

Improving Mitosis Detection via UNet-Based Adversarial Domain Homogenizer

Tirupati Saketh Chandra*^a, Sahar Almahfouz Nasser*^b, Nikhil Cherian Kurian^c
and Amit Sethi^d

Electrical Engineering Department, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India

*Indicates Equal Contribution

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Abstract: The effective counting of mitotic figures in cancer pathology specimen is a critical task for deciding tumor grade and prognosis. Automated mitosis detection through deep learning-based image analysis often fails on unseen patient data due to domain shifts in the form of changes in stain appearance, pixel noise, tissue quality, and magnification. This paper proposes a domain homogenizer for mitosis detection that attempts to alleviate domain differences in histology images via adversarial reconstruction of input images. The proposed homogenizer is based on a U-Net architecture and can effectively reduce domain differences commonly seen with histology imaging data. We demonstrate our domain homogenizer's effectiveness by showing a reduction in domain differences between the preprocessed images. Using this homogenizer with a RetinaNet object detector, we were able to outperform the baselines of the 2021 MIDOG challenge in terms of average precision of the detected mitotic figures.

1 INTRODUCTION

In many practical applications of machine learning models domain shift occurs after training, wherein the characteristics of the test data are different from the training data. Particularly in the application of deep neural networks (DNNs) to pathology images, the test data may have different colors, stain concentrations, and magnification compared to what the DNN was trained on due to changes in scanner, staining reagents, and sample preparation protocols. MIDOG2021 (Aubreville et al., 2021) (organized with MICCAI 2021) was the first challenge that addressed the problem of domain shift in pathology – in this case, the scanner – as it is one of the reasons behind the failure of machine learning models after training, including those for mitosis detection.

Domain generalization is the set of techniques that improve the prediction accuracy of machine learning models on data from new domains without assuming access to those data during training. Proposing and

testing various domain generalization techniques was the main goal of the MIDOG2021 challenge.

In this paper, we present our work which is an extension of our proposed method for MIDOG2021 (Almahfouz Nasser et al., 2021). Our contribution is three-fold and can be summarised as follows. Firstly, we modified (Almahfouz Nasser et al., 2021) by shifting the domain classifier from the latent space to the end of the autoencoder, which improved the results drastically. Secondly, we showed the importance of perceptual loss in preserving the semantic information, which affects the final accuracy of the object detection part. Finally, unlike our previous work, training the auto-encoder along with the object detection network end-to-end improved the quality of the homogenized outputs substantially.

2 RELATED WORK

In this section, we introduce the most significant notable solutions for the MIDOG2021 challenge before introducing our proposed method.

In (Wilm et al., 2021) the authors modified RetinaNet network (Algaissi et al., 2020) for mitosis detection by adding a domain classification head and a

^a <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0325-5821>

^b <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5063-9211>

^c <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1713-0736>

^d <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8634-1804>

gradient reversal layer to encourage domain agnosticism. In this work, they used a pre-trained Resnet18 for the encoder. For their discriminator, it was a simple sequence of three convolutional blocks and a fully connected layer. The domain classifier was placed at the bottleneck of the encoder. Breen et al (Breen et al., 2021) proposed a U-Net type architecture that outputs the probability map of the mitotic figures. These probabilities get converted into bounding boxes around the mitotic figures. They used a neural style transfer (NST) as a domain adaptation technique. This technique casts the style of one image on the content of another. The method proposed by (Chung et al., 2021) consists of two parts, a patch selection and a style transfer module. To learn the styles of images from different scanners, they used a StarGAN (Choi et al., 2018). A two steps domain-invariant mitotic detection method was proposed by (Nateghi and Pourakpour, 2021). This method is based on Fast RCNN (Girshick, 2015). For domain generalization purposes they used StainTools software (Peter Byfield and Gamper, 2022) to augment the images. StainTools package decomposes the image into two matrices, a concentration matrix C and a stain matrix S. By combining the C and S matrices from different images they produced the augmented images. A cascaded pipeline of a Mask RCNN (He et al., 2017) followed by a classification ensemble was proposed by (Fick et al., 2021) to detect mitotic candidates. A Cycle GAN (Zhu et al., 2017) was used to transfer every scanner domain to every other scanner domain. In (Jahanifar et al., 2021) the authors used a stain normalization method proposed by (Vahadane et al., 2016) as a preprocessing step for the images. Others like (Dexl et al., 2021) merged hard negative mining with immense data augmentation for domain generalization was proposed by (Dexl et al., 2021). Stain normalization techniques such as (Reinhard et al., 2001) and (Vahadane et al., 2015) were used in (Long et al., 2021) to account for the domain difference between images. Almahfouz Nasser et al., (Almahfouz Nasser et al., 2021) proposed an autoencoder trained adversarially on the sources of domain variations. This autoencoder makes the appearance of images uniform across different domains.

In the rest of the paper, we describe our proposed method, the data and experiments. Then, we show qualitative and quantitative results of our method and conclude with the take-home message from this work.

3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Notations

In domain generalization there are source (seen) domains, which are shown to the model during training, and there are target (unseen) domains, which are used only during testing. Labelled samples from the source domains are represented by $D_{I_s} = \{(x_i^{I_s}, y_i^{I_s})\}_{i=1}^{N_{I_s}}$, unlabelled source domains are represented by $D_{us} = \{(x_i^{us})\}_{i=1}^{N_{us}}$, and labelled target domains are represented by $D_{I_{us}} = \{(x_i^{I_{us}}, y_i^{I_{us}})\}_{i=1}^{N_{I_{us}}}$. Let the source images from all subsets be represented by $D_s = D_{I_s} \cup D_{us}$.

3.2 Adversarial End-to-End Trainable Architecture

Inspired by the work of (Ganin and Lempitsky, 2015), we have used an encoder-decoder network to translate the patches from different domains (scanners) to a common space. The translated images are then passed through RetinaNet for object detection (Algaissi et al., 2020). The architecture also consists of an adversarial head with domain classification as an auxiliary task. This head encourages the encoder-decoder network to erase all the domain-specific information using a gradient reversal layer. The architecture of our method is as shown in figure 1.

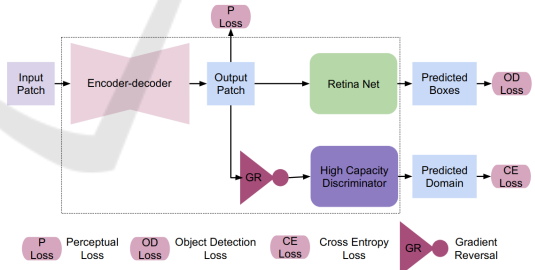


Figure 1: The pipeline of our proposed method for mitosis detection.

3.3 Training Objectives

The object detection loss consists of bounding box loss (\mathcal{L}_{bb}) and instance classification loss (\mathcal{L}_{inst}). The bounding box loss (\mathcal{L}_{bb}) is computed as smooth L1 loss and the focal loss function (Lin et al., 2017b) is used for the instance classification (\mathcal{L}_{inst}). The equation for the focal loss with p_k as probability that the instance belong class k is given by,

$$FL(p_k) = (1 - p_k)^\gamma \log(p_k) \quad (1)$$

In order to ensure that the images translated by encoder-decoder network contains the semantic information a perceptual loss (\mathcal{L}_{percp}) is used. We have used the perceptual loss based on pretrained VGG-16, which is proposed in (Johnson et al., 2016). The perceptual loss is given by equation 2

$$\mathcal{L}_{percp}^{(j)} = \frac{1}{C_j H_j W_j} \|\Phi_j(\hat{x}) - \Phi_j(x)\|_2^2 \quad (2)$$

where x and \hat{x} are the input and reconstructed images respectively. Φ is the pretrained frozen VGG network, j is the level of the feature map (zero-indexed) of size $C_j \times H_j \times W_j$ obtained from Φ . At the end of the adversarial head we have used standard cross entropy loss (\mathcal{L}_{CE}) for domain classification.

The overall loss for the end-to-end training is given by,

$$\mathcal{L} = E_{(x,y) \in D_{is}} [\mathcal{L}_{bb} + \mathcal{L}_{inst}] + E_{(x,y) \in D_{us}} [\lambda_1 \mathcal{L}_{percp}^{(j)} + \lambda_2 \mathcal{L}_{CE}] \quad (3)$$

4 DATA AND EXPERIMENTS

4.1 Dataset

The experiments were conducted on MIDOG 2021 dataset (Aubreville et al., 2021) which consists of 50 whole slide images of breast cancer from four scanners namely Hamamatsu XR NanoZoomer 2.0, Hamamatsu S360, Aperio ScanScope CS2, and Leica GT450 forming four domains. Two classes of objects are to be detected namely mitotic figures and hard negatives. The whole slide images from scanners other than the Leica GT450 are labelled. Small patches of size 512×512 are mined for supervised end-to-end training such that the cells belonging to at least one of the mitotic figures or hard negatives are present in the patch.

The seen and unseen domains i.e., the scanners are $D_{is} = \{\text{Hamamatsu XR NanoZoomer 2.0, the Hamamatsu S360}\}$, $D_{us} = \{\text{Leica GT450}\}$, $D_{lus} = \{\text{Aperio ScanScope CS2}\}$ (refer 3.1 for notations.)

4.2 Implementation Details

The model is implemented using Pytorch (Paszke et al., 2019) library. For supervised end-to-end training a batch size of 12 is used with equal number of patches being included from each scanner. Here the model is trained using FastAI (Howard et al., 2018) library default settings with an initial learning rate of $1e^{-4}$. In the equation 3 we have set the values of hyperparameters as $j=1$, $\lambda_1=10$ and $\lambda_2=25$. These values

are chosen by grid search over a range of values. Further tuning of these values can yield better results.

Our code is available on Github (Almahfouz Nasser et al.,).

4.3 Results

Two classes of objects – hard negatives, and mitotic figures – are detected. The models are evaluated on $D_{is} \cup D_{lus}$. One of the standard metric for object detection Average precision (AP) at intersection over union (IoU) threshold of 0.5, which is introduced in PASCAL VOC challenge (Everingham et al.,), is used as metric for evaluation. It represents the average of precision values obtained at various bounding box confidence thresholds.

End-to-end training with (AEC_RetinaNet + Pcp) and without using perceptual loss (AEC_RetinaNet) were tried. The results are compared with the reference algorithm DA_RetinaNet (Wilm et al., 2021), RetinaNet (Lin et al., 2017a) with and without data augmentation. The results obtained are as shown in table 1.

The count of mitotic figures is an important clinical goal. So, the performance on the class of mitotic figures was our focus. The results in the table 1 show that the newly designed end-to-end training architectures performs better than the reference algorithm and the basic RetinaNet based algorithms. The improvement is in terms of detection performance for the class mitotic figures,.

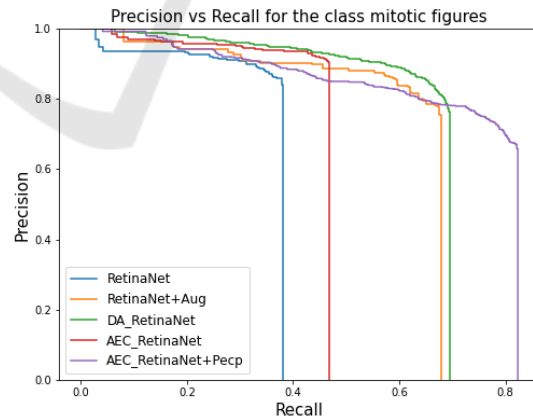


Figure 2: The precision vs recall plot, which represents the values of precision and recall at various IoU thresholds, shows that the newly designed end-to-end model performs better than the baselines in terms of recall values without compromising on the precision.

From the precision-recall plot shown in figure 2 represents the values of precision recall at various IoU thresholds. Our method is able to achieve a better re-

Table 1: Results obtained using end-to-end training of models.

Model	AP-Hard Neg	AP-Mitotic figures	mAP
RetinaNet	0.196	0.352	0.274
RetinaNet + Aug	0.238	0.619	0.429
DA_RetinaNet	0.347	0.655	0.501
AEC_RetinaNet	0.289	0.448	0.369
AEC_RetinaNet + Pecp	0.248	0.72	0.484

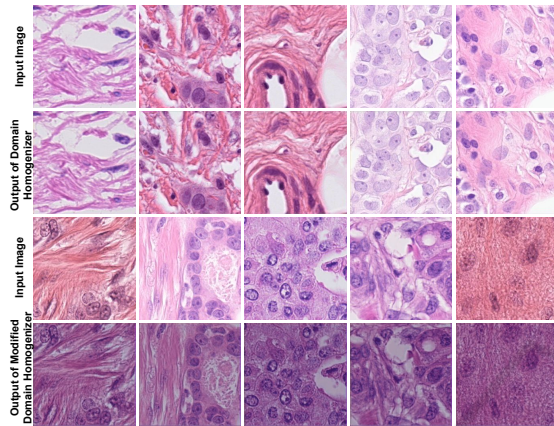


Figure 3: A visual comparison of the performances of the domain homogenizer and the modified domain homogenizer (proposed method) on a randomly sampled set of patches. The modified version is able to transform the images from various scanners to a common space and the translated images cannot be visually distinguished on the basis of scanner whereas the original domain homogenizer produced the exact same input images.

call without compromising on the precision.

The perceptual loss added at the output of the decoder helps in retaining the semantic information. This information which helps in better object detection. This is also validated by higher AP score obtained when perceptual loss component is added.

As shown in figure 3 the modified domain homogenizer produced much more plausible images than the original domain homogenizer (Almahfouz Nasser et al., 2021). Besides, figure 4 shows the detection accuracy of our proposed method.

5 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we proposed a modified version of our previous domain homogenizer proposed by us and tested it on the data from for the MIDOG 2021 challenge 2021. We showed that the position of the domain classifier has a significant impact on the performance of the homogenizer. Shifting the adversarial head from the latent space to the output of the auto-encoder helps in erasing all the domain-specific in-

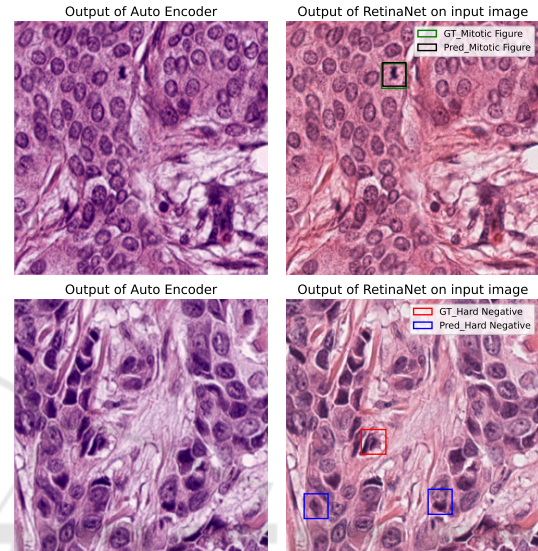


Figure 4: Two examples explaining the results of our proposed method from table 1 i.e., our method is able to detect the mitotic figures accurately but not the hard negatives.

formation as the inverse of the domain loss will flow back throughout the decoder and the encoder unlike the situation in the previous arrangement. Additionally, our experiments revealed that training the homogenizer along with the object detection network end-to-end improves the detection accuracy by a significant margin. Finally, we showed that our method substantially improves upon the baseline of the MIDOG challenge in terms of mitotic figures detection.

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