Automatic Perception Enhancement for Simulated Retinal Implants

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Abstract:

This work addresses the automatic enhancement of visual percepts of virtual patients with retinal implants. Specifically, we render the task as an image transformation problem within an artificial neural network. The neurophysiological model of (Nanduri et al., 2012) was implemented as a tensor network to simulate a virtual patient's visual percept and used together with an image transformation network in order to perform end-to-end learning on an image reconstruction and a classification task. The image reconstruction task was evaluated using the MNIST data set and yielded plausible results w.r.t. the learned transformations while halving the dissimilarity (mean-squared-error) of an input image to its simulated visual percept. Furthermore, the classification task was evaluated on the cifar-10 data set. Experiments show, that classification accuracy increases by approximately 12.9% when a suitable input image transformation is learned.

1 **INTRODUCTION**

Due to a severe degeneration of photoreceptors and other cells within the retina throughout the course of retinitis pigmentosa (RP), transduction of light into electrochemical signals and further neural processing will become significantly limited or even impossible leading to complete blindness of patients.

For healthy subjects, light is transducted by photoreceptors and subsequently processed within the retina. Hereby, the signal is forwarded and processed throughout the inner nuclear layer consisting of bipolar-, amacrine-, and horizontal cells and the ganglion cell layer consisting of multiple types of ganglion cells with their axons forming the optical nerve (please see Figure 2 for a schematic overview). For patients suffering from RP this process is severely deficient, since photoreceptors and other cells within the retina degenerate and prevent further process-



Figure 1: Top row: Original images from the cifar-10 data set. Bottom row: Examples of corresponding simulated visual percepts by simulating a retinal implant with Alpha IMS alike parameters.

ing.In later stages of RP, this will lead to complete blindness.

Vision Restoration 1.1

Recently, new types of medical licensed retinal implants became available that are capable of restoring the loss of vision caused by RP. Today, the most popular types of retinal implants are: 1) Epiretinal implants that are placed on top of the retina housing an array of electrodes stimulating ganglion cells and, therefore, signals are only indirectly fed into the inner circuitry of the retina (Humayun et al., 2012) and 2) Subretinal implants that are placed below the retina inside the area of degenerated photoreceptors housing an array of electrode / photodiode pairs (Stingl et al., 2013; Stingl et al., 2015) (see Figure 2 for the placement of subretinal implants).

Common to both is a severe loss of visual quality w.r.t. healthy vision (see Figure 1 for a simulated percept using a retinal implant). The reasons are manifold: Acuity is significantly lower compared to healthy vision due to reduced spatial sampling using only a small amount of photodiodes and transmitting electrodes (~ 60 electrodes for epiretinal to ~ 1600 electrodes/photodiodes for subretinal implants), vision is limited to grey-scale illumination with lower contrast, poor spatial sampling due to physical boundaries such as an electrode's size, signal distortions due to axonal streaks (epiretinal), as well as unwanted stimulation of nearby cells in an elcectrode's vicinity.

908

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Figure 2: Simplified illustration of a human eye ball and a subretinal implant with one electrode/photodiode. Incoming light is captured using the implant's photodiode and a cathodic monophasic pulse with a duration of 1 ms is emitted by the corresponding electrode with a working frequency of 5 Hz to 20 Hz.

1.2 Subretinal Implants

For the purpose of perception enhancement, subretinal implants have two major advantages compared to their epiretinal counterparts. First, the spatial resolution is higher (1600 versus 60 electrodes within an area of $\sim 13 \text{ mm}^2$) yielding potentially higher visual acuity and, second, due to their subretinal placement the likelihood to stimulate nearby axons traversing epiretinally, thus, causing axonal streaks, is reduced (cf. (Steffen et al., 2018; Beyeler et al., 2017)). Therefore, we focussed on the automatic perception enhancements without modelling axonal streaks and with a number and sizes of electrodes that are used in subretinal implants.

1.3 Modelling Visual Perception - A Virtual Patient

For the quantitative and qualitative analysis of visual percepts from patients with (sub-)retinal implants, efforts were made to model the cascade of processing steps found in neurophysiological experiments. Beyeler et al. (Beyeler et al., 2017) introduced their framework pulse2percept for simulating visual percepts with great flexibility w.r.t. a vast amount of model parameters, e.g., implant type and its specifications, implant's position, spatial and temporal sampling, and the underlying neurophysiological model. We follow the lines of Beyeler et al. by using the phrase virtual patient and virtual patient's percept to refer to a simulated patient and its corresponding visual perception based on a neurophysiological model. An example of such subretinal implant simulation can be seen in Figure 1.

Limitations and Focus of this Work. It has to be stressed, that the work of (Beyeler et al., 2017) and (Nanduri et al., 2012) in simulating and modelling visual percepts is only a coarse approximation of the neurophysiological processes present in the retinal circuity. However, the most prominent aspects of the spatiotemporal information reduction using retinal implants (e.g., a blurred stimulation by spatial cross-activations) are still captured using the underlying simplifications. Thus, methods for the enhancement of visual percepts w.r.t. certain visual tasks need to deal with these kinds of information reduction and it is likely, that solutions that adequately tackle those will still provide good grounds if the underlying neurophysiological model is updated.

Moreover, the exact neural processing within the retinal circuity is still subject to research, but retinal implants are present and used today. Therefore, we do believe that it is necessary and possible to address the question, whether it is possible to enhance the visual perception using computer vision methods given an interchangeable neurophysiological model.

1.4 Outline

As can be seen in Figure 1, the visual perception of virtual patients with retinal implants is significantly limited compared to normal vision. Due to spatially overlapping activations of ganglion cells in the neighbourhood of an electrode and the low spatial resolution, visual acuity is significantly deteriorated and the percept appears severely blurred. We are interested to investigate whether it is possible to enhance the virtual patient's visual perception, given the physical bounds and limitations of current retinal implants. Specifically, we seek a suitable transformation of an original input stimulus, such that its perceived version by a virtual patient using a retinal implant looks more



Figure 3: Overview of the proposed networks. An input image is fed to the transformation network to obtain a suitable transformation before passing it to the neurophysiological network and finally either to the classification network (yellow path) or it is compared using a mean-squared-error with a properly resized version of the original input (green path). The red path indicates the processing flow for the baseline classification of a unaltered visual percept, thus, no transformation is learned. Please note, that for the output of the classification network a *softmax* activation is used to obtain class memberships.

similar to its original or provides better grounds for visual tasks, e.g., object classification.

Following (Steffen et al., 2018), we model the image transformation process as an artificial neural network. However, instead of using a coarse approximation of the underlying neurophysiological model of (Nanduri et al., 2012) by a spatial *point-spreadfunction*, we explicitly implement it as a neural tensor network used to simulate the output of electrodes' stimulations in space and time using a cascade of convolutions. Modelling the task of perception enhancement as a differentiable artificial neural network allows us to automatically learn image transformations given arbitrary objective functions in an endto-end fashion using gradient descent based backpropagation.

2 METHODS

We propose to model the neurophysiological signal processing model of (Nanduri et al., 2012) as a tensor network making it suitable to be plugged into an artificial neural network enabling end-to-end learning of various differentiable objective functions. Afterwards, we embed this neurophysiological tensor network inside two artificial neural network architectures to show its applicability w.r.t. two different tasks: Image reconstruction and image classification.

2.1 Neurophysiological Network

The neural processing of an electrode's stimulation yields spatial as well as temporal effects. Since we are interested in the perceptual enhancement of still images, an actual input image is fed into the model as a spatiotemporal signal. We convert the original input images having just one step in time to sequences with multiple time steps. Specifically, we model an input image as a spatiotemporal sequence comprising 200 ms. This sequence is subsequently transformed into a pulse train, spatially attenuated as a function of distance to an activated electrode, and temporally convolved with multiple gamma functions acting as low-pass filters throughout time as proposed by Nanduri et al. (please refer to (Nanduri et al., 2012; Horsager et al., 2009) for a detailed description).

2.2 Network Architectures

To demonstrate the applicability of the proposed method, we evaluated two distinct tasks subject to an image transformation network described below for perceptual enhancements: First, we seek a transformation of the original input image, such that its transformed perceptual output is most similar to the original input (i.e., trying to reconstruct the original image after the severe information loss introduced by the retinal implant) and, second, we perform an object classification task with 10 classes.

In all of the experiments, we chose the simulation parameters such that they approximately match the medical licensed *Alpha IMS* subretinal implant

(Stingl et al., 2013). Therefore, our simulated retinal implant consists of 40×40 electrode/photodiode pairs, where each electrode has a circular shape with a radius of 50 µm. Electrodes were evenly arranged on a squared grid with a distance of 70µm w.r.t. their centers. Pulse trains were generated for a stimuli duration of 200 ms with monophasic cathodic pulses of 1 ms. The temporal sampling steps where set to 0.0004 ms. Thus, one still input image was represented as a pulse train of shape (40,40,500), i.e., spatial resolution of the input at 40×40 with 500 simulated time steps. Pulses occurred at a working frequency of 5Hz. Regarding the output of the network, we compromised between computational complexity and accuracy of the model by sampling every 25 µm on the retinal surface yielding a spatial output resolution of 112×112 px. To obtain a single time step output after the neurophysiological network we followed the work of (Beyeler et al., 2017) by extracting the response at the time step of highest output response. Please note, that this network has no trainable parameters but has fixed convolutional kernels as described in (Nanduri et al., 2012).

2.2.1 Image Transformation Network

The original input image is processed within the image transformation network (see Figure 3 for more details). Since we are interested in generally suitable transformations based on a rather small local neighbourhood (and want to avoid transformations based on image semantics) it consists of only 4 convolutional blocks with kernels of size 3×3 . The first three convolutional layers consist of 32 trainable kernels and the last one of 1 to re-obtain the input shape of the original image.

2.2.2 Image Reconstruction Task

For the task of image reconstruction, the input image is fed into our proposed image transformation network and its output is subsequently transformed to a simulated percept using the implemented neurophysiological tensor network (Figure 3, green path) with parameters as described in Section 2.2. Since the output resolution of the transformed visual percept does not match with the shape of the original input image (40×40 electrodes input, 112×112 sampled positions on the retina as output) the original image is bi-linearly interpolated to match the output shape of the neurophysiological network. The dissimilarity between the two is then assessed using the mean-squared-error.

2.2.3 Classification Task

We choose a simple image classification task with 10 object classes for evaluating the general plausibility of our system. For the task of object classification, we seek for a suitable transformation of the input images, such that their corresponding visual percepts, generated by the neurophysiological network, will lead to an increased classification accuracy compared to their unaltered counterparts. Therefore, after feeding the input image to the transformation network and the spatiotemporal network, the output of the latter is fed to a standard classification convolutional neuronal network consisting of convolutional blocks and a multilayer-perceptron thereafter (please refer to Figure 3 for an overview). Here, *categorical cross-entropy* is used as the objective function.

3 EVALUATION

3.1 Image Reconstruction

The proposed image reconstruction task was tested on the popular MNIST data set (Y. LeCun, 1998) comprising binary images of handwritten digits. This data set is of particular interest, since due to its clear figure/ground separation the qualitative assessment of learned transformations is assumed to be easy to grasp. Furthermore, the enhancement of visual percepts of digits (and even more letters) is an everyday visual task that potentially is of great importance for patients suffering from RP and treated with a retinal implant. Mean-squared-error was used as the objective function assessing the dissimilarity of the input image and its virtually perceived version.

For the training of the network, the training set comprised 50000 images belonging to 10 classes of digits (0 - 9). Training was performed batchwise (n = 128) for 500 epochs and a validation set of 10000 different images was evaluated after each epoch. Standard *stochastic gradient descent* was used for optimization with a fixed learning rate of 0.01.

Figure 4a) shows the mean-squared-error (mse) over time using a logarithmic scale for better visibility. As it can be seen, training and validation loss decrease significantly until the validation loss supposedly saturates after around 300 epochs. As a quantitative reference, the baseline mse (without image transformation) throughout the validation set is at 0.067, whereas it drops to 0.035 after 500 epochs.

For a qualitative visual comparison, the last two rows of Figure 5 show exemplary results given an input image from the validation set (first column), its



Figure 4: a) Loss for image reconstruction task. b) Classification accuracy of the classification task without learning a suitable transformation. c) Classification accuracy with learned transformation.

learned transformation (second column), the simulated percept of the original image (third column), and the simulated percept of the transformed image (forth column). Roughly speaking, the transformation network thins out the original strokes of the digits and emphasizes visually interesting locations, e.g., corners, start and end points. This transformation seems to be adequate, as this will result in visual percepts looking less blurred and with (subjectively) higher acuity.

3.2 Classification

Classification as described in Section 2.2.3 was performed using the *cifar-10* data set (Krizhevsky et al., 2009). The data set consists of 60000 training and 10000 validation samples of natural images belonging to 10 different classes. Images were converted to grey-scale before further processing. This data set is particularly challenging for the task of perception enhancement, since images are often cluttered and often contain noisy information.

For assessing the quality gain by using a transformation network, a second model without any image transformation was trained on the simulated percepts of the original input images for comparison (Figure 3, red path).

Training was performed batch-wise (n = 128) for 800 epochs using standard *stochastic gradient descent* with a fixed learning rate of 0.01. Validation accuracy was evaluated after each epoch.

Figure 4b) shows the classification accuracy of the network *without* a learned transformation. Validation accuracy starts to saturate at around 400 epochs and a final validation accuracy of 62% is obtained. Similarly, Figure 4c) shows the classification accuracy with the learned transformation. Although having the same characteristics, a slightly higher validation ac-



Figure 5: Exemplary results of the classification (first two rows) and the image reconstruction task (last two rows). **From left to right**: Original image, learned transformation, simulated percept of the original image, simulated percept of the transformed image.

curacy of 70% is obtained. For a visual comparison, the top two rows of Figure 5 show the original input images (first column), their learned transformations (second column), the simulated percepts of the original images (third column), and the simulated percepts of the transformed images (forth column). Again, the learned transformations seem to be adequate, as edges and contours are emphasized, whereas homogeneous regions are suppressed.

3.3 Discussion

Although the transformed images do look plausible (see Figure 5) and significant quality improvements could be achieved, it remains questionable, whether the altered images and their corresponding visual percepts will be useful for real patients.

As can be seen in Figure 5, the applied transformations of the original images seem to enhance the visual percepts of digits (bottom rows, MNIST) yielding better figure-ground separation, a quality gain regarding real and more complex objects on slightly cluttered background (top rows, cifar-10) is barley notable and highly subjective. For further assessment of bounds, limitations and applicable domains of such transformations, behavioural experiments need to be carried out.

Moreover, the model used in our experiments to describe the retinal signal processing is far from optimal, since it only coarsely approximates the complex processing of numerous cells within the retina. Therefore, it is likely that the obtained measurable quality w.r.t. the classification error and mean-squarederror is dependent on the underlying neurophysiological model. However, due to the fact that the most prominent aspects of the spatiotemporal information reduction are captured by the used model of (Nanduri et al., 2012), the authors do believe, that the presented results are indicative for the applicability of automatically learned transformations for perception enhancement irrespective of the used neurophysiological model.

4 CONCLUSION

By modelling the processing pipeline from an input image to a percept using artificial neural networks it is possible to learn input image transformations in an end-to-end fashion. Therefore, we extend the work of (Steffen et al., 2018) by implementing the neurophysiological spatiotemporal model of Nanduri et al. (Nanduri et al., 2012) as a tensor network. This allows us to embed the simulation of visual percepts from retinal implants inside arbitrary artificial neural networks.

Regarding our goal of perception enhancement, we proposed an image transformation network that learns a suitable transformation of input images given an image reconstruction and classification task. Results are promising. For both evaluated tasks, a significant enhancement was achieved by using our approach.

However, results have to be seen with caution, since experiments with real patients or behavioural experiments have to be conducted to verify its applicability in practical terms. Moreover, within this work we focussed solely on spatial image transformations, however, pulse trains may also be altered temporally providing grounds for extensive further experiments.

Furthermore, using our implementation of the neurophysiological model of (Nanduri et al., 2012), our processing pipeline is capable of performing realtime transformations for upto 30 frames per second. This will potentially allow to conduct behavioural experiments with healthy subjects using virtual reality glasses to understand the validity of the assumptions underlying the image enhancements irrespective of the validity of the neurophysiological model.

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