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**Data-driven Confocal Microscopy to  
Hematoxylin and Eosin  
Transformation**

by

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# Abstract

Confocal microscopy is a technology that enables pathologists the rapid analysis of tissue samples for carcinoma detection. However, this technology hasn't established yet in the standard clinical practice because most pathologists lack the knowledge to interpret its output.

To address this problem, a data-driven method for transforming confocal micrographs into more familiar looking hematoxylin and eosin like images is presented and evaluated, enabling pathologists to interpret these images without specific training.

The main obstacle for defining such transformation is the absence of paired data confocal and hematoxylin and eosin images needed by traditional machine learning frameworks. To overcome this issue, the cycle-consistent generative adversarial networks framework is used. This framework introduces specific problems like unstable training and structure "hallucinations" or elimination which this work tries to quantify and mitigate.

## Resumen

La microscopía confocal es una tecnología que permite a los patólogos el análisis rápido de muestras de tejido para la detección de carcinomas. Sin embargo, esta tecnología aún no se ha establecido en la práctica clínica estándar porque la mayoría de los patólogos carecen del conocimiento para interpretar su salida.

Para abordar este problema, se presenta y evalúa un método basado en datos para transformar las micrografías confocales en imágenes parecidas a hematoxilina y eosina de aspecto más familiar, lo que permite a los patólogos interpretar estas imágenes sin formación específica.

El principal obstáculo para definir dicha transformación es la ausencia de datos confocales emparejados con imágenes de hematoxilina y eosina que necesitan los marcos tradicionales de aprendizaje automático. Para superar este problema, se utiliza el marco de redes generativas antagónicas de ciclo consistente. Este marco presenta problemas específicos como el entrenamiento inestable y la “alucinación” o eliminación de estructuras que este trabajo intenta cuantificar y mitigar.

## Resum

La microscòpia confocal és una tecnologia que permet als patòlegs l'anàlisi ràpida de mostres de teixit per a la detecció de carcinomes. No obstant això, aquesta tecnologia encara no s'ha establert en la pràctica clínica estàndard perquè la majoria dels patòlegs no tenen el coneixement per interpretar la seva sortida.

Per abordar aquest problema, es presenta i evalua un mètode basat en dades per transformar les micrografies confocals en imatges semblants a hematoxilina i eosina d'aspecte més familiar, el que permet als patòlegs interpretar aquestes imatges sense formació específica.

El principal obstacle per a definir aquesta transformació és l'absència de dades confocals aparellats amb imatges d'hematoxilina i eosina que necessiten els marcs tradicionals d'aprenentatge automàtic. Per superar aquest problema, s'utilitza el marc de xarxes generatives antagòniques de cicle consistent. Aquest marc presenta problemes específics com l'entrenament inestable i la “al·lucinació” o eliminació d'estructures que aquest treball intenta quantificar i mitigar.

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## Acronyms

**ANN** Artificial Neural Network.

**CM** Confocal Microscopy.

**CNN** Convolutional Neural Network.

**CycleGANs** Cycle-Consistent Generative Adversarial Networks.

**DL** Deep Learning.

**DNN** Deep Neural Network.

**FCM** Fluorescence Confocal Microscopy.

**FNN** Feedforward Neural Network.

**GANs** Generative Adversarial Networks.

**H&E** Hematoxylin and Eosin stain.

**HC** Hospital Clínic de Barcelona.

**LBP** Local Binary Patterns.

**ML** Machine Learning.

**MSE** Mean Square Error.

**NN** Neural Network.

**PReLU** Parametric Rectified Linear Unit.

**RCM** Reflectance Confocal Microscopy.

**ReLU** Rectified Linear Unit.

**SSIM** Structural SIMilarity.

# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Project background

In recent years, Deep Learning (DL) has significantly improved the performance of a wide range of computer vision tasks like image classification, object detection or semantic segmentation. Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) in particular have revolutionized generative tasks like image synthesis and image-to-image translation. Image-to-image translation is the task of generating an image based on a given source image with different characteristics depending on the specific problem.

In this project, based on (Combalia et al. 2019) work in the Dermatology Department from the Hospital Clínic de Barcelona (HC), the idea of image-to-image translation is applied to the transformation of Confocal Microscopy (CM) images into images with the appearance of Hematoxylin and Eosin stain (H&E) images.

### 1.1.1 Confocal microscopy

CM is an optical imaging technique for increasing optical resolution and contrast of a micrograph by means of using a spatial pinhole to block out-of-focus light in image formation. With it, technicians are able to slice thin sections out of thick fluorescent specimens, view specimens in planes tilted to the line of sight, penetrate deep into light-scattering tissues or obtain 3D views at very high resolution (Inoué 2006).

Ex vivo<sup>1</sup> confocal scanning laser microscopy can potentially accelerate Mohs surgery<sup>2</sup> by rapidly detecting carcinomas without conventional frozen histopathology (and its consequential time delays) (Chung et al. 2005).

Two different CM modes exist, Reflectance Confocal Microscopy (RCM) displays the backscattering signal of naturally occurring skin components, whereas Fluorescence Confocal Microscopy (FCM) provides contrast by using an applied fluorescent dye (Skvara et al. 2012). See figure 1.1 for an example.

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<sup>1</sup>Ex vivo means that which takes place outside an organism. In science, ex vivo refers to experimentation or measurements done in or on tissue from an organism in an external environment with minimal alteration of natural conditions.

<sup>2</sup>Mohs micrographic surgery is considered the most effective technique for treating many basal cell carcinomas (BCCs) and squamous cell carcinomas (SCCs), the two most common types of skin cancer. The procedure is done in stages, including lab work, while the patient waits. This allows the removal of all cancerous cells for the highest cure rate while sparing healthy tissue and leaving the smallest possible scar.

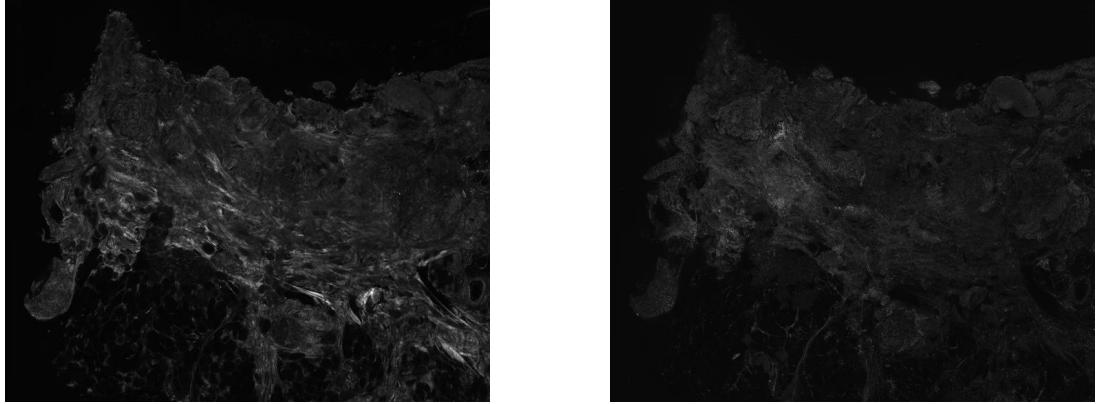


Figure 1.1: Example of a CM micrograph of a skin tissue. Reflectance mode on the left and fluorescence mode on the right

## 1.2 Problem statement

CM has enabled rapid evaluation of tissue samples directly in the surgery room significantly reducing the time of complex surgical operations in skin cancer (Cinotti et al. 2018), but the output largely differs from the standard H&E slides that pathologists typically use to analyze tissue samples. See figure 1.2b for a H&E example.

To bridge this gap, a method for combining the aforementioned modes of CM into a H&E-like image is presented in this work. A correctly done CM to H&E mapping would bring the efficiency of CM to untrained pathologists and surgeons.

Similar to a false color (also known as pseudo color) transformation, a parametric mapping function can be defined:

$$\mathbf{DSCM} = f_{\theta}(\mathbf{R}, \mathbf{F}) \quad (1.1)$$

where  $\mathbf{DSCM} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}$  (stands for digitally-stained CM) represents the resulting H&E-like RGB image,  $\mathbf{R}, \mathbf{F} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W}$  represent the reflectance and fluorescence modes (respectively) of the CM input image with height  $H$  and width  $W$ .

### 1.2.1 Affine transformation

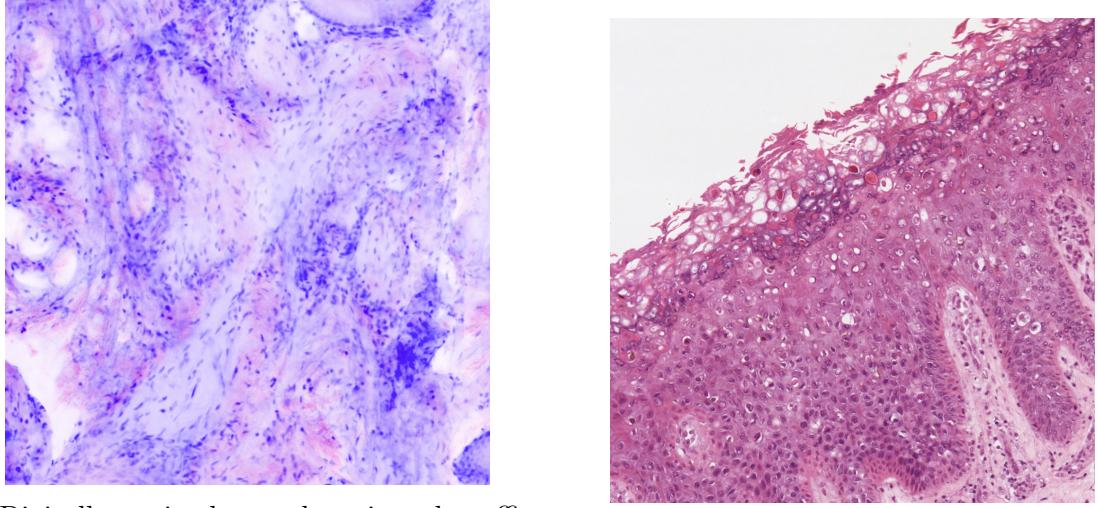
A color affine transformation is proposed in (Gareau 2009) for the function  $f$  where the RGB values for each pixel are computed as:

$$\mathbf{DSCM}_{x,y} = \mathbf{1} - \mathbf{F}_{x,y}(\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{H}) - \mathbf{R}_{x,y}(\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{E}) \quad (1.2)$$

where:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{H} &= [0.30 \quad 0.20 \quad 1] \\ \mathbf{E} &= [1 \quad 0.55 \quad 0.88] \end{aligned}$$

**H** and **E** vectors represent color coordinates in the RGB space ( and ). This way, the transformed CM modes highlight different structures in distinct colours similar to a H&E slide. However, as it can be seen in figure 1.2, the color scheme differs from an actual H&E sample.



(a) Digitally stained sample using the affine transformation of equation (1.2)

(b) H&E stained sample

Figure 1.2: Comparison between digital stain and H&E stain

### 1.2.2 Data-driven approach

In contrast to (Gareau 2009), work where the parameters (**H** and **E**) are found experimentally, a data-driven approach of the problem will be taken where the parameters of the mapping function (1.1) will be *learned* based on data. More specifically, the transformation will be defined by a Neural Network (NN) (called *StainNN*) and the parameters will be searched through an adversarial setting.

### 1.2.3 Speckle noise reduction

RCM images are affected by a multiplicative noise known as speckle, which may impair the performance of post-processing techniques. Hence, before digitally staining the CM images, this noise must be reduced.

The observed RCM image  $Y$  is related to the noise free image  $X$  by the following multiplicative model:

$$Y = X \odot F \quad (1.3)$$

Where  $\odot$  denotes the Hadamard product (also known as the elementwise product) and  $F$  is the speckle noise random variable.

To reduce the speckle noise, a data-driven approach will also be taken using a neural network called *DespecklingNN*.

### 1.3 Methods and procedures

This project was carried out at the Image and Video Processing Group (GPI) research group from the Signal Theory and Communications Department (TSC) at the Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya (UPC) in collaboration with the Dermatology Department from the Hospital Clínic de Barcelona.

The work presented in this thesis is the natural continuation of the work presented in (Combalia et al. 2019).

All the experiments are implemented with Python using the following libraries<sup>3</sup>:

- [NumPy](#) for general purpose data manipulation.
- [PyTorch](#) for training and using DL models.
- [pyvips](#) for processing big image files.
- [scikit-image](#) for image manipulation.
- [seaborn](#) for data visualization.

### 1.4 Document structure

In section 2 an overview of relevant DL techniques and algorithms is presented to provide the reader a general knowledge of the field.

Section 3 contains the methodology of the project with detailed explanations of the models used to solve the presented problems. First the *DespecklingNN* is introduced in 3.2 then the *StainNN* in 3.3.

The experiments carried out to choose the right models are presented in section 4.

Finally, the conclusions and future work are discussed in section 6.

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<sup>3</sup>Private git repository with most of the scripts at <https://github.com/imatge-upc/Confocal>

## 2 Theoric background

### 2.1 Artificial Neural Networks

Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) were originally developed as a mathematical model of the biological brain (McCulloch and Pitts 1943; Rosenblatt 1958; D. E. Rumelhart and McClelland 1987). Although ANNs have little resemblance to real biological neurons, they are a powerful Machine Learning (ML) tool and one of the most popular research topics in the last years. Nowadays, most researchers have shifted from the perspective of the biological neuron model to a more general *function approximator* point of view; in fact, it was proved that ANNs with enough capacity are capable of approximating any measurable function to any desired degree of accuracy (Cybenko 1989; Hornik 1991); this is, however, a non-constructive proof.

The basic structure of an ANN is a network of nodes (usually called neurons) joined to each other by weighted connections. Many varieties of ANNs have appeared over the years with different properties. One important distinction is between ANNs whose connections form feedback loops, and those whose connections are acyclic. ANNs with cycles are typically referred to as recurrent neural networks and those without cycles are known as Feedforward Neural Networks (FNNs).

In this work, only FNNs are used, in particular, a special kind that makes use of the convolution operation called Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs). The following section provides an overview of this networks as well as the basic principles of training them.

#### 2.1.1 Convolutional Neural Networks

CNNs are a kind of ANNs particularly well-suited for computer vision tasks. They were first introduced in LeCun et al. 1998 to perform the task of hand-written digit classification and later popularized by Krizhevsky, Sutskever, and Geoffrey E Hinton 2012 entry on the ImageNet Large Scale Visual Recognition Challenge 2012 (ILSVRC2012)<sup>4</sup>, which won the classification task with a large margin of 10%.

A CNN consist of an input and an output layer, as well as multiple hidden layers (see figure 2.1). The input layer contains the data (e.g., RGB image) with minimal preprocessing (normalization, cropping...), in contrast to other ML algorithms that need

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<sup>4</sup>ILSVRC is a competition to estimate the content of photographs for the purpose of retrieval and automatic annotation using a subset of the large hand-labeled [ImageNet](#) dataset (around 10,000,000 labeled images depicting 10,000+ object categories) as training. In the classification task, the algorithms are evaluated by the error rate in the test images presented with no initial annotation.

hand-engineered features. The output layer is different depending on the task.

Each hidden layer performs the convolution operation with one or more filters (commonly referred to as kernels by the DL community) taking the previous layer's output as the input and then an element-wise non-linear function is applied to the output. The non-linearities allow the model to extract hierarchical features (early layers extract the called low-level features and deeper layers extract high-level features) from the input data as it is illustrated in figure 2.2 on page 13 extracted from Matthew D Zeiler and Fergus 2014.

Down-sampling (also known as pooling in the DL literature) is also a very common operation applied after some hidden layers, aimed to make the model translation-invariant and reduce memory needs. Three main methods can be used to represent the set of  $N$  (or  $N \times N$ ) neighbouring samples with a single number: *a*) Max-pooling uses the maximum value; *b*) The average value is used by the average-pooling method and *c*) Standard decimation “takes” a sample out of every  $N$  samples, it is usually implemented via  $N$ -strided (skipping  $N - 1$  positions when sliding the filter) convolution to compute only the used values.

Other kinds of layers like dropout (N. Srivastava et al. 2014) and batch-normalization (Ioffe and Szegedy 2015) can be used for regularization or faster training process.

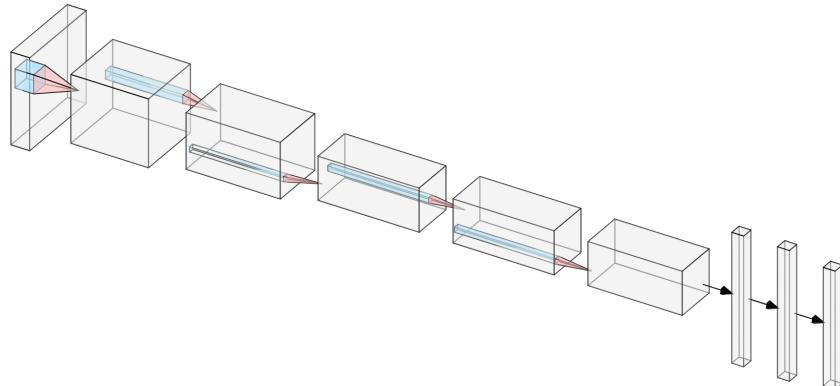


Figure 2.1: Visualization of a CNN with five convolutional layers and two fully-connected layers (a kind of layer not described in this work).

### 2.1.2 Training artificial neural networks

Finding (or learning) the best set of parameters ( $\theta$ ) (weights, filters, ...) of a network for a given problem can be posed as an optimization problem by defining an appropriate objective function ( $\mathcal{J}$ ). In a supervised setting, where training data composed by inputs

( $\mathbf{X}$ ) and targets ( $\mathbf{Y}$ ) is available:

$$\theta^* = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \mathcal{J}((\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}), f_{\theta}) \quad (2.1)$$

The complex structure of ANNs makes this optimization problem non-convex, hence iterative methods are used for moving towards an optimum solution; particularly, gradient descent based are the most common type as the networks are —by construction— fully-differentiable.

The idea behind gradient descent is simple. Given a (random) initial value for the input variables (e.g., filter coefficients in the case of CNNs), these are updated by moving towards the direction with greater slope i.e., the gradient. Moving towards the direction of the gradient (gradient ascent) will yield a local maximum, useful when maximizing the objective function; while moving toward the direction opposite to the gradient will yield a local minimum:

$$\theta_i^{(n)} \leftarrow \theta_i^{(n-1)} - \mu \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}}{\partial \theta_i}|_{\theta_i^{(n-1)}} \quad (2.2)$$

where the superscript  $(n)$  denotes the  $n$ -th iteration step and  $\mu$  (known as learning rate) controls how much the variables should change between steps. Note that the length of the “step” is not only governed by the learning rate but also by the magnitude of the gradient.

In a Deep Neural Network (DNN) with thousands or millions of parameters, computing the partial derivative with respect to each parameter independently is computationally restrictive. In David E. Rumelhart, Geoffrey E. Hinton, and Williams 1986 work, an algorithm to efficiently train ANNs called backpropagation<sup>5</sup> which uses the principles of dynamic programming and exploits the chain rule was presented and it is how almost all ANNs are trained nowadays.

**Cost function** When training ANNs, the objective function is commonly defined as a cost function with two parts: the expected value of a loss plus a (weighted) regularization term.

$$\mathcal{J}((\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}), f_{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}\{L(f_{\theta}(\mathbf{X}), \mathbf{Y})\} + \lambda R(f_{\theta}) \quad (2.3)$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_j \in \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}} L(f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_i), \mathbf{y}_j) + \lambda R(f_{\theta}) \quad (2.3a)$$

---

<sup>5</sup>This lead to the terminology of forward pass, when the output of the model is computed sequentially from the input layer through each of the hidden layers; and the backward pass, when the partial derivatives are computed starting from the final layer and going back to the first hidden layer.

Equation (2.3a) shows how the expected value is approximated by taking the mean over  $N$  samples (batch size) of the dataset. Stochastic gradient descent is the case where  $N = 1$ , and mini-batch gradient descent when  $N$  is smaller than the total number of samples in the dataset; a small batch size is almost mandatory for large datasets, as computing the loss for every sample at each iteration step is very time and memory expensive and not only that: a small batch size helps avoiding bad local optima and improve generalization (Masters and Luschi 2018; Zhang et al. 2017).

The loss function will depend on our task. For example, in classification problems with  $c$  classes the cross entropy can be used:  $L(\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i, \mathbf{y}_i) = -\log[\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i]_{\mathbf{y}_i}$ ,  $\mathbf{y}_i \in \{0 \dots c-1\}$ ,  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i \in \mathbb{R}^c$ ; this loss enforces the model to make a good estimation of the class probabilities given an input datapoint. A loss function well aligned with our task is crucial, but defining such mathematical description of some problems is not always straightforward.

**Advanced gradient-based optimization methods** The basic (stochastic/mini-batch) gradient descent methods tend to find bad sub-optima when dealing with the noisy, non-convex landscape of ANNs; with a performance very sensitive to the initial values, learning rate and batch size. Many research work (Duchi, Hazan, and Singer 2011; G. Hinton, N. Srivastava, and Swersky 2012 (accessed September 14, 2019); Matthew D. Zeiler 2012; Diederik P. Kingma and Ba 2014) has focused on this area, developing algorithms that try to find better optima with fewer iterations. The one used in this work is the Adam “optimizer” (Diederik P. Kingma and Ba 2014) which defines the following update rule based on adaptive estimates of gradient moments:

$$\theta_i^{(n)} \leftarrow \theta_i^{(n-1)} - \mu \frac{\hat{m}_i^{(n)}}{\sqrt{\hat{v}_i^{(n)}} + \epsilon} \quad (2.4)$$

$$\hat{m}^{(n)} \leftarrow \frac{m^{(n)}}{1 - \beta_1^n}, \quad m_i^{(n)} \leftarrow \beta_1 m_i^{(n-1)} + (1 - \beta_1) g_i^{(n)} \quad (2.4a)$$

$$\hat{v}_i^{(n)} \leftarrow \frac{v_i^{(n)}}{1 - \beta_2^n}, \quad v_i^{(n)} \leftarrow \beta_2 v_i^{(n-1)} + (1 - \beta_2) (g_i^{(n)})^2 \quad (2.4b)$$

$$g_i^{(n)} \leftarrow \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}}{\partial \theta_i}|_{\theta_i^{(n-1)}} \quad (2.4c)$$

The parameter update equation (2.4) looks similar to the one in (2.2) but instead of directly using the gradient, its based on the exponential moving average of the gradient ( $\hat{m}$ ) with a coefficient of  $1 - \beta_1$  (equation 2.4a) and the exponential moving average of the squared gradient ( $\hat{v}$ ) with a coefficient of  $1 - \beta_2$  (equation 2.4b). The  $\beta$ 's are referred to as momentum and typical values lie around 0.9.  $\epsilon$  is a small constant (e.g,  $10^{-8}$ ) to provide

numerical stability when  $\hat{v}_i$  is small. The intuition behind this update rule is that the steps for each parameter are forced to be of size  $\mu$ , as we are dividing by the magnitude of the gradient; and instead of taking the direction of the gradient at a given iteration step, the gradient value is passed through a low-pass filter to avoid making sudden changes that are common in stochastic optimization (specially with a small batch size).

## 2.2 Generative Adversarial Networks

In ML generative models are ones which model the distribution of the data. This models can be used to perform classification through the conditional distribution (via a prior distribution of the classes) or to sample/generate data. Multiple generative models have been proposed that make use of DNNs (G. E. Hinton 2009; Diederik P Kingma and Welling 2013; Goodfellow et al. 2014), GANs in particular have gained a lot of attention as they are capable of generating realistic images.

GANs is a framework for estimating generative models via an adversarial process, in which two models are trained: a generative model ( $G$ ) that captures the data distribution, and a discriminative model ( $D$ ).

Both models are implemented as DNNs (usually CNNs in the case of image data).  $G_{\theta_g}(\mathbf{z})$  maps from an input space of random variables with distribution  $p_z(\mathbf{z})$  to data space.  $D_{\theta_d}(\mathbf{x})$  outputs the probability that  $\mathbf{x}$  came from the data distribution  $p_{data}(\mathbf{x})$  rather than  $G$ . See figure 2.3 for a simple illustration.

$G$  is trained to minimize the likelihood of  $D$  assigning a low probability to its samples. While  $D$  is simultaneously trained to maximize the probability of assigning the correct label to both training examples and samples from  $G$ . Hence, the loss functions (see equation (2.3)) for each model are defined as (note how they go one against the other):

$$L_G = \log(1 - D(G(\mathbf{z}))) \quad (2.5a)$$

$$L_D = \begin{cases} -\log(D(\mathbf{x})), & \mathbf{x} \sim p_{data} \\ -\log(1 - D(\mathbf{x})) \equiv -\log(1 - D(G(\mathbf{z}))), & \mathbf{x} \sim p_g \end{cases} \quad (2.5b)$$

Equivalently,  $D$  and  $G$  play the following two-player minimax game:

$$\min_G \max_D \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}(x)} \{\log D(x)\} + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p_z(z)} \{\log(1 - D(G(z)))\} \quad (2.6)$$

If  $G$  and  $D$  have enough capacity, they will reach a point at which both cannot improve because  $p_g = p_{data}$ . The discriminator will be unable to differentiate between the two distributions, i.e.  $D(x) = 0.5$ .

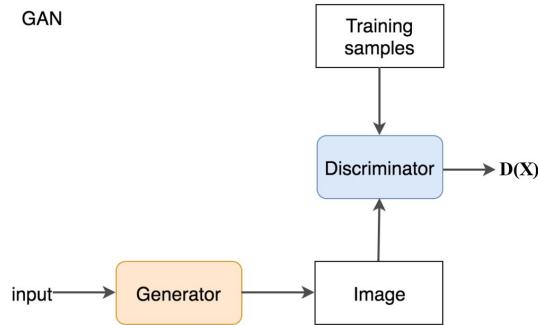


Figure 2.3: Adversarial training process diagram

This way of training a generative model is unstable and can fail to converge due to a number of problems known as *failure modes*:

- Mode collapse: the generator collapses which produces limited varieties of samples,
- Diminished gradient: the discriminator gets too successful that the generator gradient vanishes and learns nothing,
- Unbalance between the generator and discriminator causing overfitting,

A number of publications (Arjovsky, Chintala, and Bottou 2017; Miyato et al. 2018; Salimans et al. 2016) tackle this problems with architecture and loss function modifications, as well as practical “tricks”. Successfully trained generators generate very realistic samples as the constructed objective function essentially says “generate samples that look realistic”.

### 2.2.1 GANs for image-to-image translation

In this section, two frameworks for image-to-image translation based on GANs are described. The first one, called pix2pix, (Isola et al. 2016) uses a conditional generative adversarial network to learn a mapping from input to output images using paired data. On the other hand, Cycle-Consistent Generative Adversarial Networks (CycleGANs) (Zhu et al. 2017) mapping is learned without paired data. Paired data consists of training examples  $\{\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i\}_{i=1}^N$  where correspondence between  $\mathbf{x}_i$  and  $\mathbf{y}_i$  exists, obtaining this kind of data can be difficult (or impossible) and expensive; contrarily, unpaired data consists of a source set  $\mathbf{X}$  and a target set  $\mathbf{Y}$  with no information provided as to which  $\mathbf{x}_i$  matches which  $\mathbf{y}_i$  (if any).

**Pix2Pix** (Isola et al. 2016) work presents a conditional adversarial setting and applies it successfully to a variety of image-to-image translation problems that traditionally would require very different loss formulations; proving that *learned loss functions* are versatile. The losses used are similar to the ones in equations (2.5a) and (2.5b); but the discriminator not only gets the output of the generator as input, but the corresponding input as well—generator’s input and output are concatenated in the channels dimension— (see figure 2.4 extracted from Isola et al. 2016). Apart from that, the generator is tasked to also be near the ground truth in a L1 sense; this is done by modifying the generator’s loss function:

$$L_G = \log(1 - D(\mathbf{x}, G(\mathbf{x}))) + \lambda \|\mathbf{y} - G(\mathbf{x})\|_1 \quad (2.7)$$

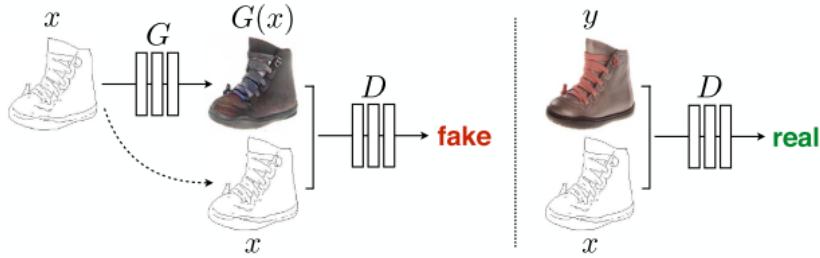


Figure 2.4: Training a conditional GAN to map edges to photo. The discriminator,  $D$ , learns to classify between fake and real edge, photo tuples. The generator,  $G$ , learns to fool the discriminator. Unlike an unconditional GAN, both the generator and discriminator observe the input edge map.

**CycleGAN** (Zhu et al. 2017) presents a method that builds on top of the Pix2Pix framework for capturing special characteristics of one image collection and transferring these into another image collection in the absence of any paired training examples. In theory, an adversarially trained generator can learn to map images from a domain  $X$  to look indistinguishable from images from a domain  $Y$ ; in practice, it is difficult to optimize the adversarial objective in isolation as this often leads to the mode collapse problem. In Zhu et al. 2017 work, this problem is addressed by adding more structure to the objective; concretely, it “encourages” the mapping to be cycle-consistent, i.e.: a function  $G_{X \rightarrow Y}$  that maps from domain  $X$  to  $Y$  should have an inverse  $G_{Y \rightarrow X}$  that maps its output to the original input; as in language translation, if a sentence is translated from Spanish to English and then back to Spanish we should arrive to a sentence close to the original.  $G_{Y \rightarrow X}(G_{X \rightarrow Y}(\mathbf{x})) \approx \mathbf{x}$ . This is done by simultaneously training two generators (with corresponding discriminators  $D_X, D_Y$ —notice how in this case, these do not take the source image as input—) and tasking them to not only “fool” their discriminator but to also produce an image that is close to the original input when translated back to the source domain (using the complementary generator), this is done by defining the following losses for the generators (more clearly visualized in figure 2.5).

An additional term called identity loss can be added to encourage the mapping to preserve color composition between the input and the output by making the generator be near an identity mapping when samples from the target domain are provided. Note that the input

and output domains need to have the same number of channels.  
The final losses for the generators are the following:

$$\begin{aligned} L_{G_{X \rightarrow Y}} = & \log(1 - D_Y(G_{X \rightarrow Y}(\mathbf{x}))) \\ & + \lambda_{cycle} \|\mathbf{x} - G_{Y \rightarrow X}(G_{X \rightarrow Y}(\mathbf{x}))\|_1 \\ & + \lambda_{identity} \|\mathbf{y} - G_{X \rightarrow Y}(\mathbf{y})\|_1 \end{aligned} \quad (2.8a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} L_{G_{Y \rightarrow X}} = & \log(1 - D_X(G_{Y \rightarrow X}(\mathbf{y}))) \\ & + \lambda_{cycle} \|\mathbf{y} - G_{X \rightarrow Y}(G_{Y \rightarrow X}(\mathbf{y}))\|_1 \\ & + \lambda_{identity} \|\mathbf{x} - G_{Y \rightarrow X}(\mathbf{x})\|_1 \end{aligned} \quad (2.8b)$$

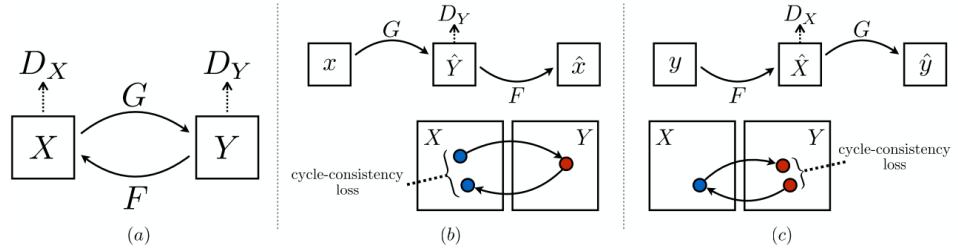


Figure 2.5: (Extracted from Zhu et al. 2017) The mapping model denoted as  $G_{X \rightarrow Y}$  in this work is denoted in this figure as  $G$  and  $G_{Y \rightarrow X}$  as  $F$

Note that neither Pix2Pix nor CycleGAN generators use a noise distribution to generate samples (in contrast to the original GANs framework).



Figure 2.2: Visualization of features in a fully trained model. For layers 2-5 the top 9 activations in a random subset of feature maps are shown projected down to pixel space using the “deconvolutional” network introduced in Matthew D Zeiler and Fergus 2014 work

## 3 Methodology

### 3.1 Datasets

In this project two different datasets provided by the HC have been used to train and validate the despeckle and stain models: one for the CM domain and one for the H&E domain.

The Python implementation of all the datasets used can be found at appendix D.1

**CM set** The CM dataset consists of 27 large slides (around 100,000,000 pixels) obtained with the Vivascope 2500 4th Generation CM, each corresponding to a different sample of skin tissue. Some of these slides contain artifacts around the edges; in order to not provide this noise to the models, the slides are manually cropped avoiding these artifacts and focusing on the area containing the tissue. Working with such large images is not practical since they do not fit in most GPUs' memory. A simple script to extract overlapping 1024x1024 patches out of the slides is developed so that, along with "on-the-fly" data augmentation techniques (random crop and random flip), more information can be extracted from the dataset. Only patches with a minimum mean grey level on both modes are extracted to be sure that they contain tissue texture. From that, a random sample of 1000 patches is used as a training set. The CM images have a resolution of 0.75  $\mu\text{m}/\text{px}$ .

**H&E set** The H&E dataset contains a total of 560 crops of 1024x1024 pixels from whole slide histopathological images obtained with a Ventana scanner captured with a resolution of 0.47  $\mu\text{m}/\text{px}$ . The crops come from 1630x1630 patches that are then resized to 1024x1024 in order to meet the CM resolution, so structures in both domains have similar sizes.

### 3.2 Despeckling network

As explained in section 1.2.3, RCM contain artifacts caused by a multiplicative noise (see figure 3.1 for an example). In this section different noise models are described and then the proposed methods for mitigating it are presented.

### 3.2.1 Speckle noise

As a means of having pairs of noisy-clean images needed to train a denoising model, FCM are artificially contaminated with a noise model. In SAR imaging, where speckle noise also appears, the noise is modeled by a gamma distribution with unit mean and variance  $\frac{1}{L}$  (assuming the image is an average of  $L$  looks) (Ulaby and Dobson 1989):

$$F \sim \Gamma(k = L, \theta = \frac{1}{L}) \quad (3.1)$$

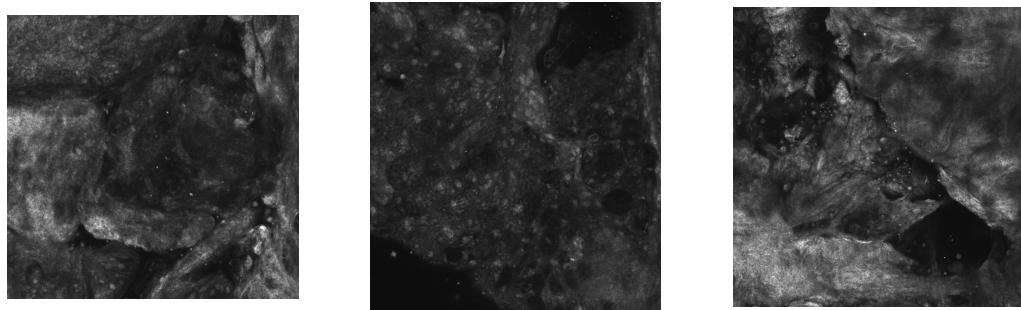


Figure 3.1: Three example of RCM images contaminated with speckle noise

Other models for the noise distribution exist; for instance, MATLAB's Image Processing Toolbox `imnoise` function uses a uniform distribution with mean 1 and variance 0.05 to add multiplicative speckle noise<sup>6</sup>:

$$F \sim U(0.6535, 1.3464) \quad (3.2)$$

In the case of ultrasound imaging a rayleigh distribution with mean 1 is used (R. Srivastava and Gupta 2010):

$$F \sim Rayleigh(\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}) \quad (3.3)$$

Based on the appearance of artificially contaminated FCM images compared to naturally contaminated RCM, the experiments on this work are based on the gamma model (3.1).

### 3.2.2 Proposed network architectures

In order to filter the speckle noise, several DNNs with the same basic structure are defined. Inspired by the ResNet (He et al. 2015a) they all share a *skip connection* between the first and last layer of a CNN similar to P. Wang and Patel 2018 approach for SAR imaging despeckling.

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<sup>6</sup><https://www.mathworks.com/help/images/ref/imnoise.html>

The code for the PyTorch implementations of all the models can be found at appendix D.3

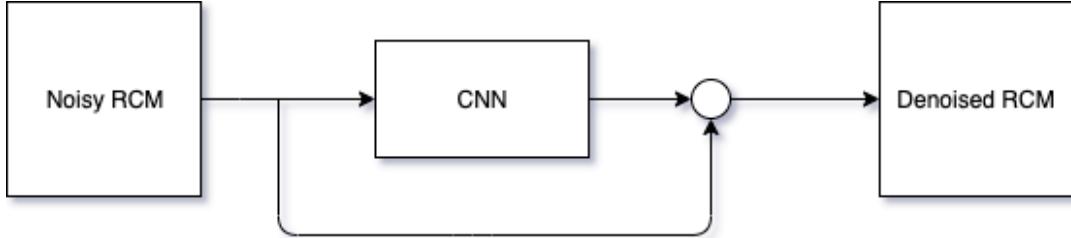


Figure 3.2: Skeleton of the despeckling networks. The node at the output of the CNN is the so-called residual connection, no operation is marked because the different variations are precisely defined by it.

The CNN block consists of  $M$  convolutional layers each with  $K$  filters of size  $N \times N$  and Parametric Rectified Linear Units (PReLU) activation functions (He et al. 2015b), except for the last layer which has one  $1 \times 1$  filter to “merge” all the channels of the previous layer into a single channel image. Versions with and without an activation function in the last layer are also defined.

The different model variations apply a distinct operation in the skip connection:

1. Division skip connection: A element-wise division between the input image and the network’s output is defined, so that it makes a prediction of the noise. A priori this model seems prone to suffer an unstable training.
2. Multiplicative skip connection: Element-wise multiplication between the input image and the network’s output is used, so that it makes a prediction of the inverse of the noise. Although this estimation less direct, it is a “safer” alternative to the previous one.
3. Additive skip connection: A “classical” skip connection where matrix summation between the input and output of the network is performed. In this case, the operation is done in the log-space—the logarithm is applied to the input image and then the model’s output is exponentiated—in order to turn the noise into an additive one so it is possible for the model to remove it.

### 3.3 Stain network

Obtaining aligned/paired data for CM to H&E is not possible since tissue blocks scanned with the CM need to undergo slicing before staining with H&E; hence, the staining models follow the CycleGANs framework introduced in section 2.2.1.

The discriminator model used is the PatchGAN (Zhu et al. 2017), the motivation behind this model is to model high-frequency “correctness”; this is done by classifying (*real/fake*) small patches of the image (instead of the whole image) and averaging all the responses to provide the definitive output of the discriminator.

For the generator model a baseline is defined along with two families of advanced models.

### 3.3.1 Baseline

The baseline generator is a learned version of the affine transformation defined in (1.2). It is implemented as a single convolutional layer with 3 filters of size 1 so each output pixel’s channel is a linear combination of the RCM and FCM values of the corresponding pixel of the source CM image plus a bias term.

### 3.3.2 Advanced models

Both families follow an encoder-decoder structure, i.e.: a series of convolution layers with down-sampling (encoder) followed by the same number of layers with up-sampling<sup>7</sup> (decoder), presumably the encoder maps the input into a latent representation where semantic transformations can be more easily defined and then the decoder “brings” it back to the image space.

Instead of directly using the CM modes, the digital staining method proposed in (Gareau 2009) is used as source images for the generator. The reason is twofold: on the one hand to provide more similar sets so that the mapping can be easier to learn, on the other hand, applying the identity loss demands for domains with equal number of channels.

1. ResNet-like generator: This model has the following structure:

- First layer: The input image is padded with mirroring to maintain its dimensions, it is then convolved with 64  $7 \times 7$  filters, the output is normalized with an instance normalization layer (Ulyanov, Vedaldi, and Lempitsky 2016) and followed by a Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU) activation function.
- Down-sampling: This layer is composed by 3 stride-2 (see down-sampling method *c*) in page 6) convolution layers with exponentially increasing number of kernels of shape  $3 \times 3$  with instance normalization and ReLU after each layer. So after this block, the signal will have 512 channels and the height and width will be reduced by a factor of 8 (e.g., if the input image has size  $256 \times 256$ , the output will be  $32 \times 32$ ).

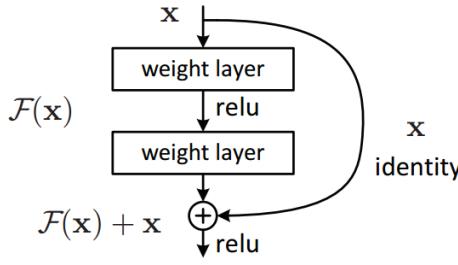


Figure 3.3: Residual block with 2 convolutional layers project. Note that  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x})$  should be of the same shape

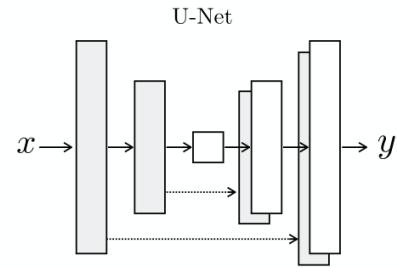


Figure 3.4: Skip connections between the UNet encoder and decoder

- Residual blocks: In a residual block, instead of trying to learn a transformation  $\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{x})$ , the residual  $\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x})$  is learnt so that  $\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{x}$  (illustrated in figure 3.3); the motivation behind this is to avoid the problem known as the degradation problem where deeper ANN perform worse than shallower counterparts, when in theory they should at least perform equally well.  
The generator network contains  $R$  two-layer residual blocks between the encoder and the decoder also with ReLU activation and instance normalization.

The last two blocks are the “mirror image” of the first two, i.e.:

- Up-sampling<sup>7</sup>: 3 “up-convolution” layers with exponentially decreasing number of filters so that the result is the same size as the original image.
- Final layer: Finally, the result of the previous layer is convolved by 3  $7 \times 7$  filters and a tanh activation function is used to bound the output’s range.

2. UNet-like generator: The UNet (Ronneberger, Fischer, and Brox 2015) is a fully-convolutional network originally designed for medical image segmentation, it differs from standard encoder-decoder network in how the decoder reconstructs the image from the latent representation:

- Encoder: The encoder follows the same structure as the first two layers of the above described ResNet. No residual blocks are defined between the encoder and the decoder.
- Decoder: As a means to obtain low-level information (location, texture, ...) from the encoder, the output from the corresponding encoder layer is concatenated to the output of the previous decoder layer (figure 3.4)

Both families use transposed convolutions<sup>7</sup> in the decoder network.

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<sup>7</sup>Different methods for up-sampling can be used: the more classical interpolation methods (e.g.,

### 3.4 Inference technique

Whole slide images are too large to fit directly on a GPU, therefore, the inference has to be tile-by-tile to obtain the stain transformed result. This introduces artifacts (see figure 3.5) between adjacent tiles in the output due to instance normalization relying on tile statistics. In order to fix this issue, the WSI inference technique from (Bel et al. 2019) is applied.

So as to have neighbouring tiles with similar statistics, the method feeds overlapping regions to the model. The steps are the following (illustrated in figure 3.6c):

1. A large  $N \times N$  patch (e.g.  $2048 \times 2048$ ) is transformed.
2. The borders are cropped to obtain the center of half the size of the input:  $\frac{N}{2} \times \frac{N}{2} = M \times M$ .
3. The next prediction is made for a patch a quarter of the size apart from the previous one, i.e. the cropped output will have an overlap of 50% with the previous one.
4. The crops are combined by multiplying (element-wise) by a weight matrix and adding them. Two choices for this matrix are made: *a)* An “all 0.25” matrix:  $\mathbf{W} = 0.25 * \mathbf{1}$  *b)* The outer-product of two translated triangular functions of length  $M$ :  $[\mathbf{W}]_{m,n} = \Lambda(\frac{m}{M/2} - 1)\Lambda(\frac{n}{M/2} - 1)$

Another version with non-overlapping outputs is also developed where only the inputs overlap, so the different predictions have similar context but there is no “conflict” in the outputs. This is done by predicting every half the size of the window and cropping the model’s output to half the size (represented in figure 3.6b) In this case the number of



Figure 3.5: Tiling artifacts when inferring whole slides tile-by-tile.

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nearest neighbour or bicubic) or a *learnable* alternative called transposed convolution Noh, Hong, and Han 2015 (also known as fractionally strided convolution). It is equivalent to learning interpolation filters.

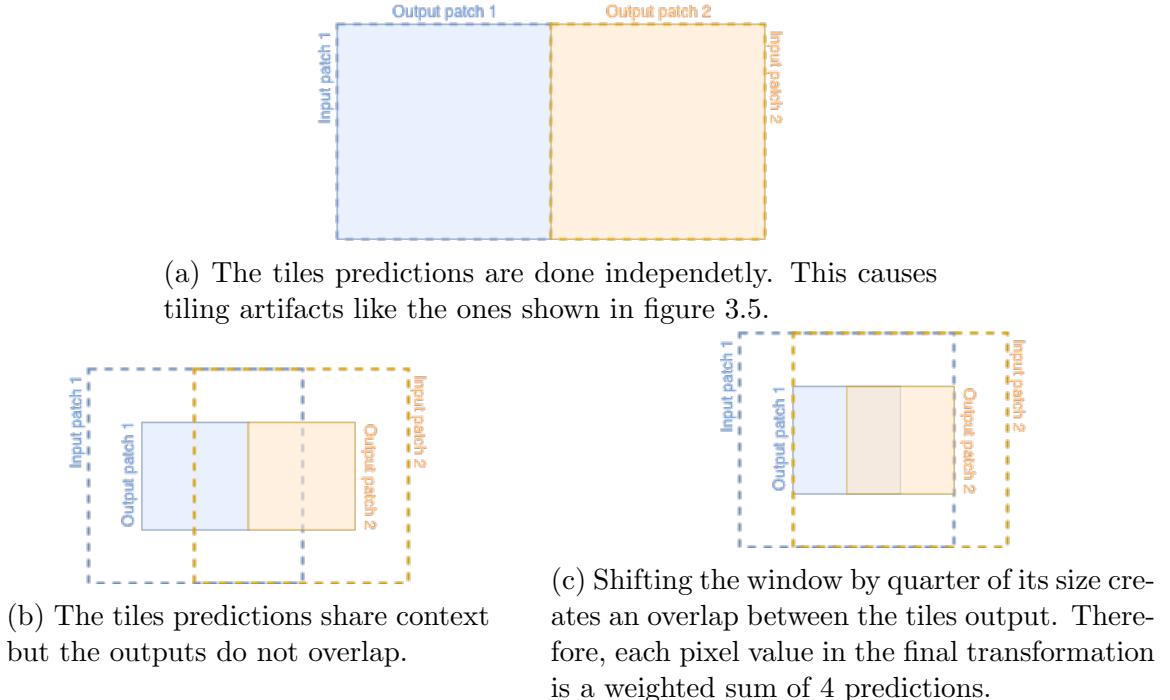


Figure 3.6: Diagrams of three main inference methods. Inference is performed on a large  $N \times N$  window. In (a) the window is shifted by  $N$ , in (b) it is shifted by  $N/2$  and in (c) it is shifted by  $N/4$ .

iterations to infer the whole slide is halved with respect to (Bel et al. 2019) technique.

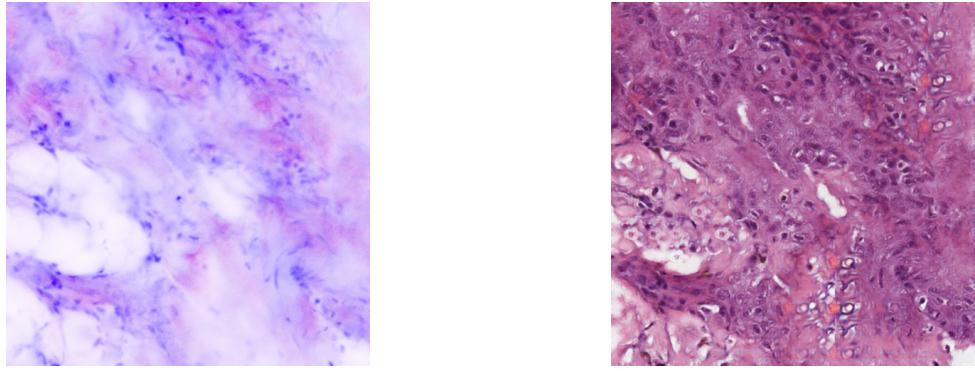
### 3.5 Quantitative measurement for stain network

Evaluating generator models is not straightforward, as metrics for image quality and diversity are difficult to define. Different methods are used for comparing methods: The inception score (IS) (Salimans et al. 2016) is used for measuring the quality of generated samples, the Fréchet Inception Distance is supposed to improve on the IS by comparing the statistics of generated samples to real samples.

In this work, two metrics are used to try to measure if the generated samples contain structures that are not present in the source image (popularly known as hallucinations). An example of an hallucination of a model during a failed training is shown in figure 3.7b.

#### 3.5.1 Texture description

The idea is to compare the input and output wholeslides by patches in a texture sense. This is done by computing a texture descriptor of the luminance of the source and the stained version and then computing a distance of the two. After trying various possibili-



(a) Linearly stained sample

(b) Transformed sample with hallucinations

Figure 3.7: (a) is the input of the model that produces the output (b). There are structures in (b) that are clearly not present in (a), these often occur in zones with little information (like background) and for some models certain kind of structures seem to trigger excessive transformations. For reference, this pair has a chi-squared distance on LBP histogram of 0.11 and a SSIM of 0.44

ties, the chosen texture descriptor is the Local Binary Patterns (LBP) histogram (Ojala, Pietikainen, and Maenpaa 2002).

LBP is a gray-level invariant feature extractor that assigns a number to every set of 9 neighboring pixels —a central pixel and its 8 closest pixels— in an image (in general, any number of pixels can be used but 9 is used here). The number is based on the difference of intensities between the neighbors and the central pixel: a 1 is assigned on pixels with a grey-level greater or equal than the center and 0 otherwise, this creates a code for each pixel in the image —by reading the assigned values clockwise starting at the top left corner as a binary word— that encodes the different possible edges. An histogram of this codes can be computed to obtain a description of the patterns that are found in a given image or patch.

The distance between the result and source patches is measured using the chi-squared distance between the normalized LBP histograms.

### 3.5.2 Structure similarity

To validate the structure integrity of the transformed wholeslides, the Structural SIMilaritY (SSIM) metric is used (also by patches) (Z. Wang et al. 2004). SSIM is a perception-based model that considers image degradation as perceived change in structural information. The metric is also applied over the gray-scale version of the images.

This metric is also used for measuring the denoising model performance.

## 4 Experiments and results

### 4.1 GANs proof of concept

To test the adversarial setting versus a more traditional loss: Mean Square Error (MSE) (equation 4.1), a “toy example” is carried out<sup>8</sup>: train a generator model to fit a normal distribution with mean 0 and variance 1 ( $p_{data}$ ).

The generator samples a vector of length 5 from a uniform distribution (range -0.5-0.5) ( $p_z$ ) and passes it through 3 fully connected layers<sup>9</sup> with LeakyReLU activation function and 5 units on each layer except for the final layer which only has 1 unit (it outputs a scalar) and no activation function (represented in figure 4.1).

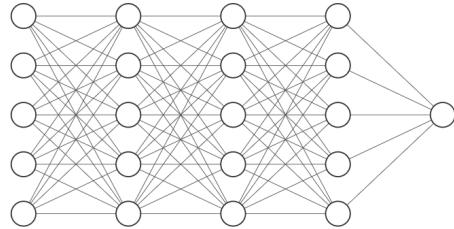


Figure 4.1: Generator architecture used for both the MSE and GANs setting

The target data comes from a sample of 100,000 i.i.d normal random variables. The models are trained for 100 epochs with a batch size of 100 using the Adam optimization algorithm presented in section 2.1.2 with a learning rate of  $5 \times 10^{-4}$  and default momentum values.

The results are compared by computing the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality<sup>10</sup>.

#### 4.1.1 Results for mean square error loss

As to be expected, the ANN simply ignores the source of randomness (set first layer’s weights close to zero) and produces an almost deterministic output close to the distribu-

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<sup>8</sup>Code available at <https://github.com/gio8tisu/GAN-PoC>

<sup>9</sup>A fully connected layer outputs the matrix product between its input and a weights matrix and adds a bias vector, a node/neuron represents a row in the weight matrix plus the corresponding element in the bias vector:  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{Wx} + \mathbf{b}$ , where  $\mathbf{x}$  is the input represented as a column vector.

<sup>10</sup>The test statistic provides a measurement of the divergence of your sample distribution from the normal distribution. The higher the value of D, the less probable the data is normally distributed. The p-value quantifies this probability, with a low probability indicating that the sample diverges from a normal distribution to an extent unlikely to arise merely by chance. It is computed using the <https://www.socscistatistics.com/tests/kolmogorov> online tool.

tion's expected value: this is in fact the optimal solution for the MSE objective function.

$$L(G_\theta(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{y} - G_\theta(\mathbf{x})\|_2^2 \quad (4.1)$$

Example of generated samples: -0.05046 -0.05155 -0.05082 -0.05044 ...

The value of the K-S test statistic for 300 samples generated by this model is 0.1023. The p-value is 0.01819. This provides good evidence that the data is not normally distributed.

#### 4.1.2 Results for adversarial loss

Rather than training  $G$  to minimize  $\log(1 - D(G(\mathbf{z})))$ ,  $G$  is trained to maximize  $\log D(G(\mathbf{z}))$ . This is a common practice as equation (2.5a) may not provide sufficient gradient for  $G$  to learn well early in training. It follows the same principle: try to fool the discriminator.

$$L(G_\theta(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{y}) = -\log D(G(\mathbf{z})) \quad (4.2)$$

The discriminator network is composed of 3 hidden layers with LeakyReLU as well, with a sigmoid activation function in the output layer.

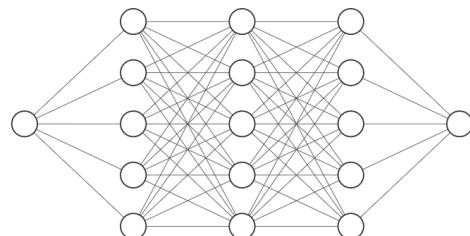


Figure 4.2: Discriminator architecture

In the case of the generator network trained in an adversarial manner, it produces samples with variability that are close to being normally distributed (see figure 4.3 for a visual comparison with a true normal distribution).

The value of the K-S test statistic for 300 samples generated by this model is 0.03383. The p-value is 0.87045. This provides good evidence that the data does not differ significantly from that which is normally distributed.

This model clearly beats the MSE one on producing realistic and varied samples, but the training was much more sensitive to hyperparameters and the problem of mode collapse was encountered. Several training iterations with different hyperparameters (like number

of layers, activation functions, learning rate,...) were necessary until the desired results were obtained.

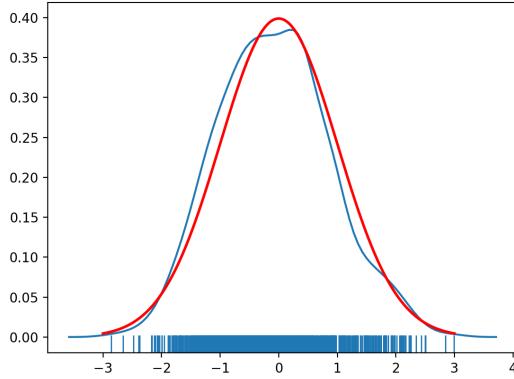


Figure 4.3: In blue a plot of the kernel density estimation using 1000 samples from the generator trained through the GANs framework. In red the probability density function of a normal random variable.

## 4.2 Despeckling network

The loss function used to define the objective function the model will learn on is the MSE between FCM  $256 \times 256$  crops and the artificially contaminated version of it.

$$L(f_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{noisy}), \mathbf{x}_{clean}) = \|\mathbf{x}_{clean} - f_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{noisy})\|_2^2 \quad (4.3a)$$

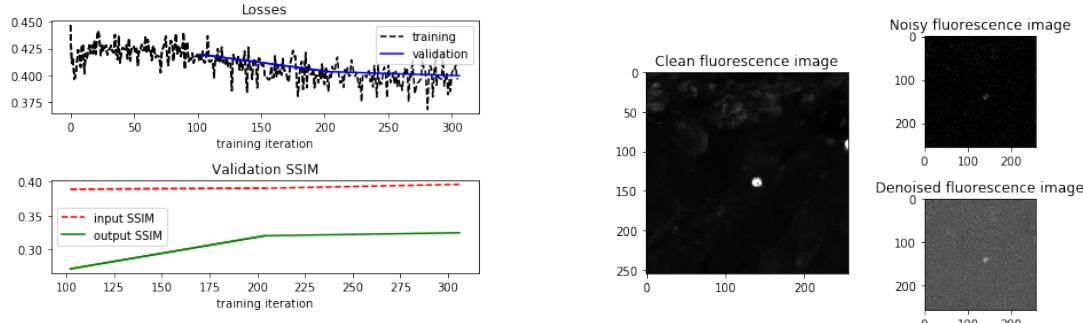
$$\mathbf{x}_{noisy} = \mathbf{x}_{clean} \odot \mathbf{s} \quad (4.3b)$$

Where  $\mathbf{s}$  is a realization of the speckle noise random variable model.

### 4.2.1 Model selection

As explained in section 3.2, three different network architectures are implemented. To evaluate the model performance, a comparison of the SSIM (Z. Wang et al. 2004) between noisy and clean (denoted  $SSIM_{input}$ ); and denoised and clean (denoted  $SSIM_{output}$ ) is used. Due to the lack of information about the confocal microscope used, the experiments are done with 2 different values  $\{1, 5\}$  for the parameter  $L$  of the noise model (3.1).

The division skip-connection model is discarded early in the process because it fails to find any solution close to the desired.



(a) Learning curve or the division skip-connection model.  $SSIM_{input}$  is greater than  $SSIM_{output}$  throughout the trianing process

(b) Example of denoised FCM with division skip connection

Figure 4.4: The division skip-connection model fails to converge.

Model	$M$	$K$	$N$	mean $SSIM_{output}$
Multiply ( $L = 1$ )	3	32	5	0.877
Multiply ( $L = 1$ )	5	64	5	0.728
Multiply ( $L = 5$ )	3	32	5	0.960
Multiply ( $L = 5$ )	5	64	5	0.947
Log-Add ( $L = 1$ )	3	32	5	0.960
Log-Add ( $L = 1$ )	5	64	5	0.806
Log-Add ( $L = 5$ )	3	32	5	0.968
Log-Add ( $L = 5$ )	5	64	5	0.965

Table 1: Models comparison with different number of layers  $M$ , number of filters  $K$  and filter size  $N$ . The validation set mean  $SSIM_{input}$  is 0.414 for  $L = 1$  and 0.723 for  $L = 5$ .

In table 1 the mean SSIM values on the validation set for each of the final models are shown. The training process is done during 20 epochs using the Adam optimizer with a learning rate of  $10^{-3}$  and a batch size of 32 samples.

Removing the speckle noise in the log space obtains better results in all the cases from a SSIM point of view, specially when the noise is more prominent ( $L = 1$ ) the difference is more notable. The versions with less parameters ( $M = 3$  and  $K = 32$ ) obtain a slightly higher  $SSIM_{output}$ , this can be an example of the degradation problem although, if trained for more epochs, with different initialization or learning rate, the higher capacity networks would probably match the shallower ones.

Albeit a good SSIM is obtained when compating a noise-free FCM and its denoised version; when applying the DespeckleNN to a RCM images, the result looks unrealistic (see figure 4.5b). For this reason, the following StainNN experiments are carried out without the despeckling stage.

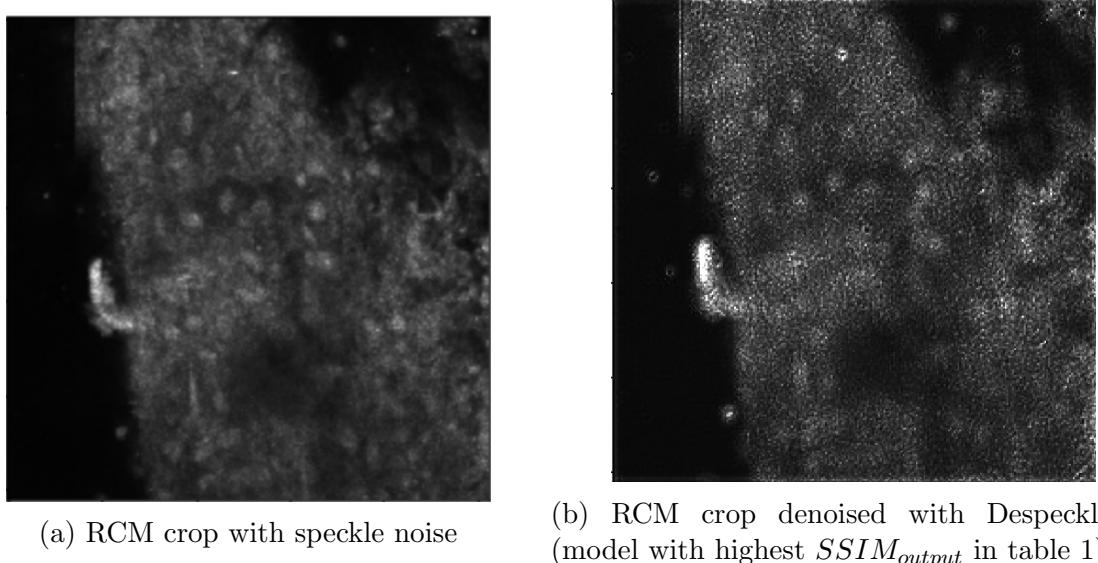


Figure 4.5: Example of DespeckleNN applied to RCM images

## 4.3 Staining network

### 4.3.1 Baseline

The baseline presented in 3.3.1 is trained using the Adam optimizer with a batch size of 8, learning rate of  $5 \times 10^{-4}$ , momentums of 0.5 and 0.999 for  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  respectively. This hyperparameter values provide the best looking results, as with other parameters the training quickly destabilizes.

To provide an initialization closer to the optimal one, the weights are initialized with the weights defined by Gareau 2009 transformation.

The final results are very similar to the ones of the initial state, (see figure 4.6a) so the model makes no real progress to make a better looking stain version.

Once again, the GANs instability becomes apparent when training this model. Multiple hyperparameter combinations lead to failed cases (see example in figure 4.6b).

### 4.3.2 Deep staining networks

The two architectures are trained using the hyperparameters described in table 2. Instead of optimizing the original GANs objective the so-called LSGAN —use the L2 distance instead of the cross-entropy— is used which is empirically shown to provide a more stable training (Mao et al. 2016).

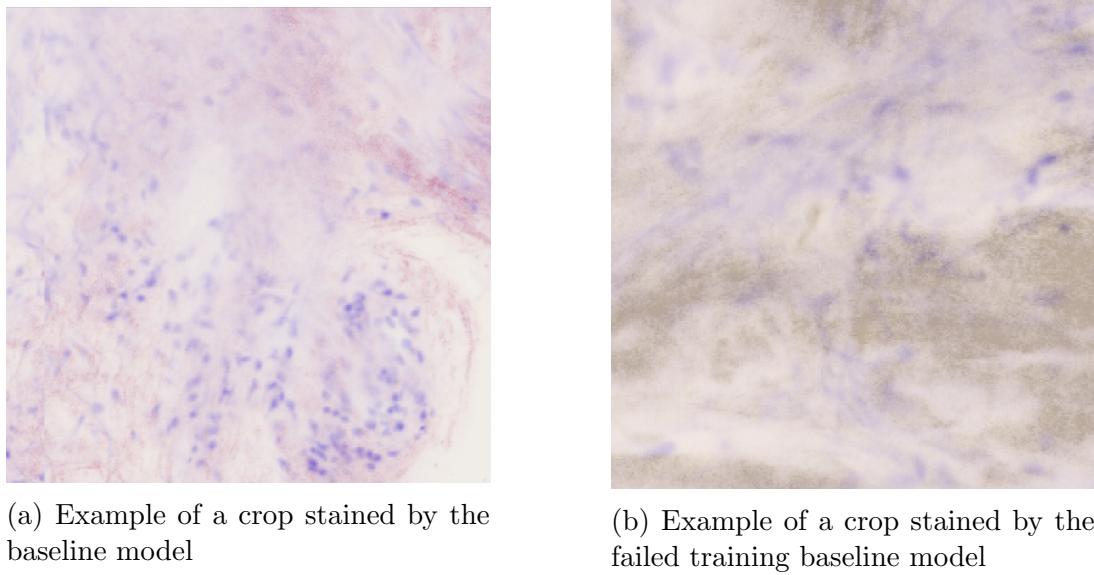


Figure 4.6: Examples of stained CM using StainNN baseline model

hyperparameter	value
$\lambda_{cycle}$	10
$\lambda_{identity}$	5
learning rate	$2^{-4}$
$\beta_1$	0.5
$\beta_2$	0.9
epochs	200
#layers $D$	3
residual blocks (residual model)	9
# down-sampling layers (UNet model)	7

Table 2: Table of hyperparameters used in staining network

Metric	Residual	UNet-like
LBP histogram chi-squared distance	0.0332	0.0183
SSIM	0.5002	0.5570

Table 3: Metrics mean values on validation set for the two tested models.

The motivation behind using the UNet-like model is to maintain the structure and be less prone to “hallucinate”, in practice this generally holds but still some structures are made up by the model; the residual model on the other hand sometimes eliminates nuclei present in the source image. Both cases can be seen in figure 4.7.

The mean value of the LBP histogram distance and SSIM on the validation set for the residual and UNet-like architectures are shown in table 3. So based on this metrics and on visual inspection, the UNet-like model is superior than the residual one.

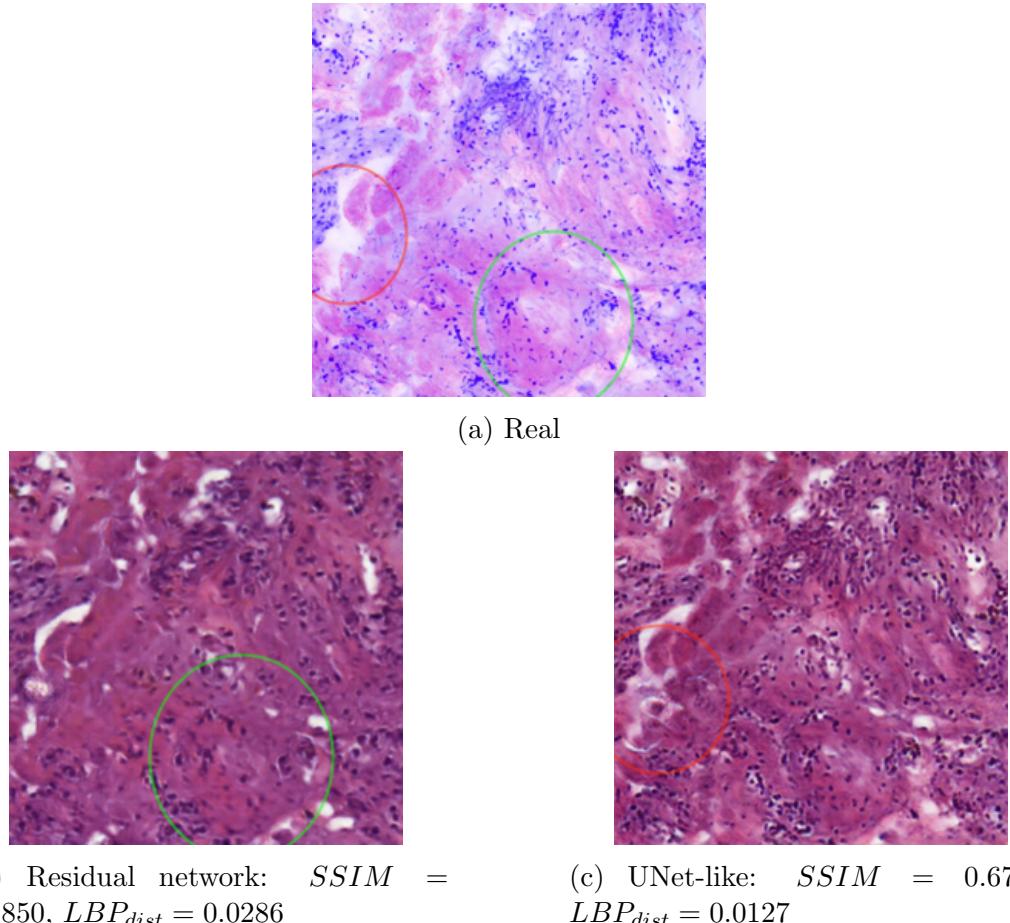


Figure 4.7: (a) is the models’ input, the second row show the outputs for the respective models. On (b) some nuclei that are in the input have been erased by the network — marked in green—. On (c) some structures are generated that are not present in the input —marked in red—.

## 4.4 Inference method

Three of the inference methods described in section 3.4 are compared by computing the mean chi-squared distance of  $512 \times 512$  patches in 7 large slides. The procedure is the following: from a CM large slide, the digitally stained version by Gareau 2009 is computed (DSCM). Then, the selected inference method is used to produce the H&E version using the U-Net model and the DSCM as input; next, the DSCM and the transformed version are divided with a grid of  $512 \times 512$  cells and the LBP histogram is computed on each cell. Finally, once the histograms are computed, the SSIM and chi-squared distance are used to measure how similar each cell is between the DSCM and the transformed version.

The plots in figure 4.8 show how the method using 50% overlap and the weight metrix defined in b) has a lower distribution of the texture metric and higher distribution of the similarity metric for 7 different samples. Two of the samples are displayed in annex C.

## 4.5 Professional analysis

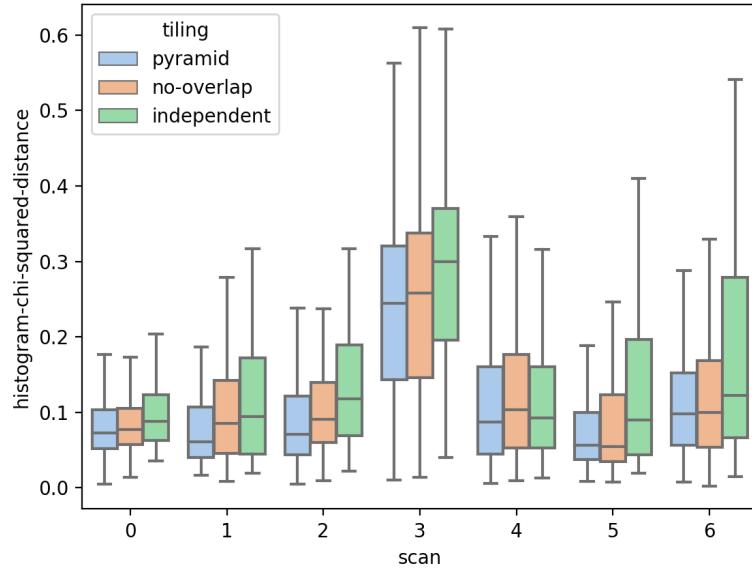
Evaluation from Dr. María Javiera Pérez from the HC's melanoma unit, expert in Mohs surgery and Melanoma, in response to a request for an assessment of whole slides transformed with the final model (translated from spanish):

Observing the images, it is intuited that they have been obtained from digitally stained CM and haven't been adequately transformed to its equivalent conventional H&E image. Nuclei are not clearly displayed due to this problem.

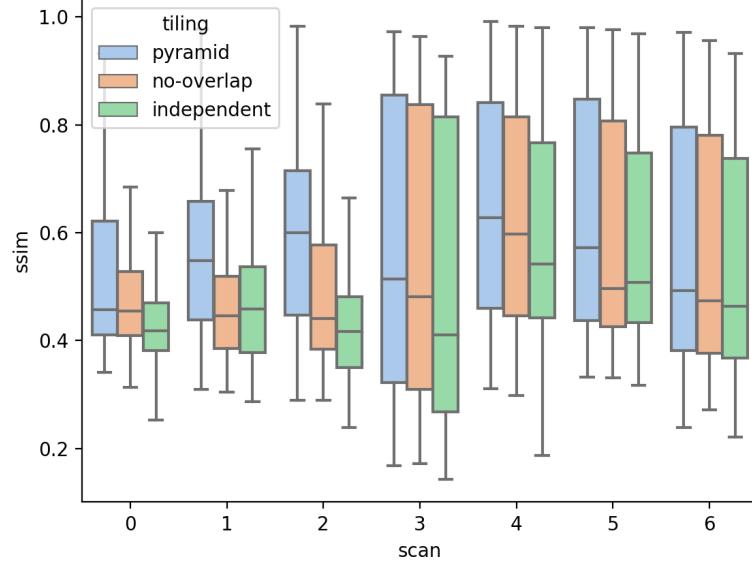
The color tone, both for the stroma, and for the nuclei when they appear, is very correct. But now we must definitely improve that the structures are always visualized.

The expert is able to detect missing nuclei in the resulting transformation, a problem mentioned section 4.3.2. Apart from that, she points out the accurate color tones for various tissue structures.

Two examples provided by the doctor with their respective descriptions are appended in A.



(a) LBP histogram chi-squared distance (the smaller the better). The distributions for the pyramid method tend to be in a lower range and have less variability. Scan 3 stands out for being in a higher range; this is probably because it contains more background, where the model tends to hallucinate.



(b) SSIM (the greater the better). In this plot it can be visualized how this metric has more variability than the LBP histogram distance. The pyramid tiling distributions in particular have a higher variability compared to the other ones, but the general distribution is always higher.

Figure 4.8: Independent tiling refers to inference made tile-by-tile with no overlap whatsoever. No-overlap refers to the technique where the inputs have overlap but the output is cropped so that they do not overlap. Pyramid is the WSI inference technique from Bel et al. 2019. (b) in page 19

## 5 Budget

This project has been carried in the Image Processing Group, ETSETB, UPC. Deep Learning is highly computationally demanding, consequently a GPU was needed: The GPU GeForce GTX Titan Black has an approximate cost of 920€, however UPC provided it to us without any cost.

The only cost that can be accounted for this project is the salary of the members involved in it. Considering the amount of time that each member has put into this project and the standard salary for junior engineers and senior engineers, the costs can be summarized as follows:

Role	Weeks	Wage/hour	Dedication	Total
Junior engineer	35	10 €/h	13 h/week	4550 €
Senior engineer	35	20 €/h	4 h/week	2800 €
Senior engineer	35	20 €/h	2 h/week	1400 €
<b>TOTAL</b>				<b>8750 €</b>

Table 4: Budget of the project

## 6 Conclusions and future development

The use of the CycleGANs framework for digitally staining CM slides has been studied, as well as fully-convolutional models for speckle denoising.

This work supplements the one by Combalia et al. 2019 mainly with three contributions: 1) A way of measuring StainNN hallucinations is studied; 2) Different inference techniques for whole slides are developed and compared and 3) Use of a Unet-like architecture for the StainNN which is able to more accurately transform the structures from the source without creating new ones.

The denoising model seems to work from a SSIM point of view, but based on visual inspection the results are not satisfactory. The cause may be the training images, as they are from a different character —FCM instead of RCM— and the noise model used to contaminate the images may not be accurate.

In the case of the staining model, the UNet-like architecture is superior to the residual one based on both the LBP histogram distance and SSIM; but, as Dr. Pérez mentions, it is essential to make sure the structures are always preserved.

### 6.1 Future development

To tackle the main problem of the StainNN (nuclei elimination), a new model should be trained with a loss that further penalizes this kind of behavior. Maybe “showing” both the input and output to the discriminator could work, or just by trying higher  $\lambda_{cycle}$  or  $\lambda_{identity}$  values the model could learn to be more conservative.

The applied StainNN architectures have a large number of parameters, reducing the number of parameters could make the transformation less prone to hallucinations and would reduce inference time and memory. Therefore, as a future development, finding a model that matches or improves the performance of the presented models but using less parameters would be beneficial.

The speckle noise model was selected based on similar works, a validation of different noise models should be done to see which one applies better to this problem. Also related to the speckle noise, a measure of how the denoising model affects final transformation should be done.

Finally, the inference model could be further improved. As it can be seen in figures .5 and .7, the edges are degraded; this is due to the shape of the window, applying a special case window shape for the edges and corners this would be solved.

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## Appendices

### A Examples of failure cases provided by professional

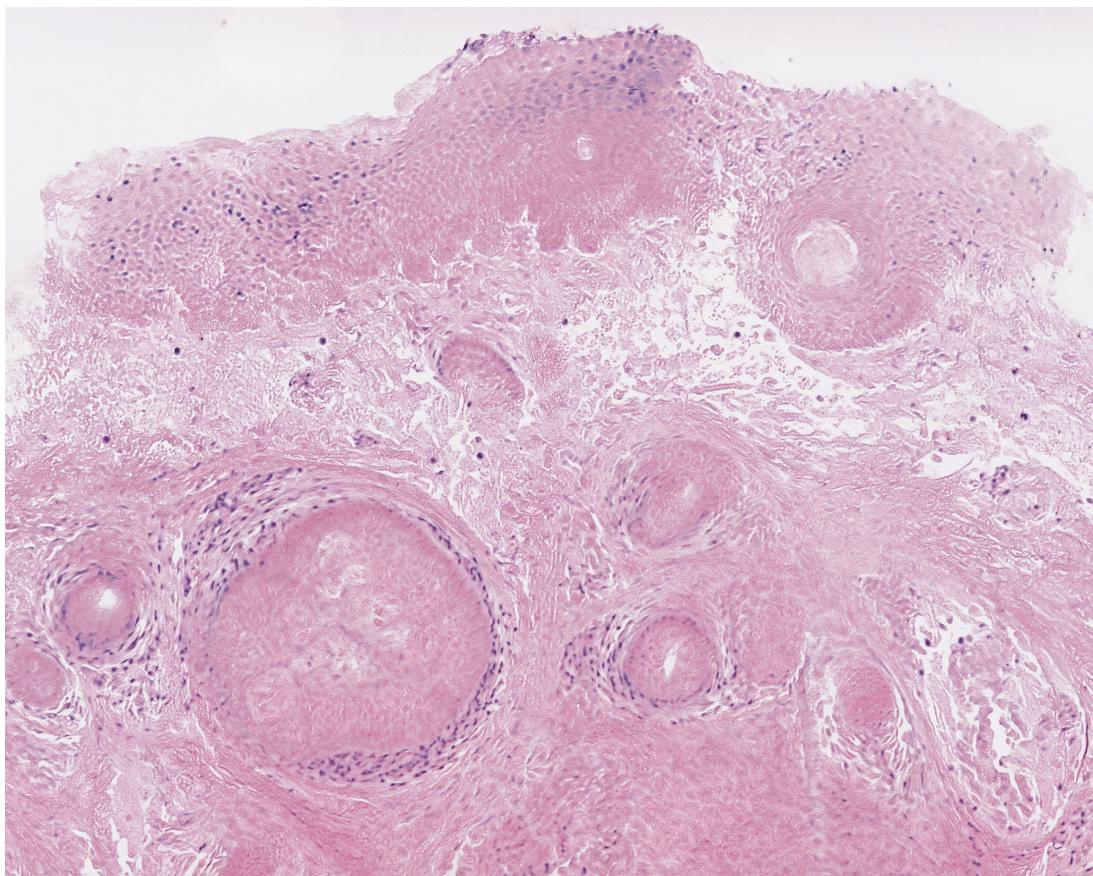


Figure .1: “No se observan los núcleos de la epidermis ni de los folículos. Tampoco la imagen del tumor en la parte inferior de la misma (BCC).”

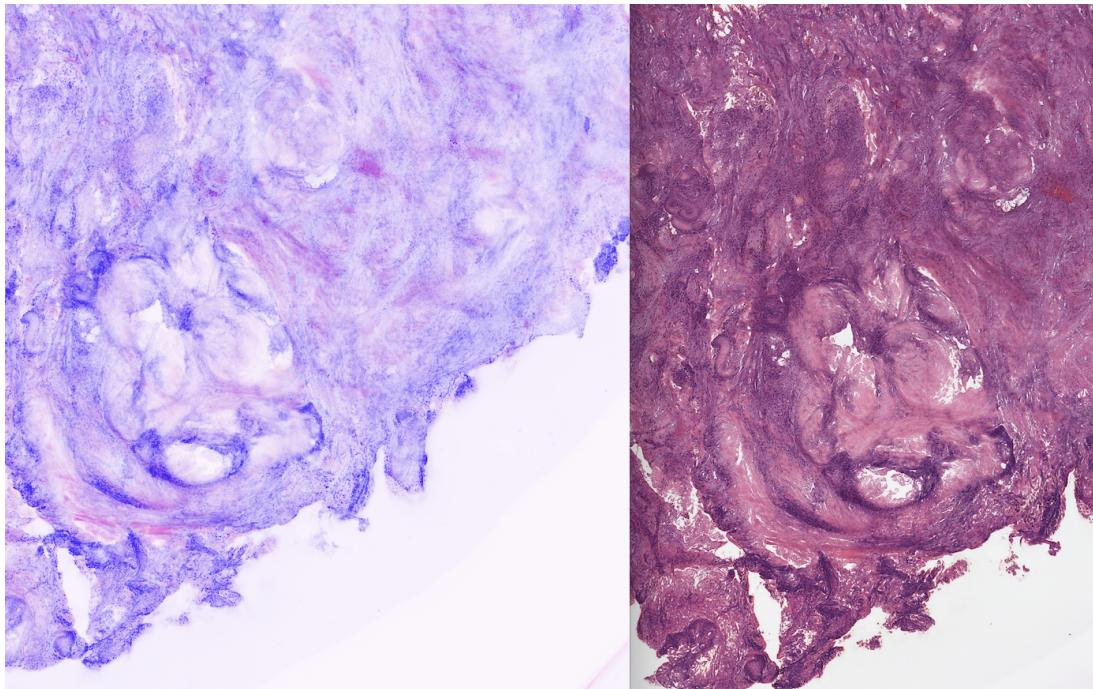


Figure .2: “Al tratarse de otro tumor (SCC), también es fundamental observar los núcleos de las perlas de queratina, que es lo que lo diferencia de otro tipo de tumores.”

## B Work plan

### B.1 Tasks and milestones

	Project proposal and work plan
	Project description
Tasks	Project development plan Document review and approval
Milestone	Documentation

Table 5: Work package 1

	Information research documentation
	Watch Stanford’s CS231n video lectures
Tasks	Learn about fully-convolutional architectures Learn about generative architectures Familiarization with PyTorch library
Milestone	Learning

Table 6: Work package 2

	Software development
Tasks	Study different fully-convolutional models for de-noising Study different fully-convolutional models for image-to-image translation Build baseline models Test the implementation and get results WSI inference technique implementation
Milestone	Software

Table 7: Work package 3

	Critical review
Tasks	Discuss the development of the project Write critical review document
Milestone	Documentation

Table 8: Work package 4

	Test and results assessment
Tasks	Learning how to properly quantify results Fine-tune of the results and look for improvements
Milestone	Software

Table 9: Work package 5

	Final report
Tasks	Write the document Document review and approval
Milestone	Documentation

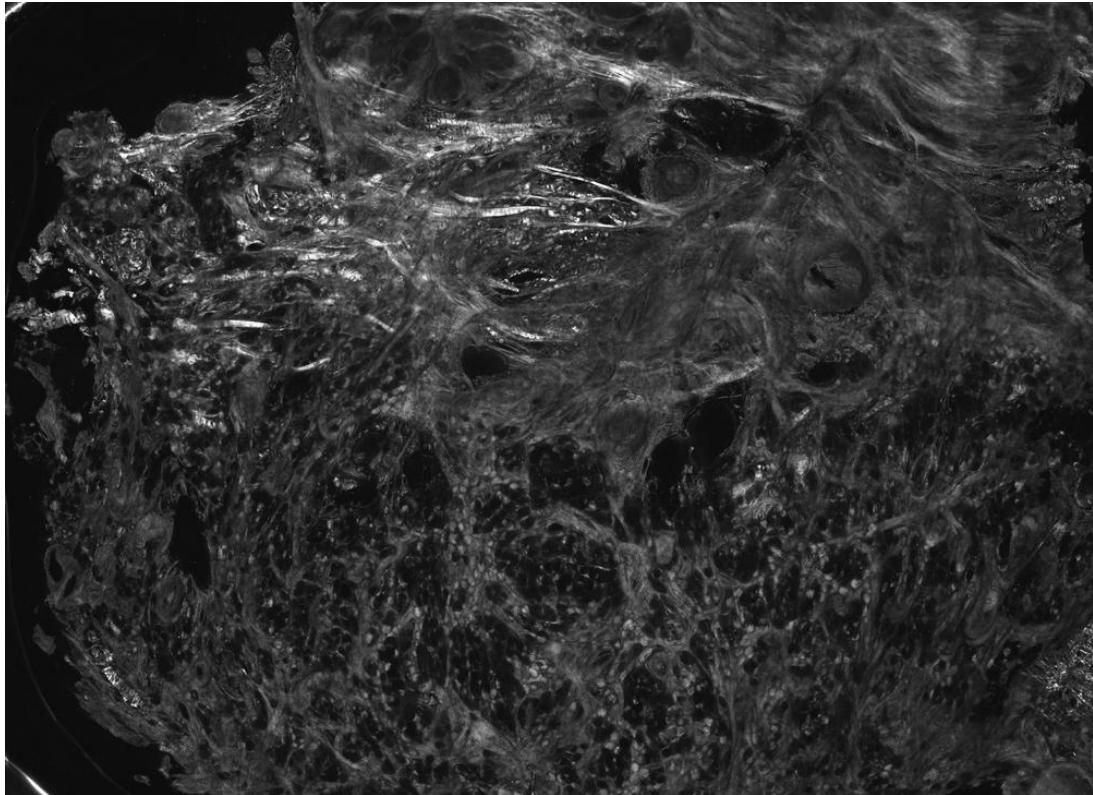
Table 10: Work package 6

## B.2 Gantt diagram

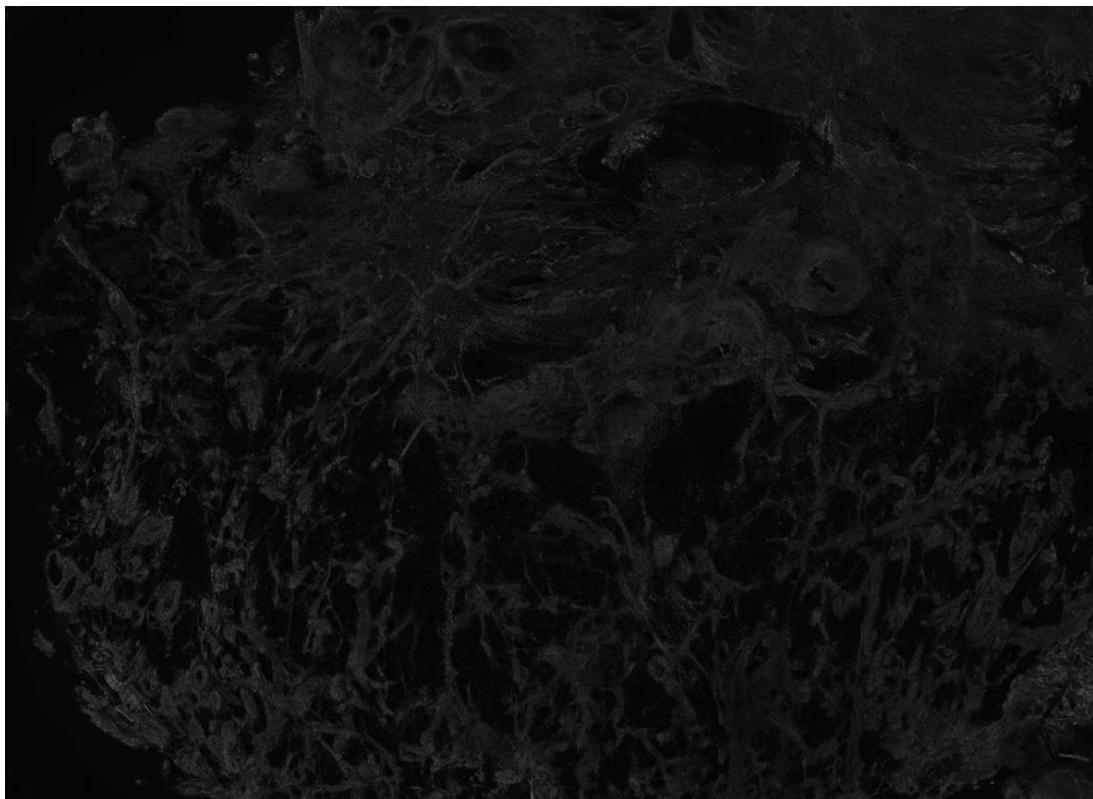
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	4 - 10	11 - 17	18 - 24	25 - 3	4 - 10	11 - 17	18 - 24	25 - 31	1 - 7	8 - 14	15 - 21	22 - 28	29 - 5	6 - 12	13 - 19	20 - 26	27 - 2
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<b>Information research documentation</b>																	
Watch video lectures																	
Fully-convolutional architectures																	
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Familiarization with PyTorch library																	
<b>Software development</b>																	
Models for de-noising																	
Models for image-to-image translation																	
Build baseline models																	
Test the implementation and get results																	
WSI inference technique implementation																	
<b>Critical review</b>																	
Discuss the development of the project																	
Write critical review document																	
<b>Test and results assessment</b>																	
Learning how to properly quantify results																	
Look for improvements																	
<b>Final report</b>																	
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<b>Final report</b>																	
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## C Whole slides samples

In this appendix two CM samples (refered to as “scan0” and “scan3”, matching the naming in figure 4.8) are displayed in the plain reflectance RCM and fluorescence FCM modes, the digitally stained version using Gareau 2009 transformation and the stained version using the Unet-like model with the 3 inference methods compared in 4.4. The reduction of the tiling artifacts using the diffent inference methods is notable.

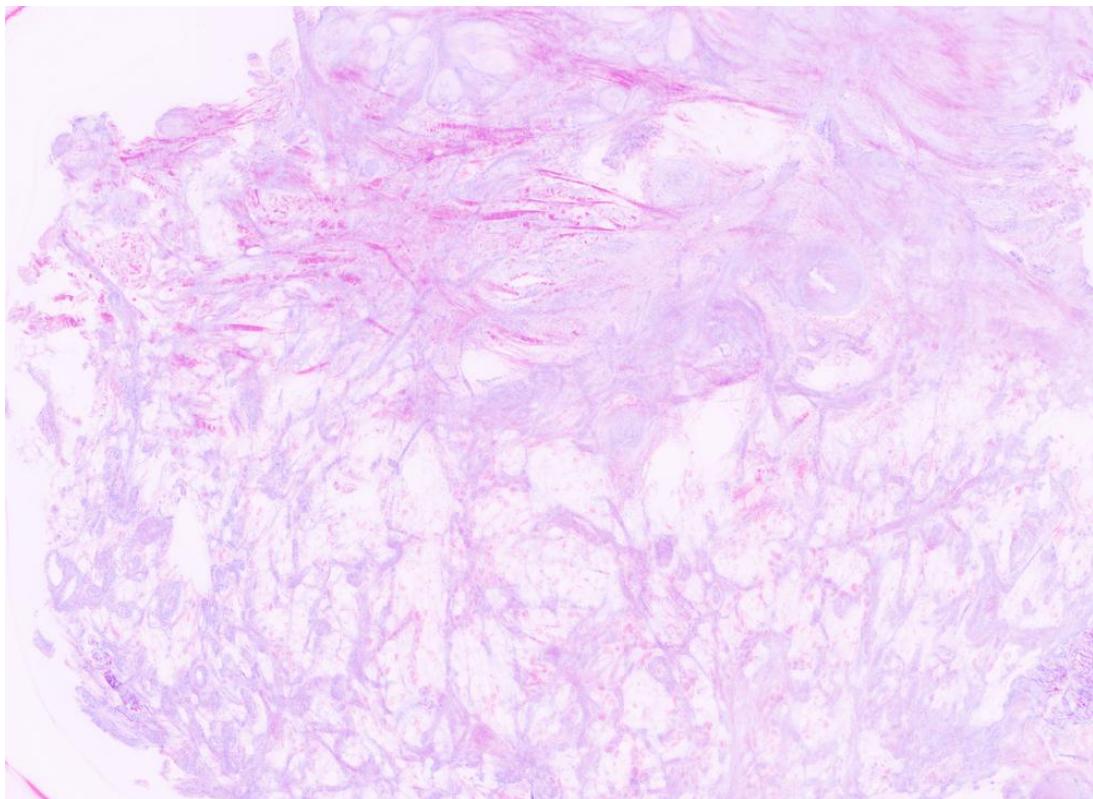


(a) Reflectance mode.

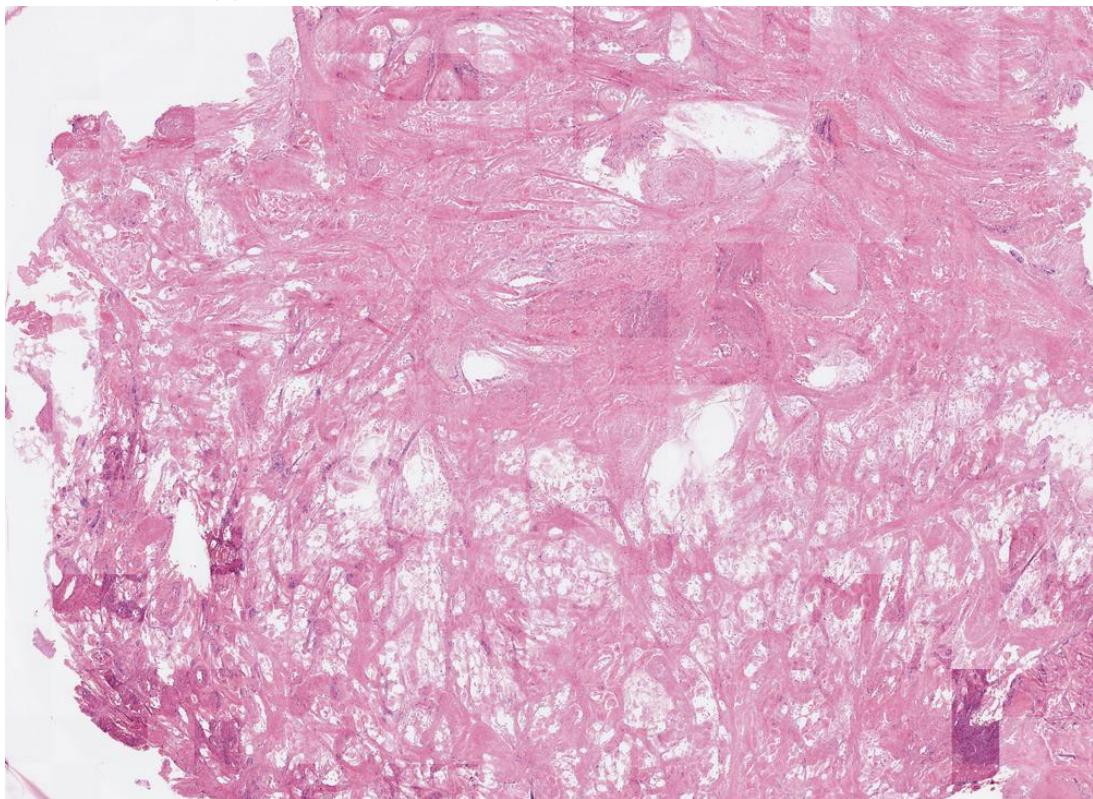


(b) Fluorescence mode.

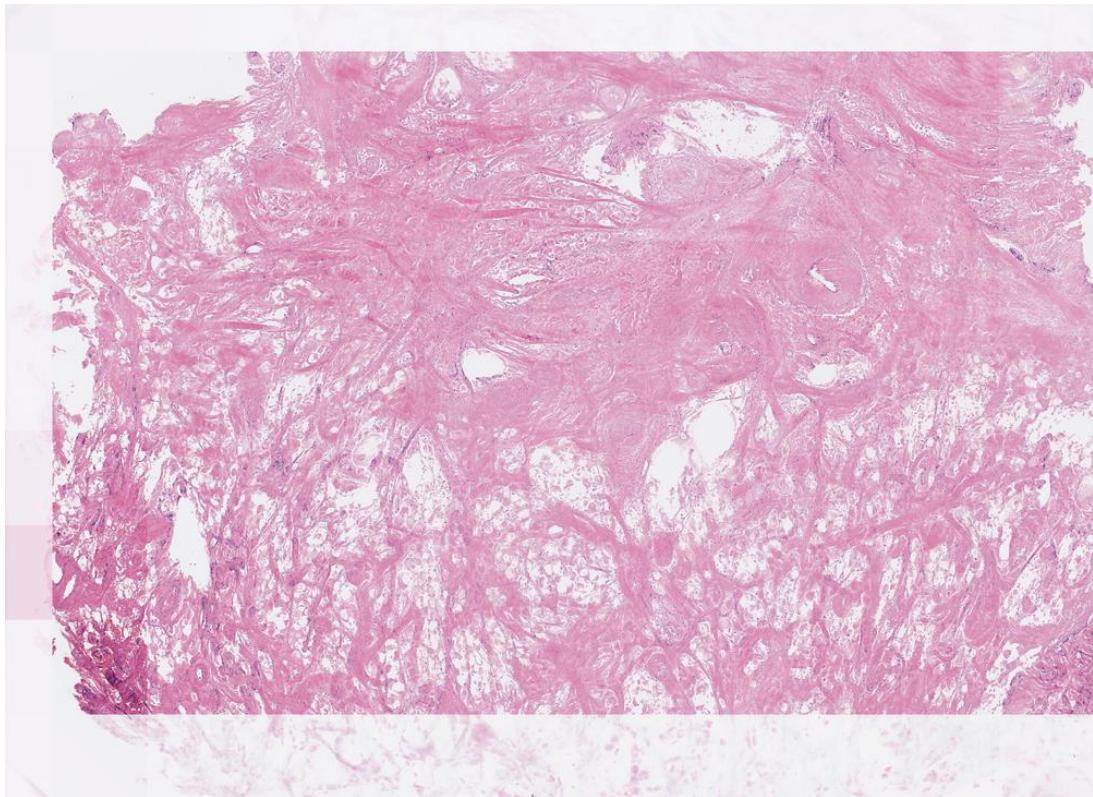
Figure .4: “scan0” whole slide CM sample.



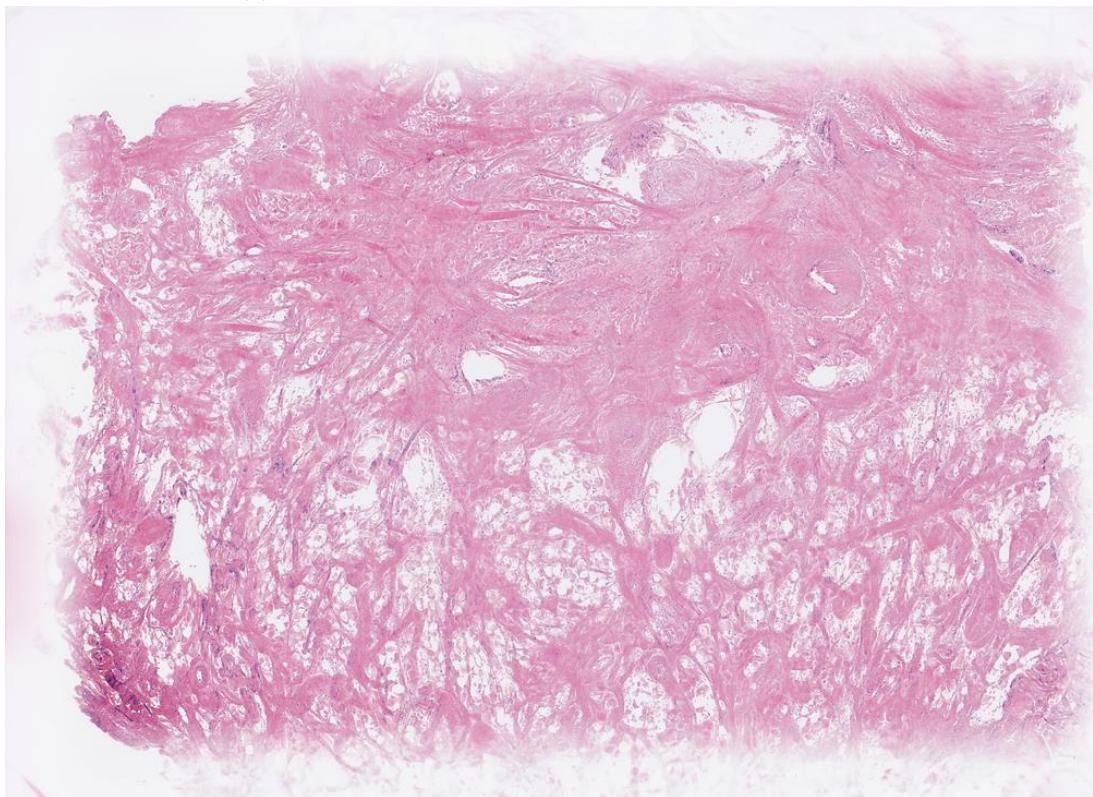
(a) Digitally stained slide using Gareau 2009 method.



(b) Tile-by-tile independent inference.

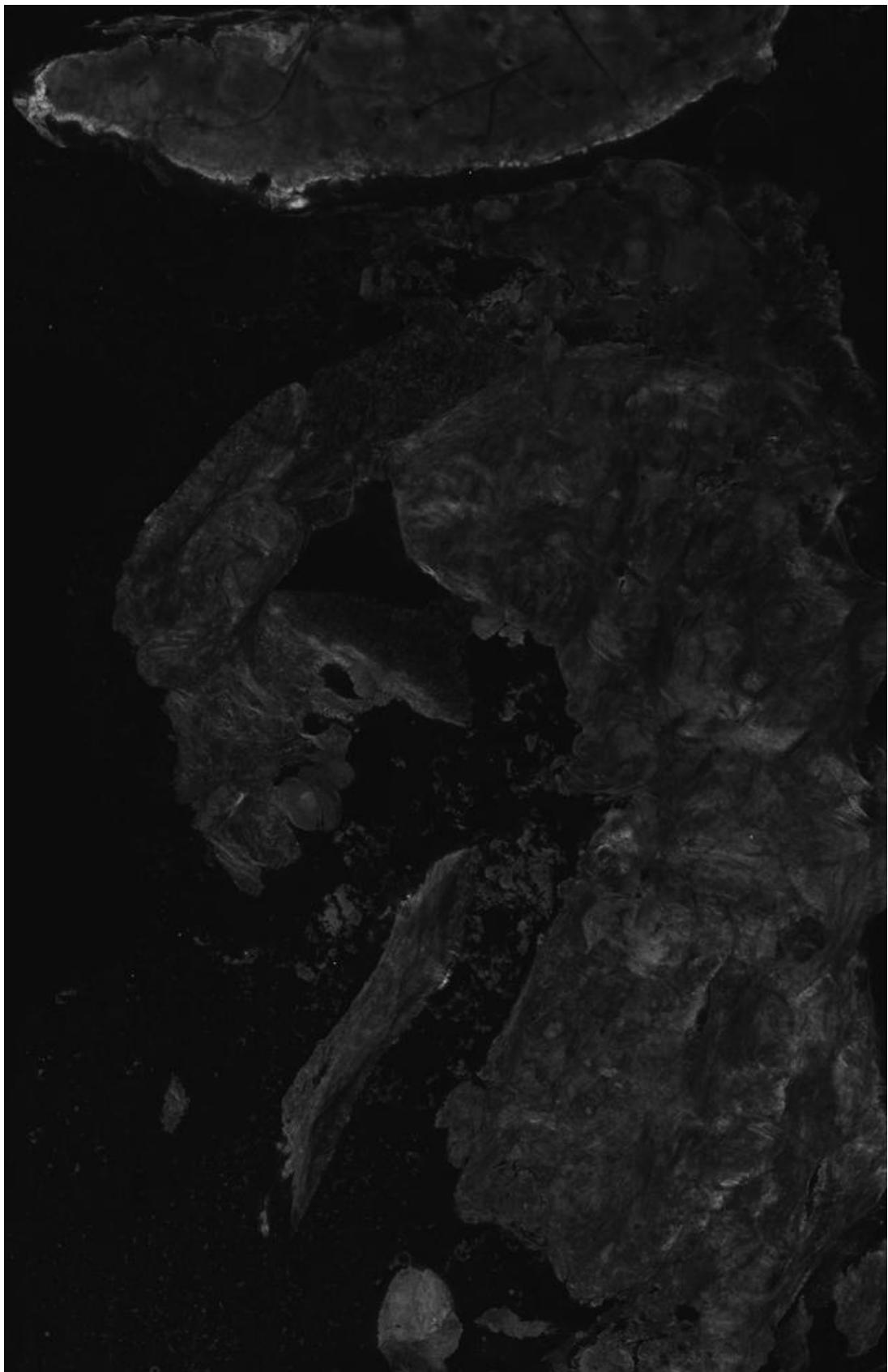


(c) Tile-by-tile non-overlapping output inference.

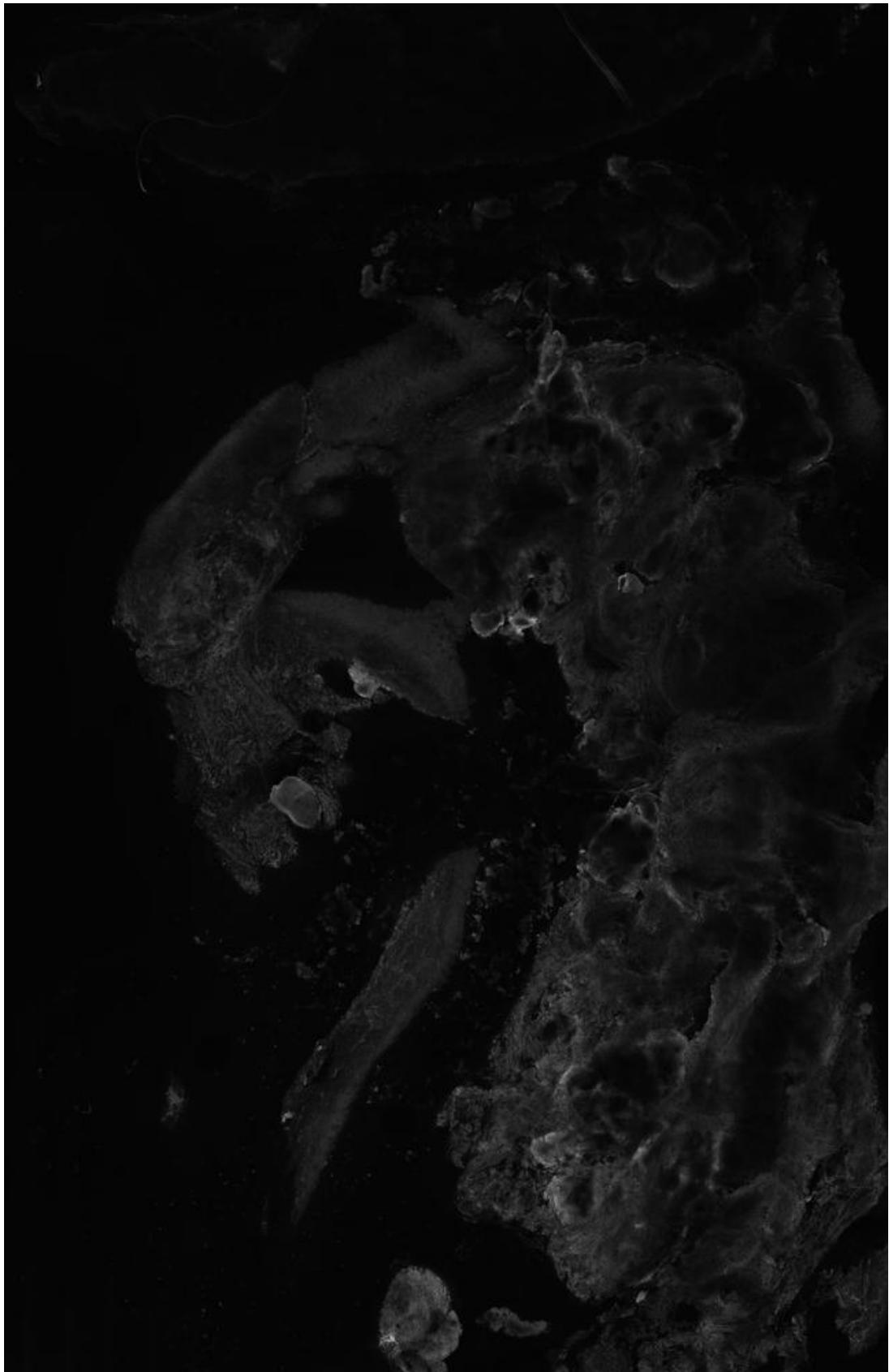


(d) Inference method based on Bel et al. 2019.

Figure .5: “scan0” whole slide sample transformed using different inference methods.

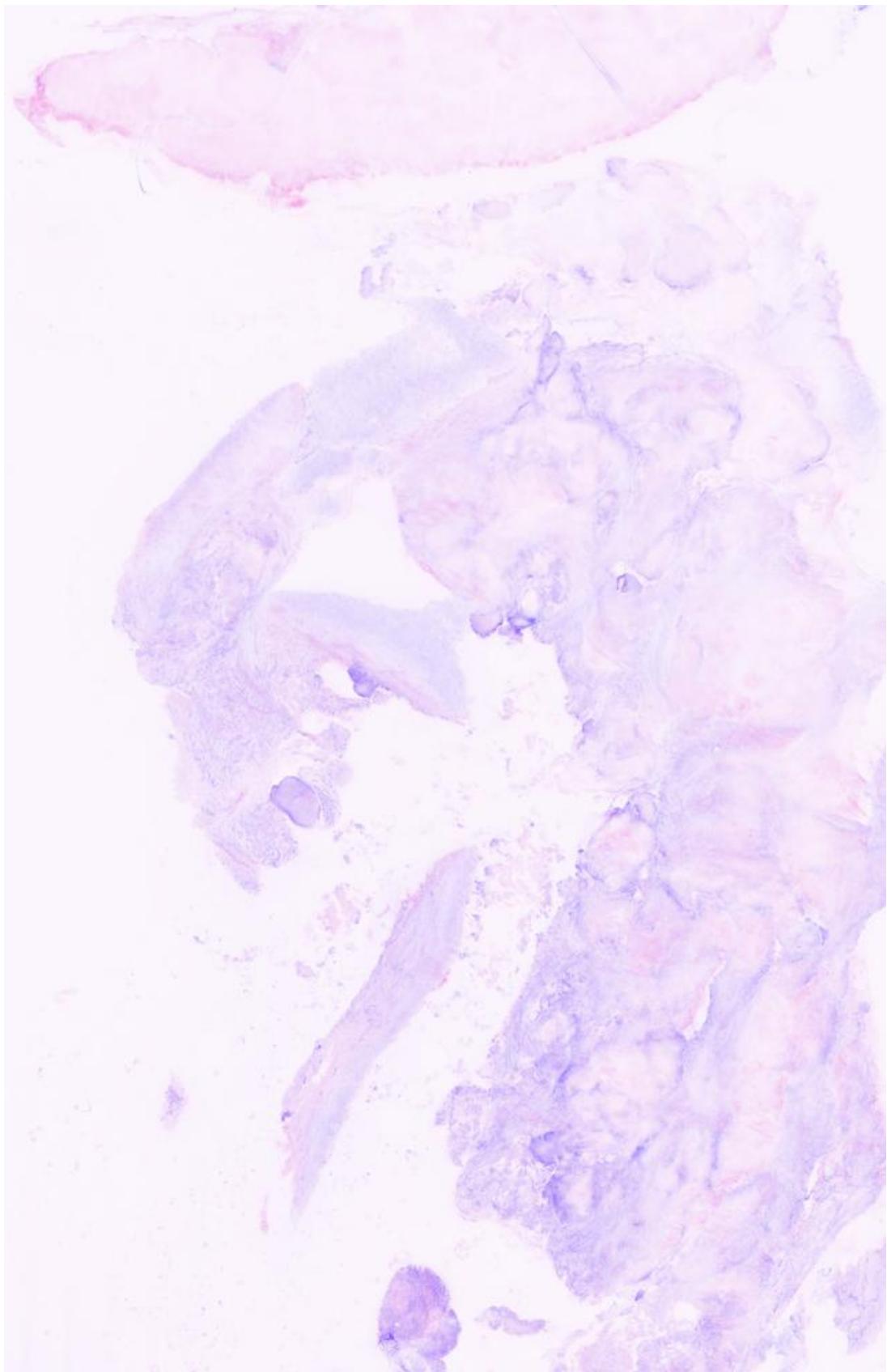


(a) Reflectance mode.



(b) Fluorescence mode.

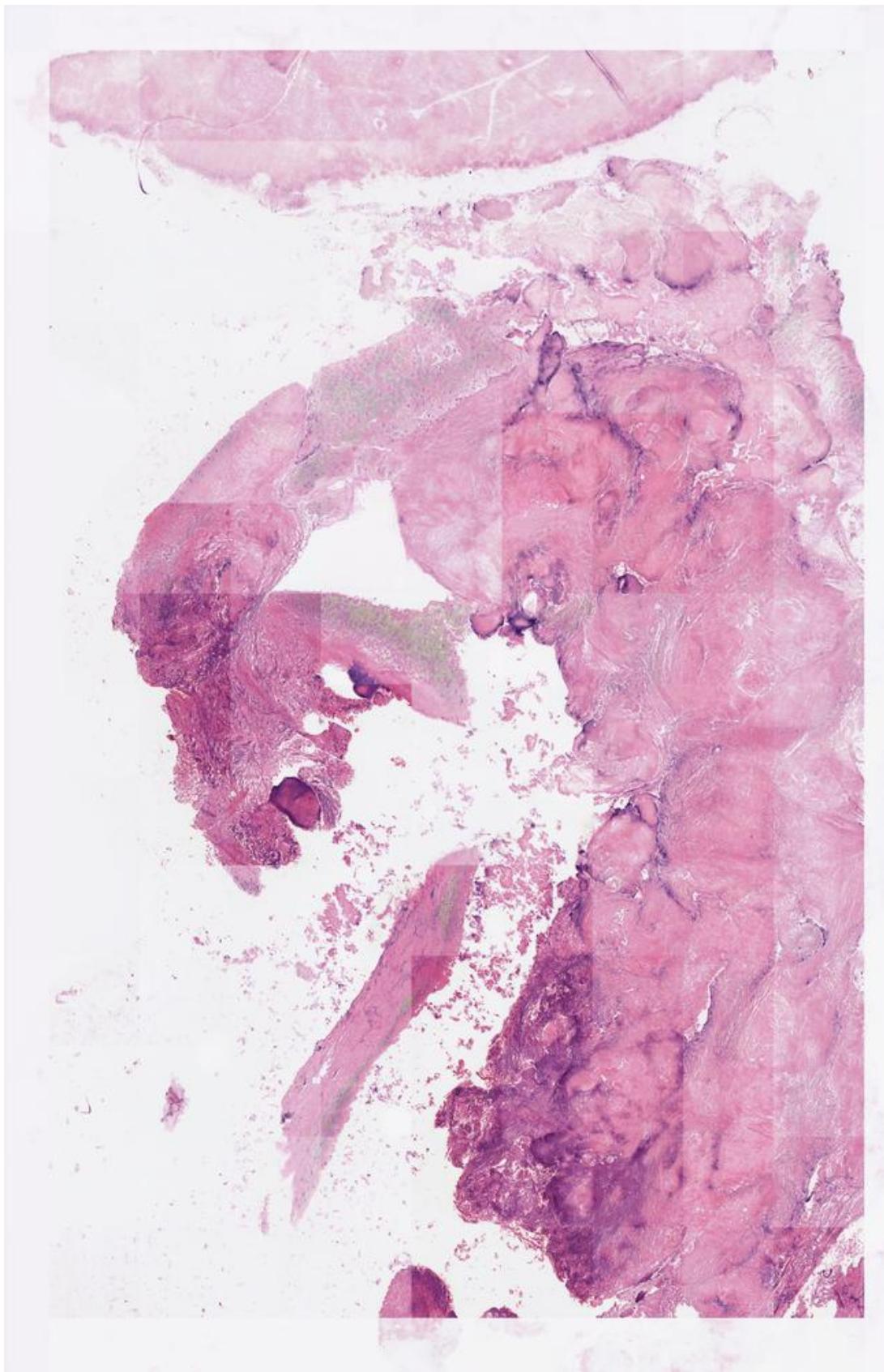
Figure .6: “scan3” whole slide CM sample.



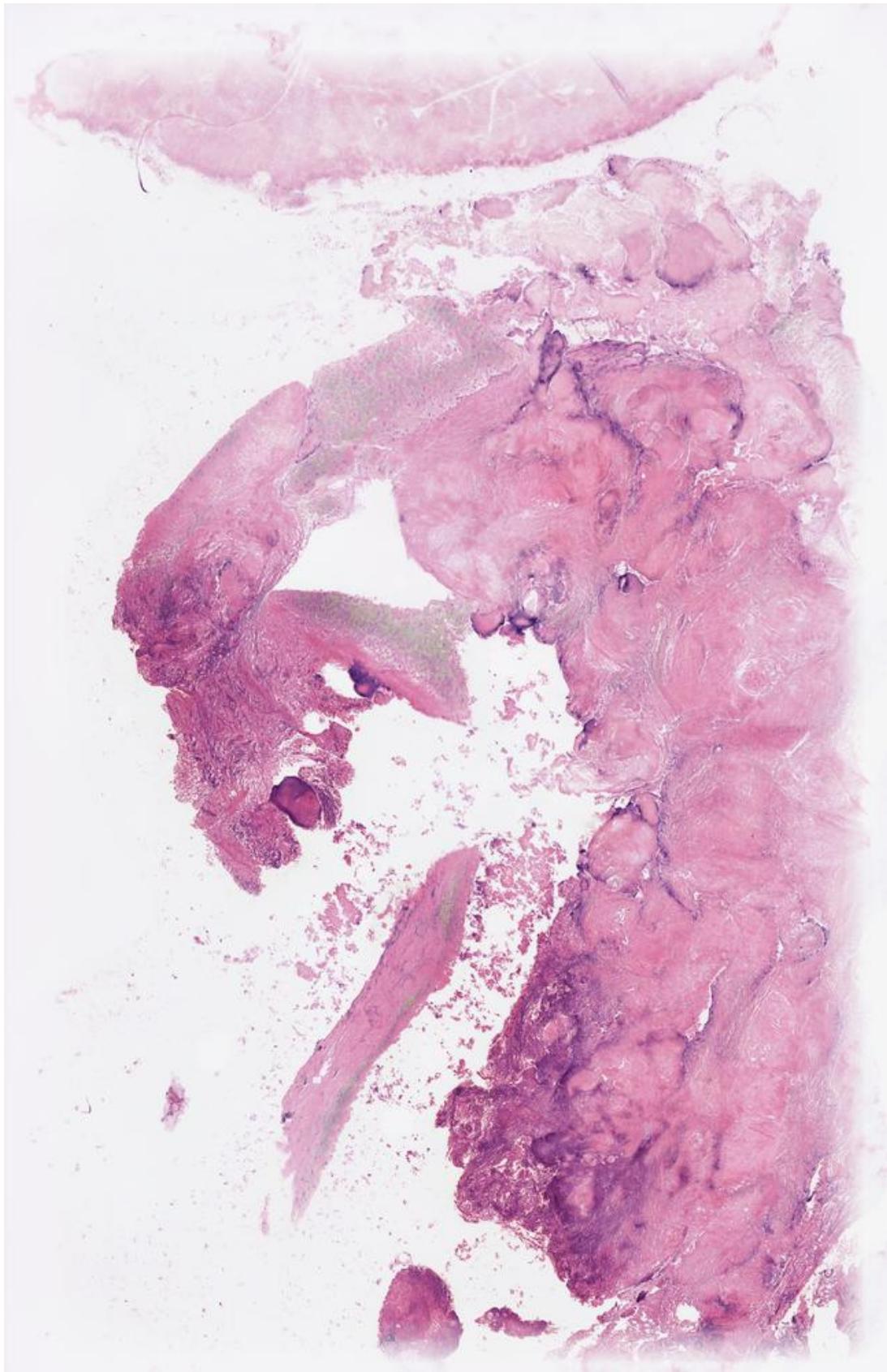
(a) Digitally stained slide using Gareau 2009 method.



(b) Tile-by-tile independent inference.



(c) Tile-by-tile non-overlapping output inference.



(d) Inference method based on Bel et al. 2019.

Figure .7: “scan3” whole slide sample transformed using different inference methods.

## D PyTorch implementations

### D.1 Datasets

At the heart of PyTorch data loading utility is the `torch.utils.data.DataLoader` class. It represents a Python iterable over a dataset. The most important argument of `DataLoader` constructor is `dataset`, which indicates a dataset object to load data from. PyTorch supports two different types of datasets:

- Map-style datasets,
- Iterable-style datasets.

In this project all datasets are map-style. A map-style dataset is one that implements the `__getitem__()` and `__len__()` protocols, and represents a map from (possibly non-integral) indices/keys to data samples.

```
import os
import pathlib
from abc import ABCMeta, abstractmethod
import warnings

import torch.utils.data
import pyvips
from PIL import Image
import openslide

from transforms import VirtualStainer, MultiplicativeNoise

def return_prefix_decorator(getitem):
    """Used to wrap __getitem__ method.

    If return_prefix attribute is True, it will make
    __getitem__ return the desired item along with its file
    prefix using _get_prefix method
    (this can be used to identify the samples).
    """
    def getitem_wrapper(self, item):
        sample = getitem(self, item)
        if self.return_prefix:
            prefix = self._get_prefix(item)
            return sample, prefix
        else:
            return sample
    return getitem_wrapper

```

```

    return getitem_wrapper

class CMDataset(torch.utils.data.Dataset, metaclass=ABCMeta):
    """CM scans dataset abstract class with possibility
    to (linearly) stain."""
    def __init__(self, transform=None,
                 only_R=False, only_F=False, stain=False,
                 transform_stained=None,
                 transform_F=None, transform_R=None,
                 return_prefix=False):
        """
        Args:
            only_R (bool): return only R mode.
            only_F (bool): return only F mode.
                If both only_R and only_F are True,
                the former takes precedence.
            stain (bool): Stain CM image using VirtualStainer.
            transform_stained: Apply transform to stained image.
            transform_F: Apply transform to F-mode image.
            transform_R: Apply transform to R-mode image.
            transform (callable): Apply transform to both modes
                (after respective transforms).
                R and F modes will be used as argument
                in that order.
        """
        if only_R and only_F:
            raise ValueError("Only one (if any) of 'only'"
                             "options must be true.")
        self.only_R, self.only_F = only_R, only_F
        self.transform_stained = transform_stained
        self.transform_F = transform_F
        self.transform_R = transform_R
        self.transform = transform
        self.scans = self._list_scans()
        self.stainer = VirtualStainer() if stain else None
        self.return_prefix = return_prefix

    def __len__(self):
        return len(self.scans)

    @abstractmethod
    def get_f(self, item):
        """Return item-th sample F mode."""
        pass

```

```

@abstractmethod
def get_r(self, item):
    """Return item-th sample R mode."""
    pass

@abstractmethod
def get_prefix(self, item):
    """Return item-th sample prefix."""
    pass

@abstractmethod
def _list_scans(self):
    pass

@return_prefix_decorator
def __getitem__(self, item):
    """Get CM image.

    If stain, return stained image
    (using transforms.VirtualStainer).
    Return both modes otherwise.
    If return_prefix, return (sample, prefix) tuple.
    """
    # load R mode if needed
    r_img = None if self.only_F else self.get_r(item)
    # load F mode if needed
    f_img = None if self.only_R else self.get_f(item)

    if self.transform_F:
        f_img = self.transform_F(f_img)
    if self.transform_R:
        r_img = self.transform_R(r_img)

    if self.transform:
        r_img, f_img = self.transform(r_img, f_img)

    if self.stainer:
        img = self.stainer(r_img, f_img)
        if self.transform_stained:
            return self.transform_stained(img)
    return img

    if self.only_R:
        return r_img
    elif self.only_F:
        return f_img

```

```

    return { 'F': f_img , 'R': r_img }

class ColonCMDataset(CMDataset):
    """CM colon scans dataset with possibility to stain.

    785: R
    488: F
    """

    def __init__(self, root_dir, **kwargs):
        self.root_dir = pathlib.Path(root_dir)
        super().__init__(**kwargs)

    def _list_scans(self):
        scans_R = list(self.root_dir.glob('*/785.png'))
        scans_F = list(self.root_dir.glob('*/488.png'))
        assert len(scans_F) == len(scans_R)
        # list of (R,F) pairs, needs to be list so it has len().
        scans = list(zip(sorted(scans_R), sorted(scans_F)))

        return scans

    def get_f(self, item):
        # second element of tuple is F mode
        f_file = self.scans[item][1]
        f_img = pyvips.Image.new_from_file(str(f_file))
        return f_img

    def get_r(self, item):
        # first element of tuple is R mode
        r_file = self.scans[item][0]
        r_img = pyvips.Image.new_from_file(str(r_file))
        return r_img

    def get_prefix(self, item):
        return self.scans[item][0][-8:]

class ColonHEDataset(torch.utils.data.Dataset):
    """HE colon scans dataset."""

    def __init__(self, root_dir, transform=None, alpha=False):
        """
        Args:
            root_dir (str): Directory with mosaic directories.
        """

```

```

        transform ( callable ): Apply transform to image .
        alpha ( bool ): return slide with alpha channel .
    """
    self . root_dir = pathlib . Path ( root_dir )
    self . transform = transform
    self . alpha = alpha
    self . scans = sorted ( list ( self . root_dir . glob ( '* . bif' )))

def __len__(self):
    return len ( self . scans )

def __getitem__(self, item):
    """Get max resolution H&E image.

    :return openslide . OpenSlide object
"""
    scan = openslide . OpenSlide ( str ( self . scans [ item ]))
    if self . alpha:
        return scan
    if self . transform:
        scan = self . transform ( scan )
    return scan

class SkinCMDataset ( CMDataset ):
    """CM skin scans dataset with possibility to stain.

DET#1: R
DET#2: F
"""

def __init__(self, root_dir, **kwargs):
    self . root_dir = root_dir
    super () . __init__ (**kwargs)

def list_scans (self):
    scans = []
    for root, dirs, files in os . walk ( self . root_dir ):
        if 'mosaic' in root . split ('/')[ -1 ]:
            scans . append (root)

    scans = sorted ( list ( set ( scans )))
    return scans

def get_f (self, item):
    f_file = self . scans [ item ] + '/DET#2/highres_raw . tif'

```

```

f_img = pyvips.Image.new_from_file(
    f_file, access='random')
return f_img

def get_r(self, item):
    r_file = self.scans[item] + '/DET#1/highres_raw.tif'
    r_img = pyvips.Image.new_from_file(
        r_file, access='random')
    return r_img

def get_prefix(self, item):
    return self.scans[item]

class CMPropsDataset(CMDataset):
    """CM scans crops dataset with possibility to stain.

    To extract crops from wholeslides use save_crops.py script.
    """

    def __init__(self, root_dir, **kwargs):
        self.root_dir = pathlib.Path(root_dir)
        super().__init__(**kwargs)

    def list_scans(self):
        crops_R = {str(r)[-6]
                   for r in self.root_dir.glob('*R.tif')}
        crops_F = {str(f)[-6]
                   for f in self.root_dir.glob('*F.tif')}
        if self.only_R:
            crops = crops_R
        elif self.only_F:
            crops = crops_F
        else:
            # if use both modes,
            # use only the crops with both modes available.
            if len(crops_F) != len(crops_R):
                warnings.warn(
                    'Number of crops for R and F modes '
                    'are different. Dataset will be only '
                    'composed by the images with '
                    'both modes available.')
            crops = crops_R & crops_F # set intersection.
        return sorted(crops)

    def get_f(self, item):

```

```

f_file = self.scans[item] + '_F.tif'
f_img = Image.open(f_file)
return f_img

def get_r(self, item):
    r_file = self.scans[item] + '_R.tif'
    r_img = Image.open(r_file)
    return r_img

def get_prefix(self, item):
    return os.path.basename(self.scans[item])

class NoisyCMCropsDataset(CMCropsDataset):
    """Dataset with 512x512 CM crops with speckle noise."""

    def __init__(self, root_dir, mode, noise_args,
                 transform=None, return_prefix=False):
        """
        :param root_dir: Directory with "mosaic" directories.
        :param mode: which mode to work with (F or R).
        :param noise_args: dict with random-variable and
                           parameter keys.
        """
        if mode == 'F':
            super().__init__(
                root_dir, only_F=True, transform_F=transform,
                return_prefix=return_prefix)
        elif mode == 'R':
            super().__init__(
                root_dir, only_R=True, transform_R=transform,
                return_prefix=return_prefix)
        else:
            raise ValueError(
                "'mode' parameter should be 'F' or 'R'")
        self.add_noise = MultiplicativeNoise(**noise_args)

    def __getitem__(self, item):
        """Return (noisy, clean) tuple.

        If return_prefix, return ((noisy, clean), prefix)
        Return (noisy, clean) otherwise.
        """
        clean = super().__getitem__(item)
        if self.return_prefix:

```

```

        clean, prefix = clean
        noisy = self.add_noise(clean)
        if self.return_prefix:
            return (noisy, clean), prefix
        return noisy, clean

class SimpleDataset(torch.utils.data.Dataset):
    EXTENSIONS = [ '.png', '.jpg', '.tif' ]

    def __init__(self, root_dir, transform=None,
                 return_prefix=False):
        self.root_dir = pathlib.Path(root_dir)
        self.files = [ file for file in self.root_dir.glob('*.*')
                      if file.suffix in self.EXTENSIONS]

        self.transform = transform
        self.return_prefix = return_prefix

    @return_prefix_decorator
    def __getitem__(self, item):
        img = Image.open(self.files[item])
        if self.transform:
            img = self.transform(img)
        return img

    def __len__(self):
        return len(self.files)

    def get_prefix(self, item):
        return os.path.basename(self.files[item])

class UnalignedCM2HEDataset(torch.utils.data.Dataset):
    def __init__(self, cm_root, he_root,
                 transform_cm=None, transform_he=None):
        self.cm_dataset = CMPropsDataset(
            cm_root, transform=transform_cm)
        self.he_dataset = SimpleDataset(
            he_root, transform=transform_he)

        self.cm_to_tensor = CMToTensor()
        self.he_to_tensor = torchvision.transforms.ToTensor()

    def __getitem__(self, item):
        cm = self.cm_dataset[item % len(self.cm_dataset)]
        cm = self.cm_to_tensor(cm[ 'R' ], cm[ 'F' ])

```

```

        he = self.he_dataset[
            random.randrange(len(self.he_dataset))]
        he = self.he_to_tensor(he)

    return {'CM': cm, 'HE': he}

def __len__(self):
    return max(len(self.cm_dataset), len(self.he_dataset))

```

## D.2 Transforms

Some useful object oriented transformations are defined in a similar way to the ones defined in `torchvision.transforms` package.

```

import random

import pyvips
import numpy as np
import torch
import torchvision.transforms.functional as TF

class VirtualStainer:
    """ Class for digitally staining CM using
        Daniel S. Gareau technique."""

    H = [0.30, 0.20, 1]
    one_minus_H = list(map(lambda x: 1 - x, H))
    E = [1, 0.55, 0.88]
    one_minus_E = list(map(lambda x: 1 - x, E))

    def __call__(self, sample_R, sample_F):
        """ Apply staining transformation and return pyvips image.

            sample_R: pyvips.Image or numpy array with range [0,1]
            sample_F: pyvips.Image or numpy array with range [0,1]
        """

        if (isinstance(sample_F, pyvips.Image)
            and isinstance(sample_R, pyvips.Image)):
            f_res = sample_F * self.one_minus_H
            r_res = sample_R * self.one_minus_E

            image = 1 - f_res - r_res
            res = image.copy()

```

```

        interpretation=pyvips.enums.Interpretation.RGB)
    return res

    # assumes sample_F and sample_R are numpy arrays
    f_res = sample_F * np.array(
        self.one_minus_H).reshape((3, 1, 1))
    r_res = sample_R * np.array(
        self.one_minus_E).reshape((3, 1, 1))

    return 1 - f_res - r_res

class MultiplicativeNoise:
    """Multiply by random variable."""

    def __init__(self, random_variable, **parameters):
        """
        random_variable: numpy.random distribution function.
        """
        self.random_variable = random_variable
        self.parameters = parameters

    def __call__(self, img):
        """return clean image and contaminated image."""
        noise = torch.tensor(
            self.random_variable(size=img.size(),
                                 **self.parameters),
            device=img.device, dtype=img.dtype,
            requires_grad=False)
        return img * noise, img

class CMMinMaxNormalizer:
    """Min-max normalize CM sample with different methods.

    Independent method "min-max" normalizes each mode
    separately.
    Global method "min-max" normalizes with global min and
    max values.
    Average method "min-max" normalizes with min and max
    values of the average image.
    """

    def __init__(self, method):

```

```

        assert method in ('independent', 'global', 'average')
        self.method = method

    def __call__(self, sample_R, sample_F):
        if self.method == 'independent':
            new_R = self._normalize(sample_R)
            new_F = self._normalize(sample_F)
        elif self.method == 'global':
            # compute min and max values.
            min_R, max_R = sample_R.min(), sample_R.max()
            min_F, max_F = sample_F.min(), sample_F.max()
            # get global min and max.
            min_ = min_R if min_R > min_F else min_F
            max_ = max_R if max_R > max_F else max_F
            # normalize with global min and max.
            new_R = self._normalize(sample_R, min_, max_)
            new_F = self._normalize(sample_F, min_, max_)
        else: # self.method == average
            avg = (sample_R + sample_F) / 2
            min_ = avg.min()
            max_ = avg.max()
            new_R = self._normalize(sample_R, min_, max_)
            new_F = self._normalize(sample_F, min_, max_)
        return new_R, new_F

    @staticmethod
    def _normalize(img, min_=None, max_=None):
        """Normalize pyvips.Image by min and max."""
        if min_ is None:
            min_ = img.min()
        if max_ is None:
            max_ = img.max()
        return (img - min_) / (max_ - min_)

class CMRandomCrop:

    def __init__(self, height, width):
        self.height = height
        self.width = width

    def __call__(self, R, F):
        r_height, r_width = R.size
        f_height, f_width = F.size
        assert r_height == f_height
        assert r_width == f_width

```

```

rand_i = random.randrange(r_height - self.height)
rand_j = random.randrange(r_width - self.width)

R = TF.crop(R, rand_i, rand_j,
             self.height, self.width)
F = TF.crop(F, rand_i, rand_j,
             self.height, self.width)
return R, F

class CMRandomHorizontalFlip:

    def __call__(self, R, F):
        if random.random() > 0.5:
            R = TF.hflip(R)
            F = TF.hflip(F)
        return R, F

class CMRandomVerticalFlip:

    def __call__(self, R, F):
        if random.random() > 0.5:
            R = TF.vflip(R)
            F = TF.vflip(F)
        return R, F

class CMTensor:

    def __call__(self, R, F):
        R = TF.to_tensor(R)
        F = TF.to_tensor(F)
        return torch.cat((R, F))

class CMCompose:
    """Composes several transforms together."""

    def __init__(self, transforms):
        self.transforms = transforms

    def __call__(self, R, F):
        for t in self.transforms:
            R, F = t(R, F)
        return R, F

```

### D.3 Models

PyTorch models are implemented by subclassing the `torch.nn.Module` abstract class which defines the abstract method `forward` that should implement the forward pass of the model. The backward pass is performed by a `torch.optim.Optimizer` subclasses which make use of the PyTorch's automatic differentiation system "autograd". `torch.nnModule` subclasses can in turn contain other `torch.nn.Module` objects, this is how layers are usually defined.

#### Despeckling models

```
import torch.nn as nn
import torch

SAFE_LOG_EPSILON = 1E-5 # small number to avoid log(0).
SAFE_DIV_EPSILON = 1E-8 # small number to avoid division by zero.

class ResModel(nn.Module):
    """Model with residual/skip connection."""

    def __init__(self, sub_module,
                 skip_connection=lambda x, y: x + y):
        """

        :param sub_module: model between input and
                           skip connection.
        :param skip_connection: operation to do in
                               skip connection.
        """
        super(ResModel, self).__init__()

        self.skip_connection = skip_connection

        self.noise_removal_block = sub_module

    def forward(self, x):
        clean = self.skip_connection(
            x, self.noise_removal_block(x))

        return clean
```

```

class BasicConv(nn.Module):
    """ Series of convolution layers keeping the
    same image shape."""

    def __init__(self, in_channels=1, n_layers=6,
                 n_filters=64, kernel_size=3):
        super(BasicConv, self).__init__()
        model = [nn.Sequential(nn.Conv2d(in_channels,
                                         n_filters,
                                         kernel_size,
                                         padding=kernel_size // 2),
                               nn.BatchNorm2d(n_filters),
                               nn.PReLU())
                ]
        for _ in range(n_layers - 1):
            model += [nn.Sequential(nn.Conv2d(n_filters,
                                             n_filters,
                                             kernel_size,
                                             kernel_size // 2),
                                   nn.BatchNorm2d(n_filters),
                                   nn.PReLU())
                      ]
        model += [nn.Conv2d(n_filters, in_channels, 1)]
        self.model = nn.Sequential(*model)

    def forward(self, x):
        return self.model(x)

class DilatedConv(nn.Module):
    """ Series of convolution layers with dilation
    2 keeping the same image shape."""

    def __init__(self, in_channels=1, n_layers=6,
                 n_filters=64, kernel_size=3):
        super(DilatedConv, self).__init__()
        model = [nn.Sequential(nn.Conv2d(in_channels,
                                         n_filters,
                                         kernel_size,
                                         kernel_size // 2 * 2,
                                         dilation=2),
                               nn.BatchNorm2d(n_filters),
                               nn.PReLU())
                ]
        for _ in range(n_layers - 1):
            model += [nn.Sequential(nn.Conv2d(

```

```

                n_filters ,
                n_filters ,
                kernel_size ,
                kernel_size // 2 * 2 ,
                dilation=2),
                nn.BatchNorm2d( n_filters ),
                nn.PReLU()))
            ]
model += [nn.Conv2d( n_filters , in_channels , 1)]
self.model = nn.Sequential(*model)

def forward(self , x):
    return self.model(x)

class LogAddDespeckle(nn.Module):
    """Apply log to pixel values , residual block with
    addition , apply exponential."""

    def __init__(self , n_layers=6, n_filters=64,
                 kernel_size=3, apply_sigmoid=True):
        super(LogAddDespeckle , self).__init__()
        conv = BasicConv(in_channels=1, n_layers=n_layers ,
                         n_filters=n_filters ,
                         kernel_size=kernel_size)
        self.remove_noise = ResModel(
            conv , skip_connection=lambda x, y: x + y)
        self.apply_sigmoid = apply_sigmoid

    def forward(self , x):
        log_x = (x + SAFE_LOG_EPSILON).log()
        clean_log_x = self.remove_noise(log_x)
        clean_x = clean_log_x.exp()
        if self.apply_sigmoid:
            return torch.sigmoid(clean_x)
        return clean_x

class DilatedLogAddDespeckle(nn.Module):
    """Apply log to pixel values , residual block with addition ,
    apply exponential."""

    def __init__(self , n_layers=6, n_filters=64,
                 kernel_size=3, apply_sigmoid=True):
        super(DilatedLogAddDespeckle , self).__init__()
        conv = DilatedConv(in_channels=1, n_layers=n_layers ,

```

```

        n_filters=n_filters ,
        kernel_size=kernel_size)
self.remove_noise = ResModel(
    conv, skip_connection=lambda x, y: x + y)
self.apply_sigmoid = apply_sigmoid

def forward(self, x):
    log_x = (x + SAFELOG_EPSILON).log()
    clean_log_x = self.remove_noise(log_x)
    clean_x = clean_log_x.exp()
    if self.apply_sigmoid:
        return torch.sigmoid(clean_x)
    return clean_x

class LogSubtractDespeckle(nn.Module):
    """Apply log to pixel values, residual block with
    subtraction, apply exponential."""

    def __init__(self, n_layers=6, n_filters=64,
                 kernel_size=3, apply_sigmoid=True):
        super(LogSubtractDespeckle, self).__init__()
        conv = BasicConv(in_channels=1, n_layers=n_layers,
                         n_filters=n_filters,
                         kernel_size=kernel_size)
        self.remove_noise = ResModel(
            conv, skip_connection=lambda x, y: x - y)
        self.apply_sigmoid = apply_sigmoid

    def forward(self, x):
        log_x = (x + SAFELOG_EPSILON).log()
        clean_log_x = self.remove_noise(log_x)
        clean_x = clean_log_x.exp()
        if self.apply_sigmoid:
            return torch.sigmoid(clean_x)
        return clean_x

class MultiplyDespeckle(nn.Module):
    """Residual block with multiplication."""

    def __init__(self, n_layers=6, n_filters=64,
                 kernel_size=3, apply_sigmoid=True):
        super(MultiplyDespeckle, self).__init__()
        conv = BasicConv(in_channels=1, n_layers=n_layers,
                         n_filters=n_filters,

```

```

        kernel_size=kernel_size)
    self.remove_noise = ResModel(
        conv, skip_connection=lambda x, y: x * y)
    self.apply_sigmoid = apply_sigmoid

def forward(self, x):
    clean_x = self.remove_noise(x)
    if self.apply_sigmoid:
        return torch.sigmoid(clean_x)
    return clean_x

class DivideDespeckle(nn.Module):
    """Residual block with division."""

    def __init__(self, n_layers=6, n_filters=64,
                 kernel_size=3, apply_sigmoid=True):
        super(DivideDespeckle, self).__init__()
        conv = BasicConv(in_channels=1, n_layers=n_layers,
                         n_filters=n_filters,
                         kernel_size=kernel_size)
        self.remove_noise = ResModel(
            conv,
            skip_connection=(lambda x, y:
                             x / (y + SAFE_DIV_EPSILON)))
    self.apply_sigmoid = apply_sigmoid

    def forward(self, x):
        clean_x = self.remove_noise(x)
        if self.apply_sigmoid:
            return torch.sigmoid(clean_x)
        return clean_x

```

## Stain models

CycleGAN models are based on the implemetation in  
<https://github.com/eriklindernoren/PyTorch-GAN>

```
import torch.nn as nn
import torch
```

```
# encoder block
class DownSamplingBlock(nn.Module):
```

```

    """ Returns downsampling module of each generator block.

    conv + instance norm + relu
    """
    def __init__(self, in_features, out_features, normalize=True):
        super(DownsamplingBlock, self).__init__()
        layers = [nn.Conv2d(in_features, out_features, 3,
                           stride=2, padding=1)
                  ]
        if normalize:
            layers.append(nn.InstanceNorm2d(out_features))
        layers.append(nn.LeakyReLU(0.2, inplace=True))
        self.model = nn.Sequential(*layers)

    def forward(self, x):
        return self.model(x)

# decoder block
class UpsamplingBlock(nn.Module):
    """ Returns UNet upsampling layers of each generator block.

    transposed conv + instance norm + relu
    """
    def __init__(self, in_features, out_features,
                 normalize=True):
        super(UpsamplingBlock, self).__init__()
        # multiply in_features by two because of
        # concatenated channels.
        layers = [nn.ConvTranspose2d(
                    in_features * 2,
                    out_features, 3,
                    stride=2, padding=1,
                    output_padding=1)
                  ]
        if normalize:
            layers.append(nn.InstanceNorm2d(out_features))
        layers.append(nn.LeakyReLU(0.2, inplace=True))
        self.model = nn.Sequential(*layers)

    def forward(self, x1, x2):
        x = torch.cat((x1, x2), dim=1)
        return self.model(x)

# ResNet block

```

```

class ResidualBlock(nn.Module):
    def __init__(self, in_features):
        super(ResidualBlock, self).__init__()

        conv_block = [nn.ReflectionPad2d(1),
                     nn.Conv2d(in_features, in_features, 3),
                     nn.InstanceNorm2d(in_features),
                     nn.ReLU(inplace=True),
                     nn.ReflectionPad2d(1),
                     nn.Conv2d(in_features, in_features, 3),
                     nn.InstanceNorm2d(in_features)]

        self.conv_block = nn.Sequential(*conv_block)

    def forward(self, x):
        return x + self.conv_block(x)

#####
# Generators
#####

class AffineGenerator(nn.Module):
    """Affine transform generator implemented as a
    single layer 1x1 conv layer."""

    def __init__(self, input_nc, output_nc):
        super().__init__()
        self.model = nn.Conv2d(input_nc, output_nc, 1)

    def forward(self, x):
        x = self.model(x)
        return x

class GeneratorResNet(nn.Module):
    def __init__(self, in_channels=3, out_channels=3,
                 res_blocks=9):
        super(GeneratorResNet, self).__init__()

        # Initial convolution block
        model = [nn.ReflectionPad2d(3),
                 nn.Conv2d(in_channels, 64, 7),
                 nn.InstanceNorm2d(64),
                 nn.ReLU(inplace=True)]

```

```

# Downsampling
in_features = 64
out_features = in_features * 2
for _ in range(2):
    model += [nn.Conv2d(in_features, out_features, 3,
                        stride=2, padding=1),
              nn.InstanceNorm2d(out_features),
              nn.ReLU(inplace=True)]
    in_features = out_features
    out_features = in_features * 2

# Residual blocks
for _ in range(res_blocks):
    model += [ResidualBlock(in_features)]

# Upsampling
out_features = in_features // 2
for _ in range(2):
    model += [nn.ConvTranspose2d(in_features,
                               out_features,
                               3, stride=2,
                               padding=1,
                               output_padding=1),
              nn.InstanceNorm2d(out_features),
              nn.ReLU(inplace=True)]
    in_features = out_features
    out_features = in_features // 2

# Output layer
model += [nn.ReflectionPad2d(3),
          nn.Conv2d(64, out_channels, 7),
          nn.Tanh()]

self.model = nn.Sequential(*model)

def forward(self, x):
    return self.model(x)

class GeneratorUNet(nn.Module):
    def __init__(self, in_channels=3, out_channels=3,
                 num_down=2):
        super(GeneratorUNet, self).__init__()
        self.num_down = num_down
        self.down_activations = {}

```

```

def get_activation(name):
    def hook(model, input, output):
        self.down_activations[name] = output
    return hook

# Initial convolution block
self.first = nn.Sequential(nn.ReflectionPad2d(3),
                           nn.Conv2d(in_channels, 64, 7),
                           nn.InstanceNorm2d(64),
                           nn.ReLU(inplace=True))

# Downsampling
down_layers = []
in_features = 64
out_features = in_features * 2
for i in range(self.num_down):
    down_layers.append(
        DownsamplingBlock(
            in_features,
            out_features)
        .register_forward_hook(get_activation(i)))
    in_features = out_features
    out_features = in_features * 2
self.down_layers = nn.Sequential(*down_layers)

# Middle
self.middle = nn.Sequential(
    nn.Conv2d(in_features, in_features,
              3),
    nn.InstanceNorm2d(in_features),
    nn.LeakyReLU(0.2, inplace=True)
)

# Upsampling
up_layers = []
out_features = in_features // 2
for _ in range(self.num_down):
    up_layers.append(UpsamplingBlock(in_features,
                                     out_features))
    in_features = out_features
    out_features = in_features // 2
self.up_layers = nn.Sequential(*up_layers)

# Output layer
self.last = nn.Sequential(nn.ReflectionPad2d(3),
                         nn.Conv2d(64, out_channels, 7),

```

```

        nn.Tanh()))

def forward(self, x):
    out_first = self.first(x)
    out_encoder = self.down_layers(out_first)
    out_middle = self.middle(out_encoder)
    for i, decoder_layer in enumerate(self.up_layers):
        if i == 0:
            out = decoder_layer(
                self.down_activations[self.num_down-1-i],
                out_middle)
        else:
            out = decoder_layer(
                self.down_activations[self.num_down-1-i],
                out)
    return self.last(out)

#####
#      Discriminator
#####

class Discriminator(nn.Module):
    def __init__(self, in_channels=3, discriminator_blocks=4):
        super(Discriminator, self).__init__()

        def discriminator_block(in_filters, out_filters,
                               normalize=True):
            """ Returns downsampling layers of each
            discriminator block."""
            layers = [nn.Conv2d(in_filters,
                               out_filters,
                               4,
                               stride=2,
                               padding=1)]
            if normalize:
                layers.append(nn.InstanceNorm2d(out_filters))
            layers.append(nn.LeakyReLU(0.2, inplace=True))
            return layers

    n_filters = 64
    blocks = discriminator_block(in_channels, n_filters,
                                 normalize=False)
    for _ in range(discriminator_blocks - 1):
        blocks += discriminator_block(n_filters,

```

```
n_filters *= 2)

self.model = nn.Sequential(
    *blocks,
    nn.ZeroPad2d((1, 0, 1, 0)),
    nn.Conv2d(n_filters, 1, 4, padding=1)
)

def forward(self, img):
    return self.model(img)
```