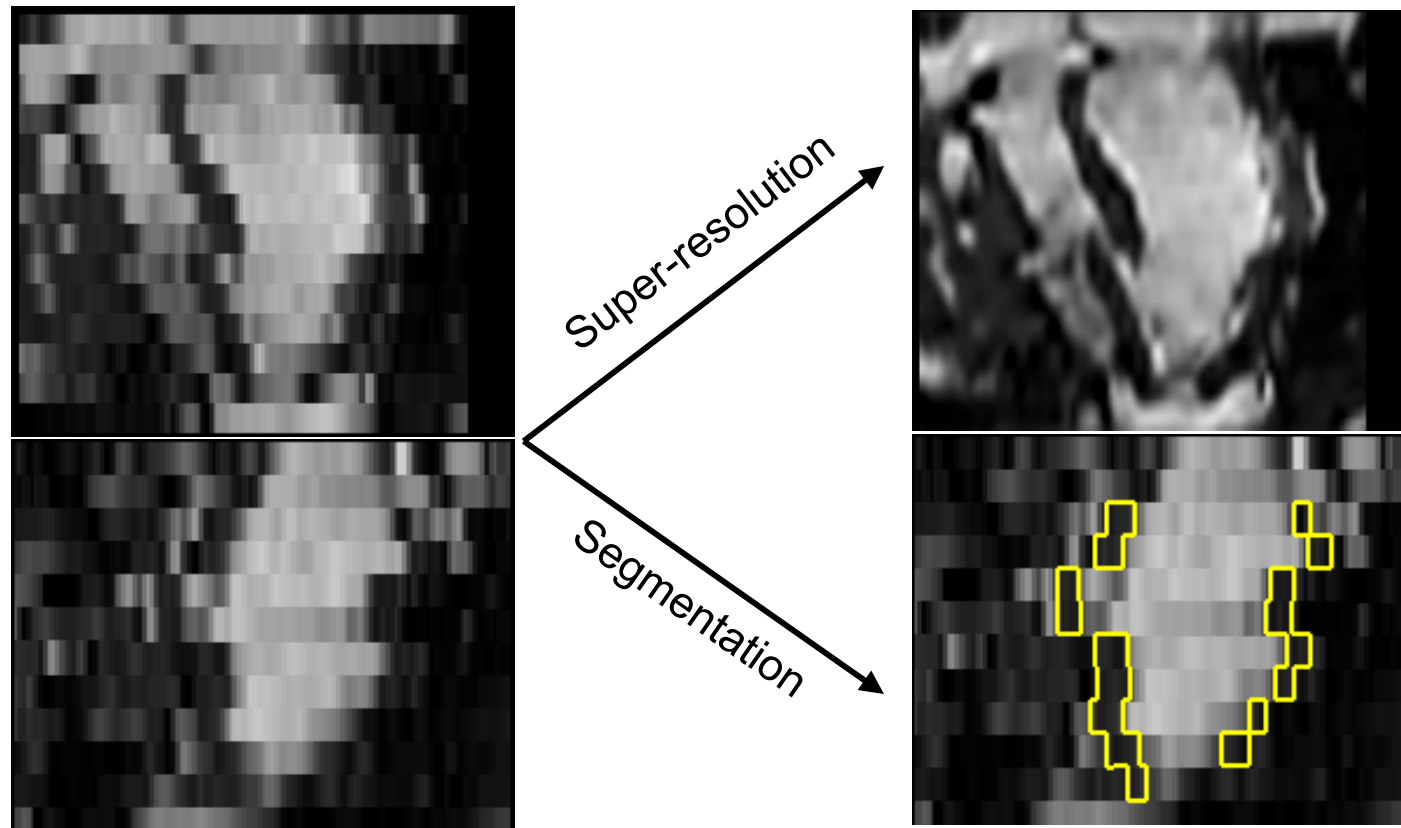
But: Cardiac MR imaging is still challenging



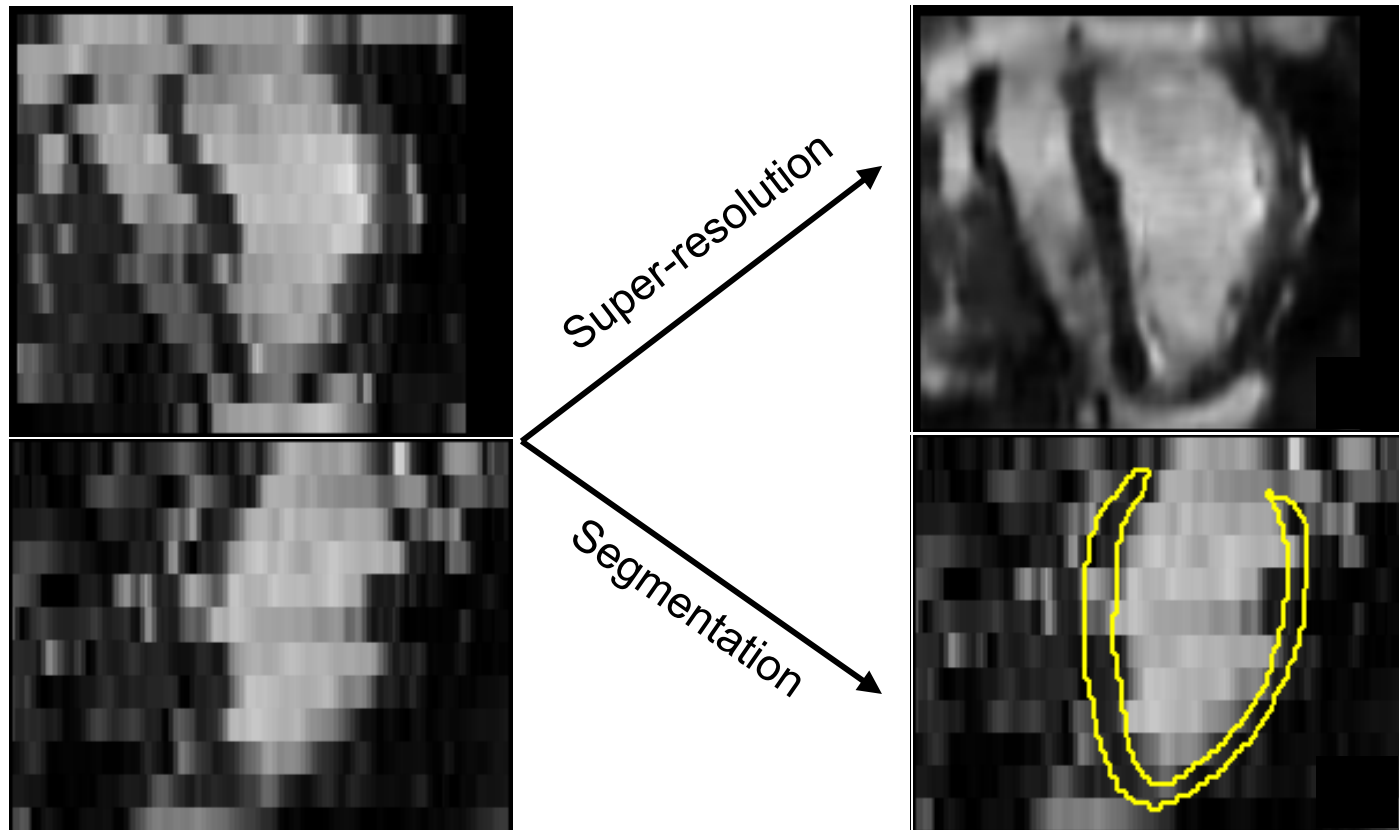
- Acquisition of cardiac MRI typically consists of 2D multi-slice data due to
 - constraints on SNR
 - breath-hold time
 - total acquisition time
- This leads to thick slice data (thickness 8-10 mm per slice)
- Motion between slices can lead to artefacts



Conventional CNNs: Problem



Conventional CNNs: What we want



Conventional CNNs: No explicit use of prior knowledge



- Standard Loss for **segmentation**: Cross-Entropy loss

$$L_x = - \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}} \sum_{c=1}^C \log \left(\frac{e^{f(c,i)}}{\sum_j e^{f(j,i)}} \right)$$

- Standard loss for **super-resolution**: L2 or L1 loss

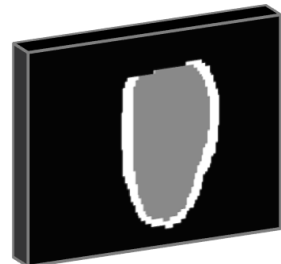
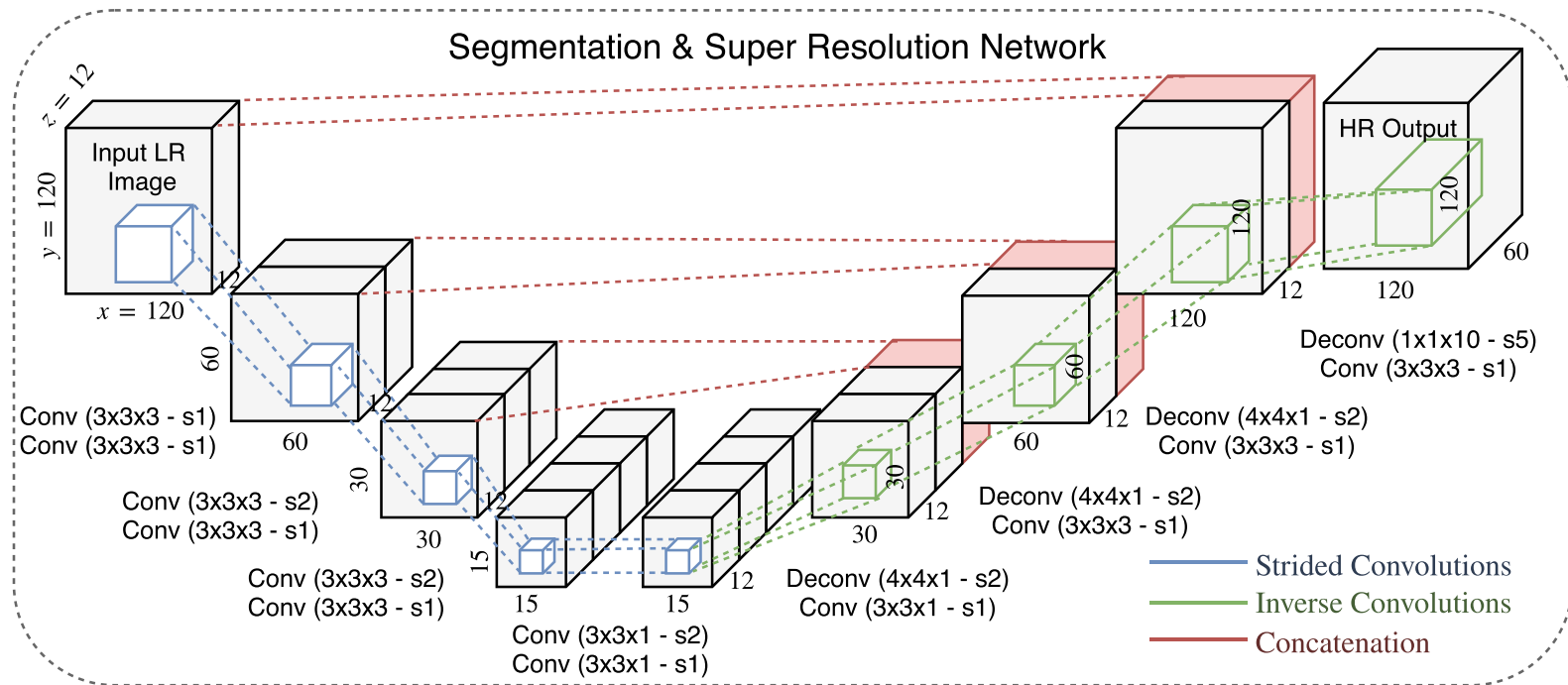
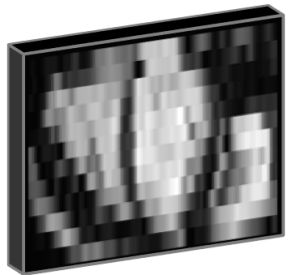
$$\sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}} \|\Phi(\mathbf{x}_i, \theta_r) - \mathbf{y}_i\|^2$$

Anatomically constrained CNNs

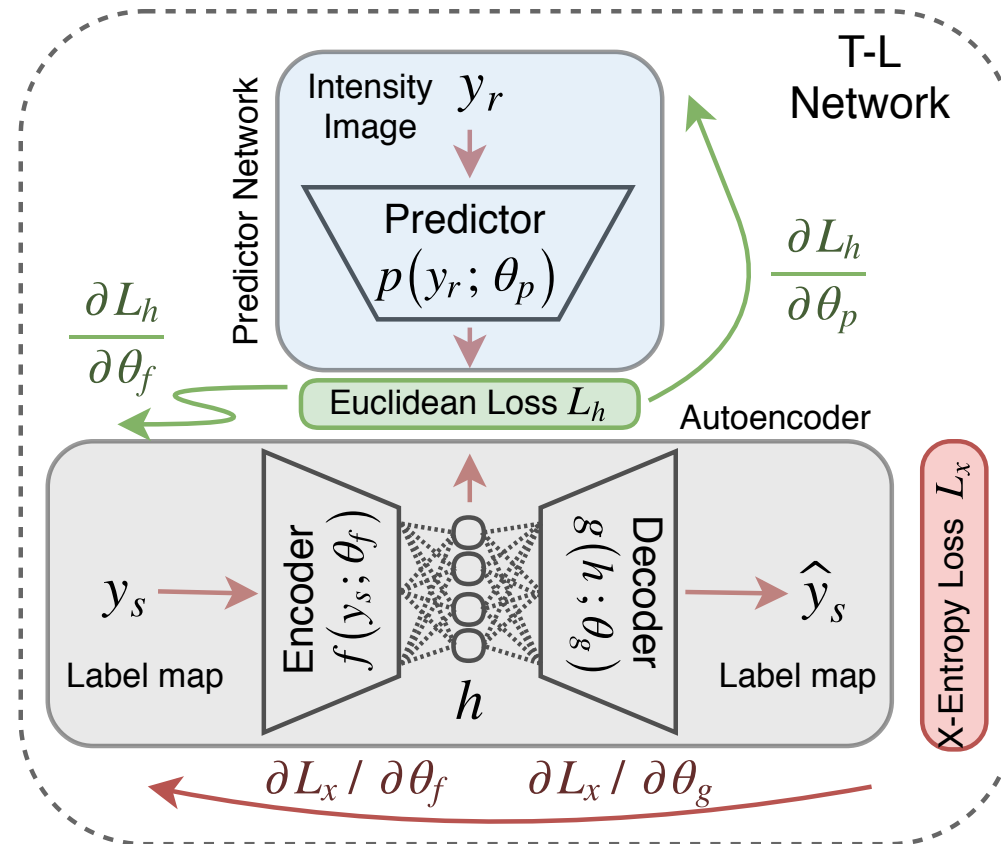


Low-resolution input

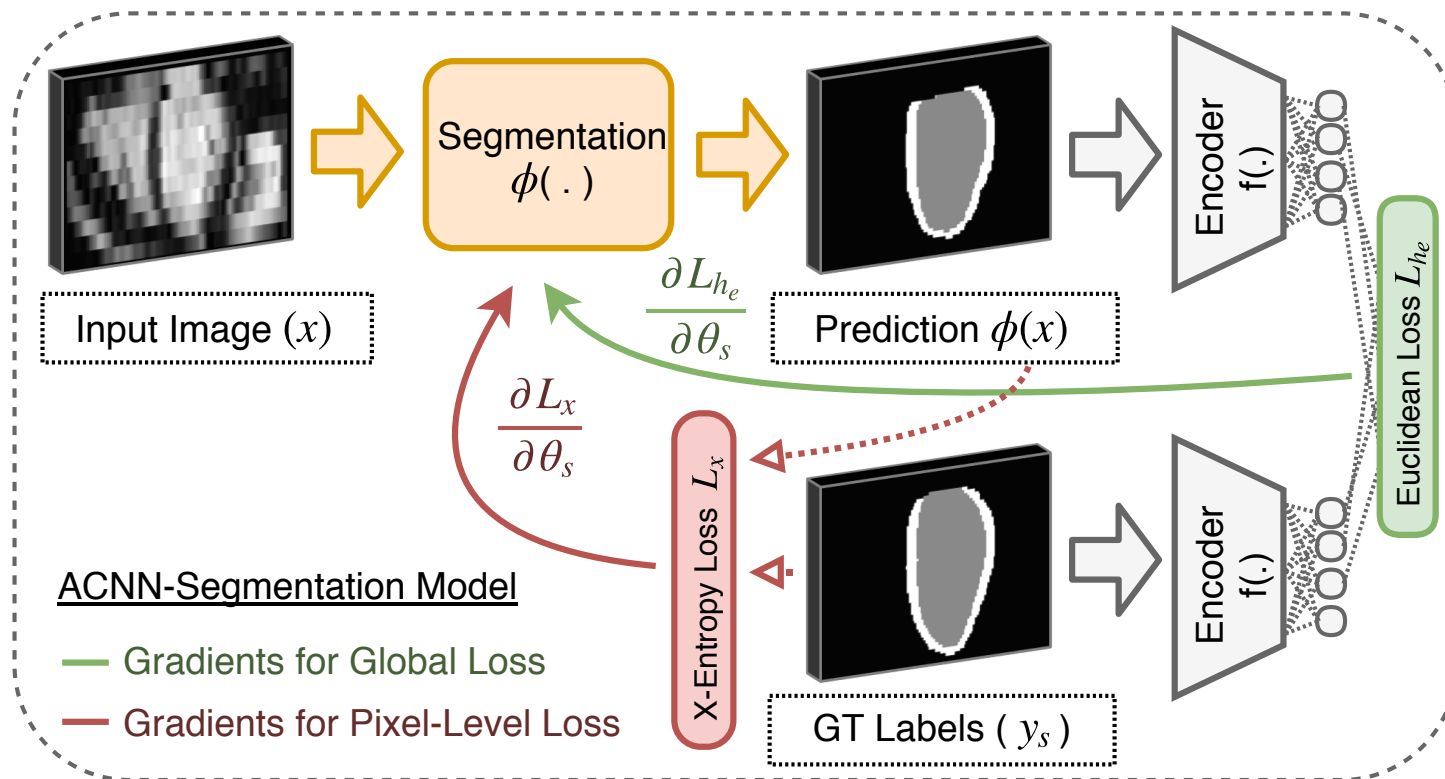
High-resolution output



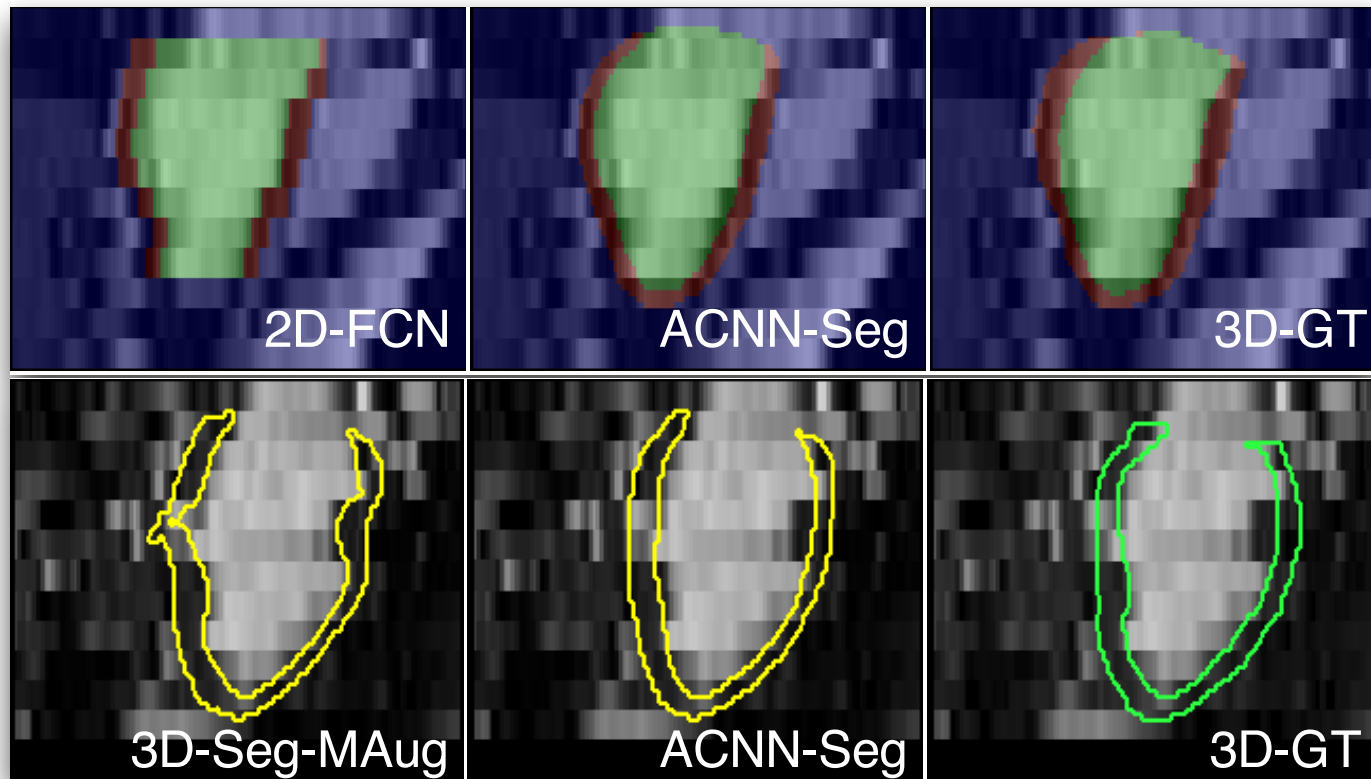
Anatomically constrained CNN: T-L networks for representing priors



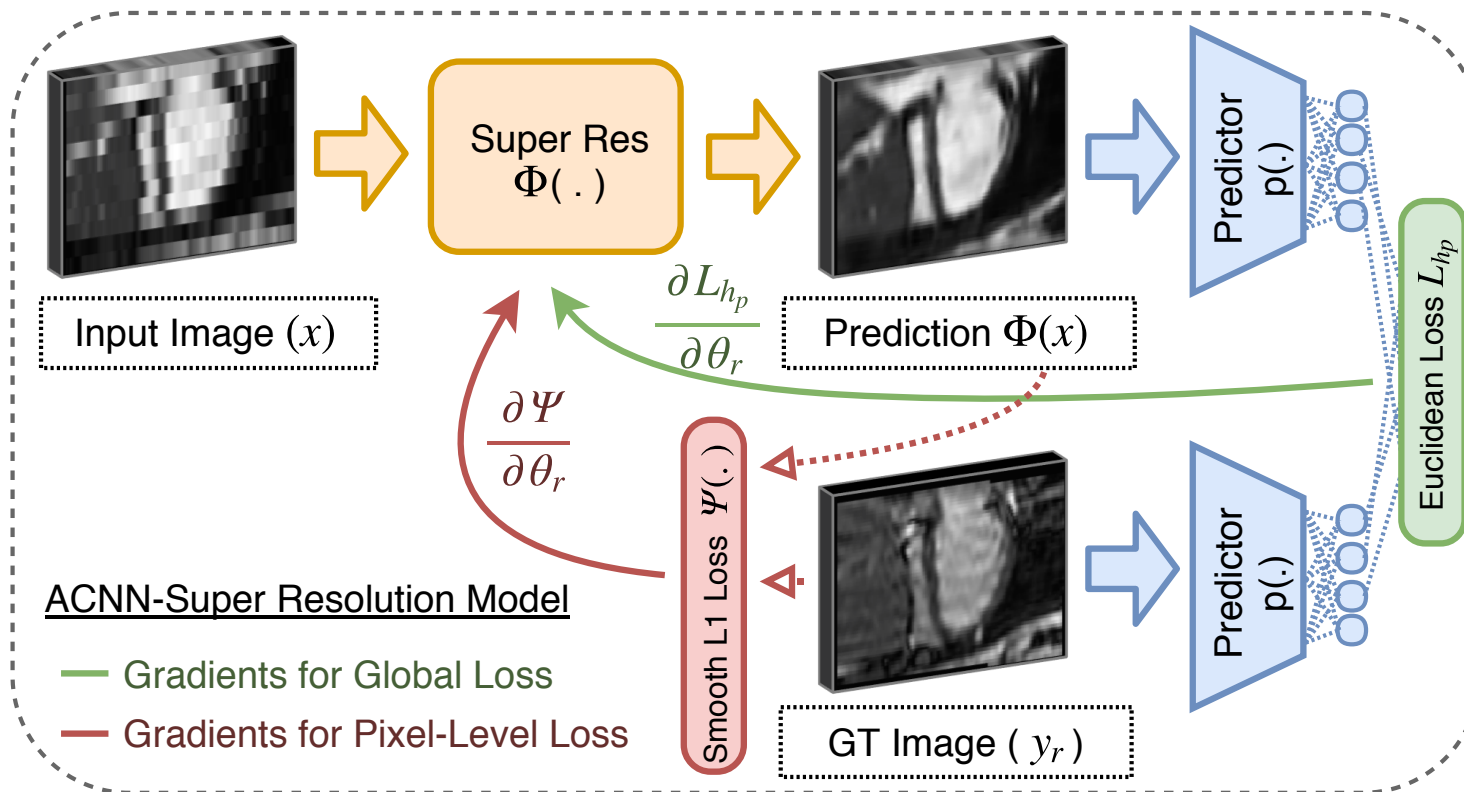
Anatomically constrained CNN: Segmentation framework



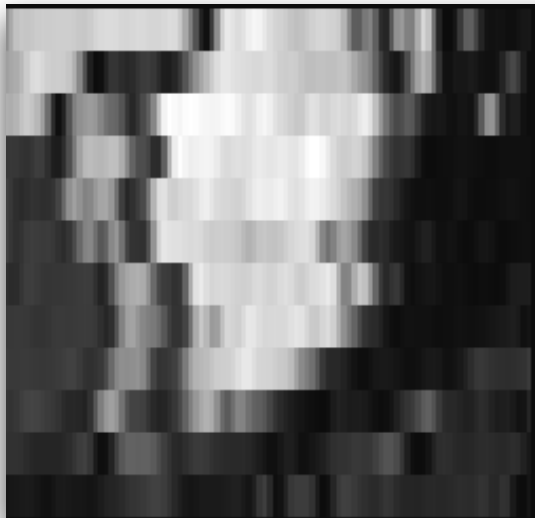
Anatomically constrained CNN: Segmentation results



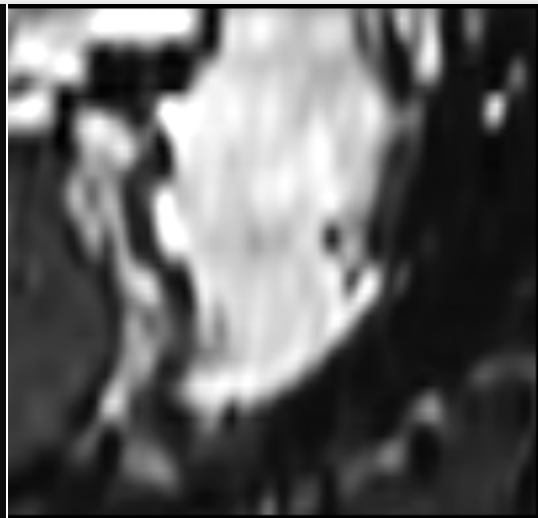
Anatomically constrained CNN: Super-resolution framework



Anatomically constrained CNN: Super-resolution results



Original LR image



Baseline SR
approach

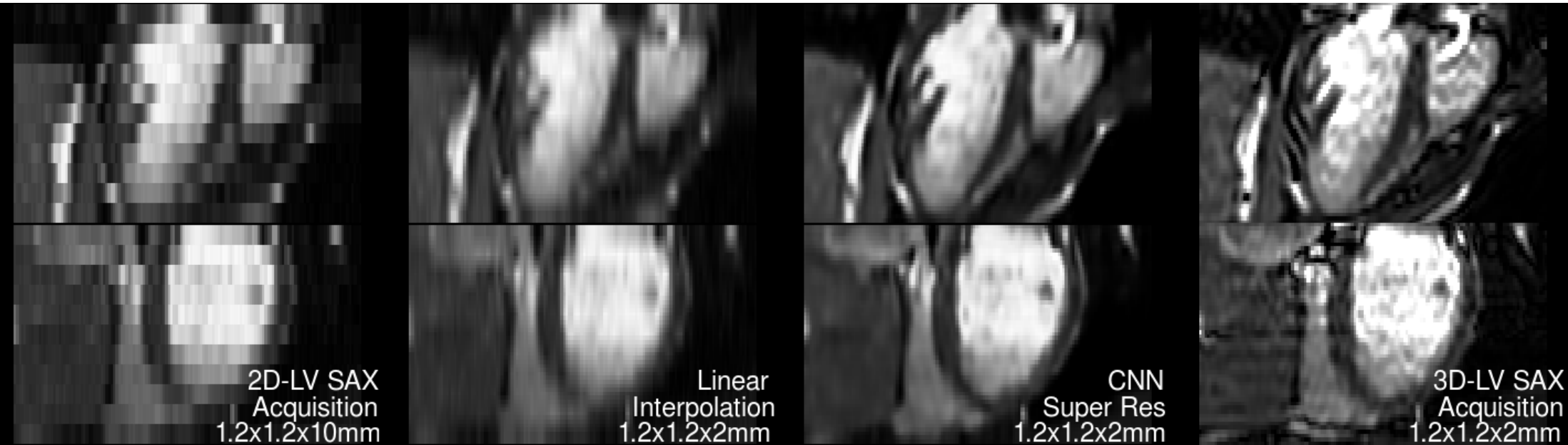


Anatomically constrained
SR model



Ground-truth
HR image

Anatomically constrained CNN: Super-resolution results



Overview

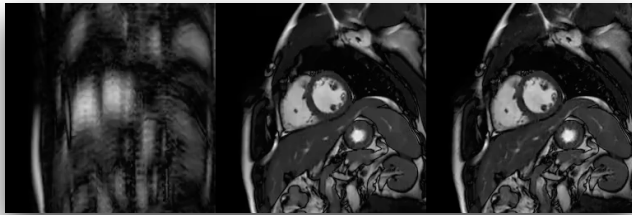


Image reconstruction

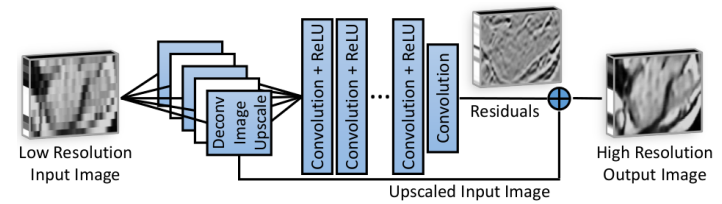


Image super-resolution

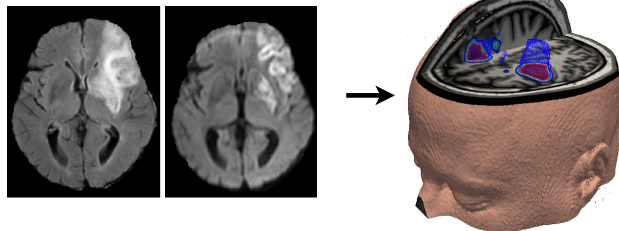


Image segmentation



Abdominal View
Confidence: 98%

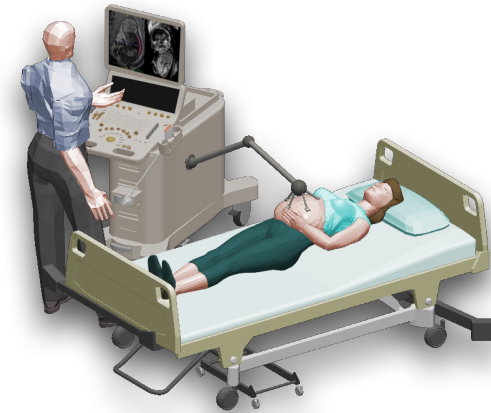
Image classification



iFIND
intelligent Fetal Imaging and Diagnosis



- Aim: Better fetal screening with US
 - Use multiple US probes to acquire more comprehensive imaging data
 - Use robotic control of US probes to ensure wider field of view
 - Use machine learning for automated US image acquisition and interpretation



- Partners:

welcometrust

PHILIPS

EPSRC

KING'S
College
LONDON

Imperial College
London



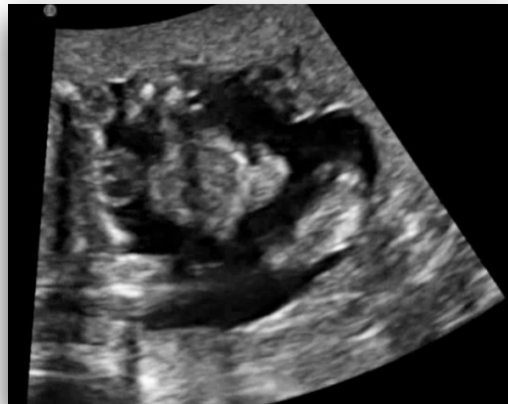
UNIVERSITÀ
DEGLI STUDI
FIRENZE

SickKids

Automatic Standard Scan Plane Detection



Abdominal View
Confidence: 98%



Lips View
Confidence: 96%

Goal: Do this in real-time on images straight from US machine

Automatic Standard Scan Plane Detection



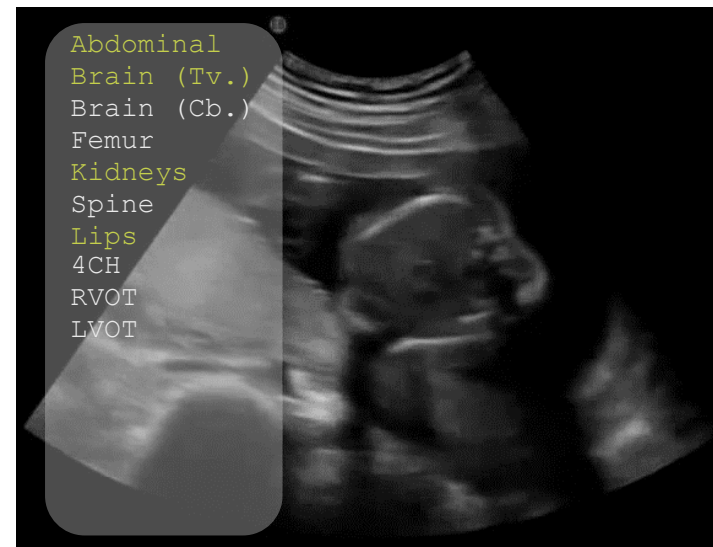
- Potential applications:
 - Guidance: Assist inexperienced sonographers



Automatic Standard Scan Plane Detection



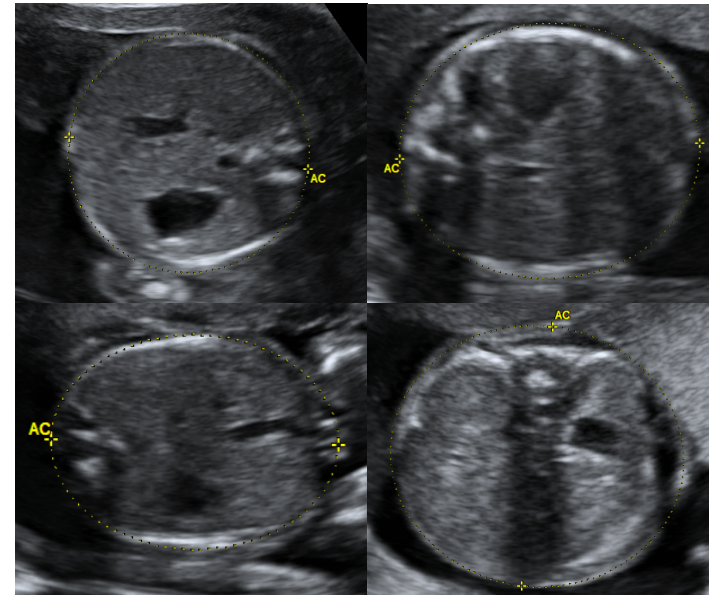
- Potential applications:
 - Guidance: Assist inexperienced sonographers
 - Convenience: Automatically make a check list of visited planes



Automatic Standard Scan Plane Detection



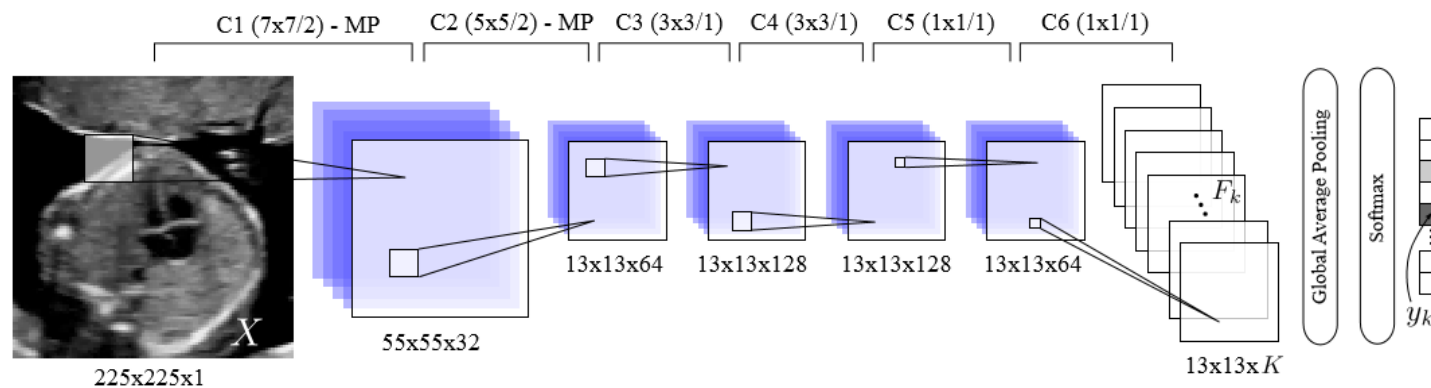
- Potential applications:
 - Guidance: Assist inexperienced sonographers
 - Convenience: Automatically make a check list of visited planes
 - Reproducibility: Reduce variability between operators



Automatic Standard Scan Plane Detection: Method



- Fully convolutional neural network:



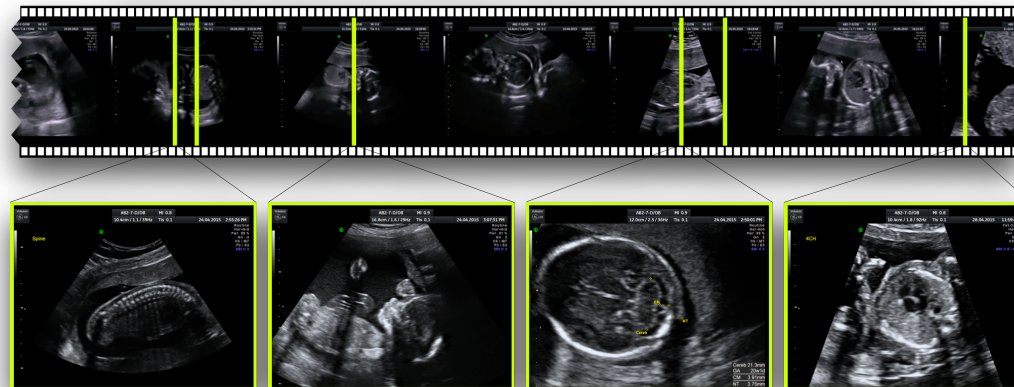
- Very fast
- Very accurate

Automatic Standard Scan Plane Detection: Data



- We use very large 2D ultrasound dataset consisting of *images* of standard views and *videos*

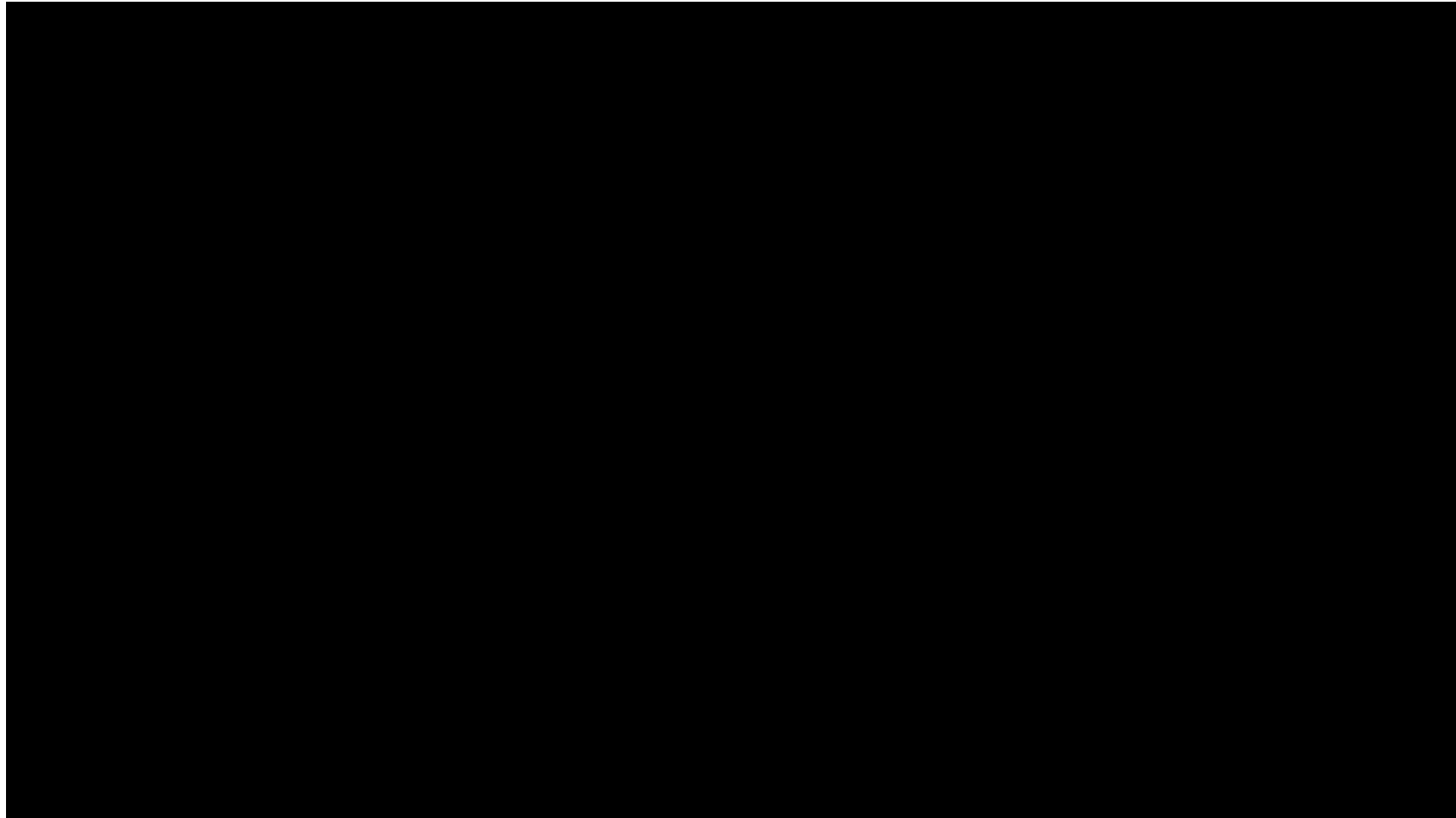
Video of fetal ultrasound examination (typically 20 minutes, 30'000 frames)



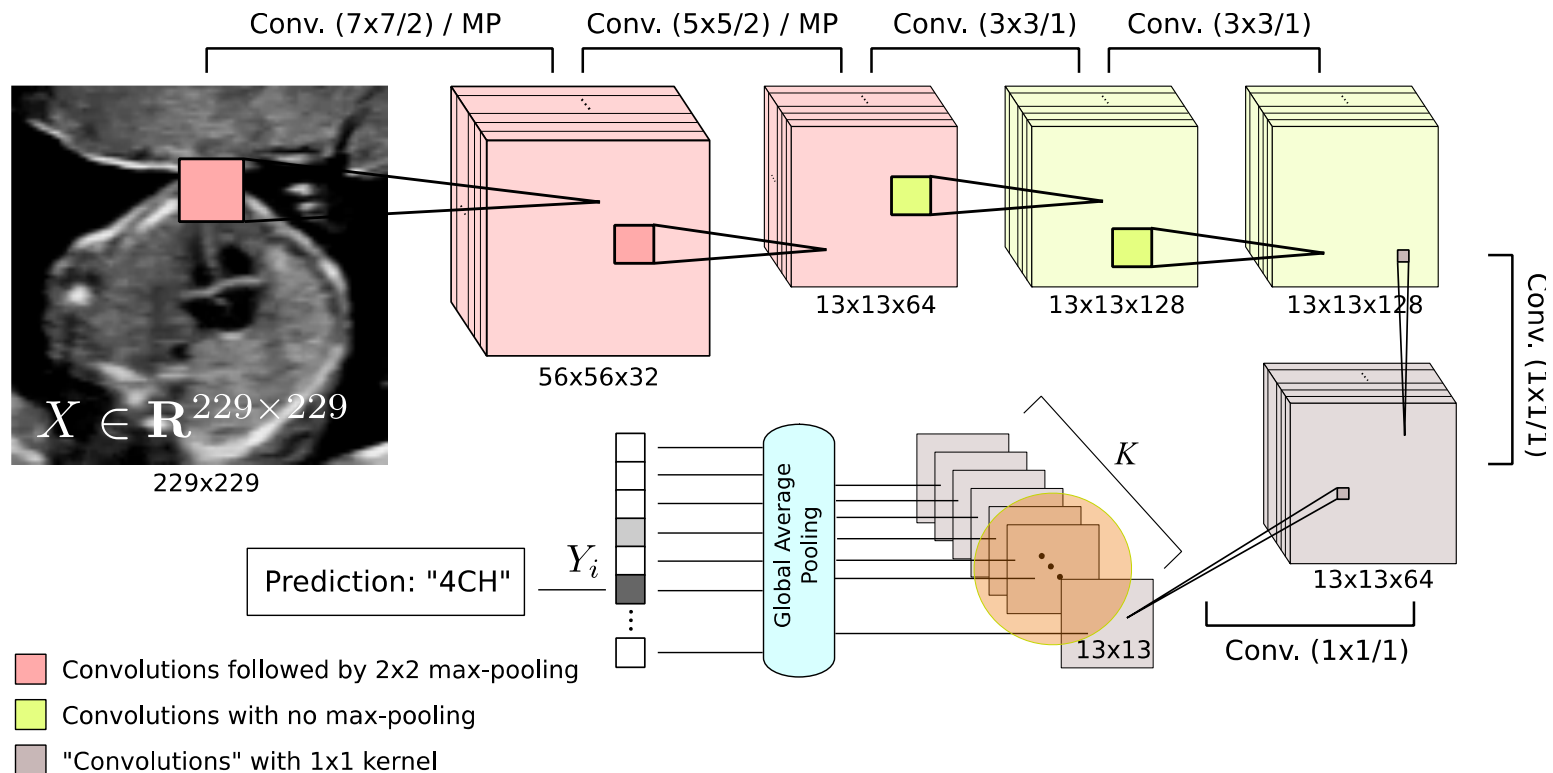
Annotated "freeze frames" saved by operator (typically 30 images)

- Data from
 - 2700 patients
 - Between 1200 and 4800 images for each standard plane

Demo



Automatic Standard Scan Plane Detection: Localisation

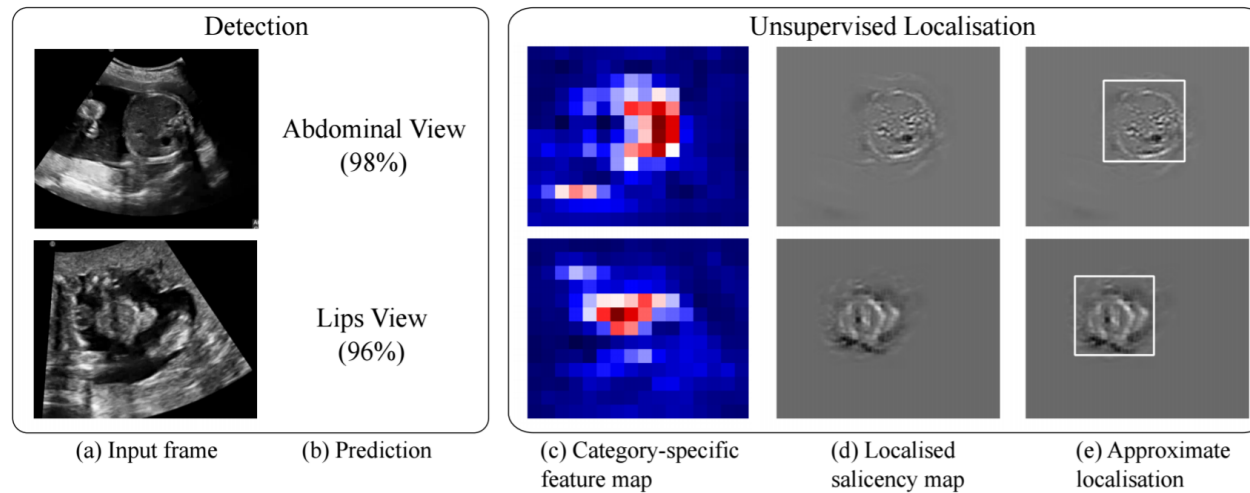


Localisation is (almost) for free in this framework!

Automatic Standard Scan Plane Detection: Localisation

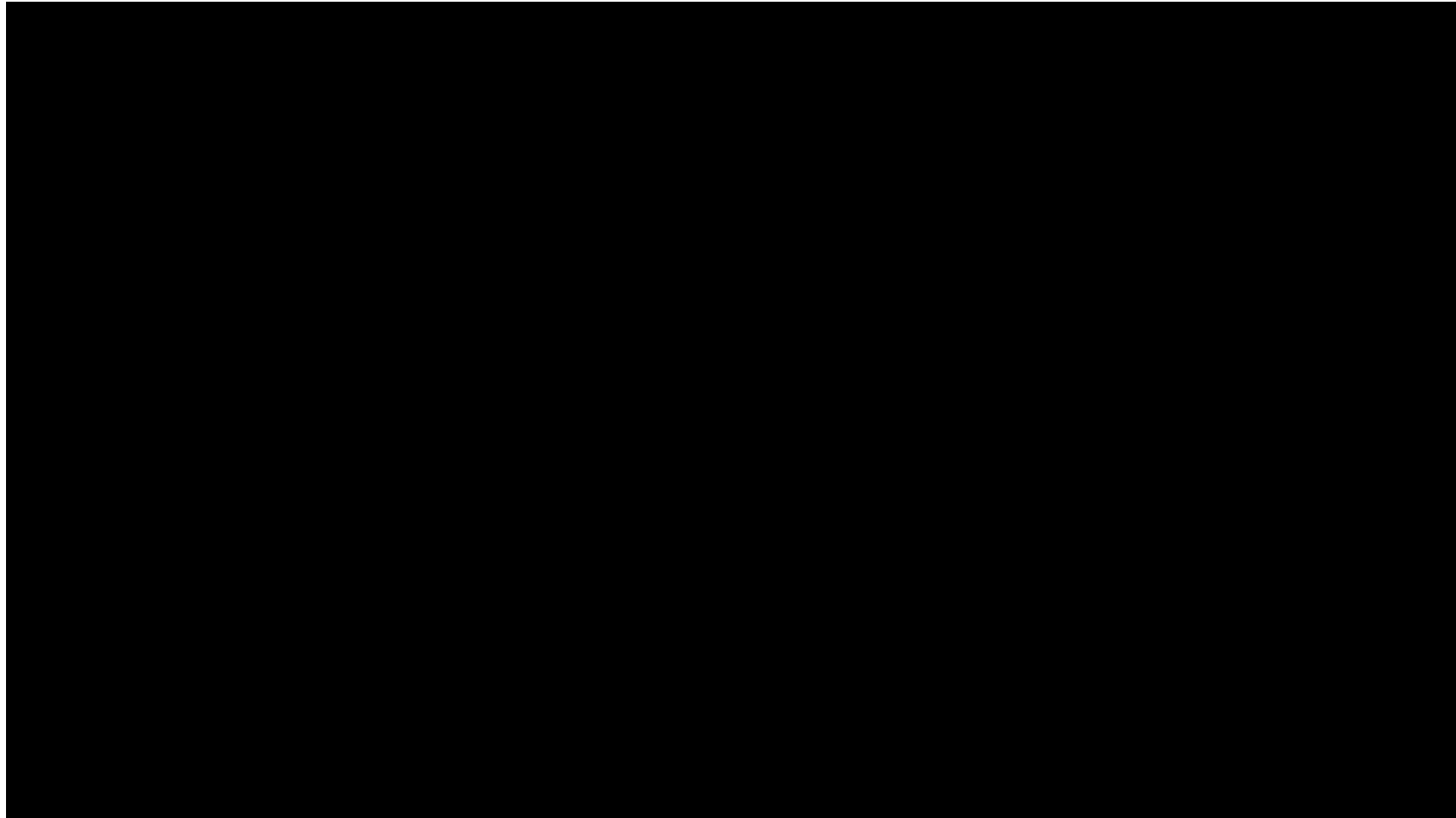


- Can also identify which regions of a frame caused it to make a particular prediction



- This can be used for localisation of the fetal anatomy without having bounding boxes for training

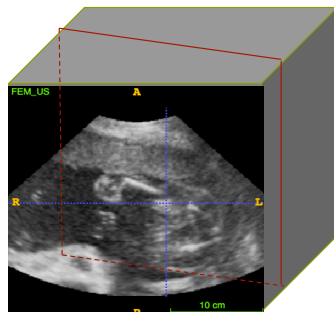
Demo



Standard Plane Detection from 3D Ultrasound



- Motivation
 - 3D ultrasound data is hard to interpret directly on the US scanner
 - We aim for a system that can **automatically extract standard 2D views** from a 3D view at any probe position
- Eventually, we would like this to work in real-time



Overview

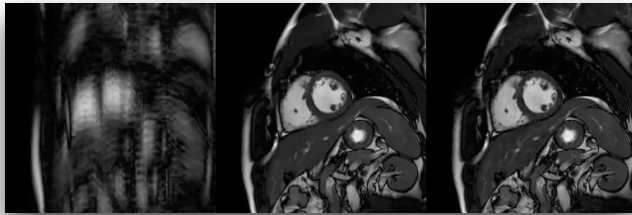


Image reconstruction

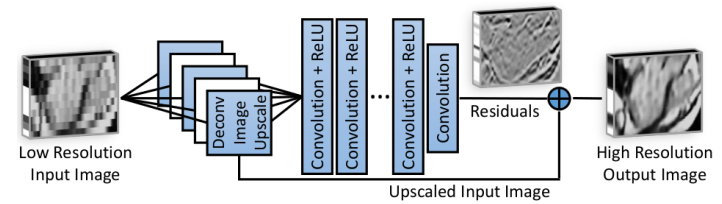


Image super-resolution

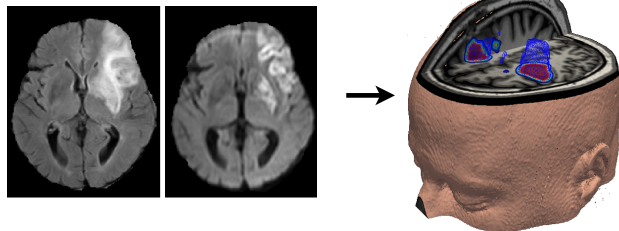


Image segmentation



Abdominal View
Confidence: 98%

Image classification

Convolutional Neural Networks for Medical Image Segmentation

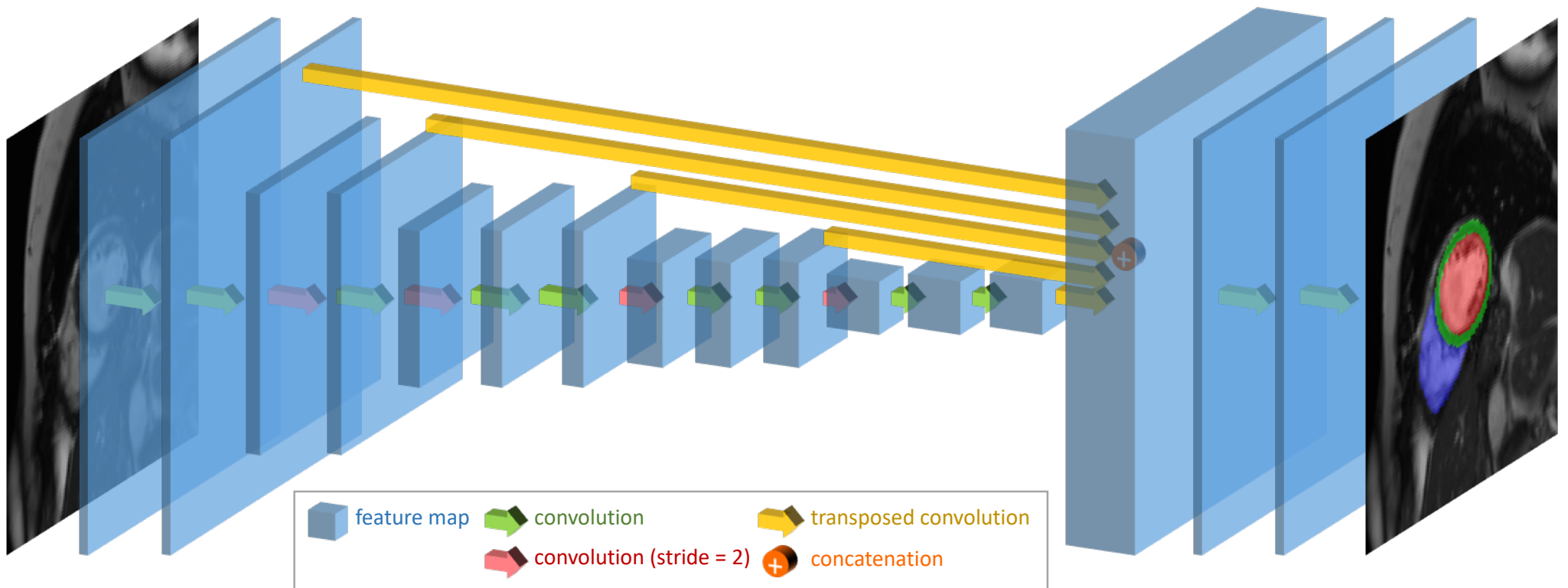


Image segmentation as a machine learning problem



- Manual annotations of **4,872 subjects** (QMUL/Oxford) with **93,128 pixelwise annotated 2D images** slices
- Divided into training/validation/test: 3,972/300/600

Petersen *et al.* *Journal of Cardiovascular Magnetic Resonance* (2017) 19:18
DOI 10.1186/s12968-017-0327-9

Journal of Cardiovascular
Magnetic Resonance

RESEARCH

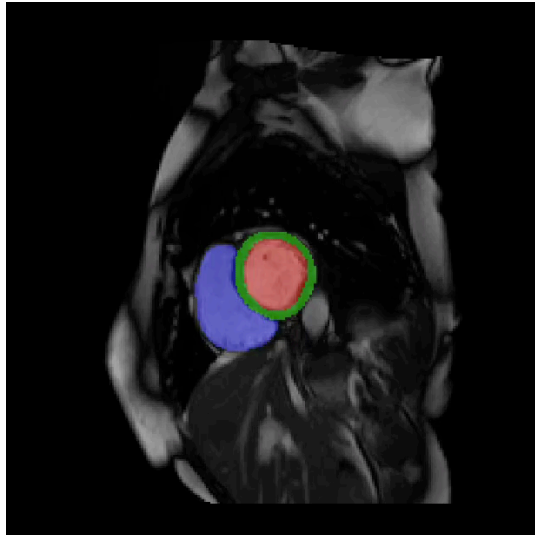
Open Access

Reference ranges for cardiac structure and function using cardiovascular magnetic resonance (CMR) in Caucasians from the UK Biobank population cohort

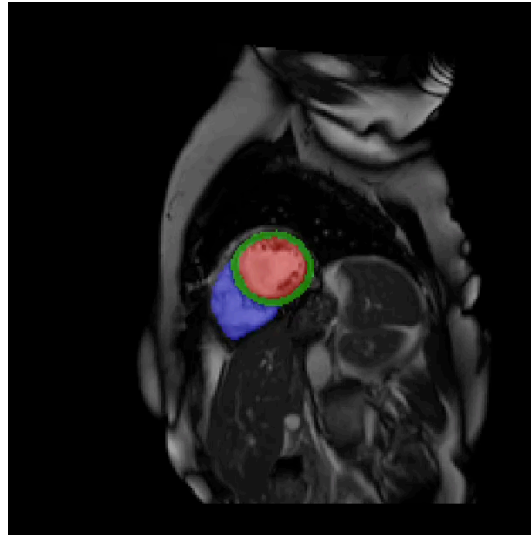


Steffen E. Petersen^{1*}, Nay Aung¹, Mihir M. Sanghvi¹, Filip Zemrak¹, Kenneth Fung¹, Jose Miguel Paiva¹, Jane M. Francis², Mohammed Y. Khanji¹, Elena Lukaschuk², Aaron M. Lee¹, Valentina Carapella², Young Jin Kim^{2,3}, Paul Leeson², Stefan K. Piechnik² and Stefan Neubauer²

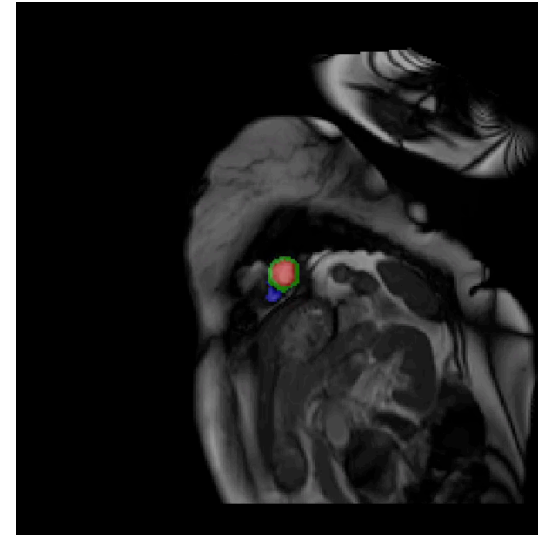
W. Bai et. JCMR, in press 2018
arXiv:1710.09289v3



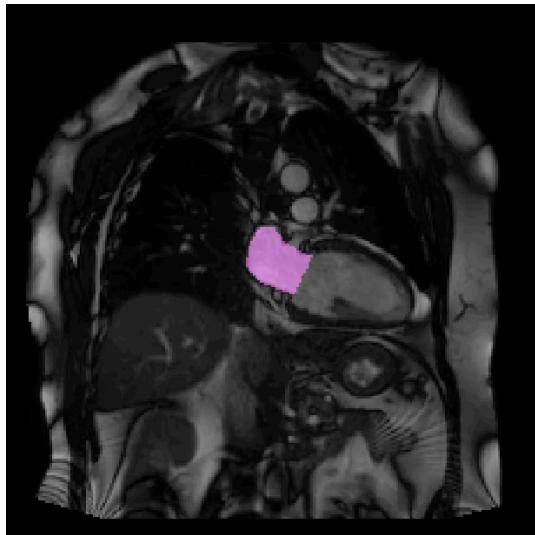
SA, basal



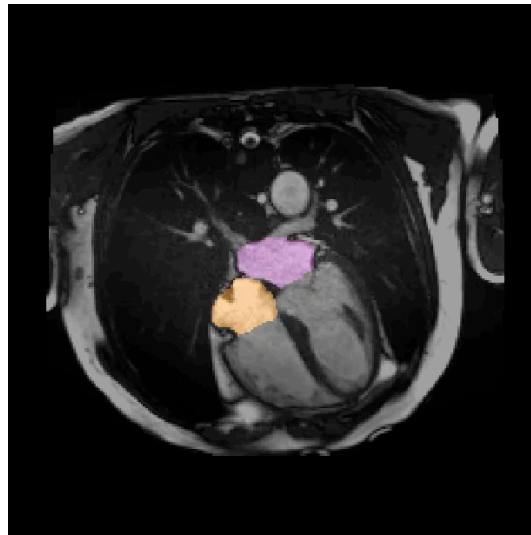
SA, mid-ventricular



SA, apical



LA, 2 chamber



LA, 4 chamber

Evaluation of segmentation accuracy Comparison to expert observers



(a) Absolute difference

| | Auto vs Man (n = 600) | O1 vs O2 (n = 50) | O2 vs O3 (n = 50) | O3 vs O1 (n = 50) |
|------------|--------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| LVEDV (mL) | 6.1±5.3 | 6.1±4.4 | 8.8±5.5 | 11.7±6.9 |
| LVESV (mL) | 5.3±4.9 | 4.1±4.2 | 11.7±6.9 | 11.7±6.9 |
| LVM (gram) | 6.9±5.5 | 4.2±3.1 | 6.3±3.3 | 3.4±2.2 |
| RVEDV (mL) | 8.5±7.1 | 8.0±5.0 | 4.2±3.1 | 5.7±3.6 |
| RVESV (mL) | 7.2±6.8 | 30.6±15.5 | 10.9±8.3 | 16.9±9.2 |
| LVEDV (%) | 9.5±9.5 | 4.2±3.1 | 6.3±3.3 | 3.4±2.2 |
| LVESV (%) | 8.3±7.6 | 6.8±7.5 | 12.5±8.5 | 11.7±5.1 |
| LVM (%) | 5.6±4.6 | 4.4±3.3 | 6.0±3.7 | 6.7±4.6 |
| RVEDV (%) | 5.6±4.6 | 8.0±5.0 | 4.2±3.1 | 5.7±3.6 |
| RVESV (%) | 11.8±12.2 | 30.6±15.5 | 10.9±8.3 | 16.9±9.2 |

Automated Manual

Computer performs as well as different expert observers

Challenges for medical image segmentation: Deployment in the clinic



- ML-based segmentation often degrades when deployed in clinical scenarios

- This is

training
variatio

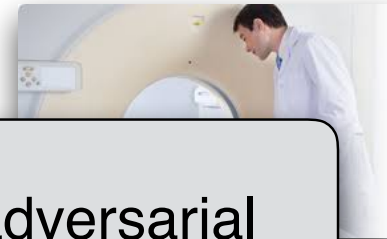
- scar
- scar

- Manual

test domain is not a feasible solution

Unsupervised domain adaptation using adversarial neural networks can be used to train a CNN-based segmentation

- which is more invariant to differences in the input data
- which does not require any annotations on the test domain

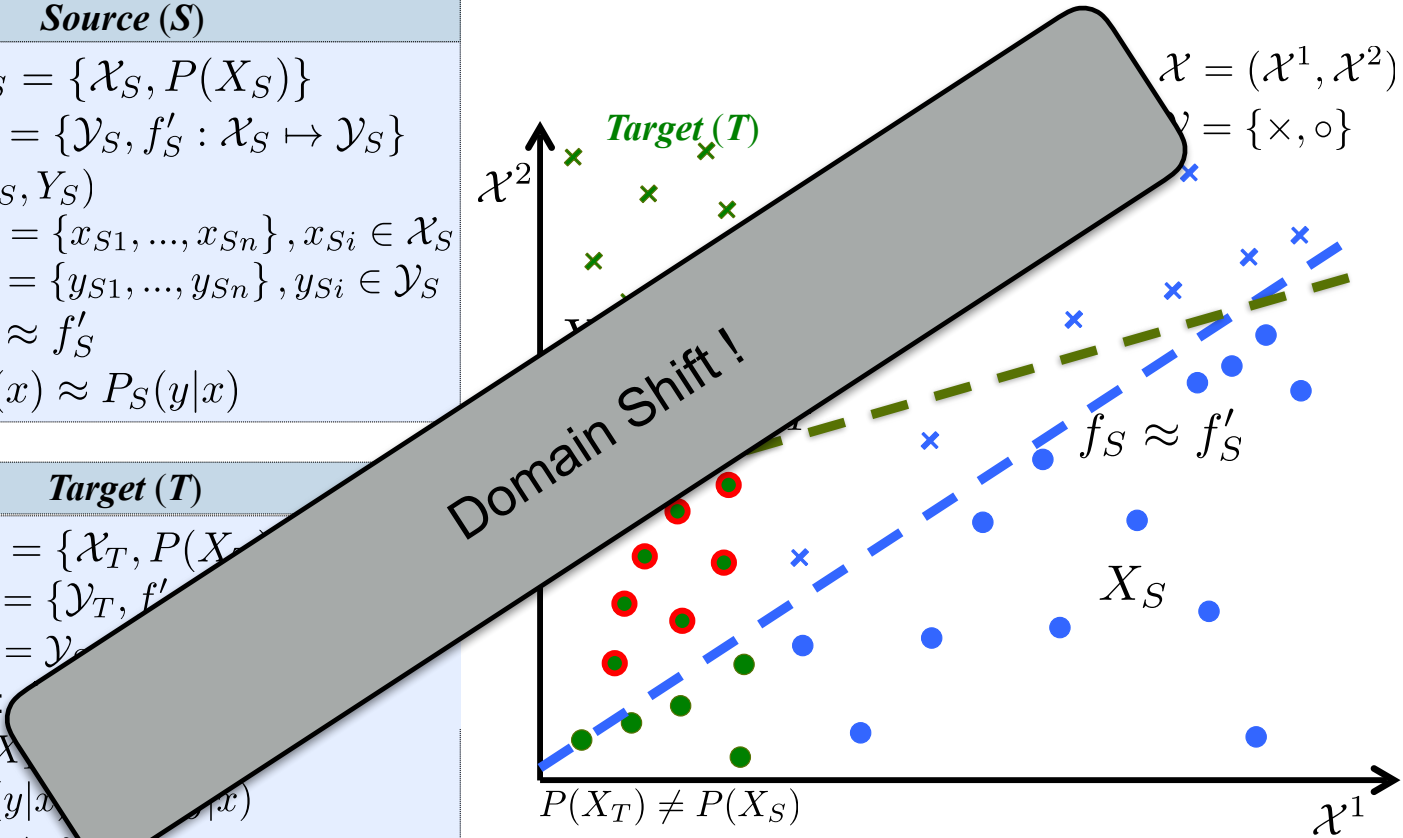


Deploying machine learning into clinical practice: What is the problem?



| <i>Source (S)</i> | |
|-------------------|--|
| Domain: | $D_S = \{\mathcal{X}_S, P(X_S)\}$ |
| Task: | $T_S = \{\mathcal{Y}_S, f'_S : \mathcal{X}_S \mapsto \mathcal{Y}_S\}$ |
| Given: | (X_S, Y_S) $X_S = \{x_{S1}, \dots, x_{Sn}\}, x_{Si} \in \mathcal{X}_S$ $Y_S = \{y_{S1}, \dots, y_{Sn}\}, y_{Si} \in \mathcal{Y}_S$ |
| Learn: | $f_S \approx f'_S$ $f_S(x) \approx P_S(y x)$ |

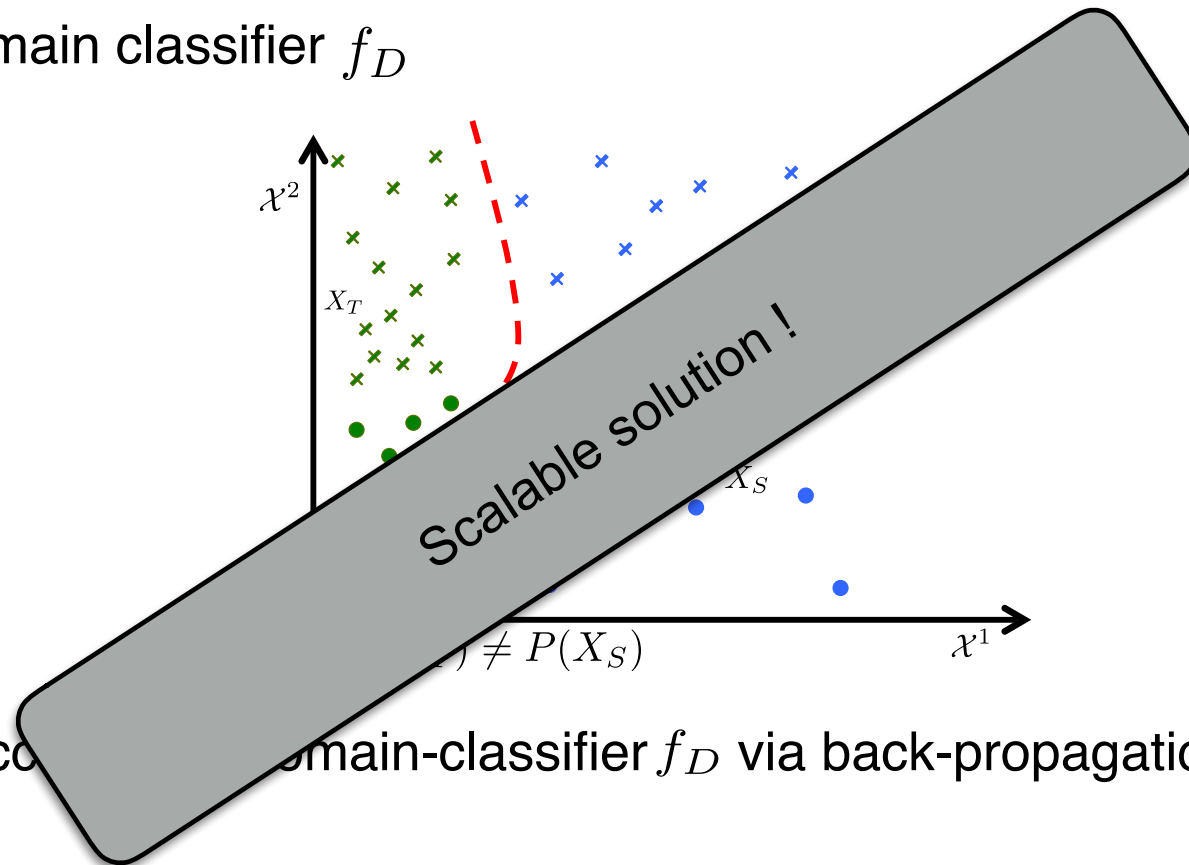
| <i>Target (T)</i> | |
|-------------------|---|
| Domain: | $D_T = \{\mathcal{X}_T, P(X_T)\}$ |
| Task: | $T_T = \{\mathcal{Y}_T, f'_T : \mathcal{X}_T \mapsto \mathcal{Y}_T\}$ |
| Here: | $\mathcal{Y}_T = \mathcal{Y}_S$ |
| Domain Shift: | $P(X_T) \neq P(X_S)$ $P_T(y x) \neq P_S(y x)$ $f'_T \neq f'_S$ |



Solution: Unsupervised domain adaptation with adversarial networks



- Learn a domain classifier f_D

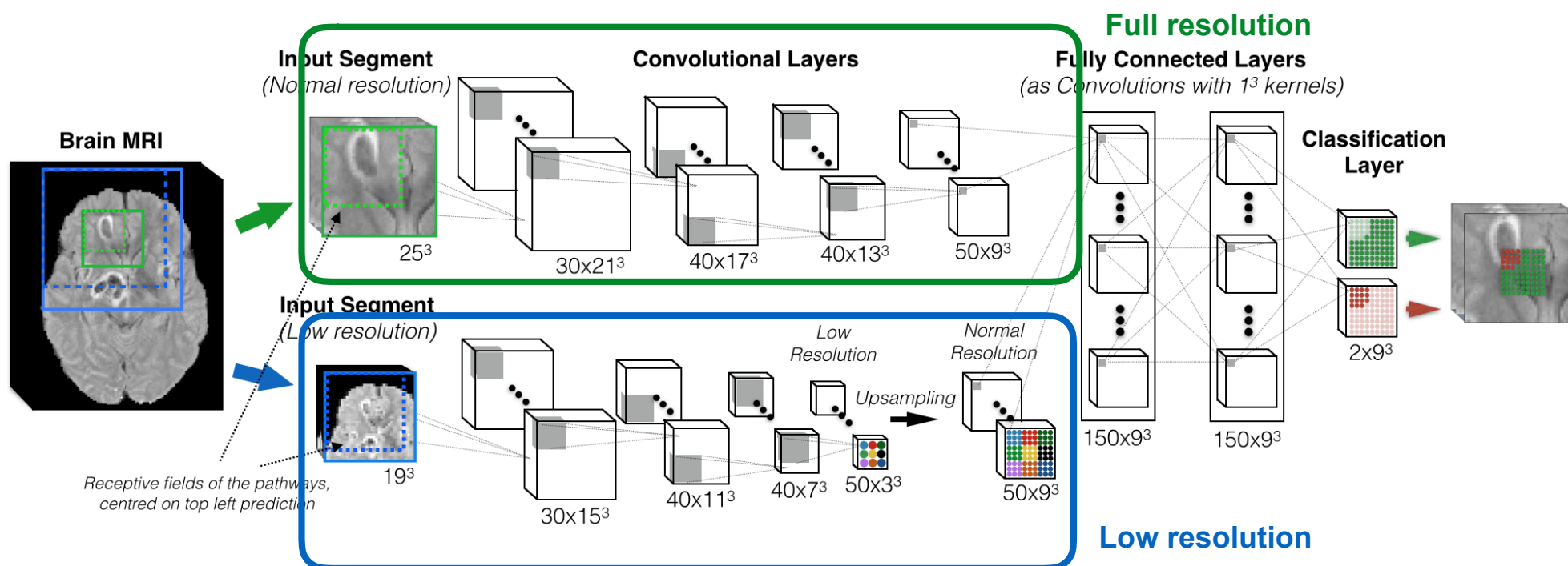


- Minimize accuracy of domain-classifier f_D via back-propagation

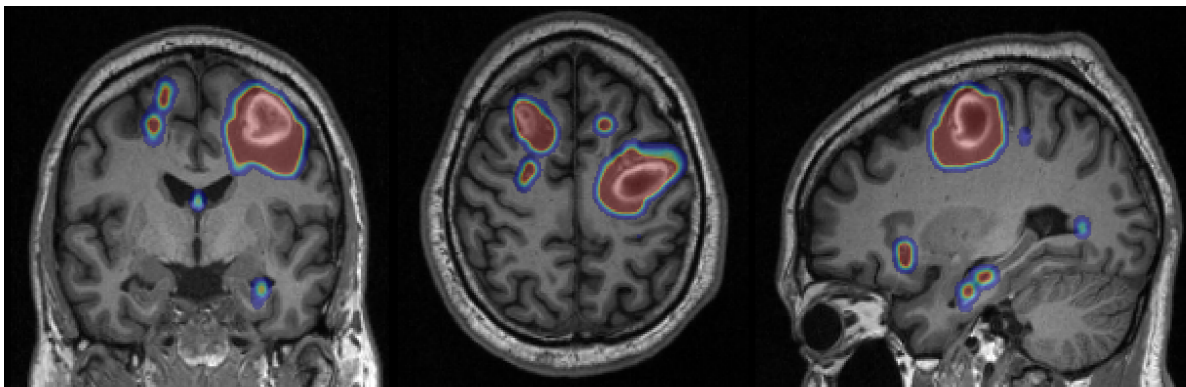
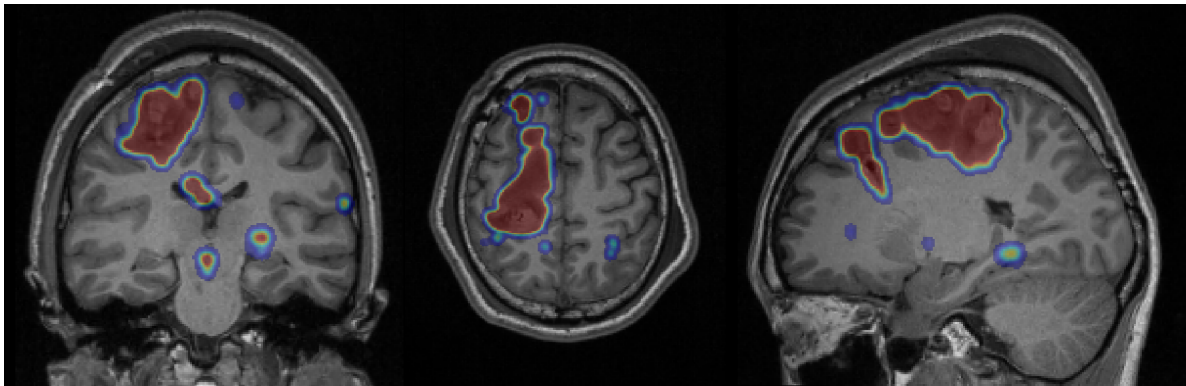


DeepMedic: Overview

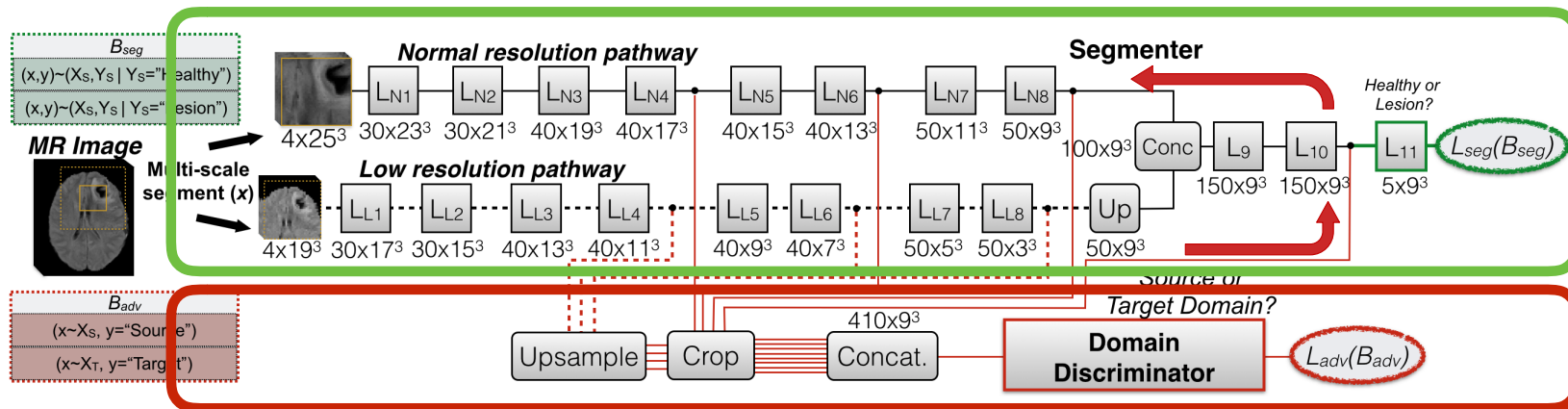
- The size of receptive field of CNNs is important:
 - Large receptive increases computation and memory requirements
 - Pooling leads to loss of the spatial information



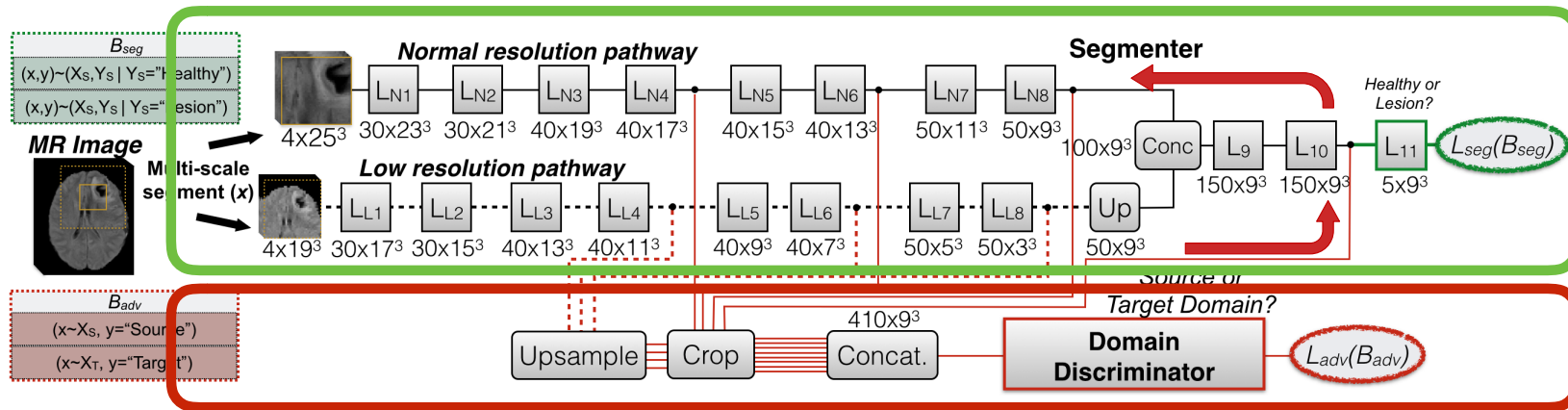
DeepMedic in Action



DeepMedic: Unsupervised domain adaptation with adversarial networks



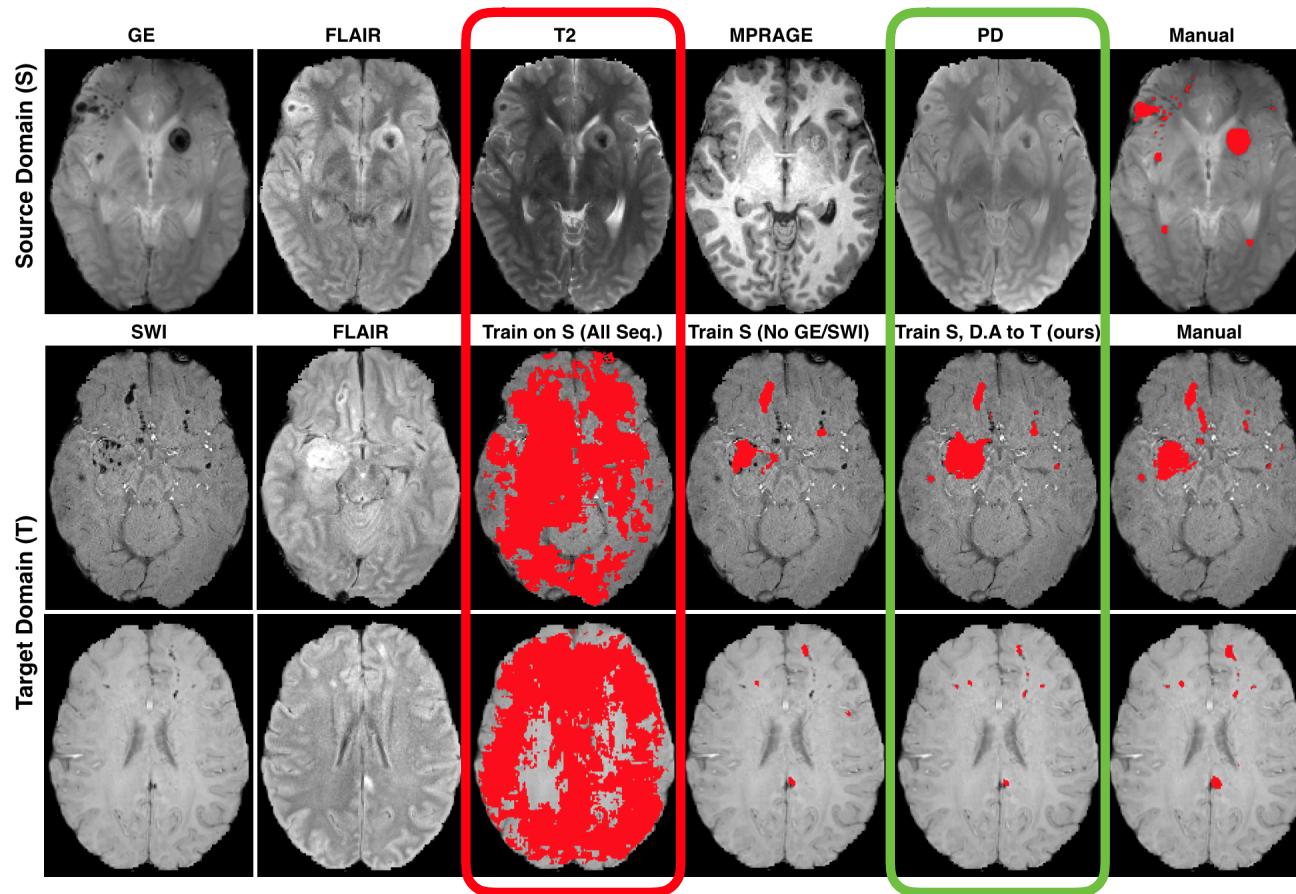
DeepMedic: Unsupervised domain adaptation with adversarial networks



$$\text{Segementer: } \mathcal{L}_{seg} = -\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m [f(x_i) = y_i] \log(f(x_i)) \quad , (x_i, y_i) \sim (X_S, Y_S)$$

$$\text{Domain Discr.: } \mathcal{L}_{adv} = -\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \log(f_D(h(x_i))) - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m \log(1 - f_D(h(x_j))) \quad , \begin{matrix} x_i \sim X_S \\ x_j \sim X_T \end{matrix}$$

DeepMedic: Unsupervised domain adaptation with adversarial networks



Challenges for medical image segmentation: DeepMedic, FCN & U-Net



- **The good:**

- There are some good/promising CNN-based segmentation approaches (DeepMedic)

- **The bad:**

- A lot of models
- Architecture
- Architecture

Ensemble of Multiple Models & Architectures (EMMA)

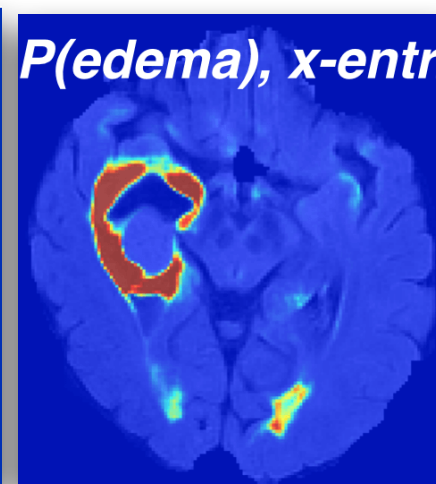
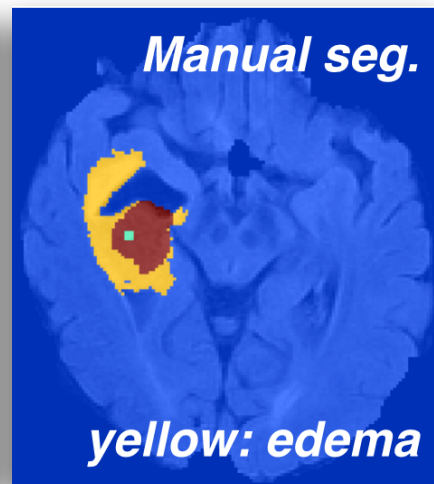
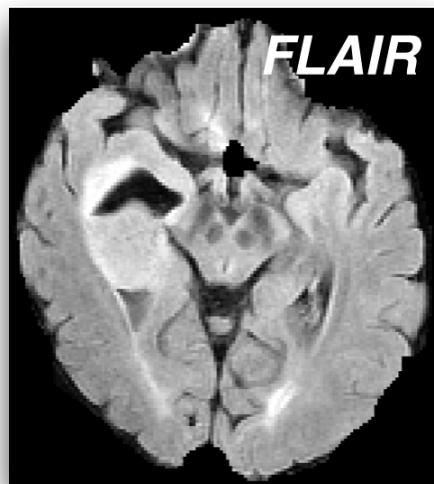
Performance **insensitive** to suboptimal configuration

Behaviour **unbiased** by architecture & configuration

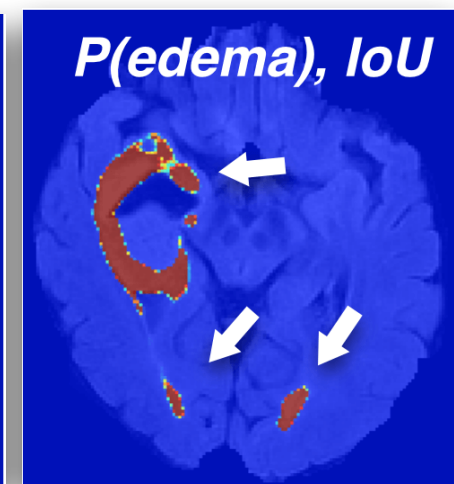
- **The ugly:**

- Chosen model & config may be suboptimal for other data/task
- Results and conclusions of analysis are strongly biased

Challenges for medical image segmentation: Behaviour and performance is variable



Model trained with
cross-entropy loss



Model trained with
IoU (Dice) loss



Ensemble of Multiple Models and Architectures (EMMA)

Need to learn: $P(Y|X)$

Approximate it by model: $P(Y|X; \theta_m, m)$

with learnt parameters $\theta_m = \min_{\theta_m} d(P(Y|X; \theta_m, m), P(Y|X))$, d the loss.

Model is defined by chosen meta-parameters m .

Commonly m is neglected, but it biases the results!

We define stochastic random variable M , over configurations of interest.

Need to marginalise out influence of M :

$$P(Y|X) = \sum_{\forall m \in M} P(Y, M = m|X) = \sum_{\forall m \in M} P(Y|X, M = m) P(M = m)$$

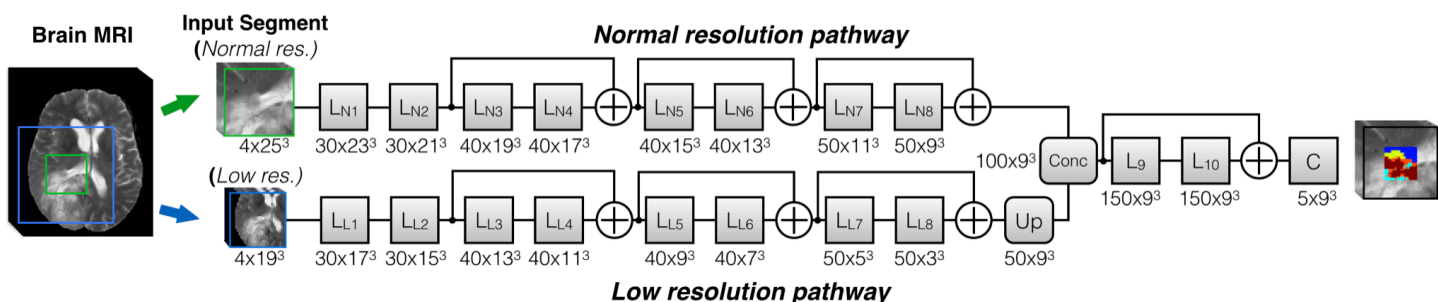
EMMA approximate the joint by ensembling individual models:

$$\sim P_{EMMA}(Y|X) = \sum_{\forall m \in M} P(Y|X; \theta_m, m) \frac{1}{|M|}$$

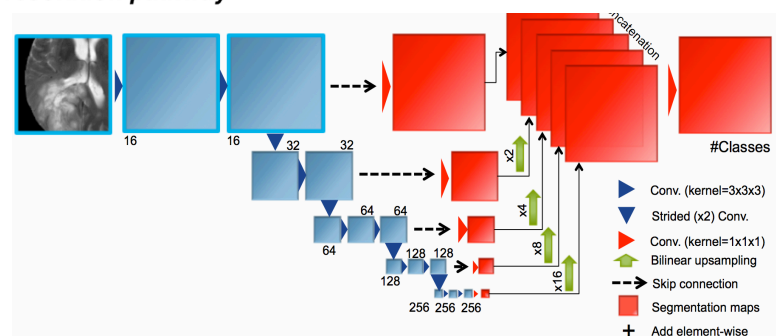


M: Network architectures

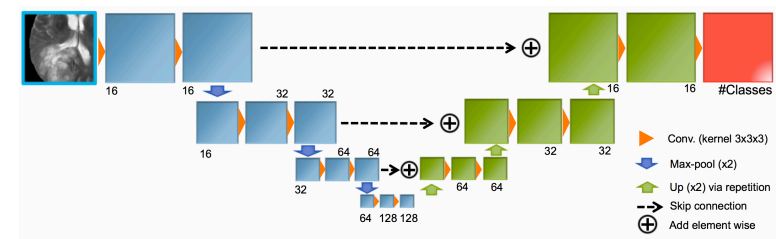
DeepMedic [Kamnitsas 2015, 2016, 2017]



FCN [Long 2015]:



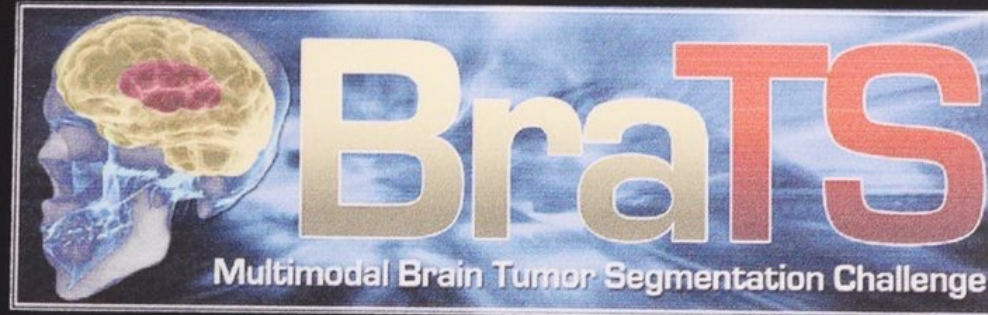
U-Net [Ronneberger 2015]:





M: Network configurations

- Architecture configuration:
 - depth, width, scales, residuals, etc.
- Training Loss:
 - Cross-Entropy, IoU, DSC, etc.
- Sampling strategy:
 - equally per class, foreground/background, etc.
- Optimisation:
 - optimizer, learning rate, momentum, regulariser...
- Data normalisation:
 - z-score, bias field correction, histogram matching



Led by CBICA

1st Place

**2017 MICCAI BraTS Challenge
(Segmentation Task)**

**K. Kamnitsas, et al. "Ensembles of Multiple Models and
Architectures for Robust Brain Tumour Segmentation"**

BRATS'17 Challenge: Quantitative validation



- **EMMA: 2 x DeepMedic, 3 x FCNs, 1 x U-Net**
 - Different training losses, sampling strategies, widths, depths, configurations
 - No config was heavily optimised for the task (3/6 nets were quite suboptimal)

| | DSC | | Sensitivity | | | Specificity | | | Hausdorff_95 | | | |
|--------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | Enh. | Whole Core | Enh. | Whole Core | Enh. | Whole Core | Enh. | Whole Core | Enh. | Whole Core | | |
| EMMA | 75.7 | 90.2 | 82.0 | 79.0 | 90.9 | 78.3 | 99.8 | 99.5 | 99.9 | 4.22 | 4.56 | 6.11 |
| UCL-TIG | 75.2 | 89.7 | 82.5 | 77.1 | 91.2 | 88.9 | 99.8 | 99.4 | 99.7 | 4.78 | 3.97 | 7.60 |
| MIC_DKFZ | 73.2 | 89.6 | 79.7 | 79.0 | 89.6 | 78.1 | 99.8 | 99.6 | 99.9 | 4.55 | 6.97 | 9.48 |

- **Robustness:**
 - EMMA of all 6 was better than individuals.
 - Ensemble of 3 best nets was only marginally better than EMMA of all 6 nets.

Summary and Conclusions

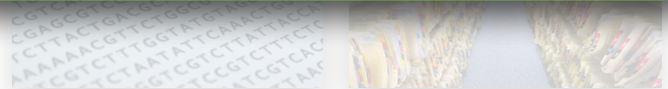
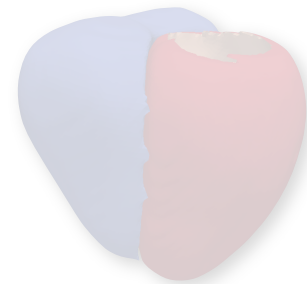


- Deep learning already plays a crucial role in medical imaging for
 - Image a
 - Image d
- Applications of deep learning in computer-aided decision support have been limited so far
 - But there is some (unjust)
- There is great potential for truly intelligent computer-aided diagnosis
 - Learning from unlabelled, large-scale population data
 - Integration of imaging and non-imaging information with clinical records and genetics

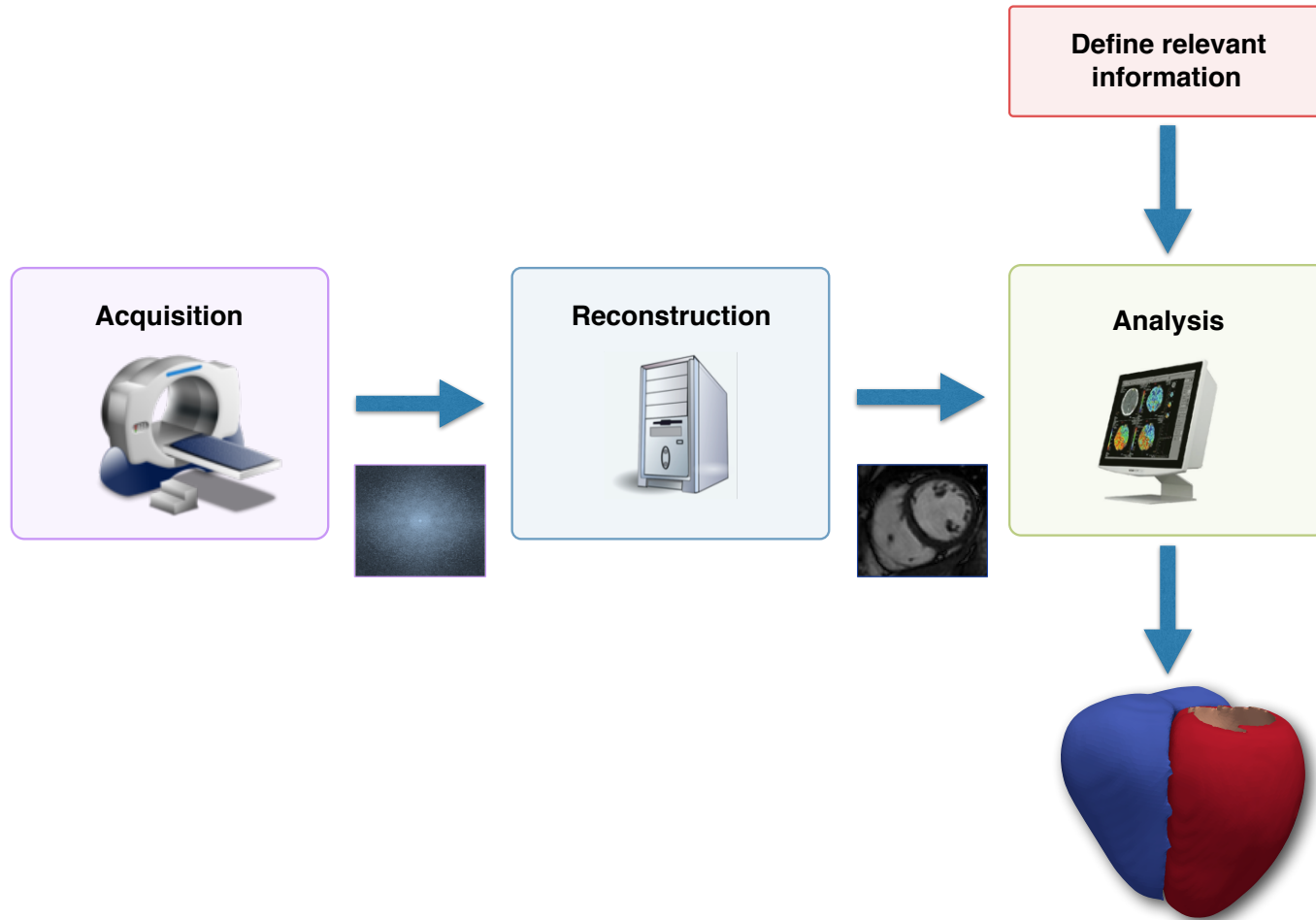
Validation is challenging

Requires collaboration between computer scientists, engineers and clinicians

Optimisation of imaging pipeline with respect to clinically useful information



Current state-of-the-art



Future: End-to-end optimisation of entire imaging pipeline via deep learning



Future: End-to-end optimisation of entire imaging pipeline via deep learning



Big data (population data)

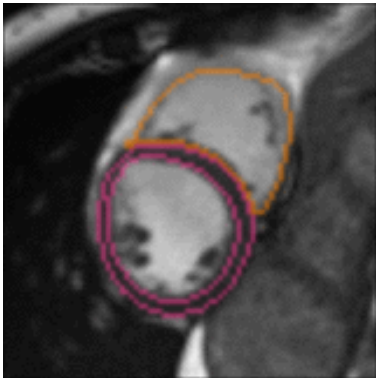


Multi-modal data

Sneak preview: Can we recover LV and RV directly from k-space?



Ground truth



J. Schlemper et al.
MICCAI 2018



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