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Graph-Based Neural Reconstruction from Skeletonized 3D Networks

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Abstract

Advancements in electron microscopy image acquisition have created massive connectomics datasets in the terabyte range that make manual reconstruction of neuronal structures infeasible. Current state-of-the-art automatic methods segment neural membranes at the pixel level followed by agglomeration methods to create full neuron reconstructions. However, these approaches widely neglect global geometric properties that are inherent in the graph structure of neural wiring diagrams. In this work, we follow bottom-up pixel-based reconstruction by a top-down graph-based method to more accurately approximate neural pathways. We first generate skeletons in 3D from the membrane labels of the pixel-based segmentation. We then simplify this skeletonized 3D network into a 3D graph with nodes corresponding to labels from the segmentation and edges identifying potential locations of segmentation errors. We use a CNN classifier trained on ground truth data to generate edge weights on the 3D graph corresponding to error probabilities. We then apply a multicut algorithm to generate a partition on the graph that improves the final segmentation. Because the 3D graph is small and encodes top-down information our method is efficient and globally improves the neural reconstruction. We demonstrate the performance of our approach on multiple real-world connectomics datasets with an average variation of information improvement of $X \times$.

1. Introduction

The field of connectomics is concerned with reconstructing the wiring diagram of the brain at nanometer resolutions to enable new insights into the workings of the brain [8, 18]. Recent advancements in image acquisition using multi-beam serial-section electron microscopy (sSEM) have allowed researchers to produce terabytes of image data every hour [12]. It is not feasible for domain experts to manually reconstruct this vast amount of im-

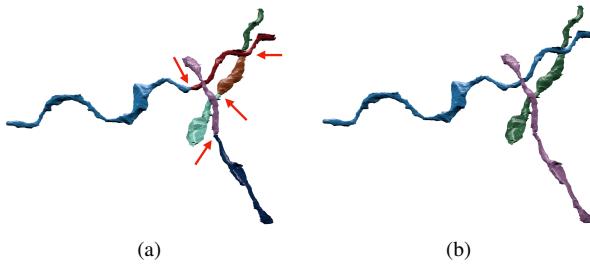


Figure 1: Example improvement of neural reconstruction. (a) We extract 3D skeletons from pixel-based segmentation algorithms to create a 3D graph representation. Edges with high segmentation error probabilities are indicated by the red arrows. (b) We improve the accuracy of segmentation using a graph partitioning algorithm, leveraging both local and global information.

age data [11]. State-of-the-art automatic reconstruction approaches use pixel-based segmentation with convolutional neural networks (CNNs) followed by agglomeration strategies [21, 23, 27, 30, 33, 43]. These *bottom-up pixel-based* methods produce excellent results but still fall short of acceptable error rates for large volumes.

We present a *top-down graph-based* method that builds on the outputs of bottom-up pixel-based segmentation approaches. We first extract 3D skeleton networks from the input segmentation and generate a simplified 3D graph (Fig. 1a). We train a CNN classifier on the agglomerated regions in the segmentation data to detect errors. We run the classifier to populate the graph edge weights with error probabilities. We then use a graph optimization algorithm to partition the graph into the final improved reconstruction by enforcing domain-specific global constraints from biology (Fig. 1b).

Our approach operates at a level of abstraction above existing pixel-based methods. This allows us to leverage both local and global information to produce more accurate reconstructions. Our method is independent of image reso-

108 lution and acquisition parameters, enabling its application
 109 to isotropic and anisotropic image data without retraining.
 110 Using the 3D graph induced by the segmentation allows us
 111 to enforce global biological constraints on the reconstruc-
 112 tion. Our dual approach of assessing local decisions in a
 113 global context yields accuracy improvements over existing
 114 reconstruction methods.

115 This work makes the following contributions: (1) a novel
 116 top-down method using graphs from skeletonized 3D net-
 117 works for improved neural reconstruction of connectomics
 118 data; (2) a region-based CNN classifier to detect errors us-
 119 ing the 3D graph as global constraint; (3) an empirical eval-
 120 uation of our method on several connectomics datasets; (4)
 121 our method yields improved performance over a state-of-
 122 the-art pixel-based reconstruction approach on average by
 123 $\textcolor{red}{X}$ percent without drastically increasing the running time.

125 2. Related Work

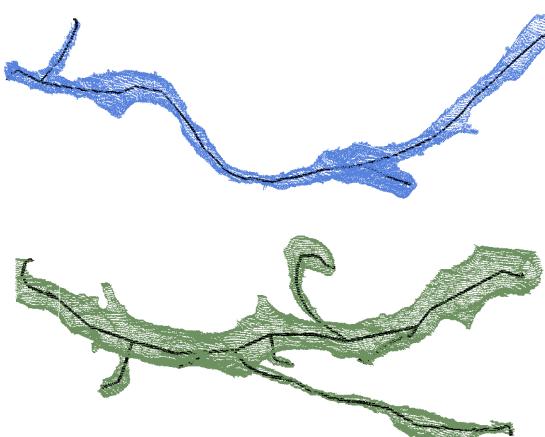
127 We review some of the most successful segmentation
 128 methods that have been applied to large-scale EM images
 129 in connectomics.

131 **Pixel-based methods.** A large amount of connectomics
 132 research considers the problem of extracting segmentation
 133 information at the pixel (i.e., voxel) level from the raw EM
 134 images. Some early techniques apply computationally ex-
 135 pensive graph partitioning algorithms with a single node
 136 per pixel [1]. However, these methods do not scale to ter-
 137 abyte datasets. More recent methods train classifiers to pre-
 138 dict membrane probabilities per image slice either using
 139 2D [4, 14, 19, 21, 41] or 3D CNNs [23, 33, 40].

140 Oftentimes these networks produce probabilities for the
 141 affinity between two voxels (i.e., the probability that adja-
 142 cent voxels belong to the same neuron). The MALIS cost
 143 function is specifically designed for generating affinities
 144 that produce good segmentations [2]. More recently, flood-
 145 filling networks produce segmentations by training an end-
 146 to-end neural network that goes from EM images directly
 147 to label volumes [16]. These networks produce impressive
 148 accuracies but at a high computational cost.

150 **Region-based methods.** Several pixel-based approaches
 151 generate probabilities that neighboring pixels belong to the
 152 same neuron. Often a watershed algorithm will then cluster
 153 pixels into super-pixels [43]. Many methods build on top of
 154 these region-based strategies and train random-forest classi-
 155 fiers to produce the final segmentations [21, 27, 29, 30, 43].

157 **Error-correction methods.** Some recent research builds
 158 on top of these region-based methods to correct errors in
 159 the segmentation either using human proofreading [15, 22,
 160 10, 9] or fully automatically [32, 44]. However, to our



162 Figure 2: Example skeletons (in black) extracted from seg-
 163 ments (blue and green) using the TEASER algorithm.

164 knowledge, our method is the first to extract a 3D graph
 165 from pixel-based segmentations for a true top-down error
 166 correction approach. This allows us to enforce domain-
 167 specific biology constraints and efficient graph partitioning
 168 algorithms. Many segmentation and clustering algorithms
 169 use graph partitioning techniques [1] or normalized cuts for
 170 traditional image segmentation [17, 36, 38]. Even though
 171 graph partitioning is an NP-Hard problem [5] there are sev-
 172 eral useful multicut heuristics that provide good approxima-
 173 tions with reasonable computational costs [13]. We use the
 174 method of Keuper et al. [20] to partition the extracted 3D
 175 graph into the final neural reconstruction.

177 3. Method

179 There are two types of errors that can occur in connec-
 180 toomics segmentation. The first, called a split error, occurs
 181 when there are two segments that should have been merged.
 182 The second, called a merge error, happens when one seg-
 183 ment should be split into two. Generally, it is much more
 184 difficult to correct merge errors than to correct split errors,
 185 as the space of possible split proposals grow quickly [28].
 186 Thus, most reconstruction approaches are tuned towards
 187 over-segmentation with many more split than merge errors.
 188 Our method takes as input over-segmentations of EM image
 189 volumes generated by state-of-the-art connectomics recon-
 190 struction pipelines (Sec. 4.2). Our goal is to identify loca-
 191 tions of split errors and merge the corresponding segments
 192 automatically.

194 From the input segmentation we generate a graph G with
 195 nodes N and edges E with non-negative edge weights w_e .
 196 The nodes correspond to label segments from the segmen-
 197 tation with edges between segments considered for merging.
 198 Ideally, our graph has edges corresponding to all of the seg-
 199 ments that were erroneously split. To compute this graph

we generate a skeleton for every segment in the pixel-based segmentation. The skeletonized 3D network is a simplified representation of the overall branching structure of the neurons. From these skeletons we identify potential merge locations and produce the corresponding edges for the graph. To find actual merges we run a classification CNN to generate edge weights corresponding to merge probabilities. We then use a multicut algorithm to generate a partition on the graph where nodes in the same partition are assigned the same output label in the improved segmentation. We will now discuss the three major components to our framework (graph creation, edge weights assignment, and graph partitioning) in more detail.

3.1. Node Generation

The simplest node generation strategy creates one node for every unique segment label in the input volume. However, some of the millions of labels in the volume correspond to very small structures that are likely the result of segmentation errors, typically in regions with noisy raw image data. It is difficult to extract useful shape features from these segments because of their small, often random, shape. We prune these nodes from the graph by removing all segments with fewer than a threshold $t_{seg} = 20,000$ voxels. This removed on average 56% of the segments in our datasets (Sec. 4.1). Despite the large number of segments, these regions only take up 1.6% of the total volume on average.

3.2. Edge Generation

A typical approach to generating edges produces an edge between all adjacent segments. Two segments l_1 and l_2 are considered adjacent if there is a pair of adjacent voxels with one labeled l_1 and the other labeled l_2 . For example, pixel-based agglomeration methods such as NeuroProof [29] and GALA [27] consider all pairs of adjacent segments for merging. However, this method produces too many edges in the graph for graph-based optimization approaches. We identify a smaller number of pairs of segments to consider as graph edges using the following approach.

First, we extract a skeleton from each segment in the label volume using the TEASER algorithm [34, 42]. Fig. 2 shows an example of two extracted skeletons (in black). These skeletons consist of a sequence of *joints*, i.e., locations that are locally a maximum distance from the segment boundary, with line segments connecting successive joints. We prune the joints that are within $t_{jnt} = 50$ voxels of each other to reduce unnecessary branching. We refer to joints that have only one connected neighbor as *endpoints*. Many of the segments that are erroneously split have nearby endpoints (Fig. 3). We make use of this fact to merge segments with the following two-pass pruning algorithm.

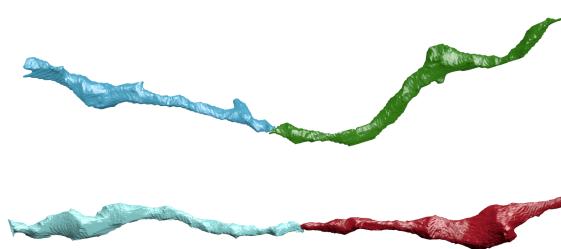


Figure 3: Two erroneously split segments.

In the first pass, we iterate over all endpoints e belonging to a segment S and create a set of segments \mathbb{S}'_e that includes all labels that are within t_{low} voxels from e . Elements of \mathbb{S}'_e are candidates for merging. However, this first pass often leads to too many candidates, requiring an additional pass for further pruning. In the second pass, we consider all of the segments in \mathbb{S}'_e for every endpoint e . If a segment $S' \in \mathbb{S}'_e$ has an endpoint within t_{high} voxels of e , the segment S and S' are considered for merging. We store the midpoints between the two endpoints as the center of the potential merges in the set \mathbb{S}_c . **HP: add how the final graph is constructed**

3.3. Edge Weights Assignment

We assign non-negative edge weights w_e to each edge where the weight corresponds to the probability that two nodes belong to the same neuron. Instead of using hand-crafted features to compute the similarity between adjacent nodes, we train a 3D CNN classifier to learn from the manually labeled oversegmentation input volume (Sec. 4.1).

3.3.1 Classifier Input

We extract a cubic region of interest (ROI) around each endpoint e in \mathbb{S}_c as input to the CNN. The CNN receives three input channels for every voxel in the ROI around segments l_1 and l_2 . The input in all of the channels is in the range $\{-0.5, 0.5\}$. The first channel is 0.5 only if the corresponding voxel has label l_1 . The second channel is 0.5 only if the corresponding voxel has label l_2 . The third channel is 0.5 if the corresponding voxel is either l_1 or l_2 .

3.3.2 Network Architecture & Training

We use the CNN architecture by Chatfield et al. [3]. It consists of three layers of double convolutions followed by a max pooling step. The first max pooling layer is anisotropic with pooling only in the x and y dimensions. The output of this final pooling step is flattened into a 1D vector that is input into two fully connected layers. The final layer produces probabilities with a sigmoid activation function [6]. All of the other activation functions are LeakyReLU [24].

324 For training we use a stochastic gradient descent optimizer
325 with Nesterov’s accelerated gradient [26]. We employ dropouts of 0.2 after every pooling layer and the first
326 dense layer, and a dropout of 0.5 after the final dense layer
327 to prevent overfitting. We discuss all other network parameters
328 in Sec. 4.4.
329

331 3.4. Graph Partitioning

332 After constructing the 3D graph we apply graph partitioning
333 using multicut to compute the final segmentation.
334 Using top-down graph partitioning allows us to apply biological
335 constraints on the output. Neuroscientists know that
336 neuronal connectivity graphs in the brain are acyclic (i.e.,
337 the graphs have a genus of zero). We enforce this constraint
338 by finding a multicut partition of the graph that generates
339 a *forest* of nodes, i.e., a set of trees where no segment has
340 a cycle. To solve this constraining multicut problem we use
341 the method by Keuper et al. [20] that produces a feasible
342 solution by greedy additive edge contraction.
343

344 4. Experimental Results

345 We evaluate our method by comparing it to a state-of-the-art
346 pixel-based reconstruction approach using datasets
347 from two different animals.
348

349 4.1. Datasets

350 **Kasthuri.** The Kasthuri dataset consists of scanning electron
351 microscope images of the neocortex of a mouse
352 brain [18]. This dataset is $5342 \times 3618 \times 338$ voxels in size.
353 The resolution of the dataset is $3 \times 3 \times 30 \text{ nm}^3$ per voxel.
354 We evaluate our methods using the left cylinder of this 3-
355 cylinder dataset. We downsample the dataset in the x and
356 y dimensions to give a final resolution of $6 \times 6 \times 30 \text{ nm}^3$
357 per voxel. We divide the dataset into two volumes (Vol. 1
358 and Vol. 2) along the x dimension, where each volume is
359 $8.0 \times 10.9 \times 10.1 \mu\text{m}^3$ or $X \times Y \times Z$ voxels. **HP: add vox-**
360 **els**

361 **FlyEM.** The FlyEM dataset comes from the mushroom
362 body of a 5-day old adult male *Drosophila* fly imaged
363 by a focused ion-beam milling scanning electron micro-
364 copy [37]. The mushroom body in this species is the
365 major site of associative learning. The original dataset
366 contains a $40 \times 50 \times 120 \mu\text{m}^3$ volume with a resolution of
367 $10 \times 10 \times 10 \text{ nm}^3$ per voxel. We use two cubes (Vol. 1 and
368 Vol. 2) of size $10 \times 10 \times 10 \mu\text{m}^3$ or $1000 \times 1000 \times 1000$
369 voxels.
370

371 4.2. Pixel-Based Segmentations

372 The segmentation on the Kasthuri dataset was com-
373 puted by agglomerating 3D supervoxels produced by the
374 z-watershed algorithm from 3D affinity predictions [43]. A
375

376 recent study by Funke et al. [35] demonstrated superior per-
377 formance of such methods over existing ones on anisotropic
378 data. We learn 3D affinities using MALIS loss with a U-
379 net [39, 33]. We apply the z-watershed algorithm with suit-
380 able parameters to compute a 3D oversegmentation of the
381 volume. The resulting 3D oversegmentation is then ag-
382 glomerated using the technique of context-aware delayed
383 agglomeration to generate the final segmentation [29]. We
384 use results from this NeuroProof algorithm as the baseline
385 for our comparisons.
386

387 For the FlyEM data, based on the authors’ sugges-
388 tion [37], we applied a context-aware delayed agglomera-
389 tion algorithm [29] that shows improved performance on
390 this dataset over the pipeline used in the original publica-
391 tion. This segmentation framework learns voxel and su-
392 pervoxel classifiers with an emphasis to minimize under-
393 segmentation error. At the same time this framework pro-
394 duces lower over-segmentation than standard algorithms.
395 The algorithm first computes multi-channel 3-D predictions
396 for membranes, cell interiors, and mitochondria, among
397 other cell features. The membrane prediction channel is
398 used to produce an over-segmented volume using 3D wa-
399 tershed, which is then agglomerated hierarchically up to a
400 certain confidence threshold. We used exactly the same pa-
401 rameters as the publicly available code for this algorithm.
402

403 4.3. Graph Generation Parameters

404 There are two essential parameters to the graph gener-
405 ation algorithm described in Section 3.1: t_{low} and t_{high} .
406 Ideally, the merge candidates output by this algorithm will
407 contain all possible positive examples with a very limited
408 number of negative examples. After considering various
409 thresholds, we find that $t_{low} = 240 \text{ nm}$ and $t_{high} = 600 \text{ nm}$
410 produce the best results considering this objective.
411

412 In our implementation we use nanometers for these
413 thresholds and not voxels. Connectomics datasets often
414 have lower sample resolutions in z . Using nanometers al-
415 lows us to have uniform units across all of these datasets
416 and calculate the thresholds in voxels at runtime. For ex-
417 ample, the thresholds in voxels are $t_{low} = (40, 40, 8)$ and
418 $t_{high} = (100, 100, 20)$ for the anisotropic Kasthuri dataset
419 and $t_{low} = (24, 24, 24)$ and $t_{high} = (60, 60, 60)$ for the
420 isotropic FlyEM dataset.
421

422 4.4. Classifier Training

423 We use the left cylinder of the Kasthuri dataset for train-
424 ing and validation. We train on 80% of the potential merge
425 candidates for this volume. We validate the CNN classifier
426 on the remaining 20% of candidates. We apply data aug-
427 mentation to the generated examples to increase the size of
428 the training datasets. We consider all rotations of 90 degrees
429 along the xy -plane in addition to mirroring along the x and
430 z axes. This produces 16 times more training data.
431

We consider networks with varying input sizes, optimizers, loss functions, filter sizes, learning rates, and activation functions. The supplemental material includes information on the experiments that determined these final parameters. Table 1 provides the parameters of the final network. There are 7,294,705 learnable parameters in our final architecture. All the parameters are randomly initialized following the Xavier uniform distribution [7]. Training concluded after 34 epochs.

Parameters	Values
Loss Function	Mean Squared Error
Optimizer	SGD with Nesterov Momentum
Momentum	0.9
Initial Learning Rate	0.01
Decay Rate	$5 * 10^{-8}$
Activation	LeakyReLU ($\alpha = 0.001$)
Kernel Sizes	$3 \times 3 \times 3$
Filter Sizes	$16 \rightarrow 32 \rightarrow 64$

Table 1: Training parameters.

4.5. Error Metric

We evaluate the performance of the different methods using the split version of variance of information (VI) [25]. Given a ground truth labeling GT and our automatically reconstructed segmentation SG , over and undersegmentation are quantified by the conditional entropy $H(GT|SG)$ and $H(SG|GT)$, respectively. Since we are measuring the entropy between two clusterings, better VI scores are closer to the origin.

4.6. Variation of Information Results

In Fig. 4, we show the VI results of NeuroProof on the Kasthuri and FlyEM data at varying thresholds of agglomeration (green). The green circle represents the variation of information for our input segmentation with a threshold of 0.3 for all datasets. Our results are in red. We show the comparison to an oracle (blue) that correctly partitions the graph from our algorithm based on ground truth.

Our algorithm improves the accuracy of the input segmentation on every dataset, reducing the VI split score on average by X% and only increasing the VI merge score by X%. Scores closer to the origin are better for this metric, and in every instance we are below the green curve. We see significant improvements on the Kasthuri datasets (VI split reduction of X% and X% on the training and testing datasets respectively) and slightly more modest improvements on the FlyEM datasets (reduction of X% and X%). However, our baseline, NeuroProof performs much better on the FlyEM datasets reducing the potential improvement. Isotropic datasets are easier to segment using state-of-the-

Dataset	Baseline	After Pruning
Kasthuri Vol. 1	763 / 21242 (3.47%)	753 / 3459 (17.88%)
Kasthuri Vol. 2	1010 / 26073 (3.73%)	904 / 4327 (17.28%)
FlyEM Vol. 1	269 / 14875 (1.78%)	262 / 946 (21.69%)
FlyEM Vol. 2	270 / 16808 (1.58%)	285 / 768 (27.07%)

Table 2: The results of our skeleton graph pruning heuristic compared to the baseline segmentation.

art region-based methods than anisotropic ones [31]. Thus there is less room for improvement on these datasets.

Fig. 5 shows successful merges on the Kasthuri Vol. 2 dataset. Several of these examples combine multiple consecutive segments that span the volume. In the third example we correct the oversegmentation of a dendrite. Fig. 6 shows some failure cases. In two of these examples the algorithm correctly predicted several merges but made one error. In the third example a merge error in the initial segmentation propagated to our output. We now analyze how each major component of our method contributes to this final result.

4.7. Graph Creation

Table 2 shows the results of pruning the skeleton graph using the heuristic discussed in Sec. 3.1. The baseline algorithm considers all adjacent regions for merging. Our method removes a significant portion of these candidates while maintaining a large number of the true merge locations. This edge pruning is essential for the graph partitioning algorithm, which has a computational complexity dependence on the number of edges. Our pruning heuristic removes at least 6× the number of edges between correctly split segments on all datasets, achieving a maximum removal ratio of 20×.

Equally important is the number of split errors that remain after pruning. These are the locations that we want to merge to create a more accurate reconstruction. For every dataset, the number of true split errors remains constant before and after pruning. However, since our heuristic does not enforce an adjacency constraint of two regions when constructing edges in the graph, the difference does not indicate the number of examples excluded by pruning. In fact, our method finds a number of examples that are non-adjacent. Figure 7 shows two example segments with split errors, one that our algorithm missed (top) and one that it identified (bottom), despite the fact that the split segments are not adjacent. Of the successful examples in Figure 5, the second and fourth groupings contain pairs of non-adjacent segments that merge with our algorithm.

4.8. Classification Performance

Figure 8 shows the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve for all of the datasets. We train our CNN using

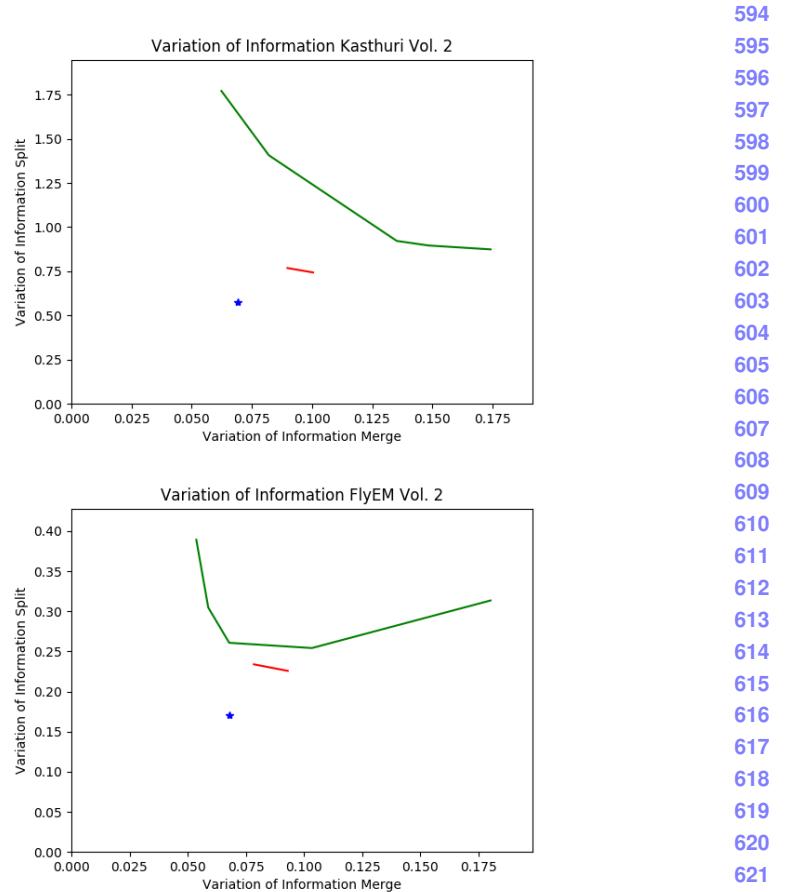
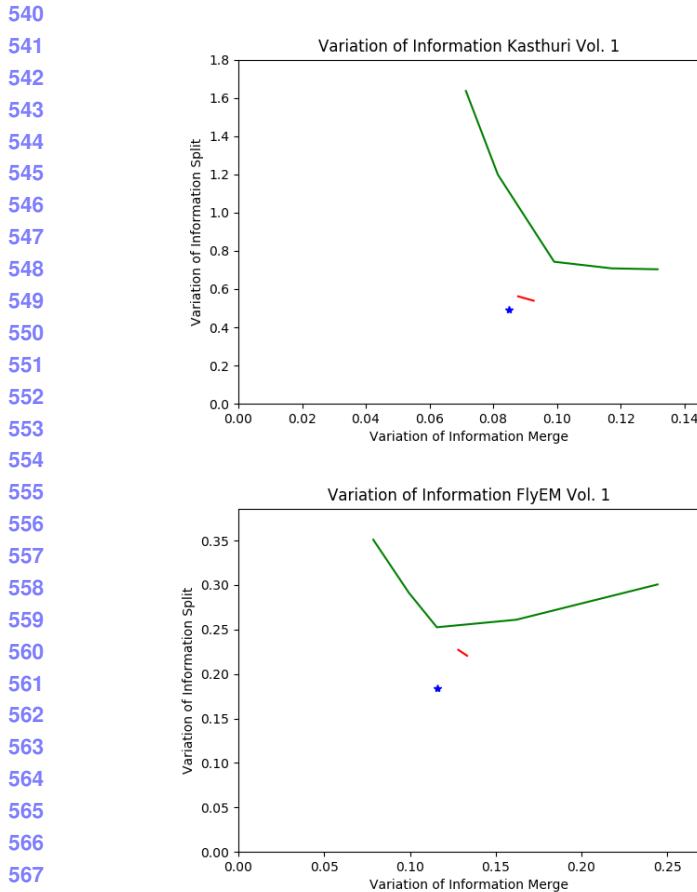


Figure 4: VI scores of our method (red) compared to the baseline segmentation (green) and an oracle (blue) that optimally partitions the graph based on ground truth.

one of the Kasthuri volumes and test using the other three datasets. Since our CNN only takes as input a region of the label volume we can train on an anisotropic dataset and infer on an isotropic one. This provides a major benefit given the time-intensive task of manually generating ground truth data at various resolutions.

As evidenced by the ROC curve, the test results on the Kasthuri data are better than the results for FlyEM. We believe this is in part because of the differences in the datasets (i.e., isotropy and xy resolution). To test this hypothesis, we also evaluate the performance of the FlyEM datasets when the network trains on FlyEM Vol. 1 and infers on FlyEM Vol. 2.¹ The dotted lines in the figure represent these tests. There is a slight performance increase for FlyEM Vol. 2. However, the FlyEM datasets have reasonable results when the network is trained by the Kasthuri data, and the results outside of this section follow from that setup.

¹Since the FlyEM datasets have significantly fewer examples, we initialize the network with the weights from the Kasthuri training and have an initial learning rate of 10^{-4} .

4.9. Graph Based Strategies

The graph-based optimization strategy increases our correction accuracy over using just the CNN. In particular, the precision increases on each dataset, although the recall decreases on all but one of the datasets. Since it is more difficult to correct merge errors than split errors, it is often desirable to sacrifice recall for precision. Table 3 shows the changes in precision, recall, and accuracy for all four datasets compared to the CNN. Over the three testing datasets, applying a graph-based partitioning strategy reduced the number of merge errors by X, Y, and Z.

Dataset	Δ Precision	Δ Recall	Δ Accuracy
Kasthuri Training	+3.60%	-0.01%	+0.60%
Kasthuri Testing	+7.59%	-1.77%	+1.38%
FlyEM Vol. 1	+2.68%	+0.76%	+0.66%
FlyEM Vol. 2	+2.22%	-1.05%	+0.29%

Table 3: Precision and recall for the training and three test datasets.

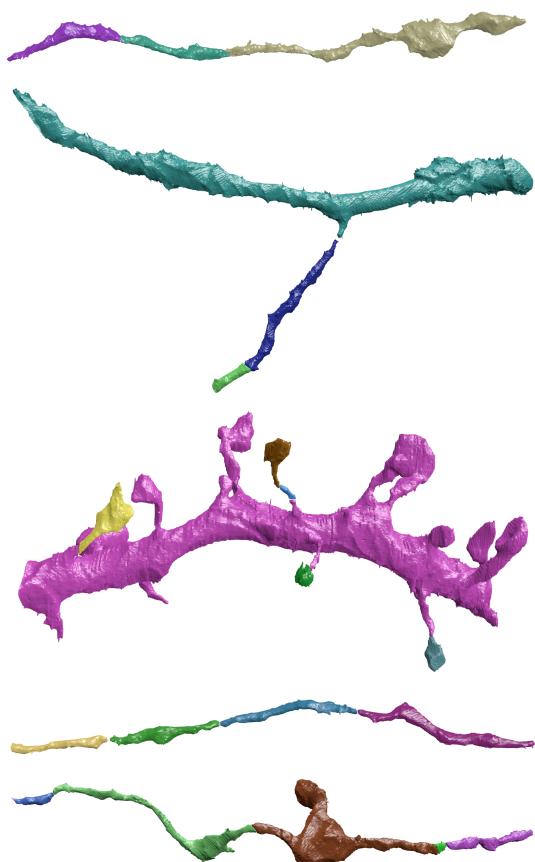


Figure 5: Correctly segmented neurons from our method.

5. Conclusions

We present a novel method for reconstructing neuronal processes in connectomics datasets. We extend existing region-based reconstruction strategies using a morphological 3D skeleton graph and show significant accuracy improvement on two datasets from two different species. Our approach enables enforcing domain-constraints on the resulting segmentation. We believe this approach extends beyond connectomics to other domains with different constraints.

There is significant room for additional research related to this topic. We can still extract a lot more information from the skeletons of each segment. Currently these skeletons identify potential merge locations. However, these representations can be used to identify improperly merged segments. Additionally, we can further improve our results by tweaking the partitioning cost functions to more closely match the underlying biology. One such extension might take the outputs of a synaptic detector to enforce the constraint that a given segment only has post- or pre-synaptic connections.



Figure 6: Errors made by our method.



Figure 7: Example merge candidates.

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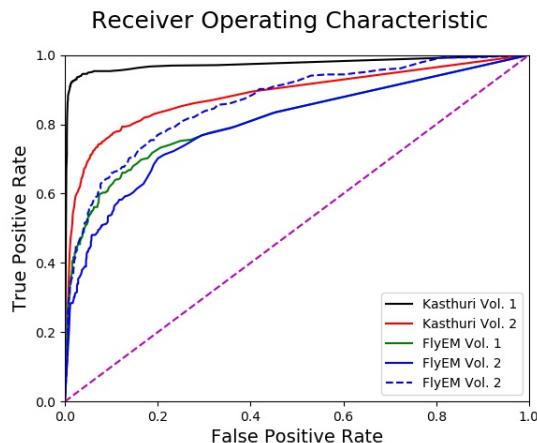


Figure 8: The receiver operating characteristic for all four datasets.

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