Recreation, U-net: Convolutional networks for biomedical image segmentation

Max Joel Söderberg joeso@kth.se

Anton Ivarsson aivarss@kth.se

Jacob Stachowicz stac@kth.se

Abstract

The subject of the project was biomedical image segmentation. Namely to reproduce the results of the paper "U-net: Convolutional networks for biomedical image segmentation" by Olaf Ronnenberger, Philipp Fischer and Thomas Brox. After the reproduction the goal was to implement another model for segmentation and compare how the strategies used by Ronneberger et al. (2015) performed on the other model. Due to time constraints the other model was not implemented. An experiment was conducted in order to validate the data augmentation strategy used by Ronneberger et al. (2015). A conclution could be made that the strategy was sound. Without the strategy, our implemented U-net reached an IoU score of 0.332 and a F_1 score of 0.605. With the strategy, our implemented U-net reached an IoU score of 0.770 and a F_1 score of 0.891. An algorithm was implemented to perform another experiment for the custom loss function used by Ronneberger et al. (2015). The experiment was not completed due to the chosen deep learning framework being opinionated. However, studying the computed weights indicate that the weights could help the model learn better borders between cells.

1 Introduction

In this project we will work with biomedical image segmentation for cell images. Segmentation of biomedical images is useful for a different number of purposes. For instance, Punitha et al. (2018) used a Feed Forward Neural Network to segment images of benign and malignant breast cancer (Punitha et al. 2018). This project aims to reproduce the results of the paper "U-net: Convolutional networks for biomedical image segmentation" by Olaf Ronneberger, Philipp Fischer and Thomas Brox. The authors of this paper mentions how there is a large consent that successful training of deep learning networks requires many thousands of annotated training samples. However, in this paper the authors present a strategy that relies heavily on data augmentation instead of a large sample size, using an network architecture called "U-net". The purpose of the data augmentation approach is to utilize the available annotated training samples more efficiently (Ronneberger et al. 2015). To reproduce the results we will first implement the network. After the implementation of the network we will validate that the strategies of Ronneberger et al. (2015), besides from the architecture gave the improvements claimed. In addition to reproducing the results, this project will be conducted with the intention to compare the segmentation network with another method of segmenting images. That is, try training another network architecture for image segmentation with the same surrounding strategies as Ronneberger et al. (2015).

Our initial assessment of the workload required to reproduce the results achieved by Ronneberger et al. (2015) where incorrect. This flawed assessment led to us not having enough time left to compare the results to a network with another architecture. Due to the chosen deep learning framework being opinionated, we had trouble adding the custom loss function which Ronneberger et al. (2015) used for instance segmentation. The custom loss function used precomputed weights for each training sample. Even though we could not experiment with this custom loss function, we did implement an algorithm for calculating the weights. Studying the computed weights indicate that the weights could help the model learn better borders between cells that are stuck together. The lack of precomputed border weights in this project forced us to focus on semantic segmentation, while Ronneberger et al. (2015) focused on instance segmentation.

We could conclude that the strategy used for data augmentation by Ronneberger et al. (2015) was sound. Training our U-net without the data augmentation the network achieved a IoU score of 0.332 and a F_1 score of 0.605. With the data augmentation strategy we achieved a IoU score of 0.770 and a F_1 score of 0.891. These scores show that segmentation of cell images can be achieved accurately without large amounts of data using this data augmentation strategy. All scores were calculated on test data where the model with the lowest validation loss were used.

2 Related work

As mentioned in the introduction, this project was partly an attempt to reproduce the results by Ronneberger et al. (2015). Because of this, the main source of reference was the aforementioned paper. Ronneberger et al. (2015). implemented a convolutional neural network with the architecture as seen in figure 1.

The authors implemented data augmentation that was mostly based on elastic deformations, as well as Gaussian noise. The authors achieved well defined borders. These well defined borders can seemingly be accredited towards the custom loss function implemented. This custom loss function was a weighted pixel wise binary cross entropy that took advantage of precomputed weights for each pixel in the data set. The initial weights of the network was drawn from a Gaussian distribution with standard deviation $\sqrt{2/N}$ where N denotes the number of incoming nodes of one neuron(Ronneberger et al. 2015). The authors network was implemented using Caffe with MATLAB, as well as some parts in C++.

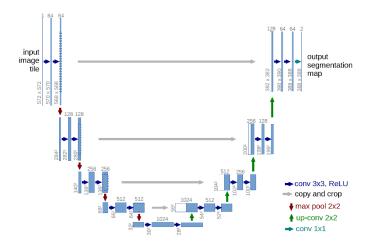


Figure 1: Example U-net structure.

3 Data

The data used in this project was the *DIC-C2DH-HeLa* data set (*Cell Tracking Challenge*, *2D+Time Datasets* n.d.). This data set consisted of 168 different transmission electron microscopy images of HeLa cells on a flat glass as seen in figure 2. The images have the resolution of 512x512 pixels. From the 168 images in the data set, 20 percent was used as test data and the rest was used in training and validation. We created augmentations of both all the data intended for training and validation. From each image 12 augmented versions where created, which lead to a 13 times larger training and validation set.

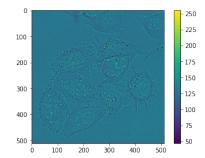


Figure 2: Sample from the *HeLa* data set.

4 Methods

This section explains how the network was built, trained and how the data was preprocessed.

4.1 Structure of the network

In this project, the convolutional network presented in Ronneberger et al. (2015) was implemented using the Keras framework consisting of 23 convolutional layers, each with a ReLu activation function. Due to memory constraints in the GPU, the batch size was set to 1 to be able to use large images. The model used a Nesterov SGD optimizer with a momentum of 0.99, which allows previously seen data to heavily influence the update in the optimization step.

In Ronneberger et al. (2015), the measurement of accuracy was done using IOU (1) which compares

the intersection of the cells in relation to the union. In addition to that method, we also used F_1 score (2) to measure the accuracy in relation to precision and recall.

$$IOU = \frac{Area\ of\ overlap}{Area\ of\ union} \tag{1}$$

$$F_1 = 2 * \frac{Precision * Recall}{Precision + Recall}$$
 (2)

In image segmentation, it is possible using binary cross entropy (3) since it's a pixel-wise classification task.

$$BCE(y, \hat{y}) = \frac{1}{N} * \sum_{i=0}^{N} (y * log(\hat{y}_i) + (1 - y) * log(1 - \hat{y}_i))$$
(3)

Training a large neural network on a small amount of data introduces the risk of overfitting the network. To prevent this, a dropout was added at each layer with values ranging between 0.1 and 0.3.

4.2 Custom loss function

The loss function was defined as can be seen in equation 4. Equation 5 shows the formula for how the weight matrix was calculated. Ω is the set of pixels in a given image, $w_c(X)$ a precomputed weight map to counteract class imbalance, $d_1(X)$ and $d_2(X)$ is the distance from the pixel X to the closest and second closest cell respectively. l is the true label of each pixel.

$$E = \sum_{x \in \Omega} w(x) log(p_{l(x)}(x))$$
(4)

$$w(x) = w_c(x) + w_0 * exp\left(-\frac{(d_1(x) + d_2(x))^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$
 (5)

4.3 Preprocessing of data

Initially the label data consisted of matrices filled with the ground truth of where each cell was located and which class label they had, (Figure 3a). Before training, these matrices were processed so that each cell was represented as ones and the background as zero, (Figure 3b). This was necessary since there was no logic in which class label each cell had and it also enabled the use of binary cross entropy as a loss function.

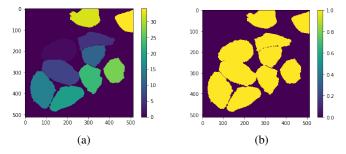


Figure 3: (a) Unprocessed label (b) Color processed label.

One important key feature in the u-net paper was the augmentation of the training and validation images and their corresponding labels. The main advantage this offers is the increase of training data. The augmentation techniques used on the images in our project were rotation, zooming, changing width or height and horizontal flip, (Figure 4). Our augmentations allowed us to increase our training

data by a 12-fold, from 134 to 1447 training images, before being limited by the 16 GB's of memory in our training environment.

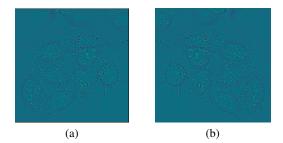


Figure 4: (a) A sample picture from the *HeLa* data set without augmentation (b) Augmentation of the first image with a rotation of the y-axis.

4.4 Training

The training of the model was conducted with a limit of 100 epochs. An early stopping strategy was used where the training would stop if the validation loss did not improve for 5 epochs consequently. If an early stopping occurred the best weights according the validation loss was restored. The time required for training was substantial which limited the amount of runs. The training with data augmentation took an entire night to run on a system with 16 GB of RAM-memory and a Nvidia GTX 1070 graphics card with 8 GB of dedicated memory.

4.5 Experiment strategy

To to validate the data augmentation strategy by Ronneberger et al. (2015) our model was trained with and without said strategy. Performance was then measured for each of these cases. The strategy was planned for the custom loss function and the other model. However, due to time constraints the other model was not implemented and subsequently not tested. The weights that were supposed to be used in the custom loss function was studied, but not tested in actual training.

5 Experiments

In this section the results of our experiments are presented.

5.1 Effects of data augmentation

Figure 5 shows graphs over the change of loss through different epochs for the model with and without augmented images. Figure 6 shows graphs over the change of F_1 -score through different epochs for the model with and without data augmentation.

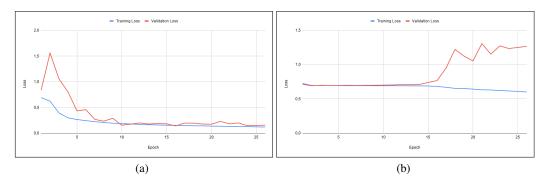


Figure 5: Binary cross entropy loss for each epoch through the training of the model (a) with augmentation and (b) without augmentation.

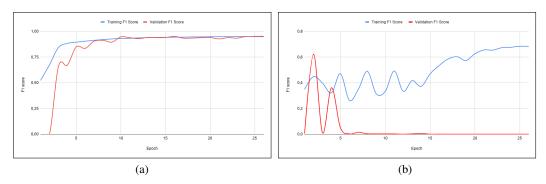


Figure 6: F1-score for each epoch through the training of the model (a) *with* augmentation and (b) *without* augmentation.

As shown in figure 6b, for the model without augmented data we see that the training score increases with some instability while the validation score drops and stays around zero after 5 epochs. This behavior indicates that overfitting occurs, which is common when there are too few data samples in the training data set(Russell & Norvig 2010). This results in the model not being able to generalize well on the unseen images in the validation data set. Increasing the training data using augmentation reduces the phenomena of overfitting, which is visible in figure 6a. We see in figure 7c that the model with the added augmented images in the training makes confident predictions that are near the ground truth (figure 7d) while the predictions by the model without augmentations (figure 7b) are indecisive and unclear.

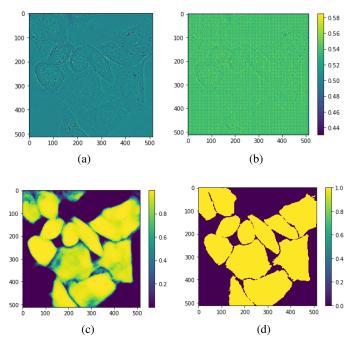


Figure 7: (a) Sample form the test data set (b) The prediction made by the model *without* augmented training images. (c) The prediction made by the model *with* augmented training data. (d) Shows the ground truth for the sample picture. The bar to the right of the images shows the probability scale.

5.2 Custom loss function and precomputed weights

The energy function is computed by a pixel-wise soft-max over the final feature map combined with the cross entropy loss function. Figure 8c indicates how the energy function penalizes the deviation of each pixel from the ground truth. As mentioned in section 4.3 the weights used in the custom loss function consists of two parts. The first part is the class imbalance, which is refereed to as w_c (figure 8b). The second part takes into account the distance for each pixel to the cell borders (figure 8c). The combined weights as seen in figure 8d indicate the use of the custom loss function could improve the prediction around the cell borders.

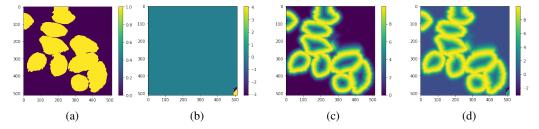


Figure 8: (a) Mask image, (b) Class imbalance mask, (c) Border mask (d) Image weights

6 Conclusion

This project shows that an increase of accuracy for a u-net model with a small training set can be achieved by increasing the amount of training data with augmentations. Even though the experiment with the custom loss function could not be completed as intended, studying the computed weights indicate that the weights could enhance the model's prediction performance around and between cells. These two experiments partially confirms the findings made in the original paper by Ronneberger et al. (2015). Our implementation can be found at: https://gits-15.sys.kth.se/aivarss/DD2424Project.

References

- Cell Tracking Challenge, 2D+Time Datasets (n.d.), http://celltrackingchallenge.net/2d-datasets/. Accessed: 2020-05-01.
- Punitha, S., Amuthan, A. & Joseph, K. S. (2018), 'Benign and malignant breast cancer segmentation using optimized region growing technique', *Future Computing and Informatics Journal* **3**(2), 348–358.
- Ronneberger, O., Fischer, P. & Brox, T. (2015), U-net: Convolutional networks for biomedical image segmentation, *in* 'International Conference on Medical image computing and computer-assisted intervention', Springer, pp. 234–241.
- Russell, S. & Norvig, P. (2010), Artificial Intelligence: A Modern Approach, 3 edn, Prentice Hall.