Skin Cancer Classification Using Deep Learning

Dwarkanath Prabhu

Department of Industrial and Systems Engineering)
Texas A&M University
College Station, TX, USA
pdwarkanath@tamu.edu

Xiaoning Qian

Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering

Texas A&M University

College Station, TX, USA

xqian@tamu.edu

Abstract—The ISIC Challenge 2018 consists of 3 tasks. This report is aimed at tackling Task 3 - Disease Classification from images of skin lesions. VGG19, ResNet50, Inceptionv3, SqueezeNet, pretrained on ImageNet, were chosen as models for this purpose. Only the last 2 layers were retrained for these models on the ISIC dataset. The best performing model was selected which turned out to be ResNet50. The class imbalance in the training data was dealt with using a class-weighted loss function and oversampling of low frequency classes.

I. INTRODUCTION

In the United States, 5 million new cases of skin cancer are diagnosed every year. [1] Of these, melanoma which is the deadliest accounts for over 9000. [2] The diagnosis via visual inspection by patients and dermatologists is accurate only about 60% of the time. [3] Moreover, the shortage of dermatologists per capita has abetted the need for computer-aided methods to detect skin cancer. [4]

The International Skin Imaging Collaboration (ISIC) has aggregated a large amount of publicly accessible dermoscopy images labeled with ground truth data. The ISIC 2018 challenge [5] was divided into 3 tasks - Task1: Lesion Segmentation, Task 2: Lesion Attribute Detection and Task 3: Disease Classification. This report focuses on Task 3 i.e. classification of images into one of 7 possible classes.

II. DATASET

There are 10,015 images in the labeled training dataset. [6] Some sample images from the dataset and their labels are shown in Fig 1. The labels are stored in a CSV file in the form of stacked transposes of one-hot vectors. i.e. each example in the dataset is represented by a row of length 7 with only the class to which the exmple belogns being 1 and the other elements in the row being 0. There are no missing labels and all images are classified into one of 7 classes:

- Melanoma
- Melanocytic nevus
- · Basal cell carcinoma
- Actinic keratosis / Bowen's disease (intraepithelial carcinoma)
- Benign keratosis (solar lentigo / seborrheic keratosis / lichen planus-like keratosis)
- Dermatofibroma
- Vascular lesion

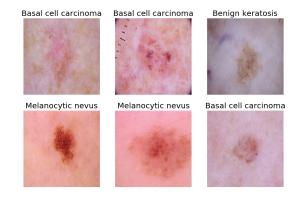


Fig. 1. Sample Images from Task 3 Dataset with Labels

Evaluation metric for this task is the multi-class accuracy (MCA) i.e. the average of precision for all classes. Eq 1 shows the calculation for the MCA.

$$MCA = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} P_i$$
 (1)

where P_i is the precision of class i and n is the number of classes

III. ARCHITECTURE

Since this is a problem of image classification, a convolutional neural network (CNN) architecture would be most suitable. We used existing models such as VGG19 [7], SqueezeNet [8], Resnet50 [9], Inception [10] with weights pretrained on ImageNet [11] [12]. Since ImageNet uses an input size of 224x224 and the images in the dataset are 450x600, the first step was to scale the images down to the required 224x224 size (except Inception which requires an input size of 299x299). Finally, the last few layers of each model were removed and replaced with 2 fully connected trainable layers. First layer trained has 120 units with ReLU activation and the second, a softmax classifier with 7 output classes.

The number of layers removed and results achieved from these architectures is shown in Table I. As it can be seen the simpler models (VGG19 and SqueezeNet) performed poorly on the dataset but more sophisticated models (ResNet50 and Inception) performed better. Since, ResNet50 achieved the best performance on the evaluation metric, it was chosen for further improvement.

TABLE I ARCHITECTURE PERFORMANCE

Architecture	Layers Removed	Validation MCA
VGG19	2	9.57%
SqueezeNet	2	9.57%
ResNet50	3	62.74%
Inceptionv3	3	54.37%

IV. IMPROVING PERFORMANCE

Approximately 70% of the images belong to only one class (Melanocytic nevus). Hence, it is trivial to achieve around 70% accuracy by simply predicting all images to be of that class. That is obviously incorrect. In order to improve performance, we try several techniques such as data augmentation, oversampling low-frequency classes, weighted loss etc.

As expected a baseline model with 10% of the labeled dataset randomly kept aside as a validation set achieved only 62.74% MCA while the training MCA was 93.67%. We will attempt to improve this discrepancy in the performance of training and validation set by using some techniques as follows.

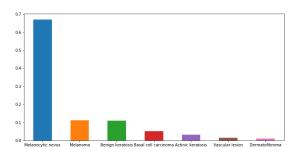


Fig. 2. Distribution of classes in the training set

A. Batch Normalization

Since we are using ReLU activation in the fully connected layers and the final output is a softmax i.e. a number between 0 and 1, batch normalization [13] could help speed up training by scaling the output of the fully connected layers appropriately. The performance on the validation set improved slightly to 73.29% but the training MCA went down to 87.77%.

B. Data Augmentation - Mirroring

There is still a large difference between the validation and training MCA. Training the model on a larger dataset could help bridge this gap. We can double the dataset by simply taking mirror images [14] of the existing dataset while keeping the labels constant. Training the model on the dataset with original imges and their horizontal mirror images increased the validation MCA to 76.27% while the training MCA was up to 92.85%

C. Weighted Loss

The model still predicts the dominating class more often than it should while ignoring lesser occuring classes. One way to fix this is to penalize the model for predicting the dominating class. [15] This can be done by multiplying the loss function by the frequency of classes. Thus, a new weighted loss function can be used to train the model. Training the model with the weighted loss function got a validation MCA of 75.73% and training MCA of 95.25%

The weights for the loss function are calculated as shown in Eq 2.

$$w_i = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} Y_{ij}$$
 (2)

where Y_{ij} is the value of class i in example j and m is the number of examples in the original training set. Since Y_j this is a one-hot vector, the value of Y_{ij} is either 0 or 1. The mean of this along the number of examples gives the frequency of class i in the dataset. The calculated weights are shown in Table II.

TABLE II WEIGHTS FOR LOSS FUNCTION BY CLASS

Class i	Weight w_i	
0	0.111	
1	0.669	
2	0.051	
3	0.033	
4	0.109	
5	0.011	
6	0.014	

Now, the new value of loss function can be written as shown in Eq 3.

$$J = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} w_i Y_{ij} \log \hat{Y}_{ij}$$
 (3)

where w_i is the weight as calculated in Eq 2 and \hat{Y}_{ij} is the softmax probability of class i predicted for example j by the model. As a result of this multiplication, the classes occurring more frequently are penalized with a higher loss function whereas those that occur less frequently are rewarded with a lower loss function.

D. Oversampling

The presence of classes Dermatofibroma and Vascular lesion (class 5 and 6 in Table II) is very low in the dataset (~1%). We can increase their occurence by taking random crops of the central part of the image so that the lesion still remains in the image. [14] We took 4 random crops of images belonging to these classes and also their horizontal mirror images while keeping the labels constant. These were then added to the dataset from which 90% of the data was randomly selected for training. The validation MCA shot up to 87.47% as a result while training MCA was 98.08%

V. RESULTS

The results achieved from training using the techniques listed above are shown in Table III.

TABLE III EFFECT ON MODEL PERFORMANCE

Technique	Training MCA	Validation MCA
Baseline	93.67%	62.74%
Batch Normalization	87.77%	73.29%
Data Augmentation - Mirroring	92.85%	76.27%
Weighted Loss	95.25%	75.73%
Oversampling	98.08%	87.47%

VI. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The ResNet architecture with data augmentation is able to perform much better than the baseline but there is still a difference between the training and validation metrics. The best training MCA is over 98% but the best validation MCA is about 87.5%. Since the training and validation sets are randomly selected from the same dataset, the chances of data mismatch are minimal. The training-validation gap may be converged further by training on a larger dataset. Also, there is a possibility of illumination affecting the database which can be corrected using color constancy on the entire dataset.

VII. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Texas A&M High Performance Research Computing (HPRC) for providing computational resources. Also, we would like to thank Taehoon Lee who trained several models on the ImageNet dataset and provided an open source implementation in Tensorflow

REFERENCES

- H. W. Rogers, M. A. Weinstock, S. R. Feldman, and B. M. Coldiron, "Incidence estimate of nonmelanoma skin cancer (keratinocyte carcinomas) in the us population, 2012," *JAMA dermatology*, vol. 151, no. 10, pp. 1081–1086, 2015.
- [2] R. L. Siegel, K. D. Miller, and A. Jemal, "Cancer statistics, 2017," *CA: a cancer journal for clinicians*, vol. 67, no. 1, pp. 7–30, 2017.
- [3] H. Kittler, H. Pehamberger, K. Wolff, and M. Binder, "Diagnostic accuracy of dermoscopy," *The lancet oncology*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. 159– 165, 2002.
- [4] A. B. Kimball and J. S. Resneck Jr, "The us dermatology workforce: a specialty remains in shortage," *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology*, vol. 59, no. 5, pp. 741–745, 2008.
- [5] N. C. Codella, D. Gutman, M. E. Celebi, B. Helba, M. A. Marchetti, S. W. Dusza, A. Kalloo, K. Liopyris, N. Mishra, H. Kittler, et al., "Skin lesion analysis toward melanoma detection: A challenge at the 2017 international symposium on biomedical imaging (isbi), hosted by the international skin imaging collaboration (isic)," in *Biomedical Imaging* (ISBI 2018), 2018 IEEE 15th International Symposium on, pp. 168–172, IEEE, 2018.
- [6] P. Tschandl, C. Rosendahl, and H. Kittler, "The ham10000 dataset: A large collection of multi-source dermatoscopic images of common pigmented skin lesions," arXiv preprint arXiv:1803.10417, 2018.
- [7] K. Simonyan and A. Zisserman, "Very deep convolutional networks for large-scale image recognition," 2014.
- [8] F. N. Iandola, M. W. Moskewicz, K. Ashraf, S. Han, W. J. Dally, and K. Keutzer, "Squeezenet: Alexnet-level accuracy with 50x fewer parameters and <1mb model size," CoRR, vol. abs/1602.07360, 2016.</p>
- [9] K. He, X. Zhang, S. Ren, and J. Sun, "Deep residual learning for image recognition," *CoRR*, vol. abs/1512.03385, 2015.

- [10] C. Szegedy, W. Liu, Y. Jia, P. Sermanet, S. E. Reed, D. Anguelov, D. Erhan, V. Vanhoucke, and A. Rabinovich, "Going deeper with convolutions," *CoRR*, vol. abs/1409.4842, 2014.
- [11] O. Russakovsky, J. Deng, H. Su, J. Krause, S. Satheesh, S. Ma, Z. Huang, A. Karpathy, A. Khosla, M. Bernstein, et al., "Imagenet large scale visual recognition challenge," *International Journal of Computer Vision*, vol. 115, no. 3, pp. 211–252, 2015.
- [12] T. Lee et al., "Tensornets," 2017.
- [13] S. Ioffe and C. Szegedy, "Batch normalization: Accelerating deep network training by reducing internal covariate shift," arXiv preprint arXiv:1502.03167, 2015.
- [14] A. Krizhevsky, I. Sutskever, and G. E. Hinton, "Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks," in *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* 25 (F. Pereira, C. J. C. Burges, L. Bottou, and K. Q. Weinberger, eds.), pp. 1097–1105, Curran Associates, Inc., 2012.
- [15] O. Ronneberger, P. Fischer, and T. Brox, "U-net: Convolutional networks for biomedical image segmentation," in *International Conference on Medical image computing and computer-assisted intervention*, pp. 234–241, Springer, 2015.