

Classification of Breast cancer in Screening Mammography

*Internship report submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements
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by

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Certificate

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Abstract

In today's world Breast cancer is one of the main problems faced by women. Identifying cancer is the first stage and is always challenging. Early stages of breast cancer development can be detected by radiologists with the help of CAD Systems. Based on mammographic screening technique, a diagnostic system for accurate classification of breast abnormalities is presented. To improve the proposed model- adopted data augmentation framework called SCDA (Scaling and Contrast limited adaptive histogram equalization Data Augmentation). In its procedure, first conduct the scaling operation to the original training set, followed by applying contrast limited adaptive histogram equalisation to the scaled training set and cropping the image. By concatenating the training set after SCDA with the original training set and formed a new training set. It aims at a binary classification on mammographic images acquired from a combined datasets of INbreast and Mini-Mias, classifies masses, microcalcification as "abnormal", while normal regions are classified as "normal". The overall accuracy of classification model using BatchNormalization is 93.5%.

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Contents

Certificate	i
Abstract	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
Contents	iv
List of Figures	vi
List of Tables	vii
Abbreviations	viii
1 Introduction	1
1.1 Background	2
1.2 Motivation	3
1.3 Objectives of the work	3
2 Literature Survey	4
2.1 Multi-scale feature extraction with KNN variant classifiers	4
2.1.1 Introduction	4
2.1.2 Overview:	5
2.1.3 Limitations:	5
2.2 Noise reduction with SVM classifiers	5
2.2.1 Introduction	5
2.2.2 Overview:	6
2.2.3 Limitations:	6
2.3 Multiscale CNN for two stage classification	6
2.3.1 Introduction	6
2.3.2 Overview:	6
2.3.3 Limitations:	7
2.4 Multi View Fusion Model	7
2.4.1 Introduction	7

2.4.2	Overview:	8
2.4.3	Limitations:	8
2.5	Scaling,CLAHE and Resnet50 classifier	8
2.5.1	Introduction	8
2.5.2	Overview:	8
3	Methodology	9
3.1	SCDA - Data Augmentation Technique	9
3.1.1	CLAHE	9
3.2	Feature Extraction and Classification	11
3.2.1	CNN:	11
3.2.1.1	Architecture:	11
3.2.2	Vgg-16	12
3.2.2.1	Architecture:	12
3.2.3	ResNet50	13
3.2.3.1	Architecture:	13
3.2.4	Inception	14
3.2.4.1	Architecture	15
4	Work Done	16
4.1	Data Description	16
4.1.1	DataSets:	16
4.1.2	Data Preparation	17
4.1.3	Pre-processing and Augmentation	17
4.2	Measure of quality changes	18
4.2.1	Mean Square error	18
4.2.2	Peak signal to Noise Ratio	18
4.2.3	Structural Similarity Index Measure	19
4.2.4	Multi-scale Structural similarity Index Measure	19
4.3	Proposed Model	20
5	Results and Discussions	22
5.1	Image Quality Analysis	22
5.2	Model Performance Metrics	23
5.2.1	Performance of models with BatchNormalization	23
5.2.2	Comparision Of models	24
5.3	Comparison with the existing state of the art methods	25
6	Conclusions and Extensions	26
	Bibliography	27

List of Figures

3.1	Bilinear Interpolation	10
3.2	CNN Architecture	11
3.3	VGG-16 Architecture	12
3.4	Resnet50 Architecture	14
3.5	Inception Architecture	15
4.1	Data cleaning	17
4.2	Code Snippet for Quality Metrics	20
4.3	Resnet50 Batch-Normalization	20
5.1	Sample Image before and after CLAHE	22
5.2	Metrics Comparison of Various models	24

List of Tables

4.1	Data Statistics	17
4.2	After Augmentation - Data Statistics	18
5.1	Results WithOut Batch Normalization	23
5.2	Results With Batch Normalization	23
5.3	State of art	25

Abbreviations

CLAHE	C ontrast L imit A daptive H istogram E qualization
SCDA	S caling and CLAHE D ata A ugmentation
CNN	C onvolution N eural N etwork
FNN	F uzzy N earest N eighbours
FRNN	F uzzy R ough N earest N eighbours
VQNN	V aguely Q uantified N earest N eighbours
KNN	K N earest N eighbours
SVM	S upport V ector M achine
BN	B atch N ormalization
MRI	M agnetic R esonance I maging
RMSE	R oot M ean S quare E rror
PSNR	P eak S ignal to N oise R atio
SSIM	S tructural S imilarity I ndex M easure
MS-SSIM	M ulti S cale S tructural S imilarity I ndex M easure

Chapter 1

Introduction

Breast cancer is the second leading cause of death for women all over the world. It occurs when some breast cells begin to grow abnormally. These cells divide more rapidly than healthy cells do and continue to accumulate, forming a lump or mass. Cells may spread (metastasize) through breast to lymph nodes or to other parts of your body.

Early detection and diagnosis considerably improves the prognosis, it can increase the success of treatment, save lives, and reduce cost. Mammography is one of the most commonly used screening techniques for detection of breast cancer, reported to be responsible for a 20-40% reduction in fatalities. It can provide radiologists with an image upon which they can make diagnostic decisions accordingly. Due to the cons of existing diagnostic procedure automating early detection of Breast cancer with better accuracy is crucial. Efficient and accurate computerised auxiliary diagnostic systems are becoming increasingly important both for radiologists and clinical practice.

For early detection of breast cancer one should take frequent screening mammograms. Screening mammograms are routinely administered to detect breast cancer in women who have no apparent symptoms, diagnostic mammograms are used after suspicious results on a screening mammogram or after some signs of breast cancer alert the physician to check the tissue.

Traditional computer-aided diagnosis (CAD) systems for mammography have typically relied on hand-engineered features. With the recent success of deep learning in other fields, there have been several promising attempts to apply these techniques to mammography.

More than 90% of women diagnosed with breast cancer at the earliest stage survive their disease for at least 5 years compared to around 15% for women diagnosed with the most advanced stage of the disease, which is now possible with AI.

1.1 Background

There are several diagnostic techniques such as MRI screening, Mammography, Ultrasound screening before going to Biopsy. Breast ultrasound is generally not used as a screening tool for breast cancer detection because it does not always detect some early signs of cancer such as micro-calcifications, which are tiny calcium deposits.

Breast MRI is not recommended as a screening tool for women who are at average risk of developing breast cancer - a major disadvantage is that breast MRI screening results in more false positives. MRI is recommended only in combination with other tests, such as mammogram or ultrasound. MRI is also more expensive than mammography for a routine screening. Considering the above factors Mammography is a better screening technique and majorly used.

Mammography is a medical imaging that uses a low-dose x-ray system to see inside the breasts aids in the early detection and diagnosis of breast diseases in women. There is a period prior to the tumour becoming symptomatic when it is detectable by a mammogram. This period is known as the detectable preclinical phase(1- 7 years). Regular screening to detect breast cancer early, when most breast cancers have not begun to spread and can be cured, is recommended by most organizations. If breast cancers are detected when they are very small, the large majority of patients can be cured of their disease.

Cancer is one of the widespread deadly diseases that can now be detected through machine learning and AI-enabled automated machines. Over the last few decades, significant work has been done regarding breast cancer diagnosis. Initially CADx systems used image processing techniques and traditional classification methods such as

kNN, SVM, NaiveBayes, random forest, later on focus was shifted towards CNNs and transfer-learning for efficient results.

1.2 Motivation

If radiologist find abnormality in the mammogram, a follow-up or biopsy may have to be performed. Most of the biopsies confirm that no cancer was present. It is estimated that a woman who has yearly mammograms between ages 40 and 49 has about a 30% chance of having a false-positive mammogram at some point in that decade and about a 7% to 8% chance of having a breast biopsy within the 10-year period.

False-positive mammograms, 5% to 15% of screening mammograms require further testing such as additional mammograms or ultrasound.

The time-consuming interpretation and complexity of mammograms can result in a high false-positive rate and more importantly, misdiagnosis of manual screening. So mammography advancement is significant with the introduction of automation in the detection of breast cancer.

1.3 Objectives of the work

The main objective is to improve the quality of mammographic Images i.e. Contrast enhancement. In medical imaging one of the major challenges for automated system is low contrast. Automation for abnormality classification of mammograms into Normal or Abnormal cases.

Chapter 2

Literature Survey

Automation for mammography diagnosis began in the 1990s. Mammogram-based CAD systems were designed with the aim of increasing the effectiveness and efficiency of screening procedures. With the use of computer, diagnostic accuracy is improved by reducing the numbers of false-positive diagnoses of varying lesions in an objective manner. Complete CAD system consists various steps i.e. pre-processing, classification of abnormal cases, detecting the abnormality, classification of abnormality type. For a CAD system to perform more accurate initial steps are crucial as they show impact on the further process.

Following are the few methods explored earlier automation of screening procedure.

2.1 Multi-scale feature extraction with KNN variant classifiers

2.1.1 Introduction

Topological Modeling and Classification of Mammographic Microcalcification Clusters by Zhili Chen, Harry Strange, IEEE Transactions on Biomedicals Engineering, 2015

Classification is done on already formed and detected clusters of microcalcifications.

2.1.2 Overview:

The proposed classification methodology consists of four main phases:

Estimating the connectivity between microcalcifications within a cluster using morphological dilation at multiple scales.

Generating a microcalcification graph at each scale based on the spatial connectivity relationship between microcalcifications.

Extracting multiscale topological features from these microcalcification graphs.

Using the extracted features to build classifier models of malignant and benign microcalcification clusters (kNN/FNN/FRNN/VQNN).

Fuzzy nearest neighbors (FNN) extends the classical kNN by fuzzifying the memberships for test and training objects. Fuzzy rough nearest neighbors (FRNN) models two different types of uncertainty: fuzziness and indiscernibility. Vaguely quantified nearest neighbors (VQNN) incorporates the uncertainty modeling of FRNN and also employs vague quantifiers which limit the influence that noisy data might have on the classification outcomes.

2.1.3 Limitations:

For the KNN selection of k effects the performance and should consider the k value efficiently. As all the classifiers used are variants of KNN, initial number of clusters vary the performance.

2.2 Noise reduction with SVM classifiers

2.2.1 Introduction

Computer-aided diagnosis of abnormal breasts in mammogram images by weighted-type fractional Fourier transform, by Ge Liu, *Advances in Mechanical Engineering*, 2016. Preprocessing by Image enhancement and background removal. Weighted Fractional Fourier Transformation, PCA and SVM for classification.

2.2.2 Overview:

Proposed method for preprocessing involves 5 steps. Additive noise reduction with median filter, Homomorphic filtering (HF) was used to remove multiplicative noises, Image Enhancement, background removal, Pectoral muscle removal, ROI. The image enhancement in spatial domain currently, there are three types of transform functions as linear, logarithmic, and power law. Logarithmic enhancement was used to expand the narrow range of low-level grayscale regions and shrinks the wide range of high-level grayscale regions. The PCA is able to reduce the data dimensionality. SVM is the most popular classifier for small-size data. It is based on the principle of minimizing structural risk.

2.2.3 Limitations:

Here image enhancement is done in frequency domain DFT and variants of DFT results in frequency leakage; therefore, not suitable for image and video compression. Need to be cautious during dimensionality reduction.

2.3 Multiscale CNN for two stage classification

2.3.1 Introduction

A Multi-scale CNN and Curriculum Learning Strategy for Mammogram Classification by William Lotter, Deep Learning in Medical Image Analysis and Multimodal Learning for Clinical Decision Springer, 2017. Train separate CNN based patch classifiers, to detect the abnormality using Resnet. Partition the image with minimal overlap. Features extracted and concatenated before Fully connected layer for classification.

2.3.2 Overview:

First stage consists of training a classifier to estimate the probability of the presence of a lesion in a given image patch. Random sample patches from a set of training images,

relying on (noisy) segmentation maps to create labels for each patch. Given the different typical scales of calcifications and masses, train a separate classifier for each. We use ResNet CNNs for the classifiers (abnormal findings).

The second stage consists of image-level training. Given the high level of scrutiny that is needed to detect lesions, partition the image into a set of patches such that each patch is contained entirely within the image, and the image is completely tiled, but there is as minimal overlap and number of patches as possible. Features are extracted for each patch using the last layer before classification of the patch model. Final classification involves aggregation across patches and the two scales, for which we tried various pooling methods and number of fully-connected layers.

2.3.3 Limitations:

Completely dependent on the type of tumour masses or calcification. For early detection it is important that screening mammography goes perfectly well. If the initial classification goes wrong the probability varies a severely.

2.4 Multi View Fusion Model

2.4.1 Introduction

Multi-View Feature Fusion based Four Views Model for Mammogram Classification using Convolutional Neural Network, IEEE access, 2019 . Screening mammogram provides four x-ray images of both breasts or two different views of each breast. These two views are CC (the view from above) and MLO is an oblique or angled view (taken under 45 degree). Feature extraction by VGG net followed by feature fusion . Classification by fully connected layers is proceeded. 3 stages classification.

2.4.2 Overview:

Proposed four view feature fusion base CAD system It is a deep convolutional neural network model. Initial feature extraction by VGG net (16,32,64,128) followed by fusion of extracted features of 4 views. All the features from 4 VGG nets are concatenated and given to fully connected neural network.

Three different convolutional neural networks are trained correspondingly. This is done in 3 stages normal versus abnormal, mass versus calcification and malignant vs benign

2.4.3 Limitations:

Feature fusion for classification improves the results but makes it complex to find the ROI i.e. area where the tumour is present. Left and right breast are also combined it tells if the patient is normal or abnormal but not provides a better way to segment for further processing of CAD system.

2.5 Scaling, CLAHE and Resnet50 classifier

2.5.1 Introduction

ResNet-SCDA-50 for breast abnormality classification by iang Yu, Cheng Kang, IEEE Transactions on Computational Biology and Bioinformatics, 2020. Classification of screening mammographic images. Normal vs abnormal

2.5.2 Overview:

Proposed a new data augmentation framework called SCDA (Scaling and Contrast limited adaptive histogram equalization Data Augmentation). Classification by Transfer learning and finetuning on pretrained CNN.

This methodology is used for further detailed Analysis

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.1 SCDA - Data Augmentation Technique

Scaling and Contrast limit adaptive histogram equalization Data Augmentation.

This is a sequenced framework that consists of processing, augmentation and concatenation.

Image scaling is first applied while CLAHE is applied to the scaled image subsequently Resizing the images in the training set to Scaling factor times of original size, followed by cropping operation that crops out the patches having the same size as original images from the centre of the scaled images

$$X^t = H[X, T(X)]$$

where $T(X) = \text{CLAHE}(S(X))$

Here $S(X)$ is scaling transform.

3.1.1 CLAHE

Contrast Limit Adaptive Histogram Equalization In medical images, one of the challenges for automated systems is the low contrast, which leads to failures of algorithms in processing.

Regular histogram equalization uses the global contrast of the image results regions that

are significantly lighter or darker than most of the images, the contrast in those regions will not be sufficiently enhanced.

It has two phases- Histogram equalization with contrast limit applied and Bi-linear interpolation algorithm. Procedure:

Adaptive histogram equalization transforms each pixel by using a transformation function derived from a local region.

It divides the image into small tiles and within each tile, the histogram is equalized.

If the image contains noise, it gets amplified during this process. Therefore, contrast limiting is applied to limit the contrast below a specific limit.

Here CL is Clip limit, AI^n is average increase.

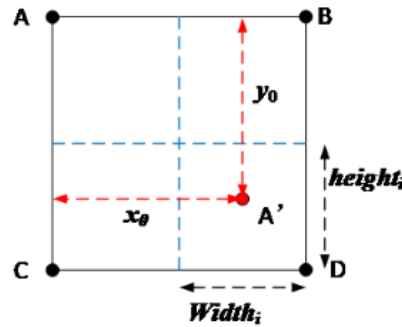
Histogram Equalization with Contrast limit:

$$P_x^n(i) = \begin{cases} CL, & \text{if } P_x^n(i) \geq CL - AI^n \\ P_x^n(i) + AI^n, & \text{if } P_x^n(i) < CL - AI^n \end{cases}$$

Bilinear Interpolation:

$$P'_A = x_0 * y_0 * P_A + (1 - x_0) * y_0 * P_B + x_0 * (1 - y_0) * P_C + (1 - x_0) * (1 - y_0) * P_D$$

FIGURE 3.1: Bilinear Interpolation



3.2 Feature Extraction and Classification

The convolutional neural network (CNN) is a class of deep learning neural networks. They're most commonly used to analyze visual imagery and are frequently working behind the scenes in image classification. For feature extraction convolutional neural network is used with classification fully connected layers.

3.2.1 CNN:

The CNN built has two convolutional blocks followed by maxpooling and dropouts. Each block has two convolutional layers. After extracting features from CNN layers give it to the dense layers (1024,512,256,2) for classification. Built This is binary classification, converted to one-hot representation we 2 output neurons.

3.2.1.1 Architecture:

FIGURE 3.2: CNN Architecture

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
conv2d_4 (Conv2D)	(None, 224, 224, 32)	2432
conv2d_5 (Conv2D)	(None, 220, 220, 32)	25632
max_pooling2d_2 (MaxPooling2)	(None, 110, 110, 32)	0
dropout_3 (Dropout)	(None, 110, 110, 32)	0
conv2d_6 (Conv2D)	(None, 110, 110, 64)	18496
conv2d_7 (Conv2D)	(None, 108, 108, 64)	36928
max_pooling2d_3 (MaxPooling2)	(None, 54, 54, 64)	0
dropout_4 (Dropout)	(None, 54, 54, 64)	0
flatten_1 (Flatten)	(None, 186624)	0
dense_2 (Dense)	(None, 1024)	191104000
dense_3 (Dense)	(None, 512)	524800
dense_4 (Dense)	(None, 256)	131328
dense_5 (Dense)	(None, 2)	514
Total params: 191,844,130		
Trainable params: 191,844,130		
Non-trainable params: 0		

3.2.2 Vgg-16

It is a pre-trained CNN model. VGG addresses another very important aspect of CNNs: depth. The number of layers was increased from 8 in AlexNet [32] to 16 or 19, depending on the model, in VGGNet with a small convolutional filter size. VGG takes in a 224x224 pixel RGB image. In this network, you can identify a building block as two Conv. layers followed by a pooling layer. This block is repeated multiple times. Another thing, in VGGNet all the filter sizes used are 3 X 3.

3.2.2.1 Architecture:

FIGURE 3.3: VGG-16 Architecture

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
input_1 (InputLayer)	[(None, 224, 224, 3)]	0
block1_conv1 (Conv2D)	(None, 224, 224, 64)	1792
block1_conv2 (Conv2D)	(None, 224, 224, 64)	36928
block1_pool (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 112, 112, 64)	0
block2_conv1 (Conv2D)	(None, 112, 112, 128)	73856
block2_conv2 (Conv2D)	(None, 112, 112, 128)	147584
block2_pool (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 56, 56, 128)	0
block3_conv1 (Conv2D)	(None, 56, 56, 256)	295168
block3_conv2 (Conv2D)	(None, 56, 56, 256)	590880
block3_conv3 (Conv2D)	(None, 56, 56, 256)	590880
block3_pool (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 28, 28, 256)	0
block4_conv1 (Conv2D)	(None, 28, 28, 512)	1180160
block4_conv2 (Conv2D)	(None, 28, 28, 512)	2359808
block4_conv3 (Conv2D)	(None, 28, 28, 512)	2359808
block4_pool (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 14, 14, 512)	0
block5_conv1 (Conv2D)	(None, 14, 14, 512)	2359808
block5_conv2 (Conv2D)	(None, 14, 14, 512)	2359808
block5_conv3 (Conv2D)	(None, 14, 14, 512)	2359808
block5_pool (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 7, 7, 512)	0
Total params: 14,714,688		
Trainable params: 14,714,688		
Non-trainable params: 0		

Convolutional Blocks: To incorporate three non-linear rectification layers instead of a single one, which makes the decision function more discriminative.

Decrease the number of parameters: assuming that both the input and the output of a three-layer 3×3 convolution stack has C channels, the stack is parametrized by

$$3(3^2 C^2) = 27C^2$$

Weights; at the same time, a single 7×7 Conv. layer would require

$$7^2 C^2 = 49C^2$$

parameters, i.e. 81% more. Pooling decreases the dimensions of your data exponentially. And so even if you have an image of size 256×256 , you only get maybe 5 pools before you lose too much information (and therefore 5 convolutions). As a result, we would typically like to have multiple Conv layers before a pool, so that we can build up better representations of the data without quickly losing all of your spatial information.

3.2.3 ResNet50

The ultra-deep architecture used a stack of residual blocks and each block had two 3×3 convolutional layers. The concept of residual mapping resolved the optimization problem in deeper models.

The skip connections or residual blocks in ResNet help the architecture to avoid gradient diminishing problems.

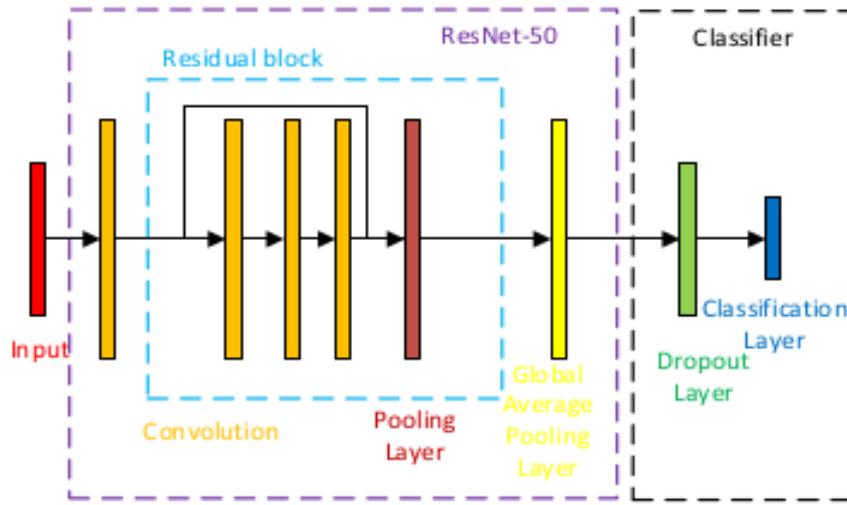
During the back propagation stage, the error is calculated and gradient values are determined. The gradients are sent back to hidden layers and the weights are updated accordingly. The process of gradient determination and sending it back to the next hidden layer is continued until the input layer is reached. The gradient becomes smaller and smaller as it reaches the bottom of the network. Therefore, the weights of the initial layers will either update very slowly or remains the same.

3.2.3.1 Architecture:

Initially it has conv(7×7) with batch normalization and max pooling layers. This is further followed by 4 sets of convolution and residual blocks respectively. First set has 2 identity blocks, second set has 3 identity blocks, third set has 5 identity blocks, and fourth set has 2 identity blocks. Finally resnet 50 have avg pooling with softmax activation function.

Each convolution block has three convolution layers with batch normalization and

FIGURE 3.4: Resnet50 Architecture



activation between base and add. There is a direct convolutional layer between base and add as a skip connection.

Each identity block has three convolution layers with batch normalization and activation between base and add. There is a direct weight between base and add as a skip connection.

3.2.4 Inception

This architecture uses techniques such as 1×1 convolutions in the middle of the architecture and global average pooling. An inception module is the basic building block of the network.

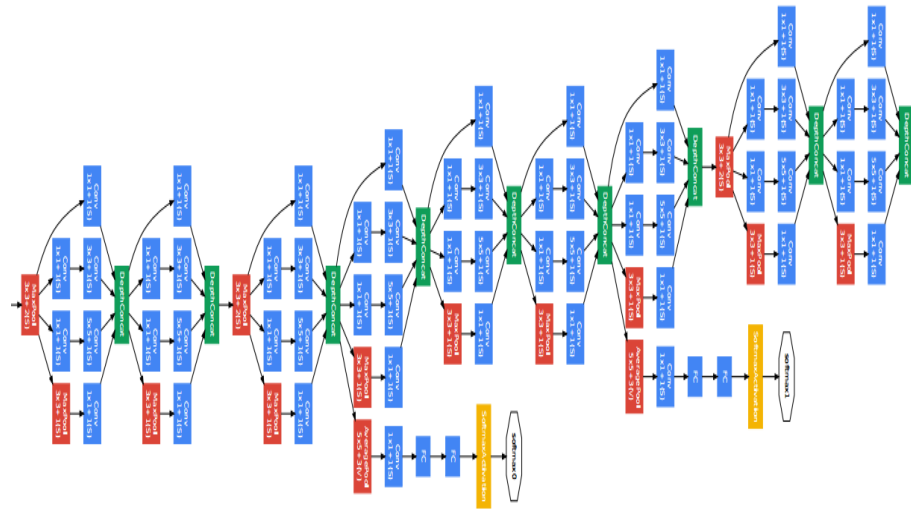
In short, the inception module does multiple convolutions, with different filter sizes, and as well as pooling in one layer. A problem with deep convolutional neural networks is that the number of feature maps often increases with the depth of the network. This problem can result in a dramatic increase in the number of parameters and computation required when larger filter sizes are used, such as 5×5 and 7×7 .

To address this problem, a 1×1 convolutional layer can be used that offers a channel-wise pooling, often called feature map pooling or a projection layer. This simple technique can be used for dimensionality reduction, decreasing the number of feature maps whilst retaining their salient features.

global average pooling is used at the end of the network. This layer takes a feature map of 7×7 and averages it to 1×1 .

3.2.4.1 Architecture

FIGURE 3.5: Inception Architecture



Chapter 4

Work Done

4.1 Data Description

4.1.1 DataSets:

Data collection is onerous as to maintain patient privacy. The main objective is classification of Normal and abnormal mammograms, so we need Normal and Abnormal mammographic images. Need to rely on publicly available datasets. Most of the datasets publicly available have only abnormal cases i.e. diagnostic mammography. For screening mammography only few datasets are publicly available. The datasets considered have both the cases.

Combined Dataset Mini-Mias and Inbreast are used. It contains mammographic images of normal and abnormal cases in multiple views i.e. MLO and CC views of left and right breasts.

Given the Data statistics of individual and combined datasets.

Minimias - image size is 1024*1024 with extension .pgm

Inbreast - image size is 4096*3328 with extension .dcm

Resized all the images to 1024*1024.

Used augmentation to increase number of images and make it sufficient to train CNN.

TABLE 4.1: Data Statistics

Categories	Mini-mias	InBreast	Overall
Normal	207	75	282
Abnormal	115	335	450
Overall	322	410	732

4.1.2 Data Preparation

We have two different datasets. The csv file for corresponding datasets contain many columns of unnecessary data for classification such as patient ID, Abnormality type, Age, View, Date, Sex , etc.

Dropped all such columns and dropped NAN values from the csv files.

Used pandas package to clean the csv files (pd.drop,pd.dropna).

The images in the folders have different names from those give in the csv file. Images have complete description where as csv file ha just a unique code present in the image file name. So for convenience, I have modified the csv imagenames column to make is same as image names in the folder.

FIGURE 4.1: Data cleaning

```
csv_inbreast1 = csv_inbreast.dropna(subset=['File Name'])

csv_inbreast1 = csv_inbreast1.drop(columns=['Patient ID', 'Patient age'])

csv_inbreast1['File Name'] = csv_inbreast1['File Name'].astype(str).str[:-2]
```

4.1.3 Pre-processing and Augmentation

Images are in '.pgm' and '.dcm' extensions.

Dicom images are read by using 'pydicom' and pgm images are read by 'skimage' After reading the all images from folder, Each image is scaled according to the given scaling factor and the we apply CLAHE to the image.

Used three scaling factors 1.25,1.5,1.75. Then we need to center and crop the image to 1024 * 1024.

TABLE 4.2: After Augmentation - Data Statistics

Categories	Mini-mias	InBreast	Overall
Normal	828	300	1128
Abnormal	460	1340	1800
Overall	1288	1640	2928

4.2 Measure of quality changes

Used mean squared error, Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio, and Structural Similarity Index Measure and Multi-scale Structural similarity Index Measure to measure the quality changes of the image before and after enhancement.

4.2.1 Mean Square error

The mean squared error tells you how close the clahe applied image is to the original image. It does this by taking the difference from the pixels to the enhanced pixels (these distances are the “errors”) and squaring them. The squaring is necessary to remove any negative signs. It also gives more weight to larger differences. It’s called the mean squared error as you’re finding the average of a set of errors.

I and J are images before and after SCDA.

$$MSE = \frac{1}{M * N} \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j=1}^N (J(i, j) - I(i, j))^2$$

4.2.2 Peak signal to Noise Ratio

PSNR is an expression for the ratio between the maximum possible value (power) of a signal and the power of distorting noise that affects the quality of its representation.

Higher the PSNR, the better the degraded image has been reconstructed to match the original image, and the better the reconstructive algorithm. This would occur because we wish to minimize the MSE between images with respect to the maximum signal value of the image.

$$PSNR = 10 * \log_{10} \frac{(L - 1)^2}{MSE}$$

4.2.3 Structural Similarity Index Measure

Structural similarity (SSIM) index. The SSIM metric combines local image structure, luminance, and contrast into a single local quality score. In this metric, structures are patterns of pixel intensities, especially among neighboring pixels, after normalizing for luminance and contrast. Because the human visual system is good at perceiving structure, the SSIM quality metric agrees more closely with the subjective quality score.

$$SSIM(x, y) = \frac{(2\mu_x\mu_y + c_1)(2\sigma_{xy} + c_2)}{(\mu_x^2 + \mu_y^2 + c_1)(\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 + c_2)}$$

where μ_x is average of x ;

μ_y is average of y ;

σ_x^2 is variance of x ;

σ_y^2 is variance of y ;

σ_{xy} is covariance of x and y ;

$c_1 = (k_1L)^2, c_2 = (k_2L)^2$ are two variable to stabilize the division with weak denominator;

L is dynamic range of the pixel - values;

$k_1 = 0.01$ and $k_2 = 0.03$ by default;

4.2.4 Multi-scale Structural similarity Index Measure

Multi-scale structural similarity (MS-SSIM) index. The MS-SSIM metric expands on the SSIM index by combining luminance information at the highest resolution level with structure and contrast information at several downsampled resolutions, or scales. The MS-accounts for variability in the perception of image details caused by factors such as viewing distance from the image, distance from the scene to the sensor, and resolution of the image acquisition sensor. Used Sear package to estimate the quality of images.

FIGURE 4.2: Code Snippet for Quality Metrics

```

▶ from sewar.full_ref import uqi
  uqi(img, clahe_img)

[18] /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/sewar/utils.py:18: UserWarning: Supplied images have different d
      warnings.warn(msg)
      0.35314952232777586

▶ from sewar.full_ref import rmse
  rmse(img, clahe_img)

[19] /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/sewar/utils.py:18: UserWarning: Supplied images have different d
      warnings.warn(msg)
      7.976805926092609

[20] from sewar.full_ref import psnr
      psnr(img, clahe_img)

[21] /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/sewar/utils.py:18: UserWarning: Supplied images have different d
      warnings.warn(msg)
      30.774519780526006

▶ from sewar.full_ref import ssim
  ssim(img, clahe_img)

[22] /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/sewar/utils.py:18: UserWarning: Supplied images have different d
      warnings.warn(msg)
      (0.5250994780534269, 0.967593193170051)

[19] from sewar.full_ref import msssim
      msssim(img, clahe_img)

[23] /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/sewar/utils.py:18: UserWarning: Supplied images have different d
      warnings.warn(msg)
      (0.9199081421736875+0j)

```

4.3 Proposed Model

Model Overview:

FIGURE 4.3: Resnet50 Batch-Normalization

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
resnet50 (Functional)	(None, 1000)	25636712
flatten_2 (Flatten)	(None, 1000)	0
dense_5 (Dense)	(None, 2048)	2050048
batch_normalization_3 (Batch Normalization)	(None, 2048)	8192
dense_6 (Dense)	(None, 1024)	2098176
batch_normalization_4 (Batch Normalization)	(None, 1024)	4096
dense_7 (Dense)	(None, 2)	2050
Total params: 29,799,274		
Trainable params: 4,156,418		
Non-trainable params: 25,642,856		

With the original data, generated the augmented images with 4 different scales and applied clahe to the images. Considering the augmented data I have trained various pretrained models and a CNN model built. Pretrained models are given initial weights of Imagenet

classification problem. To overcome the class imbalance problem - give class weights for the model.

class weights = [class normal:1/902 class abnormal: 1/1442]

Number of Images: 2342

Image Size: (224,224,3)

Optimizer: Adam

Activation Function : Relu, Softmax

The same layers are used even for other pretrained models i.e. dense and output layers after feature extraction.

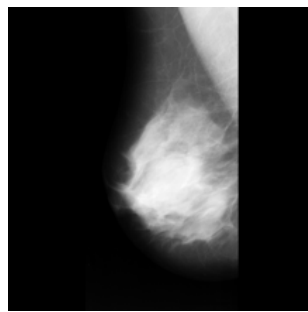
Chapter 5

Results and Discussions

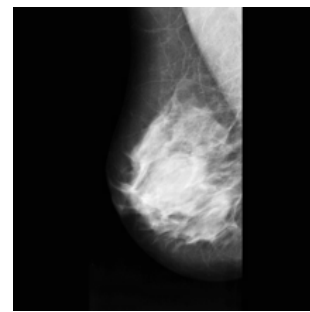
5.1 Image Quality Analysis

This is the mammographic image before and after applying clahe.

FIGURE 5.1: Sample Image before and after CLAHE



Before Clahe



After Clahe

Pre-processing Method: Contrast Limit Adaptive Histogram Equalization.

To evaluate the quality of image after applying clahe. Considered the following quality

Metrics for Evaluation:

RMSE - 7.37

PSNR - 30.7

SSIM - 0.9675

MS-SSIM - 0.9199

5.2 Model Performance Metrics

Number of Images: 2342

Image Size: (224,224,3)

Class Weights: [Normal:(1/902), Abnormal:(1/1442)]

Optimizer: Adam

Activation Funtion : Relu, Softmax

TABLE 5.1: Results WithOut Batch Normalization

Model	Epochs	TrainAcc	TestAcc	AUC
ResNet150	50	64	81	0.876
Inception	80	62	81	0.907
MobileNet	60	75.24	87.5	0.93
CNN	50	93	78	0.96
0.78 Resnet50	100	80	93.5	0.972
InceptionResnet	50	63	81.25	0.9
VGG	100	78	87.5	0.94

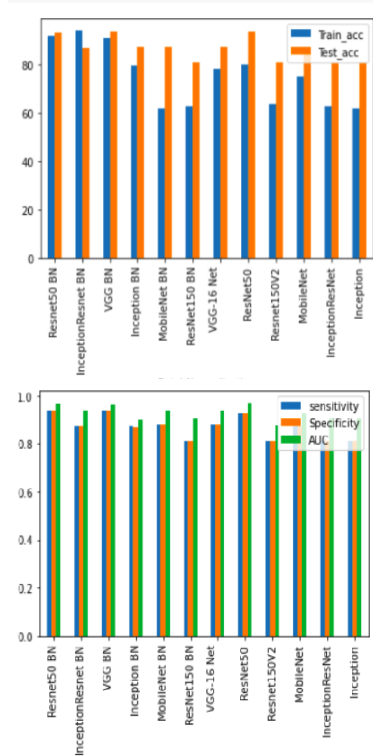
5.2.1 Performance of models with BatchNormalization

TABLE 5.2: Results With Batch Normalization

Model	Epochs	TrainAcc	TestAcc	AUC
ResNet150 BN	50	62.67	81.25	0.906
Inception BN	50	79.9	87.5	0.9
MobileNet BN	50	62	87.5	0.94
CNN BN	50	94	86	0.96
Resnet50 BN	50	92.1	93.5	0.9685
InceptionResnet BN	50	94.43	87.25	0.937
VGG BN	50	91	93.75	0.96

5.2.2 Comparision Of models

FIGURE 5.2: Metrics Comparison of Various models



Resnet50 with Batch Normalization performed better.

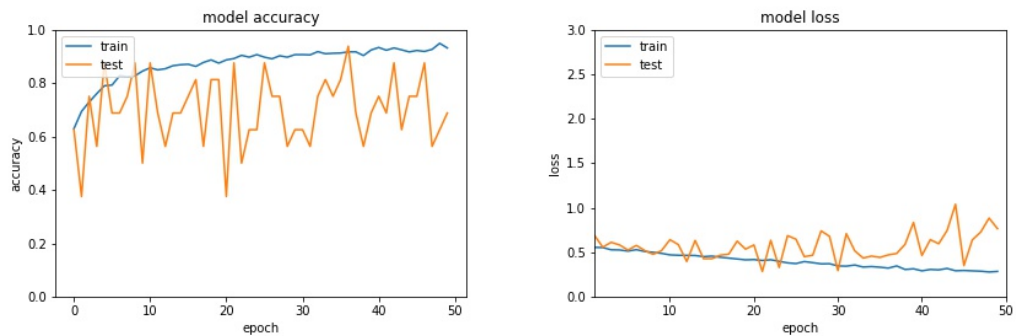
Specificity: 0.9299,

Sensitivity: 0.931,

Precision: 0.9298,

F1 Score: 0.9306

Confusion Matrix: $\begin{bmatrix} 1086 & 82 \\ 80 & 1088 \end{bmatrix}$



5.3 Comparison with the existing state of the art methods

TABLE 5.3: State of art

Models	Method	Dataset	Accuracy
1.ResNet-SCDA-50 for breast abnormality classification, 2020, Xiang Yu, IEEE Transactions on Computational Biology and BioInformatics	They have used 2 scaling factors for augmentation of data i.e. 1, 1.5. Architecture used is Resnet50 with direct classification layer for 20 epochs with learning rate 0.01 dropping at rate 0.1 and 5 fold cross validation	Inbreast(v4- 4582) and MiniMias	95.74
2.ProposedModel	4 different scales - 1, 1.25, 1.5, 1.75 for SCDA,Resnet50 with 2 dense layers and output layer each followed by Batch Normalization for 50 epochs with learning rate 0.01 dropping at rate 0.1	Inbreast(v1- 409) and MiniMias	93.5

Chapter 6

Conclusions and Extensions

In this intern project, I have explored a new data augmentation method termed SCDA and developed a diagnostic system for accurate classification of breast abnormalities. Methodology adapted from a similar paper. Before inputting the patches acquired from original mammogram images to our CNN network, we improved data preprocessing and data augmentation by applying the CLAHE contrast enhancement method on patches. Measurement of image contrast shows that the quality of image patches has been considerably improved. CLAHE measurement of image contrast shows that the quality of image patches has been considerably improved.

Applied scaling factors of 1, 1.25, 1.5, 1.5 for SCDA approach. The purposes of data augmentation are mainly two-fold. Mitigate the problem brought by lack of data. Solve the problem of overfitting.

To specify the CNN models showing best performance on the binary classification task, we explored the models with state-of-the-art connection methods including inception (GoogLeNet, Inception v3), residual learning (ResNet), VGG-16, Mobilenet and New CNN model. The experimental results show that ResNet-50 gives the best performance amongst all of those models. Therefore, we propose to provide ResNet-50 with the augmented training set formed by SCDA method and the performance of ResNet-50 model with 4 scaling Factors and BatchNormalization performed better with testing accuracy-93.5 and auc-0.9685

Further Improvements :

Improve the performance of our own CNN model

Extend it to 3 stage classification.

Build Efficient Data storage technique using blockchain technology and try for journals

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