Towards Lung Cancer Staging via Multipositional Radiomics and Machine Learning

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Abstract: This work addresses lung cancer diagnosis, and more specifically disease staging, as a major clinical challenge, crucial for further treatment decisions. The procedure is currently performed by experts based on clinical and medical imaging data and is time consuming and costly. Within INCISIVE, an EU-funded research project which aims to develop a pan-European federated image repository for cancer and implement Artificial Intelligence (AI) tools for clinical practice, clinical challenges have been identified that can be supported by AI in medical imaging data to facilitate accurate diagnosis and support treatment planning. The support and automation of lung cancer staging has been identified as a priority among the INCISIVE clinical challenges. In this scope, we propose a method to automatically classify between the group that represents disease stages I and II (low severity), vs the group that includes stages III and IV (severe). Tumour-Node-Metastasis system is used as a reference for staging. Based on lung CT image series with tumour and lung volume segmentation, we calculate and harmonise radiomics features and we propose the combination of tumour and lung lobes radiomics features towards improving the classification performance. Having a rich feature set as a basis, several combinations of feature selection and classification methods are tested and compared. Multiple repetitions of cross-validation and external testing splits are used to reach robust manner. The proposed method is trained and tested on an integrated dataset comprised of two open datasets (the NSCLC-Radiomics and the NSCLC-Radiogenomics dataset from the Cancer Imaging Archive). It achieves average Precision and Recall of 77.5% and 78.7% respectively, which could be further improved with a more extensive training set. Therefore, this can be the basis for a prioritisation tool regarding lung cancer cases and detailed staging/treatment decisions.

1 INTRODUCTION

Lung cancer is the leading cause of cancer-related mortality for both males and females with the daily deaths to be more than 2.5 times more than colorectal cancer, the second most common non-gender specific cancer, or more than breast, prostate, and pancreas cancer-related deaths together (Siegel et al, 2022). Primary or second-hand smoking, COPD, family history, or exposure to carcinogens, such as asbestos, cadmium or diesel fumes, are some of the risk factors (Thandra et al, 2021). Early diagnosis will have a great impact on the management of lung cancer patients since it is found that the five-year survival rates reach the 57% when the cancer is diagnosed in its early stages (Raz et al, 2007).

In INCISIVE project (https://incisive-project.eu/), we aim to address some major challenges in lung cancer diagnosis and treatment, using Artificial Intelligence tools and big data. Supporting and automating lung cancer staging has been recognized as one of the important challenges, which can facilitate accurate diagnosis and support treatment planning.

Specifically, non-small cell lung cancer is one of the two main categories of lung cancer. The disease
stage can reveal information regarding the size of the tumor if it has spread in parts of the body and it is important information when planning what kind of treatment is required. Staging is performed at the initial diagnosis of the patient and at a second time after the beginning of treatment, using the Tumor-Node-Metastasis system (TNM) (Rami-Porta et al, 2009).

Cancer imaging is mainly used for diagnosis, evaluation and treatment planning. In Lung cancer, CT screening is recommended for the detection of lung cancer but also as a screening for high-risk populations. Imaging data are used for the evaluation of disease severity with the TNM classification scheme proposed (Amin et al, 2017). In addition, the National Comprehensive Cancer Network (NCCN – https://www.nccn.org) has proposed guidelines for the selection of the appropriate therapy based on the TNM classification and staging of the patients, and thus the accurate staging of the cancer remains a major clinical challenge. The staging procedure is currently performed by experts through inspection and assessment of physical exams, biopsy results and imaging tests, which involve health costs, time effort, and invasive methods.

Introducing digital tools to facilitate this procedure, in terms of speed, cost, or accuracy, would be of great benefit. In this direction, radiomic analysis aims to extract characteristics of specific structures found in medical images, leading to the quantitative analysis of images. Radiomics features have already been combined with machine learning methods to detect malignancy in lung cancer (Anagnostopoulos et al, 2022), while additional clinical features, such as histopathological analysis results, have been used to improve the success rates of the above algorithms.

A number of previous research efforts have proposed methods to identify the stage of the patient non-invasively, using biomarkers that are extracted from medical images. Yu et al. (Yu et al., 2019) implemented a machine learning algorithm for radiomics-based prediction of the pathological stage of lung cancer. They reported that their results were promising, being able to predict the tumor stages with high accuracy, especially for lung adenocarcinoma type of cancer. Another paper on this topic, from (Kasinathan and Jayakumar, 2022), presents a cloud-based system and one of its components is a classifier for staging. They report a 97% accuracy of the model in this task for images automatically segmented. In (Ubaldi et al., 2021), authors report a machine learning pipeline that utilizes open data and radiomic feature extraction for histological and overall stage classification. They approached stage classification as a binary problem between stages I – II and achieved the best results with a Random Forest (AUC = 0.72 ± 0.04) and Support Vector Machine (0.84 ± 0.03) classifier. Interestingly, they also mention that while using 2 datasets, one for training and another for testing, they obtained better results when they used the 1st dataset for training and the 2nd for testing, than with the opposite order. They attributed this to the misrepresentation of the two classes (stages I-II) for the 2nd dataset. Indeed, the accuracy of the reference information and the harmonization requirements may increase the complexity of the problem.

The goal of our study is to employ radiomic features, extracted from both healthy and pathological tissue to develop a machine learning model for the accurate staging of the lung cancer case. We present a binary classification scheme, which classifies stage I and II vs stage III and IV using lung CT imaging data. We propose the use of tumour characteristics combined with those of both lung lobes for the characterization of staging. Upon full automation, this can be a valuable decision support tool for first-line diagnosis.

| preprocessing | lung masks | discard invalid data | merge datasets |
| feature extraction | radiomics features for tumour | radiomics features for the two lobes-lung volumes | normalised tumour radiomics features by lung volume features |
| feature selection iterations and final selection | repeat the following in 100 runs | make a train-test split | augment training data |
| model building and model comparison | 100 runs splits | each run CV each of the feature sets | train/tune models (svm linear, RF,net, dnn, glmnet) and majority/stacked ensembles |
| | | calculate average model performance metrics for comparison | |
2 METHODS

Cancer staging is originally a multiclass problem. In this work, we reduced it to a 2-class problem. Our proposed solution makes use of two publicly available datasets. Thus, the need for harmonization and the need to synthetically balance and augment the two classes were two crucial points. An overview of the proposed approach is presented in Figure 1. To increase statistical robustness, a repetitive procedure was chosen for feature selection, and consensus features were selected. Following model training and testing were also repeated multiple times, with different training/testing splits for cross-validation and external testing, to produce more stable results.

2.1 Data Description

The unified dataset used for the development of the model is comprised of two datasets available in the TCIA archive:

- The Radiomics dataset (Aerts et al, 2014). It contains 422 cases of non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC). For each case, pre-treatment CT scans, segmentations of ROIs of the images and clinical data are included. A manual delineation by a radiation oncologist of the 3D volume of the primary gross tumour volume ("GTV-1") and selected anatomical structures (i.e., lung) are available. The clinical variables available included age, TNM stages, Overall stage (inferred from TNM), gender, survival and other. The overall stage variable includes data belonging to stages: I, II, III.

- The Radiogenomics database. It contains 211 cases of NSCLC (Bakr et al, 2018). It includes data belonging to classes I to IV. For each case, CT images and tumour segmentations are available, together with biological and clinical data, including among other survival, age, gender. In this work, lung volume segmentations were not available, and therefore we applied the lungmask automated segmentation pipeline, based on deep learning (Hofmanninger et al, 2020).

In this work, the stages are grouped in two classes, C0 (I and II subtypes), and C1 (III, and IV subtypes). The rationale behind this choice is twofold: a) this distinction reflects the severity and need for different treatment options, and b) the multiclass problem would require a much higher number of samples per class, therefore the simplification to a two-class problem can lead to a more robust and useful approach. After rejecting problematic and incomplete samples, the final unified dataset includes 434 samples: 126 of which from the Radiogenomics database, and the rest from the Radiomics database. C0 has 198 samples and C1 has 236 samples, which include annotations for the tumour volume, left and right lung lobes, and needed clinical information. The percentage of stages represented is as follows: Stage I:147, Stage II:51, Stage III:232, and Stage IV:4.

2.2 Radiomics Features

2.2.1 Calculation of Radiomics Features

We employed radiomics features for the quantitative description of medical images. The pyradiomics pipeline (van Griethuysen et al, 2017) was employed for the calculation of radiomics features from the 3D volumes, resulting in 1218 features. These corresponded to features from the original images, the Laplacian filtered images, and the Wavelet images, including First Order Statistics, Shape-based (3D and 2D) descriptors, Gray Level Co-occurrence Matrix (GLCM), Gray Level Run Length Matrix (GLRLM), Gray Level Size Zone (GLSZM), Neighbouring Gray Tone Difference Matrix and Gray Level Dependence Matrix (GLDM).

Using the above-mentioned established pipeline, we calculated radiomics features for the following volumes: tumour volume, left lobe volume, right lobe volume. These volumes were already segmented, either manually or automatically, as mentioned in section 2.1. The calculation of features on the different volumes resulted in the \( Tu, LVR, \) and \( RVR \) radiomics vectors, respectively.

2.2.2 Multi-Source Harmonization of Radiomics Features

Harmonization at image level or feature level is a necessary step for multisite analysis (Mali et al, 2021), but also analysis of data produced by modalities of different vendors, to remove unwanted variation when combining data across scanners and sites. In the dataset used in this work, two sites and multiple vendors were identified. The data originating from vendors with very small representation were rejected, as harmonization of these data could be problematic. The chosen approach included the harmonization of radiomics features with Combat (Orlhac et al., 2022) method. Specifically, the steps followed were:

- Harmonisation of data from same vendor in the two databases (batch per database), which
incorporated most samples coming from the two databases.

- Harmonisation with the remaining data from other vendors in the two databases (batch per vendor)

In each step, the Combat pipeline was applied to the feature set, with batches defined as above, and the type of volume (e.g. tumour, left lobe, right lobe) as a confounder. Any non-harmonized features that presented statistically significant differences between batches after harmonization were removed, to avoid any bias related to batch effects.

### 2.2.3 Feature Extraction

Based on the radiomics of the tumour and those of the two lung lobes, new features were extracted, to express the tumour in contrast to background, and the differences between the two lobes. More specifically, the feature vectors \( Tu, LVR, RVR \), defined in section 2.2.1, were employed to calculate the normalized tumour radiomics \( TuNo \), which expresses the tumour radiomics features \( Tu \) divided by the average between the left and right volume radiomics features \( LVR, RVR \). This is expected to normalize the tumour radiomics values (tumour values with respect to background values), decrease the inter-subject variability, and improve the harmonization effort (Escudero Sanchez et al, 2021). \( TuNo \) features were calculated as in Eq 1.

\[
TuNo = 2 \times \frac{Tu}{LVR + RVR}
\]

(1)

In addition, the inter-lobe relative difference \( VRD \) was calculated between the radiomics features vectors \( RVR \) and \( LVR \) as:

\[
VRD = 2 \times \frac{|LVR - RVR|}{(LVR + RVR)}
\]

(2)

The \( VRD \) feature vector is expected to introduce information about the environment around the tumour. We chose to use the whole lobe volumes instead of a region around the tumour border, to increase simplicity and support automated pipelines, rather than options that involve human annotation.

Eventually, the feature vector set available for feature selection includes the \( Tu, TuNo \) and \( VRD \) features, i.e. the tumour features, the normalized tumour features and the inter-lobe relative differences.

### 2.3 Cancer Staging Models

The feature selection and classification model methodology are described below. One important point introduced in this work is the need to address the problem of availability of a large number of features, also correlated, in a dataset with comparable dimension. To improve robustness, the procedure is repeated multiple times. In each time, a different training and external testing dataset are split, and average behaviour among repetitions is eventually considered.

#### 2.3.1 Feature Selection

The challenge in this feature selection was the high number of features, which are to some extent correlated.

We considered as pre-processing steps: a) removing linearly correlated features, b) removing non statistically significant features based on kruskall-wallis test (KW) with threshold 0.05/N, (N=number of features).

Following, for the selection of the most informative features, we considered three methods, namely Recursive Feature Elimination (RFE), Boruta method and SCAD-L2 method (Zeng and Xie, 2014).

Using the above methods, we introduced an iterative procedure (100 iterations), which included in each step the following actions:

- Formation of a new Training/testing set split (80%)
- In the training set, application of the pre-processing step for the removal from the feature list of statistically unsignificant and correlated features.
- Data Augmentation via SMOTE (Chawla et al, 2002) in the training set to balance the classes and increase the data size
- Feature selection with one of the above methods (RFE, Boruta, SCAD+L2).

Based on the result of the repeated feature selection procedure, we introduced a voting mechanism to filter-in the features that were consistently selected in at least 50% of the iterations. These constitute our final feature list.

#### 2.3.2 Training ML Models

These final feature sets were used as inputs in model training. The classification models employed in this work were: a) SVM with linear kernel, b) Random Forest, c) generalized linear model via penalized maximum likelihood (R package ’glmnet’) (Friedman, 2010), d) Stacked Autoencoder Deep Neural Network (R package ’deepnet’), e) a majority voting model, f) an ensemble model based on generalized linear model (glm) of the above pretrained models. The train/test split was again
repeated 100 times, and in each repetition, the following steps took place:

- Train/test set split (80%),
- Training data Augmentation via SMOTE,
- Classification models with internal 5-fold cross-validation and hyperparameter optimization,
- Test performance metrics in each repetition.

The average test set performance metrics among the 100 repetitions was calculated and used for further model comparison.

3 RESULTS

3.1 Selected Features

The procedure started with a large number of features. The harmonization procedure rejected not well harmonized features, to avoid the introduction of unwanted batch bias. Following, after the generation of the TuNo and VRD features based on tumour and lung volumes, the number of Tu, TuNo, VRD features entering the feature selection pipeline was 1418. Effort was paid to end-up with a smaller number of important features for model training.

In each feature selection cycle, the pre-processing step (cross-correlation and KW test) rejected several features and resulted in a range of around 400 statistically significant features, which constituted the pool of features for feature selection by RFE or Boruta or Scad+V2.

Following, based on the intermediate feature selection sets, i.e. the features selected by each of the three mechanisms in each of the 100 training set repetitions described above, the consensus features for each feature selection method was produced, including the tumour (Tu), tumour normalized (TuNo) and relative volume differences (VRD) types of features. In RFE, 15 features were selected, 9 of which were TuNo features, and 6 VRD features. The majority (9/15) was wavelet features, and the rest were log (based on the Laplacian filtered image). In Boruta, 368 features were selected, 117/177/74 in Tu, TuNo and VRD types, respectively. The features originated from original, log filtered and wavelet-based images. The SCAD+L2 method resulted in 187 features, with only a small number of features coming from original images, and 32/117/38 in Tu, TuNo and VRD types. Figure 2 depicts the distribution of values per class for two features.

Overall, these are texture features in their majority. Most of them belong to the normalized tumour feature type (TuNo), and some more in the relative volume difference type (VRD), will only a few selected features from the initial tumour radiomics (Tu). This supports the choice for the “meta-features” introduced in this work. All relative difference texture features show higher relative difference in wavelet HHH texture feature values in C0 than C1, i.e. higher relative difference in the two lobes in the less metastatic stages. Most tumour normalized texture values are lower in C0, showing a clear difference between the tumour and background in the less severe stages.

3.2 Classification Results

Table 1 presents test set performance metrics, as median and quartiles of the test set performance metrics, repeated 100 times with different train/test set split. The median precision ranges between 75-80%, which suggests that when C1 (more severe class) is predicted, it is in general true, and the False
Positive is small. The recall is slightly lower (71-79%), which suggests that there are a few False Negatives, i.e. some C1 that are not identified, an issue that needs improvement. The best precision-recall case is found in the SCAD+L2-RD method, with both having values above 77%. It is worth noting that, as identified by (Webb et al, 1993) and (Wu et al, 2020), an interrater variability exists in the domain and the clinical staging accuracy and concordance with pathological values also can improve. The average balanced accuracy, and its standard deviations for all classification schemes are presented in Table II. It can be seen that RF classifier overall outperforms other schemes.

Table 1: Average Performance Metrics (Median and 1st-3rd Quartile) in the Test Set. C1: Positive Class. Sen=Sensitivity, Spec=Specificity, Prec=Precision, Rec=Recall, BA = Balanced Accuracy. Ens=ensemble classifier.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perf</th>
<th>RF</th>
<th>RFE</th>
<th>SCAD+L2</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Sen</td>
<td>78.72</td>
<td>77.6</td>
<td>74.47</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>70.218</td>
<td>71.818</td>
<td>70.217</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spec</td>
<td>66.677</td>
<td>64.107</td>
<td>71.798</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.92</td>
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<td>2.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prec</td>
<td>76.47</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>79.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>74.007</td>
<td>71.967</td>
<td>83.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rec</td>
<td>78.72</td>
<td>76.6</td>
<td>74.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>70.218</td>
<td>71.818</td>
<td>70.217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>8.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>77.42</td>
<td>76.68</td>
<td>76.57</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>73.458</td>
<td>73.287</td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>8.79</td>
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<tr>
<td>BA</td>
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<td>72.79</td>
<td>75.27</td>
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<td></td>
<td>71.96</td>
<td>71.16</td>
<td>72.078</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>76.81</td>
<td>75.48</td>
<td>0.17</td>
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</table>

4 CONCLUSIONS

In the current study, a data-driven approach is presented towards the development of a classification model for lung cancer staging.

Radiomic features, applied on CT images during initial diagnosis, from the tumour volume and the lung lobe volumes, were selected following three feature selection methods. These were combined and used as input in a machine learning model. Most features selected from each of the three feature selection methods (RFE, Boruta, SCAD+L2) belong to the Tumour normalized (TuNo) and relative volume differences (VRD) types of features, which shows the virtue of this multipositional radiomics approach. This can be related to the findings of (Escudero Sanchez et al, 2021) with respect to increased robustness of texture features after normalisation with normal tissue, although in our case the tissue comes from the tumour organ environment and cannot be classified as perfectly healthy. The less severe class (C0) shows higher relative difference in wavelet texture values among the two lobes, and lower normalised tumour textural characteristics. However, as mentioned by (Demircioğlu, 2022), one cannot conclude with a minimal number of radiomics as digital biomarkers, because “Feature relevance in radiomics strongly depends on the model used” and “Considering features selected by a single model is misleading”. Therefore, a more comprehensive approach will be employed to conclude with the most important features from multiple models as candidate biomarkers. With a balanced accuracy of 75 % and a F1-score 77.5%, the results are quite promising, although there is still room for improvement.

Although the sample size of the combined dataset was larger than the ones analysed in similar studies, we are positive that a larger sample would be preferable. Thus, we aim to retrain the model with data from other available open datasets, but also data collected as part of the INCISIVE project. As a result, also given the expected heterogeneity of the data collected from different clinical sites, special attention will be paid to the improvement of harmonization techniques, both regarding the raw imaging data but also the harmonization of radiomic features.

The novelty of this work compared to other efforts, lies in the combined use of a unified dataset from two sources, a set of enhanced features based on the relative differences of the lungs' and tumour's radiomic features and a repetitive data split/testing to eliminate possible variation in the predictive
performance of the model. We strongly believe that there is room for improvement, therefore we plan to enrich the dataset by including clinical data, and features that relate to TNM logic as well as combine clinical and pathological staging features. Upon availability of a larger dataset, additional classification algorithms will be investigated as to whether they improve the classification results, before moving to a finer multiclass classification scheme. Finally, the incorporation of a fairness and an explainability component is among the necessary future steps, to ensure better credibility of the proposed system, and facilitate its validation from a clinical perspective (or health expert’s) as well as its deployment in a clinical environment.

Table 2: Average Performance Metrics for all model combinations. In bold the best performances. BA = Balanced Accuracy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature set</th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Mean BA</th>
<th>Std BA</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RFE Linear SVM</td>
<td>73.78</td>
<td>3.81</td>
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<td>RF</td>
<td>76.03</td>
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<td>glm ensemble</td>
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<td>5.13</td>
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<tr>
<td>Boruta</td>
<td>Linear SVM</td>
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<tr>
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<td>5.03</td>
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<td>68.16</td>
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<td>67.77</td>
<td>5.73</td>
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<td>70.80</td>
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<td></td>
<td>glm ensemble</td>
<td>72.61</td>
<td>4.64</td>
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<td>SCAD+L2</td>
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REFERENCES


