Performance Review of Retraining and Transfer Learning of DeLTA2 for Image Segmentation for Pseudomonas Fluorescens SBW25

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Abstract: High throughput microscopy imaging yields vast amount of image data, e.g. in microbiology, cell biology, and medical diagnostics calling for automated analysis methods. Despite recent progress in employing deep neural networks to image segmentation in a supervised learning setting, these models often do not meet the performance requirement when used without model refinement in particular when cells accumulate and overlap in the image plane. Here, we analyse segmentation performance gains obtained through retraining and through transfer learning using a curated dataset of phase contrast microscopy images taken of individual cells and cell accumulations of Pseudomonas fluorescens SBW25. Both methods yield significant improvement over the baseline model DeLTA2 (O’Connor et al. PLOS Comp. Biol 18, e1009797 (2022)) in intersection–over–union and balanced accuracy test metrics. We demonstrate that (computationally cheaper) transfer learning of only 25% of neural network layers yields the same improvement over the baseline as a complete retraining run. Furthermore, we achieve highest performance boosts when the training data contains only well separated cells even though the test split may contain cell accumulations. This opens up the possibility for a semi–automated segmentation workflow combining feature extraction techniques for ground truth mask generation from low complexity images and supervised learning for the more complex data.

1 INTRODUCTION

Advances in technology allow modern biology to gather increasing amounts of data (Stephens et al., 2015). Since manual analysis cannot keep up with the increase of gathered data, automated data analysis methods become more and more important. Besides genomic and proteomic sequence data, microscopy imaging is among the major data sources (Peng, 2008) in various areas such as microbiology, cell biology or neurobiology.

Here we are interested in applications in the domain of evolutionary microbiology. Pseudomonas fluorescens is an important model organism in this field. Interest in our strain SBW25 (Rainey and Travisano, 1998; Silby et al., 2009) originates from its potential benefits for host plants, e.g. in an agricultural context (Thompson et al., 1993). Evolutionary research on SBW25 aims at characterizing genetically modified derivatives in terms of cell size and shape, metabolism, growth dynamics, evolutionary fitness, and ecology. Complementing genotyping via targeted and whole genome sequencing, timelapse–microscopy of growing cell colonies provides cell phenotype data such as cell size and shape, as well as growth rates as a function of time. To this end, microscopy images are segmented to identify individual cells followed by cell counting, size and shape analysis, classification and tracking.

Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) have been demonstrated to be a viable solution for computer vision tasks (LeCun et al., 2015), such as segmentation, object recognition and classification. Here, our focus is on image segmentation, i.e. the task to identify if a pixel belongs to a cell or not. Segmentation is usually the first task in a image analysis...
workflow. Errors in segmentation will propagate and potentially amplify in later workflow stages, such as tracking or cell counting.

For biological and medical image segmentation, various implementations have been developed, such as Cellpose (Stringer et al., 2021), DeLTA2 (O’Connor et al., 2022), MiSiC (Panigrahi et al., 2022), and more recently Omnipose (Cutler et al., 2022). Despite promising results in their respective realm of application and with respect to their training and test data, we found their accuracy suffered when applied to image data from our model organism *Pseudomonas fluorescens* SBW25.

Generic models achieving suboptimal results when applied to special datasets is a known phenomenon and was discussed e.g. in (Vaswani et al., 2017; Campello et al., 2021; Brown et al., 2020).

The main reason for the failure of generic models is the under-representation of the special dataset in the training data of the model (Ma et al., 2023). This in turn is mainly caused by the data generation and training process being inherently difficult and costly in time and human resources, if automated ground truth labeling is not available. This process often implies manual editing of individual images to create an accurate ground truth. In the case of bacteria, labeling of cell boundaries becomes ambiguous to a certain degree if cells touch or overlap, increasing the human workload.

Transfer Learning (TL) is a proven method to adapt generic models to specialized datasets (Weiss et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2022; Yu et al., 2022; Iman et al., 2023). In the case of CNNs this can be understood intuitively realizing that a CNN effectively acts as a series of filters. While early layers (filters) are mostly sensitive to specific aspects of the image (e.g. edges) later layers are sensitive to generic and abstract features (Chollet, 2018). Hence, retraining only the early layers transfers a model’s ability to segment images of one class of objects to another class in the case where these classes (such as bacteria of different species or strains) share certain generic features (such as their overall shape), but differ in more subtle features (e.g. length or curvature). In the limit of retraining all layers, transfer learning and complete retraining coincide. TL becomes especially useful if not much data for a retraining is available or if compute time for complete retraining is limited.

In the following, we describe how we performed and evaluated complete retraining and TL on a curated dataset of microscopy images taken from *Pseudomonas fluorescens* SBW25 cells. We quantify the model’s ability to segment our images in terms of performance metrics Balanced Accuracy (BA) and Intersection–over–Union (IoU). As a baseline model for comparison, we employ the trained segmentation model from the DeLTA2 software (O’Connor et al., 2022). DeLTA2 is also the base model for our TL experiments. We demonstrate that both complete retraining and TL yield a significant improvement over the baseline. Moreover, we find that transfer learning of only the top 25% of layers of the DeLTA2 model gives the same quantitative improvement over the unmodified DeLTA2 model as complete retraining, underlining the effectiveness of this method.

Secondly, we found that transfer learning yields accurate segmentation even for rather complex and dense cell accumulations although the training data contains only images with few and well separated cells. This result is remarkable insofar as the labeling of such low complexity images can be done in an automatized way using classical feature based segmentation techniques (e.g. thresholding or edge detection). This finding opens the possibility of largely automated (unsupervised) segmentation, where manual labeling of the training data becomes unnecessary.

## 2 DATASET CREATION

### 2.1 Microscopy

Our dataset consists of 34 time series of phase contrast microscopy images from growing *Pseudomonas fluorescens* cultures growing in different media. Data was taken on a Zeiss Axio Imager Z2 with 100x magnification. Each time series consists of 10-20 images taken at fixed time intervals. All series start shortly after the moment of inoculation with a single cell. The series end at different time points, usually when one or multiple communities of closely adjacent cells have emerged. In total, 412 images of 2048x2048 pixels have been included in this study. We refer to these images as the MPB dataset. They are available from (Fortmann-Grote and other, 2023).

### 2.2 Manual Masking

Manual creation of masks (i.e. black–white images with white denoting pixels that belong to a cell and black pixels belonging to the background) was performed using Adobe Photoshop version 23.5.1 (Adobe) and Affinity Photo version 1.10.6 ( Serif Ltd) using a touchscreen device and a graphics tablet (Wacom), respectively. Before masking, images were individually adjusted in brightness and contrast to enhance visibility of cell regions to the human eye. Adjusted images were disposed afterwards and not used.
for training. We marked the outline of cells with a tablet pen. Touching or overlapping cells were artificially separated by a one pixel thick boundary. The set of 412 images and 412 masks will be referred to as complete dataset henceforth.

Additionally, we generated masks for a subset of 226 images representing the first 5 time steps in our series. In this early times of the growth experiment, cell numbers are low and the few cells are isolated. Ground truth labeling could hence be carried out by intensity thresholding. We used the “modified IsoData thresholding method” implemented in MicrobeJ version 5.13n (8) – beta (Ducret et al., 2016) with offset threshold 180, stack histogram thresholding and bicubic resampling ($p = 0.5$). The set of early time images and masks is termed the partial dataset.

2.3 Training Validation Test Split

For training with the complete MPB dataset one time series with 16 images was set aside, the remaining 33 time series were split into 7 time series (88 images) for validation and 26 time series (308 images) for neural network training using backpropagation. For training with the partial MPB dataset 88 images were used for training and 49 images for validation. These 49 validation images are taken from the complete dataset to prevent leaky validation.

3 THE DeLTA2 BASELINE MODEL

DeLTA2 is a deep learning segmentation and tracking pipeline for two-dimensional time-lapse microscopy (O’Connor et al., 2022). The DeLTA2 segmentation model was trained on phase contrast images of *Escherichia coli* cells and achieves impressive segmentation accuracy of the order 99%. Since *E. coli* bacteria are similar to *Pseudomonas fluorescens* SBW25 cells in shape and size, we chose the DeLTA2 segmentation model as our baseline and as the starting point for retraining and TL. DeLTA2 has a U–Net architecture (Ronneberger et al., 2015) featuring two symmetric legs: Input images are fed into the contraction leg with 5 sets of alternating convolution and max–pooling layers. The expansion leg consists of 4 levels of alternating upsampling and convolution layers with additional concatenation of output from the corresponding level on the contraction leg. In total, the DeLTA2 model has 36 layers.

When evaluated on the complete MPB dataset, we found two major issues with the DeLTA2 model. These are illustrated in Fig. 1 showing a phase contrast image (1a) of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* SBW25 zoomed in on a cell cluster of 48 closely neighboring cells, the ground truth mask (1b) and the DeLTA2 segmentation result (1c). The colored areas mark the DeLTA2 segmentation. The first issue is that long cells are often split into two by the model, adding a narrow intercellular space (red pixels, false positive predictions). Secondly, the model wrongly classifies pixels outside the true cell perimeter as being part of the cell (green pixels, false positives) in numerous cases of smaller and isolated cells. In quantitative terms, DeLTA2 achieves only $\approx 90\%$ BA and $\approx 65\%$ IoU for our data (see Sec. 4.2), far below the reported values for the original DeLTA2 test evaluations. This finding is clearly unsatisfactory for our use case, hence the motivation for retraining DeLTA2 on our data.

4 RETRAINING EXPERIMENTS

We consider how the DeLTA2 model performs on phase contrast images of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* SBW25 with and without retraining. The combination of our two curated training datasets (complete and partial and the two considered training methods (complete retraining and transfer learning with only a subset of neural network layers) defines four experiments:

1. Complete retraining with complete dataset
2. Transfer learning with complete dataset
3. Complete retraining with partial dataset
4. Transfer learning with partial dataset
In all cases, the DeLTA2 segmentation model is the starting point. In the case of complete retraining, all network weights are initialized with random values, while in the case of TL, the network was initialized with the published pre-trained DelTA2 model. After training, all four cases are evaluated by calculating BA and IoU on the respective test split.

**4.1 Training Parameters**

DeLTA2 uses weight maps to emphasize important parts of an image. These were regenerated for all training data using a utility function from the DeLTA2 repository. An example weight map is included in the supplementary material (Fortmann-Grote and other, 2023). The complete retraining of the DeLTA2 neural network was performed over 600 epochs with 300 steps in each epoch. Early stopping with a patience of 50 epochs was applied to mitigate overfitting. The Adam optimizer was employed with a learning rate of 0.0001. Backpropagation used the pixel-wise weighted binary cross entropy (part of the DeLTA2 software) as loss function.

Transfer learning was run over 10 epochs with 300 steps and otherwise unchanged parameters. Training started from DeLTA2 pre-trained model. Retraining 2, 9, 18, 27, or 36 layers results in 5 distinct TL models in total.

**4.2 Metrics**

In order to compare the performance of our different models, we employ two performance metrics, BA (Minaee et al., 2020) and IoU. These are defined in terms of the number of true positive, true negative, false positive, and false negative pixel classifications per image, $TP, TN, FP,$ and $FN$,

$$TP = |A \cap B|$$

$$FP = |A \cap \neg B|$$

$$FN = |\neg A \cap B|$$

$$TN = |\neg A \cap \neg B|$$

with $A$ and $B$ being the set of pixels labeled as belonging to a cell in the model prediction and in the ground truth, respectively.

Then, BA is defined as

$$\text{Balanced Accuracy} = \frac{\text{Recall} + \text{Specificity}}{2}$$

with:

$$\text{Recall} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

$$\text{Specificity} = \frac{TN}{TN + FP}$$

BA was suggested as a suitable metric for skewed (imbalanced) datasets (García et al., 2009).

IoU is the ratio of the number of pixels correctly predicted as “cell” (intersection between prediction and ground truth) and the number of pixels being labeled as “cell” in either prediction or ground truth or both (union of prediction and ground truth):

$$\text{IoU} = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A \cup B|} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN + FP}$$

IoU is considered a very robust test metric (Minaee et al., 2020) and can be shown to be the strictest evaluation metric for reasonably well performing classification tasks.

**5 RESULTS**

**5.1 Retraining**

The model resulting from a complete retraining with the complete MPB dataset achieves a mean $BA(IoU)$ of 0.91(0.75). Compared to 0.85(0.65) achieved by the DeLTA2 pretrained model, this is a significant improvement. In Fig. 2 we show a color coded comparison between model predicted masks from test data and the ground truth. Mask pixels correctly identified as belonging to a cell are highlighted in white (true positives), false positives are colored in green, false negatives are colored red and true negatives in black. While the baseline model DeLTA2 (Fig. 2a) yields a high false–positive rate (indicated by green areas), retraining on either the complete (Fig. 2b) or the partial (Fig. 2c) MPB dataset significantly reduces the false–positive rate. On the other hand, the false–negative rate slightly increases compared to the baseline (indicated by red areas) but a net improvement in overall BA and IoU remains. Remarkably, both variants of completely retrained model (using the complete dataset and using the partial dataset) yield similar segmentations; the respective masks are indistinguishable by eye.

**5.2 Transfer Learning**

Table 1 tabulates the averaged balanced accuracy and IoU values obtained from various TL models differing in the numbers of retrained layers. The confidence intervals are taken as the twofold standard deviation over three independently trained models and over all images in the timeseries. All TL models improve the segmentation performance compared to the baseline model DeLTA2 (corresponding to 0 retrained layers). Within the two sigma error margins all retrained models achieve the same performance gain. Looking at the average values only, we find a slight improvement when retraining nine or more layers compared to the two layer case, but the difference is not significant.
We find the same pattern when we group the test images according to their timestamp in the microscopy timeseries and calculate the various TL models’ performance metrics for each group separately. This is shown in Fig. 3 for TL with the complete dataset. BA and IoU are plotted against the timestamp of the respective group of images. The measured performance metrics values vary over the entire timeseries, with the tendency of decreasing performance towards later timepoints where cells are more abundant and start to accumulate and to overlap. Within error margins, given as shaded areas in Fig. 3, TL models with nine or more retrained layers yield the same performance metrics while the two layer model performs slightly worse.

Finally, we performed the same set of model training and evaluations for TL models trained on the partial dataset. Note however, that the test split is identical to the complete dataset, i.e. it contains data from one entire timeseries, including cell accumulations and overlapping cells.

Table 2 lists the mean values for BA and IoU over the timeseries for the models trained on the partial training dataset. We observe the same trend as in the case of training with the complete dataset: All models yield the same average performance (within the two sigma confidence interval) with the model
Figure 4: Balanced accuracy (left) and IoU (right) vs. image timestamp for transfer learning with varying number of retrained layers for the partial MPB timeseries dataset. The shaded areas denote the min/max range over three independently trained models. Horizontal lines next to y-axis indicate total mean values over the timeseries according to Tab. 1.

Table 2: Mean balanced accuracy and mean IoU for transfer learning models trained on the partial MPB dataset and with varying number of retrained layers. 0 retrained layers corresponds to the original DeLTA2 model. Error margins are computed as 2 times the standard deviation over all test images and over three independently trained model replicates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>retrained layers</th>
<th>mean BA</th>
<th>mean IoU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.86 ± 0.04</td>
<td>0.71 ± 0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.90 ± 0.04</td>
<td>0.76 ± 0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.90 ± 0.04</td>
<td>0.77 ± 0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>0.90 ± 0.04</td>
<td>0.78 ± 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>0.90 ± 0.04</td>
<td>0.77 ± 0.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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with only two retrained layers performing slightly but insignificantly worse than the models with nine or more retrained layers. Figure 4 shows the performance metrics for images grouped by their timestamp. In this representation it becomes evident that retraining only nine layers (25% of the DeLTA2 U–Net) gives the same improvement as retraining the entire model, while retraining only two layers performs significantly worse.

Interestingly, both BA and IoU values for TL with the partial dataset coincide with the respective values for the complete dataset (Tab. 1). We compare our transfer learning results for the partial and for the complete training dataset in more detail in Fig. 5. Within error bars, transfer learning with 10 retrained layers yields the same validation metrics in both cases at each timepoint in the series.

From these results we conclude that the test evaluation of TL models is not correlated with the complexity of the training dataset.

6 DISCUSSION

Not surprising, we observe significant improvement in IoU and BA compared to the original DeLTA2 model when completely retraining the model on the MPB dataset. We also confirmed that TL improves performance of the segmentation model.

As a rather novel result, we observed that the performance gain with complete retraining and with TL can be achieved with training data of reduced complexity compared to the evaluation test data.

This last result paves the way towards a segmentation workflow without the laborious manual labeling of training data. Manual labeling could be replaced by automated unsupervised labeling of the low complexity images with only few isolated cells. In a growth experiment, these would typically be the very early images in the time series. These can efficiently be segmented by e.g. thresholding or edge detection. Subsequently, a U–Net could be trained on this automatically labeled data and finally be applied to the full complexity dataset.

Looking out to future research, the present approach to evaluate various segmentation models and their retraining should be extended to other Deep Learning Segmentation implementations as well as to traditional segmentation techniques. The latter play
Figure 5: Balanced Accuracy (left) and IoU (right) vs. image timestamp for two models trained on different datasets: Orange lines for training with the complete training dataset, blue lines for training with the partial training dataset. Shaded areas indicate the min-max interval from 3 model replicates. The test metrics are plotted against the timestep of the timelapse microscopy test dataset.

a crucial role in the envisioned automated segmentation workflow and should be well understood in order to achieve the best possible automated ground truth labeling for the subsequent deep learning training.

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