

# Evaluation and Comparison of Textural Feature Representation for the Detection of Early Stage Cancer in Endoscopy

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**Keywords:** HD Endoscopy, Cancer Detection, Esophageal Irregularities, Co-occurrence Matrix, Texture Spectrum Histogram (TSH), Rotation Invariant Uniform Local Binary Patterns (RIULBP), Gabor Features.

**Abstract:** Esophageal cancer is the fastest rising type of cancer in the Western world. The novel technology of High Definition (HD) endoscopy enables physicians to find texture patterns related to early cancer. It encourages the development of a Computer-Aided Decision (CAD) system in order to help physicians with faster identification of early cancer and decrease the miss rate. However, an appropriate texture feature extraction, which is needed for classification, has not been studied yet. In this paper, we compare several techniques for texture feature extraction, including co-occurrence matrix features, LBP and Gabor features and evaluate their performance in detecting early stage cancer in HD endoscopic images. In order to exploit more image characteristics, we introduce an efficient combination of the texture and color features. Furthermore, we add a specific preprocessing step designed for endoscopy images, which improves the classification accuracy. After reducing the feature dimensionality using Principal Component Analysis (PCA), we classify selected features with a Support Vector Machine (SVM). The experimental results validated by an expert gastroenterologist show that the proposed feature extraction is promising and reaches a classification accuracy up to 96.48%.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Esophageal cancer is the fastest rising type of cancer in the Western world. The majority of the patients are diagnosed in a late stadium, in which the survival rate is only about 2-20% (Howlader et al., 2012). With the availability of HD endoscopes, specialist physicians are able to identify early stages of esophageal cancer, by looking for subtle changes in color and texture (Kara et al., 2010). However, these subtle indicators of early cancer are easily overlooked. As a consequence, identification of early cancer in the esophageal tissue still requires significant effort and experience. A supporting system that selects the visually informative areas and forwards them to the physician for further analysis and judgment would be of high relevance and help for the physician in identifying early stage cancer in the esophagus. In this study, we present the first steps towards the development of such a system. In comparative studies, various methodologies have been applied for the detection of anomalies in images obtained by a Wireless Cap-

sule Endoscope (WCE). They are classified into three domains: spatial-domain features, frequency-domain features and high-level features (Liedlgruber and Uhl, 2011). Spatial-domain features, for instance RIULBP (Ojala et al., 2002), or co-occurrence texture features (Haralick et al., 1973), are the most commonly used feature types.

In studies that focus on frequency-domain features, Gabor filters have shown to be successful for the detection of intestinal juices (Vilarino et al., 2006). Feature properties characterized at multiple scales, using for instance a wavelet transform, also show a better performance compared to most traditional spatial-domain features (Unser, 1995). High-level features obtained using Canny edge detection, are suitable for the real-time image processing system due to the short processing time (Kang and Doraiswami, 2003).

However, there is no study yet on feature extraction using the novel technology of HD endoscopy. In this paper, we compare several texture feature extraction techniques in order to find the best technique

for early cancer detection. Our research also aims at finding the best combination of features in order to increase the classification accuracy. Afterwards, we perform clinical validation and analysis of the obtained result. Moreover, we add a specific HD preprocessing step to optimize classification accuracy.

## 2 METHODS

In this study, we evaluate texture feature extraction techniques for finding early cancer using HD endoscopic images. Since we want to be able to localize the early cancers, we segment the image into small square tiles prior to further analysis. Using images annotated by an expert physician, we divide this set of tiles into a training and a test set. Section 3 offers more detailed discussion about this.

In order to evaluate the feature performance, we use the algorithm depicted in Figure 1. During the first step, the input tiles are preprocessed to remove irrelevant tiles or textures. In the second stage, texture features are extracted using the feature extractor designed specifically for endoscopic images. In addition, we also propose the usage of combined feature vector in order to improve the classification accuracy. After reducing the feature dimensions using PCA, the obtained features are used for training or classification using SVM in the last stage.

In this section, we present features which have been successfully used to describe texture and adjust them for finding patterns associated with early cancer. The section also explains how we reduce the dimensions of the feature vectors, combine the feature vectors into one vector, and then perform classification.

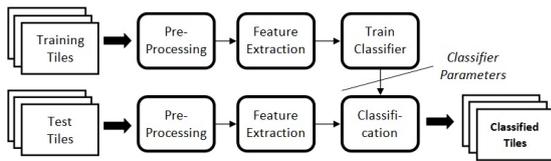


Figure 1: Block Diagram of the Cancer Detection System.

### 2.1 Pre-processing of HD Images

Endoscopic images contain areas that may considerably disturb texture feature analysis. These areas include *specular reflection* and irrelevant texture patterns, which are not informative for cancer detection.

In general, the dichromatic plane is often used to represent the specular reflection. However, the use of the dichromatic plane is not efficient in correcting highly textured images, since it is designed for uniform color areas (Saint-Pierre et al., 2011). In other

studies, the specular reflections in endoscopic images are corrected using linear skew (Tchoulack et al., 2008) or digital inpainting (Saint-Pierre et al., 2011). These approaches estimate the values of the images affected by specular reflection for visual processing only. However, the corrected areas still contain irrelevant information because the textures are not real. For this reason, we propose to detect and discard the tiles containing specular reflection.

The parts of the image containing specular reflection of the endoscopic light source are usually much brighter than the relevant parts of the image. To detect these regions, we convert the tiles to grayscale and apply an empirically determined upper threshold of  $T = 220$  to every pixel of the tile. If 0.1% of the pixels in a tile exceeds this threshold, the tile will be rejected for further processing. To reduce the influence of texture that is not informative for cancer detection, we propose the usage of a median filter. Compared to other smoothing filters, it has a better performance in removing noise, while preserving edges. Since edges are of crucial importance for the texture of the image, we have adopted such a  $5 \times 5$  median filter. This window size is based on visual evaluation of experimental results.

### 2.2 Feature Extraction

From the tiles obtained in the preprocessing step, relevant features are extracted, using several techniques. These features are then comparatively studied in order to find an optimal of their combination for cancer detection. In spatial domain, we use seven features based on the co-occurrence matrix, Texture Spectrum Histogram (TSH), Local Binary Patterns (LBP), Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG), and Dominant Neighbors Structure (DNS). In the frequency domain, we employ two Gabor-based features and Fourier features. In addition, we also consider adding color information to the combined feature vector, since the early cancer leads to both subtle color and texture differences. Let us now provide more detail on each of the applied features.

#### 2.2.1 Co-occurrence based Texture Features

A gray-level co-occurrence matrix  $M_{I_c}^d$  is defined as

$$M_{I_c}^d(i, j) = \sum_{p=1}^m \sum_{q=1}^n \begin{cases} 1 & I_c(p, q) = i \wedge \\ & I_c(p + d_1, q + d_2) = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where  $I_c$  is the  $m \times n$  image in color plane  $c$ ,  $p$  and  $q$  are the pixel location,  $d = [d_1, d_2]$  is the displacement vector and  $i$  and  $j$  are the intensities of the corre-

sponding pixel (Haralick et al., 1973). From these co-occurrence matrices, statistical features are extracted. Based on experimental results with the training set, we select 7 features that perform best for endoscopic images, namely: homogeneity, contrast, energy, entropy, dissimilarity, correlation, and variance.

Applying Haralick's algorithm to our case, 32 bins offer sufficient information. We propose exponential displacement vectors  $D_\theta(k) = 2^k$  for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, \lfloor \log_2(\min(m, n)) \rfloor$  and angles  $\theta = 0^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ, 135^\circ$ , to account for local as well as distant pixel relations.

## 2.2.2 Texture Spectrum Histogram (TSH)

As a textural counterpart of the well-known Histogram of Color, the Texture Spectrum Histogram offers information on the distribution of texture in an image, based on small units of texture, called Texture Units (TUs) (Wang and He, 1990). A TU is represented by 8 elements, which are neighbors of center pixel  $g_c$  in a  $3 \times 3$  window. Each of the neighboring elements  $g_p$  is mapped to one of three possible values (0, 1, 2) by

$$B_p = \begin{cases} 0 & g_p < g_c, \\ 1 & g_p = g_c, \\ 2 & g_p > g_c \end{cases} \quad p = 1, 2, \dots, 8. \quad (2)$$

A texture unit TU is then computed by

$$TU_{i,j} = \sum_{p=1}^8 B_p \times 3^{p-1}, \quad (3)$$

where  $i, j$  define the pixel position of  $g_c$ . Parameter  $TU_{i,j}$  is calculated for all pixels of each tile. The occurrence histogram of TU is used as a feature vector.

## 2.2.3 Rotation Invariant Local Binary Patterns

Rotation Invariant Uniform Local Binary Patterns (RIULBP) is an efficient texture operator based on a set of circular neighbors (Ojala et al., 2002). The neighbors set consists of  $P$  elements lying on a circle of radius  $R$  (Fig. 2). The pixel value of neighbors that are not exactly in the center of pixels are estimated by interpolation. Afterwards, RIULBP is computed by

$$LBP_{P,R}^{riu2} = \begin{cases} \sum_{p=1}^P s(g_p - g_c) & U(LBP_{P,R}) \leq 2, \\ P+1 & otherwise, \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

where  $U(LBP_{P,R})$  is the number of the spatial transition in the neighbors set and  $s(x)$  is the sign function.

To add more information on the textural features, the contrast of local image texture is considered by locally observing the values of individual pixels and

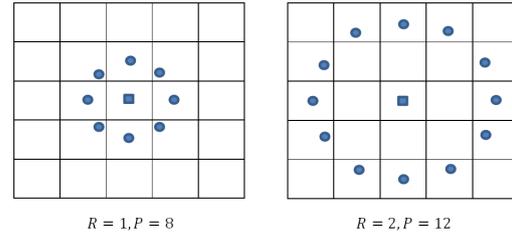


Figure 2: Circularly symmetric neighbor sets for different values of  $P, R$ .

deriving mean and variance values from them. Therefore, we calculate a rotation invariant variance measure (VAR) as

$$VAR_{P,R} = \frac{1}{P} \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} (g_p - \mu)^2, \quad (5)$$

where  $\mu$  is the mean value of all neighbors lying on the same circle. Since  $LBP_{P,R}^{riu2}$  and  $VAR_{P,R}$  complement each other, the joint combination of  $LBP_{P,R}^{riu2}/VAR_{P,R}$  is more accurate in describing the image texture.

## 2.2.4 Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG)

HOGs are a modification of Scale-Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT) descriptors (Dalal and Triggs, 2005). This method is based on evaluating a local histogram of image gradient orientations in a dense grid. For better invariance to illumination and contrast, the gradient strengths are locally normalized.

## 2.2.5 Dominant Neighbors Structure (DNS)

DNS is obtained by generating an estimated global map representing the measured intensity similarity between any given image pixel and its surrounding neighbors within a certain window (Khellah, 2011). In order to compute the intensity similarity, several pixels  $i$  are used as the center of the search windows  $S_i$ . The distances between pixels  $i$  and several neighboring pixels  $j$  on  $R$  concentric circles of various radii are calculated using Euclidean distance  $d$ . Furthermore, the average value of the obtained neighborhood structures is computed for all chosen pixels  $i$ .

## 2.2.6 Gabor Features

As a tool for local time-frequency analysis, the Gabor wavelet is one of the important methods for texture feature extraction (Zhang and Ma, 2007). It represents the response of cortical cells of human visual system devoted to the processing of visual signals. In our study we employ scale and rotation invariant Gabor features.

The Gabor wavelet transform is described as the convolutional operation of input image  $f(x,y)$  with the complex conjugate of the Gabor function. The transform can be written as

$$G_{pq}(x,y) = \sum_s \sum_t f(x-s,y-t)\Psi_{pq}^*(s,t), \quad (6)$$

where  $s$  and  $t$  are the filter mask size,  $p = 0, 1, \dots, P-1$  and  $q = 0, 1, \dots, Q-1$  are the scale and direction values, respectively, and  $\Psi_{pq}^*$  is the complex conjugate of the Gabor function. We use a dyadic function to design the Gabor filter. For each combination of  $p$  and  $q$ , we calculate the mean  $\mu_{pq}$  and standard deviation  $\sigma_{pq}$  of the filtered image. These are used for the feature vector.

In order to make the feature vectors invariant against rotation, we employ two approaches: DFT-based (Lahajnar and Kovacic, 2003) and the Circular Shift (CS) (Ng et al., 2005). In DFT-based processing, we compute the Discrete Fourier Transform of the original feature vector for each scale. In the CS approach, the feature vector is re-oriented based on the dominant orientation  $d$ . The dominant orientation  $d$  is shifted to the first element of feature vector.

### 2.2.7 Fourier Features

Another method to capture texture, using the Fourier feature vector, has been used to classify celiac disease from duodenal images (Vecsei et al., 2008). In this approach, the Fourier domain image is calculated from the input image using the Fourier transform. Afterwards, multiple ring-shaped filters are applied to the center of the Fourier spectrum of each color channel in order to differentiate the frequency characteristic in several frequency regions.

For our purpose, this approach is adapted as follows. We use uniform width,  $W = R/Q$ , of rings where  $R$  is the maximum width of the Fourier domain image and  $Q$  denotes the number of rings. From each ring, we calculate the mean and standard deviation, which are used in the feature vectors.

## 2.3 Combined Feature Vector

In general, studies on irregularity detection in endoscopic images are typically based on single features only. It results in non-optimal texture classification, since only one aspect of the irregularity is taken into account, e.g. only color or only texture. To improve the classification accuracy, we propose to combine our feature vectors for texture with simple color image statistics, namely the sample mean and sample variance per color plane. This should account for the

subtle difference in color that early cancerous tissue shows.

Focusing on combining features in different complementary domains, next to the combination of color and texture features, we evaluate the combination of spatial- and frequency-domain texture features. Each feature extraction method produces a feature vector,  $F_1$  to  $F_M$ , where  $M$  stands for the number of feature extraction methods used in the combined algorithm. The individual feature vectors are concatenated to generate the combined feature vector  $F_c$ .

## 2.4 Dimensionality Reduction

In order to remove any redundancy and reduce the dimensionality of the feature vector set, we employ Principal Component Analysis (PCA). This technique rotates the data such that the first dimension has the highest variance and the last dimension has the lowest variance. Then only the first  $D^*$  dimensions of the rotated data are used for the reduced-dimensional data. We select  $D^*$  by taking the first  $N$  dimensions for which the sum of the singular values is 0.95 of the total sum of the singular values.

## 2.5 Classification

SVM is a classification method for two-group classification problems (Cortes and Vapnik, 1995). Recently, it has gained considerable attention due to the excellent performance in producing accurate and robust classification results.

In this paper, SVM is implemented using the software LIBSVM (Chang and Lin, 2011). An SVM classifier depends on cost parameter  $C$ , kernel function  $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$  and training data  $\mathcal{D}_{tr}$ . In order to find the optimal  $C$  and  $K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$ , we use a grid search and 10-fold cross-validation in order to evaluate the performance parameters. We employ the Radial Basis Function (RBF) kernel and determine the RBF width  $\gamma$  in the grid search described above.

## 3 CLINICAL VALIDATION

For clinical evaluation of the proposed algorithm, we have gathered 50 RGB endoscopic images with a resolution of  $1600 \times 1200$  pixels for each class, being 'tumorous' and 'normal tissue'. From each class, the images are split into non-overlapping tiles with pixel dimensions  $25 \times 25$ ,  $50 \times 50$ , or  $75 \times 75$ . Afterwards, 600 tiles are selected for the dataset. We have used 40% of the total dataset for training and the other 60%

Table 1: Classification performance (%) of tumorous tissue in RGB color space. Best accuracy of each tile size is in bold.

Features	$25 \times 25$			$50 \times 50$			$75 \times 75$		
	acc	sen	spe	acc	sen	spe	acc	sen	spe
Homogeneity	94.25	95.93	92.53	87.58	82.31	91.94	91.05	90.94	91.16
Contrast	94.25	93.90	94.62	90.20	84.48	94.93	92.77	90.59	94.90
Energy	94.60	97.29	91.84	87.58	86.28	88.66	90.71	90.94	90.48
Dissimilarity	94.17	95.59	92.71	89.22	85.20	92.54	92.43	91.29	93.54
Entropy	94.77	95.93	93.58	88.24	81.95	93.43	92.25	92.33	92.18
Variance	94.43	94.41	94.44	88.40	80.51	94.93	93.29	91.99	94.56
Correlation	92.62	93.39	91.84	89.22	87.36	90.75	91.57	91.99	91.16
TSH	86.36	86.95	85.76	80.39	73.29	86.27	83.65	77.70	89.46
HOG	90.65	91.36	89.93	88.24	80.51	94.63	88.12	89.90	86.39
$LBP_{P,R}^{riu2}$	84.13	84.24	84.03	85.46	80.14	89.85	84.51	83.62	85.37
$VAR_{P,R}$	93.57	95.59	91.49	88.89	85.20	91.94	90.88	92.68	89.12
$LBP_{P,R}^{riu2} / VAR_{P,R}$	94.00	95.08	92.88	90.03	90.25	89.85	92.60	95.47	89.80
DNS	94.00	93.05	94.97	88.24	81.95	93.43	91.57	91.29	91.84
Gabor (DFT)	<b>96.48</b>	97.46	95.49	<b>92.81</b>	88.09	96.72	93.12	91.29	94.90
Gabor (CS)	96.40	97.63	95.14	92.16	87.73	95.82	<b>94.15</b>	91.99	96.26
Fourier	94.25	95.25	93.23	89.05	84.48	92.84	89.50	89.90	89.12

for testing. We tuned all classifier and feature parameters using the training set. Table 1 shows the classification performance of our classifier on the testing sets. We have measured the performance using statistical measures: accuracy (acc), sensitivity (sen) and specificity (spe).

According to Table 1, the rotation and scale invariant Gabor features perform better in terms of classification accuracy compared to the other methods. It is due to the multi-resolution analysis at different scales and directions, which is not available in other features. The algorithm complexity of the Gabor feature extraction is lower than the complexity of other features. Therefore, we conclude that Gabor features are suitable for real-time implementation in a further development. Based on our experiment, the best classification accuracy for Gabor features is obtained using  $P = 2$  and  $Q = 8$ .

Since the Gabor features show the best performance, we have tried to improve the classification by combining them with other features. After performing a number of experiments, we conclude that the best results are obtained by combining Gabor features with the proposed color information, i.e. the sample mean and sample variance. Figure 3 shows a comparison between using Gabor features alone and a Gabor extension with color features, where the latter clearly improves the classification performance. This is in line with our expectations, since early cancer is characterized by differences in texture and color.

As an interesting visual result, Figure 4 illustrates an original HD endoscopic image, the expert image and an image where the tiles detected by the algo-

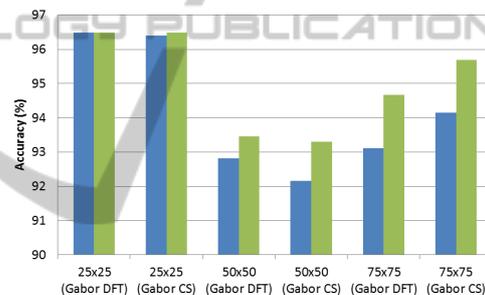


Figure 3: Accuracy measured of the test set: in blue (darker color)-classification result for Gabor texture alone; in green-classification for a combined feature vector (Gabor and color information), for various tile sizes.

rithm are delineated. The expert image is created by the expert gastroenterologist. Our detection result is obtained by using the Gabor features with color information on  $50 \times 50$  tiles. From Figure 4, we can observe that our algorithm delivers a promising result, which is very similar to the ground truth.

## 4 CONCLUSIONS

We have presented a novel benchmark for texture feature analysis applied to HD endoscopic images of the esophagus for enhancing early-stage cancer detection. This study is a step forward to a CAD system for the real-time diagnosis based on HD endoscopic images. We have studied several texture feature approaches and concluded that Gabor multi-resolution analysis, such as with Gabor features, provides better results

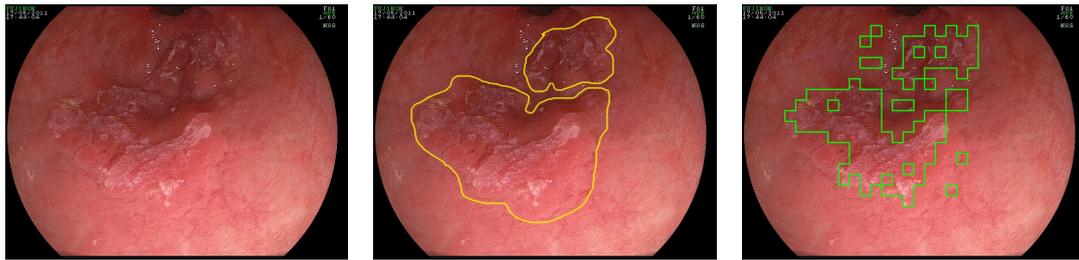


Figure 4: Original Image (left), Ground Truth Image (center), and Output Image (right).

than other features. It is suited to describe irregular textures, associated with early cancer, containing various directions and scale. For further improving the classification accuracy, we propose a combined feature vector based on incorporating color information and the insertion of a specific HD preprocessing step. In the latter step we remove for example specular reflections that normally confuse image analysis. For efficient classification, PCA and SVM are employed to reduce the dimensionality and to classify the feature vectors. Our proposed methodology achieves a classification accuracy up to 96.48%.

Future work should focus on detecting more subtle abnormalities (earlier stages of cancer) and more advanced pre-processing for specular reflection removal. Novel post-processing can also be implemented to provide a better image visualization.

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