

Attribute Relation Modeling for Pulmonary Nodule Malignancy Reasoning

Stanley T. Yu¹ and Gangming Zhao^{2,*}

¹Stanford Online High School, Redwood City, CA 94063, U.S.A.

²The University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam, Hong Kong

Keywords: Graph Convolutional Networks, Bayesian Networks, Benign-Malignant Classification.

Abstract: Predicting the malignancy of pulmonary nodules found in chest CT images have become much more accurate due to powerful deep convolutional neural networks. However, attributes, such as lobulation, spiculation, and texture, as well as the correlations and dependencies among such attributes have rarely been exploited in deep learning-based algorithms albeit they are frequently used by human experts during nodule assessment. In this paper, we propose a hybrid machine learning framework consisting of two relation modeling modules: Attribute Graph Network and Bayesian Network, which effectively take advantage of attributes and the correlations and dependencies among them to improve the classification performance of pulmonary nodules. According to experiments on the LIDC-IDRI benchmark dataset, our method achieves an accuracy of 93.59%, which gains a 4.57% improvement over the 3D Dense-FPN baseline.

1 INTRODUCTION

Lung cancer gives rise to the most cancer-related deaths all around the world (Bray et al., 2018). Early diagnosis and treatment are of great importance to long-term survival of lung cancer patients. In addition, chest computed tomography (CT) has been widely used for the diagnosis of lung cancer. Therefore, the benign-malignant classification of pulmonary nodules found in CT images is critical for the early screening of lung cancer. Nevertheless, it still remains a major challenge to accurately differentiate between benign and malignant nodules because of the diversity of nodules. With the success of deep learning, deep convolutional neural networks (CNNs) have become an important method for lung nodule classification. Early deep learning based methods primarily focused on network architectures and data augmentation schemes. They all aimed to extract deep discriminative features from CT images but overlook important phenotypical evidences. For example, Shen et al. (Shen et al., 2015) proposed a multi-scale 2D CNN, which integrates a multi-crop pooling strategy for nodule malignancy classification. Dey et al. (Dey et al., 2018) designed a 3D multi-output DenseNet for the task of end-to-end lung nodule diagnosis.

In fact, attributes, such as lobulation, spiculation, and texture, have been commonly used to describe the

characteristics of lung nodules in CT images for assisting nodule assessment (Wang et al., 2019). Therefore, it is essential to take advantage of such attributes for improving the nodule classification accuracy. Early researchers primarily utilized the multi-task learning (MTL) strategy to jointly learn the attribute regression and nodule classification tasks. For instance, Liu et al. (Liu et al., 2018) used a multi-task framework to conduct lung nodule classification and attribute score regression, which resulted in performance gain in both tasks. Shen et al. (Shen et al., 2019) also provided a hierarchical design that utilized both vision features and semantic features to predict the malignancy of nodules. Nonetheless, there have been few methods to exploit the connections between malignancy and attributes as well as potential correlations and dependencies among such attributes for distinguishing benign and malignant nodules. Therefore, how to exploit and model the hidden relations among these attributes for boosting the accuracy of nodule malignancy prediction still remains an open and important question. To our best knowledge, few papers have focused on this perspective. Our paper is the first piece of work that proposes a hybrid machine learning framework to explicitly exploit attributes as well as the correlations and dependencies among such attributes. In addition, the success of deep learning models greatly relies on a large number of carefully annotated data. However, datasets in the radiology domain are typically not as large as

*Corresponding author (gmzhao@connect.hku.hk)

those in the natural image domain. Furthermore, it is more time consuming and expensive to annotate medical images than natural images. These factors prevent researchers in the radiology domain from obtaining sufficiently large annotated datasets for training deep learning models, which is one of the most serious obstacles to improve the generalization capability of deep learning based nodule classification models.

To address the aforementioned issues, we propose a hybrid machine learning framework for lung nodule malignancy reasoning based on attribute relation modeling, which takes full advantage of both graph convolutional networks (GCN) and Bayesian networks (BN) to boost the performance of nodule classification. Specifically, on the basis of a backbone network for deep feature representation, we propose to utilize a graph convolutional network and a Bayesian network simultaneously to model hidden relations across various attributes of a lung nodule. The motivation is stated as follows. Since a Bayesian network does not require a large training dataset and is capable of modeling conditional dependencies, i.e., the causation between malignancy and attributes, it can serve as a regularization module in a deep learning framework. Meanwhile, a graph convolutional network is a powerful deep network for modeling relations and is capable of performing high-level reasoning across various attributes. When there is sufficient training data, the GCN could significantly improve the baseline classification performance. A hybrid model integrating these two types of networks can achieve a strong generalization capability. Specifically, residual learning is introduced to fuse the results from the GCN and BN for final malignancy prediction.

The contributions of this paper are summarized as follows.

- We propose a unified machine learning framework for lung nodule malignancy reasoning. It aims to model hidden relations across various diagnostic attributes via the fusion of a graph convolutional network and a Bayesian network.
- We demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed framework, which achieves state-of-the-art performance on the LIDC–DRI benchmark dataset.
- We conduct a systematic ablation study to verify that the proposed hybrid model performs better than GCN alone.

2 RELATED WORK

2.1 Attribute Learning

Attributes, such as texture, color, and shape, are of great importance to describe objects. Attribute learning has been studied in computer vision for many years (Ferrari and Zisserman, 2008; Kumar et al., 2009; Akata et al., 2013; Lampert et al., 2013; Liang et al., 2017; Liang et al., 2018; Min et al., 2019). Ferrari et al. (Ferrari and Zisserman, 2008) proposed to use low-level semantic features for attribute representation and they presented a probabilistic generative model for visual attributes, together with an image likelihood learning algorithm. Human faces have many attributes, and remain a challenge for attribute learning. Kumar et al. (Kumar et al., 2009) trained binary classifiers to recognize the presence or absence of describable aspects of facial visual appearance using traditional hand-crafted features. Liu et al. (Liu et al., 2015) proposed a CNN framework for face localization and attribute prediction, respectively. Attributes have also been exploited in tasks such as zero-shot learning (Lampert et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2017). Effectively modeling the hidden relations among attributes is useful for learning a clear reasoning model and better causal association. Nonetheless, most of the early works in attribute learning did not model relations among attributes and explore such relations for attribute reasoning. The development of graph neural networks (GNN) (Kipf and Welling, 2016) made it possible to learn relations among attributes. For example, Meng et al. (Meng et al., 2018) used message passing to perform end-to-end learning of image representations, their relations as well as the interplay among different attributes. They observed that relative attribute learning naturally benefits from exploiting the graph of dependencies among different image attributes. In this paper, we not only utilize a graph neural network to model the correlations among attributes, but also embed a Bayesian network into the framework to better model causality.

2.2 Bayesian Networks

Bayesian networks (BN), introduced by Judea Pearl (Pearl, 1998), represent a natural approach to model causality and perform logical reasoning. The learning of Bayesian networks includes two phases: structure learning and parameter learning. The most intuitive method for structure learning is that of ‘search and score,’ where one searches the space of directed acyclic graphs (DAGs) using dynamic programming and identifies the one that minimizes the

objective function (Wit et al., 2012). For parameter learning, the most frequently used method is maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) (Pearl, 1998). However, when given a dataset, BN cannot learn a feature representation, which limits its further development. Recently, researchers have started to focus on the integration between BN and deep learning. For example, Rohekar et al. (Rohekar et al., 2018) proposed to utilize BN models for learning better deep neural networks. Meanwhile, a few improved versions of BN have been proposed for new applications in computer vision. For example, Barik (Barik and Honorio, 2019) improved BN using low-rank conditional probability tables. Elidan et al. (Elidan, 2010) used the Copula Bayesian Network model for representing multivariate continuous distributions. The method in this paper differs from the above work in that it exploits the representation power of deep neural networks and the causality modeling capability of BN by embedding them into a unified framework.

3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview

The proposed deep learning framework takes a 3D CT patch I enclosing a nodule as input and outputs the probability of malignancy P_m (Fig. 1). Our framework primarily consists of three modules: a feature extraction module, a hybrid attribute relation modeling module, and a residual fusion module. The feature extraction module, which is based on a 3D DenseFPN (Fig. 2), extracts features representing multiple semantic attributes. The attribute relation modeling module has two parallel components, an attribute graph network and a Bayesian network. Those extracted features are fed into two separate branches, one for each of these two components. In both branches, the extracted features are first transformed by a distinct fully connected layer. In the first branch, the transformed features are called attribute relation features (ARF), which are fed into the attribute graph network (AGN), which enhances feature representation and improves their discriminative power between benign and malignant nodules. Meanwhile, in the second branch, the transformed features are called attribute knowledge features (AKF), which are further converted into attribute scores (AS) via an *argmax* operation. Afterwards, the AS are fed into the Bayesian network (BN), through which the causation between malignancy and other attributes are determined to help explain how the deep learning model interprets CT image patches from an expert-interpretable man-

ner. Finally, a residual fusion module, which views the BN branch as the baseline and the AGN branch as the residual, is introduced to fuse the outputs of AGN and BN to obtain the ultimate probability of malignancy.

3.2 Attribute Graph Network

The Attribute Graph Network in this study is based on GCN, which utilized deep graph convolution to learn high-level knowledge representation from attribute features to facilitate the benign-alignant nodule classification. Specifically, the AGN can be represented as an undirected graph $G = \langle V, E, A \rangle$, where V and E are set of nodes and edges respectively, and A is the adjacency matrix which represents the connections among nodes of G . Here, each node is the deep feature of a kind of attribute (e.g., subtlety, lobulation). We consider a graph neural network ϕ_G to model the relation among various nodes with a layer-wise propagation rule as follows:

$$H_{i+1} = \sigma \left(D^{-1/2} (A') D^{-1/2} [H_i W_i + \sigma(H_i W'_i)] \right), \quad (1)$$

where $i \in \{0, 1, 2\}$,

$$A' = \omega_0 A + \omega_1 I, \quad (2)$$

$$D_{kk} = \sum_j A_{kj}. \quad (3)$$

In the above equations, A' is a weighted sum of the adjacency matrix A and the identity matrix I , D is the degree matrix of G , W and W' denote two trainable weight matrices, σ is a non-linear activation function (e.g., ReLU) and H is the matrix of activations. Different from the original propagation rule for graph neural networks, our modified propagation rule has an extra non-linear term $\sigma(H_i W'_i)$. Results from our ablation study (Section 4.2) will verify the effectiveness of the added non-linear term.

More specifically, the modeling process of AGN is as follows. First, the input of AGN, H_0 , is the matrix of attribute relation features (ARF, shown in Fig. 1) with a size of $M \times C$, where M is the number of attributes and C is the feature dimensionality of each attribute. Then a graph neural network ϕ_G , which has three layers $\{\phi_g^0, \phi_g^1, \phi_g^2\}$, is built according to (Kipf and Welling, 2016). The number of output channels of the three layers are 128, 64, and 32, respectively. The AGN can be trained in an end-to-end manner when cascaded with the feature extraction backbone. The result of knowledge reasoning performed with the AGN is sent into the residual fusion module, which produces the final malignancy prediction.

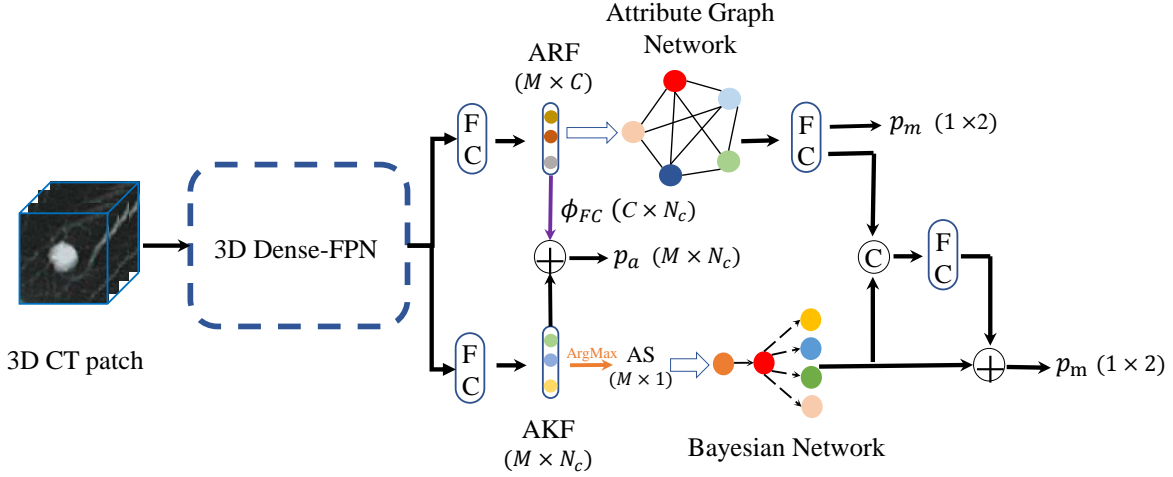


Figure 1: Our proposed framework consists of three stages: 1) Deep feature extraction using the 3D Dense-FPN backbone; 2) hybrid attribute relation modeling via an attribute graph network and a Bayesian network; 3) fusion of AGN and BN reasoning results for final malignancy prediction.

3.3 Bayesian Network Integration

A Bayesian network is incorporated to model probabilistic dependencies among various attributes of a nodule for malignancy reasoning. Specifically, a Bayesian network, $\mathcal{B} = \langle \mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \Theta \rangle$, is a directed acyclic graph (DAG) $\langle \mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E} \rangle$ with a conditional probability table (CPT) for each node, and Θ represents all parameters (CPTs), which encodes the joint probability distribution of the BN. Each node $v_i \in \mathcal{V}$ stands for a random variable, and a directed edge $e \in \mathcal{E}$ between two nodes (v_i, v_j) indicates v_i probabilistically depends on v_j . The training of a Bayesian network undergoes two phases, structure learning and parameter learning (Pearl, 1998; Pearl, 2014; Eaton and Murphy, 2012). We adopt dynamic programming with the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) (Wit et al., 2012) for structure learning to determine the topology of the DAG and maximum likelihood estimation for parameter learning to determine Θ . Our BN module first learns its structure and then updates all parameters, i.e. the conditional probability tables at all nodes in the network.

In this study, each node in the BN holds the score of a certain semantic attribute (e.g., lobulation, spiculation) of a pulmonary nodule. Note that the malignancy of the nodule is also a node in the BN. Fig. 3 shows the BN structure learned from the LIDC-IDRI dataset. The learned BN structure indicates that the node for malignancy has one parent node (i.e., spiculation) and four children nodes (i.e., subtlety, calcification, margin and lobulation). The remaining three attributes (i.e., internal structure, sphericity and texture) do not have any probabilistic dependencies with either malignancy or the other five attributes in Fig. 3.

Once the BN has been trained, it is cascaded with the 3D Dense-FPN backbone, whose output becomes the input evidences in the Bayesian network. We perform inference in the Bayesian network using the conditional probability tables as well as the input evidences, and obtain marginal posterior distributions at all nodes, including the node for disease diagnosis, as the output of the Bayesian network. Let the nodes in the Bayesian network be $v_i, i \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$. According to (Pearl, 1998), the marginal posterior distribution p_m of malignancy is formulated as

$$p_m = \int \dots \int_{\mathcal{V}} P(v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n) dv_1 \dots dv_n, \quad (4)$$

where

$$P(v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n) = \prod_{i=0}^n P(v_i | \text{Parents}(v_i)), \quad (5)$$

where v_0 represents the node for malignancy, and $\text{Parents}(v_i)$ is NULL if v_i does not have any parent nodes. The equation in (5) is derived using the local Markov property of Bayesian networks. In practice, to evaluate (4), we use the belief propagation algorithm in (Pearl, 1982). Consequently, the input evidence at a node in the Bayesian network is modeled as an incoming message from an auxiliary child node.

3.4 Residual Fusion and Training Scheme

Once attribute relation modeling and malignancy reasoning have been carried out within both the AGN and BN, malignancy reasoning results from these two networks need to be fused to further improve the prediction accuracy because the fused result could provide more complete information to distinguish the subtle

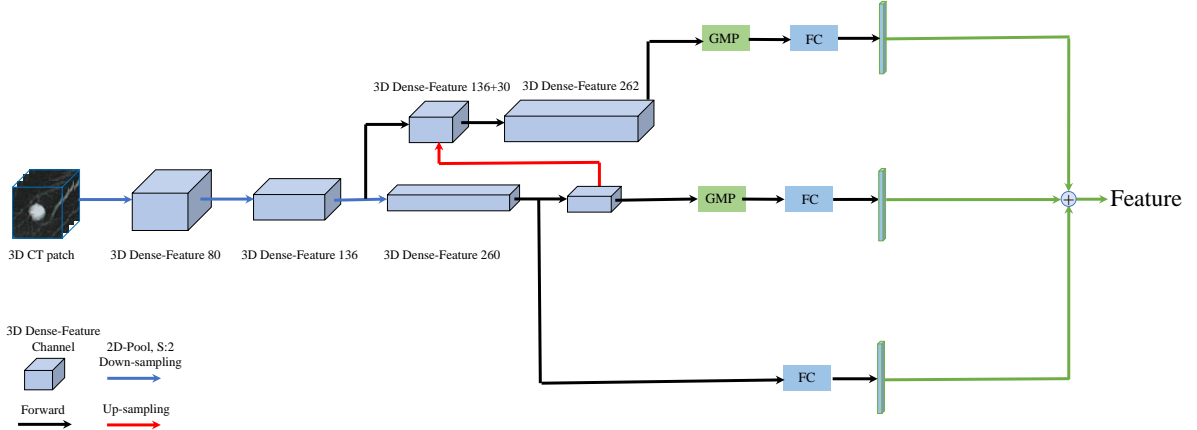


Figure 2: Overview of 3D Dense-FPN. It consists of a triple-stream structure, which aims to learn global and multi-scale local features. The top feature map has a small receptive field, which can extract small-scale features with the help of Global Mean Pooling (GMP); the middle feature map has a large receptive field, and thus can extract large-scale features; the bottom stream uses a FC layer, leading to the global image information. Then the sum of these three extracted features (three green lines) is fed into our hybrid attribute relation model. The module is supervised by the Cross-Entropy Loss. ‘3D Dense-Feature 80’ means the feature map from a Dense-Block with 80 output channels.

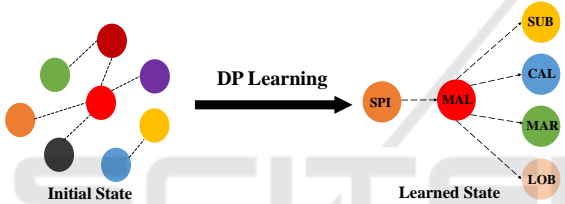


Figure 3: The Bayesian network structure learned from the LIDC-IDRI dataset. Notations are defined as follows. SPI: spiculation; MAL: malignancy; SUB: subtlety; CAL: calcification; MAR: margin; LOB: lobulation.

differences between benign and malignant nodules. One straightforward fusion scheme is concatenation, however, it does not distinguish the role of each original result. In this study, residual learning is adopted as the fusion strategy to fuse the output of the AGN and BN, which proves to be a more effective approach, as verified by our ablation study (Section 4.2). As shown in Fig. 1, the BN is set up to produce the baseline result while the AGN produces the residual on top of the baseline result. The reason for the BN being the baseline is that Bayesian networks could provide more reliable predictions when there is a shortage of training data, which is a common situation in radiology. Meanwhile, with the AGN being the residual branch, it can be taken as a feature enhancement module that provides high-level knowledge representations in a more discriminative embedding space, where the classification performance could be further improved when there is abundant training data. Our residual fusion scheme can be expressed as follows,

$$p_m = W_1 C(\sigma(W_0(H_{out})), p_m) + p_m, \quad (6)$$

where W_0 and W_1 are two fully connected layers, C is the concatenation operator.

The training procedure of the proposed hybrid model consists of three phases. First, the feature extraction backbone (i.e., the 3D Dense-FPN) is trained using the attribute classification loss in (7). Next, the trained backbone is cascaded with the AGN, and the cascaded network is trained using the binary benign–malignant nodule classification loss in (8). Meanwhile, dynamic programming and maximum likelihood estimation are used for the structure and parameter learning of the BN, respectively. Finally, the feature extraction backbone, AGN and BN are all connected, and the residual learning loss function in (9) is used to train the whole network from end to end. However, the BN is fixed after stand alone training, and no gradient would be generated for BN during the end-to-end training.

$$Loss_{att} = \sum_i \sum_j -y_a^{ij} \log(p_a^{ij}), \quad (7)$$

where $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, M-1\}$, $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, N_c-1\}$.

$$Loss_{bm} = \sum_i -y_m^i \log(p_m^i), i \in \{0, 1\}, \quad (8)$$

$$Loss = Loss_{att} + Loss_{bm}. \quad (9)$$

In the above equations, p_a with a size of $M \times N_c$ (attribute category number) is the prediction result of the attributes, which is obtained by performing the softmax operation over the sum of $\phi_{FC}(ARF)$ and AKF, as shown in Fig. 1. And y_a and y_m are the ground-truth attribute labels and malignancy labels, respectively.

Table 1: Comparison with Existing Benign–Malignant Nodule Classification Models.

Methods	Accuracy %
TumorNet (Hussein et al., 2017)	82.47
TumorNet-attribute (Hussein et al., 2017)	92.31
SHC-DCNN (Buty et al., 2016)	82.4
MCNN (Shen et al., 2015)	86.84
CNN-MTL (Hussein et al., 2017)	91.26
MK-SSAC (Xie et al., 2019)	92.53
MSCS-DeepLN (Xu et al., 2020)	92.64
3D-DENSE-FPN	89.02
3D-DENSE-FPN + AGN	92.04
3D-DENSE-FPN + BN	90.2
Proposed	93.59

4 EXPERIMENTS

4.1 Datasets and Settings

Dataset. The evaluation is performed on the LIDC–IDRI dataset (Armato III et al., 2011) from Lung Image Database Consortium. It includes 1010 patients (1018 scans) and 2660 nodules with slice thickness varying from 0.45 mm to 5.0 mm. There are nine labeled attributes for each nodule, i.e., subtlety, internal structure, calcification, sphericity, margin, lobulation, spiculation, radiographic solidity, and malignancy. 1404 nodules are considered in our experiments, 898 benign and 506 malignant. The CT volume is normalized to 0.6 mm along each dimension (pixel spacing and slice thickness). A $48 \times 48 \times 48$ image patch is extracted for each nodule. 64% patches are sampled to form the training set, 10% form the validation set and the remaining ones belong to the testing set.

Experimental Settings. The proposed model is trained from scratch using PyTorch (Paszke et al., 2019) while Adam (Kingma and Ba, 2014) being the optimizer with a learning rate of $1e-3$. In addition, to verify the generalization capability of our method under limited training data, we reduce the number of training samples to 1/4 and 1/8 of the original number of samples in the training set. We use simpler networks for AGN to achieve optimal performance on reduced training data, as shown in Table 2.

4.2 Experimental Results

Comparison with State-of-the-Art Methods. Table 1 shows the performance of our proposed framework and existing state-of-the-art classification models on the LIDC-IDRI dataset. It indicates that our proposed model achieves the highest accuracy of

93.59%, which is 4.57% higher than the performance of the 3D Dense-FPN baseline. The inclusion of either AGN or BN improves the performance, which verifies the effectiveness of our method. In addition, the residual fusion of AGN and BN further boosts the classification accuracy.

Ablation Study. We conduct a systematic ablation study to verify the effectiveness of individual modules in our framework. According to Table 2, we make the following conclusions. 1) Both AGN and BN can improve the performance of the baseline. AGN improves the accuracy from 89.02% to 92.04% while BN also achieves a 1.18% performance gain. 2) AGN performs better than the original GCN because of the additional non-linear term. 3) We compare the performance of different fusion strategies, and find out that the proposed residual fusion outperforms the concatenation of AGN and BN outputs.

5 CONCLUSIONS

We have presented a hybrid machine learning framework for lung nodule malignancy reasoning through attribute relation modeling. A residual fusion strategy is utilized in our framework to integrate two networks, an attribute graph network and a Bayesian network. Comprehensive experimental results on the LIDC-IDRI benchmark dataset demonstrate that the whole hybrid model can achieve a state-of-the-art classification performance on the LIDC-IDRI dataset and a strong generalization capability regardless of the amount of training data.

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Table 2: Ablation Study.

Training Num	Method	Accuracy %	Improvement %	GCN-Channels
All-Training Samples	Base	89.02	-	-
	Base+GCN	91.03	2.01	128-64-32
	Base+AGN	92.04	3.02	128-64-32
	Base+BN	90.20	1.18	-
	Ours-concat	92.12	3.10	128-64-32
	Ours-residual	93.59	4.57	128-64-32

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