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# Ultrasound radio-frequency time series for finding malignant breast lesions

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## Abstract

This project provides an insight into ultrasound-based solutions for breast lesion characterization to reduce the patient recall rate after mammography screening. In this work, ultrasound radio frequency time series analysis is performed for separating benign and malignant breast lesions with similar B-mode appearance. The radio frequency time series method is versatile and requires only a few seconds of imaging with no need for additional instrumentation. This study employs the spectral and fractal features of ultrasound radio frequency time series along with a machine learning framework with leave-one-patient-out cross validation of the classification. Support vector machines, bagged decision trees (random forest), and naive Bayes methods are used and compared in this context. For clinical relevance, cancer probability maps are also produced, by estimating the posterior malignancy probability of regions of size  $1 \text{ mm}^2$  in the suspicious lesions. Recorded area under the receiver operating curve is, 0.79 using SVM, 0.74 using random forest, and 0.68 using naive Bayes classification. All classifiers successfully classified 6 out of 7 patients with malignant breast lesions and 4 out of 5 patients with benign lesions, with success defined as correct classification of at least 80% of the  $1 \text{ mm}^2$  regions. The above findings suggests that ultrasound radio frequency time series along with the developed machine learning framework can help in differentiating malignant from benign breast lesions.

## 1 Introduction

In the United States, it is estimated that 226,870 (29%) of all new cancer cases among women will be breast cancer [1]. Breast cancer also ranks first in cancer related deaths among women of 20-59 years [1]. Mammography is routine for screening asymptomatic patients; however, it is not very effective in identifying benign and malignant breast lesions [2, 3]. The high rate of recall for biopsy after mammography emphasizes the need to augment the Breast Imaging-Reporting and Data System (BI-RADS). Breast ultrasound is used as a supplement to mammography in distinguishing benign from malignant in non-palpable breast lesions. Ultrasound has a high sensitivity, however rather low specificity. In some studies, a specificity of 31% was recorded [4]. Currently, almost 75% of the biopsies carried out after radiological diagnosis turn out to be benign [2, 5]. Thus, there exists a need for reducing the number of breast biopsies and improving ultrasound-based diagnosis.

To improve the performance of ultrasound-based techniques for breast cancer imaging, researchers have widely explored strain-based elastography for tumor classification with high success rates [6, 7, 8, 9, 10]. The average area under the Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve for ultrasound elastography was recorded as 0.90 [6], 0.85 [7], and 0.92 [8]. Freehand elastography depends on compression applied to the tissue by the probe. This compression is applied manually through the transducer [10], or by the use of a “shaker”[8].

054 Recently, a tissue typing method based on a time series of Radio Frequency (RF) ultrasound signals  
055 was proposed which could complement B-mode and elastography techniques for breast lesion clas-  
056 sification. The advantage of this method is that it does not require a vibration mechanism. In the  
057 past, RF time series has been proven successful in detecting prostate cancer and differentiating ani-  
058 mal tissue types [11, 12, 13]. The credibility of RF time series for tissue typing has been established  
059 through analysis and experiments. A model has been developed to relate the variations of the US  
060 backscattering to the variations in tissue temperature and sound speed that take place during the RF  
061 time series scanning procedures [14]. The measurements of the variations in the US backscattering  
062 are then used in a tissue classifier. In this work, for the first time, the performance of RF time series  
063 in separating benign and malignant breast lesions *in vivo*, is reported.

064 For the purpose of this project, a machine learning framework was developed for quantitative anal-  
065 ysis of spectral and fractal parameters extracted from RF time series. In this study, three different  
066 classification algorithms were used to generate highly sensitive and specific malignancy maps that  
067 can be used for decision support in biopsy recommendation. The proposed approach can be part of  
068 the overall solution for multiparametric ultrasound imaging of breast cancer.

## 070 2 Methods

### 072 2.1 Data Collection

074 An RF time series is formed by the sequence of RF echoes received from one location in the tissue  
075 over time. To acquire the RF time series, one keeps the ultrasound probe and the tissue fixed in  
076 place and acquires frames of RF signals. In this method of analysis, the tissue typing parameters are  
077 extracted from the temporal changes of signal as opposed to the classical method of spectral analysis  
078 on spatial segments of the RF signals [15].

079 In order to study the utility of RF time series analysis in separating cancerous breast lesions from  
080 benign findings, a study approved by the Clinical Research Ethics Board at the University of British  
081 Columbia was devised. Patients referred to ultrasound-guided biopsy, based on mammography  
082 screening, were consented for data collection during biopsy for this study. The study was con-  
083 ducted between September 2012 and January 2013. Data was obtained on a Sonix Touch ultrasound  
084 machine (Ultrasonix Medical Corp., Richmond, BC, Canada). The research platform provided by  
085 the manufacturer enabled acquisition of raw RF signals in real time. For every subject, the sonog-  
086 rapher first performed a preliminary ultrasound scan to find the suspected lesion. Once the lesion  
087 was located, the sonographer would hold her hand steady for 4 seconds while a computer program  
088 stored the RF data into the memory and consequently saved it in a file. Imaging was performed  
089 with an L14-5/38 ultrasound transducer at a center frequency of 10 MHz and a depth of 4 cm. Each  
090 RF line was sampled at 40 MHz and a total of 128 A-lines were acquired for each RF frame. With  
091 these image settings, a frame-rate of 98 frames per second was achieved. The data collection of  
092 each subject was followed by a routine ultrasound exam and a core needle biopsy of the lesion under  
093 ultrasound guidance by the physician. The first 12 cases are reported here. Biopsy results for these  
094 cases showed seven malignant lesions all of the invasive ductal carcinoma type and five benign cases  
095 all of the fibroadenoma type.

### 096 2.2 Features

097 Only the first 256 (out of 490) RF frames (2.6 sec) were used for calculating the features. This was  
098 done to minimize the effects of patient motion on the analysis. The biopsied lesions were divided  
099 into 1 mm<sup>2</sup> regions of interest (ROIs). The tissue typing features were extracted from these ROIs.  
100 In the RF domain, this ROI size was equivalent to 3×52 samples each forming a time series. Note  
101 that from the 12 lesions in the dataset, a total of 641 ROIs were extracted. Among these, 241 were  
102 malignant. In other words, the first 241 samples of the training data belonged to the malignant class  
103 and the rest 400 samples belonged to the benign class.

104 The following seven spectral and fractal parameters were extracted from each time series and aver-  
105 aged to form the feature vector describing an ROI.

106 Spectral parameters: The frequency spectrum was estimated by calculating the FFT-based peri-  
107 odogram of the Hamming windowed time series. This estimated spectrum was divided into four

108 frequency bands and each averaged to deliver a feature. In other words, the first four features (Fea-  
 109 tures 1-4) were the average of the frequency spectrum in  $[0, \pi/4)$ ,  $[\pi/4, \pi/2)$ ,  $[\pi/2, 3\pi/4)$ ,  $[3\pi/4, \pi]$   
 110 frequency bands in the discrete frequency domain. Note that the sampling rate here is equivalent  
 111 to the frame rate of the ultrasound machine. Two other spectral features were the intercept (Fea-  
 112 ture 5) and the slope (Feature 6) of a regression line fitted to the magnitude of the spectrum versus  
 113 normalized frequency.

114 Fractal dimension: Feature 7 was the average fractal dimension of RF time series in a region of in-  
 115 terest. In this context, fractal dimension (FD) is a measure of the nonlinear complexity of the signal.  
 116 For calculation of the FD, the algorithm proposed by Higuchi [16] was used, which decomposes the  
 117 signal into different scales and evaluates the signal complexity. Higuchi's algorithm was used with  
 118 16 levels of decomposition for the time series of length 256.

### 120 2.3 Classification and estimation of posterior malignancy probabilities

121 Support vector machine (SVM): SVM is a widely used maximum margin classifier. In the classi-  
 122 fication process using SVM, the data is first mapped to a significantly higher dimension and then  
 123 the optimum hyperplane that separates the data into two classes is found. Training the data includes  
 124 searching for the best hyperplane that maximizes the orthogonal distance between the datasets that  
 125 are closest in the two classes and the decision boundary. The C++ SVM implementation called  
 126 LIBSVM and reported in [17] was used for this purpose. The Radial Basis Function (RBF) kernel  
 127 defined as:

$$128 K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = e^{-\gamma \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|^2} \quad (1)$$

129 was employed and the parameter values of the RBF exponent and the slack variable weight co-  
 130 efficient were set with a grid search. SVM classifier can be used with other kernels like, linear,  
 131 sigmoid, and polynomial however, for our problem RBF kernel worked better. For the SVM classi-  
 132 fication problem described in this report only two parameters had to be found,  $C$ , that governs the  
 133 trade-off between the separating margin and the slack variable penalty, and  $\gamma$ , that is the RBF ker-  
 134 nel parameter. The parameters  $C$  and  $\gamma$  were found by doing an exhaustive search between 1-1000  
 135 and performing a tenfold cross validation. Posterior class probabilities were calculated using Platt's  
 136 algorithm [18] as follows. Assume that the SVM hyperplane obtained after training is  $W\phi(F) + b$   
 137 where  $F$  is the feature vector and  $\phi$  is the kernel function. A sigmoid function of form:

$$138 P_c = (\text{cancer} | (W\phi(F_i) + b)) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(A(W\phi(F_i) + b) + B)} \quad (2)$$

139 is calculated for mapping the test feature vector  $F_i$  to posterior malignancy probability  $P_c$ . Maxi-  
 140 mum likelihood estimation from the observations for which the true labels are known (training data)  
 141 is fitted to calculate the values of the parameters  $A$  and  $B$ .  $P_c$  values are used as the threshold  
 142 parameter for generating the ROC curves and malignancy maps.

143 Bagged decision trees (Random Forest): Random forest implementation (TreeBagger) within the  
 144 MATLAB Statistics Toolbox was used. Bagged decision trees or random forest is a popular clas-  
 145 sification algorithm employed by many researchers [19]. Random forest consists of an ensem-  
 146 ble of  $N$  decision trees,  $\{T_1(F), \dots, T_N(F)\}$ , where  $F = \{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$  is an  $n$  dimensional fea-  
 147 ture vector containing observation features for an ROI. The trees in the ensemble produce outputs  
 148  $\{\hat{Y}_1 = T_1(F), \dots, \hat{Y}_N = T_N(F)\}$ , where  $\hat{Y}_i, i = 1, \dots, N$  is the predicted label of an observation  
 149 by the  $i_{th}$  tree based on a cutoff of 0.5 on the posterior class probability. The overall posterior class  
 150 probability for the malignant class is obtained by simple averaging on all trees in the ensemble (for-  
 151 est). The final label prediction  $\hat{Y}$  is done based on the overall posterior class probability. In this  
 152 work, only 500 trees were grown and the trees were constructed shallow to avoid over-fitting the  
 153 data. To increase the randomness of the classifier and avoid error due to noise only 3 features (out  
 154 of 7) were randomly selected to determine the best split at each node of the tree. Also, for boot-  
 155 strapping only 2/3 of the training data was used. The training algorithm implemented in MATLAB  
 156 closely follows the method described by [19].

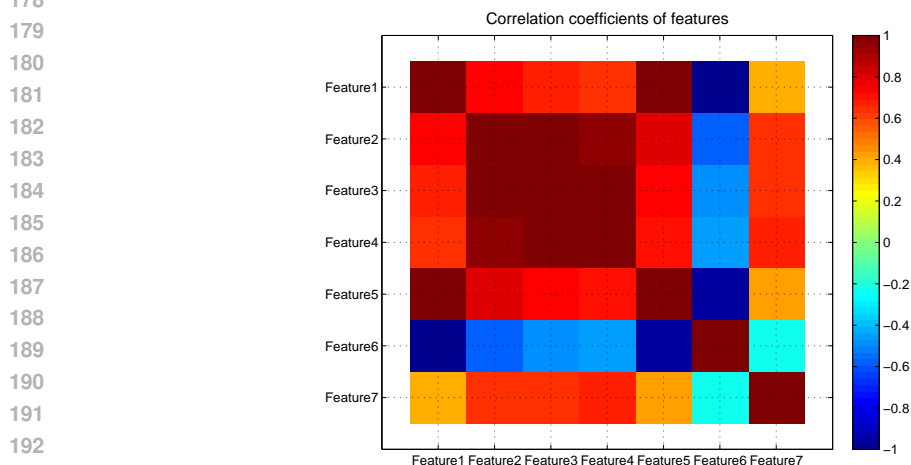
157 Naive Bayes classification: The implementation within MATLAB Statistics Toolbox was used. The  
 158 kernel density estimation was used for the distribution of the features. Unlike SVM, Naive Bayes  
 159 method is probabilistic in nature and the outcome is class probability as opposed to label. However,  
 160 an underlying assumption in Bayesian approach as implemented is that features should be condi-  
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162 tionally independent. Later in the report it is shown that the naive Bayes classifier performed worst  
163 due to high correlation between the features (as shown in Figure 1).

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165 Cross validation: In all classifiers, the cross-validation was leave-one-patient out in order to avoid  
166 the possible optimistic bias introduced by the batch structure of the data. The ultimate aim of the  
167 proposed classification method is to provide accurate predictions on future subjects and only a leave-  
168 one-patient-out scheme can test that ability (as opposed to k-fold cross-validation).

### 169 3 Results

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172 A heat map showing the correlation between the features is given in Figure 1. A high degree of  
173 correlations is observed between spectral parameters. The feature selection search returned a rela-  
174 tively small subset of features that included features 2 and 4 and 7. The search was exhaustive and  
175 was performed on the SVM separately with the goal of maximizing the area under ROC curve with  
176 leave-one-patient-out cross validation. Exhaustive search was feasible due to the small number of  
177 features that resulted in only 127 non-empty subsets.



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195 Figure 1: The correlation coefficients of features as a heatmap

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197 The classification results were validated using the biopsy result of the patients. Table 1 is the sum-  
198 mary of the histology reports (IDC stands for invasive ductal carcinoma and FA stands for fibroade-  
199 noma). The bulk result of the classification is also reported in this table. In six out of seven malignant  
200 cases, all three classifiers successfully predicted the label in leave-one-patient-out cross validation.  
201 It should be noted that success was defined as obtaining the correct label for 80% of the 1 mm<sup>2</sup> ROIs  
202 extracted from a lesions. For the one malignant case which was misclassified, further investigation  
203 of the B-mode image revealed calcification in parts of the area of the pathologic finding. For benign  
204 cases, the classifiers were successful in four out of five cases. The result was consistent among the  
205 three classifiers, meaning that the same case was misclassified by all three classifiers.

206 The posterior class probabilities for the 641 ROIs of size 1 mm<sup>2</sup>, generated by leave-one-patient-out  
207 training and testing scheme, was used to generate the ROC curves for the three classifiers. This re-  
208 sulted in an area under the curve of 0.79 using SVM, 0.74 using random forest, and 0.68 using naive  
209 Bayes. The curves are depicted in Figure 3. The weak performance of the naive Bayesian method  
210 could be attributed to the fact that the selected three features are not conditionally independent as  
211 observed in Figure 1.

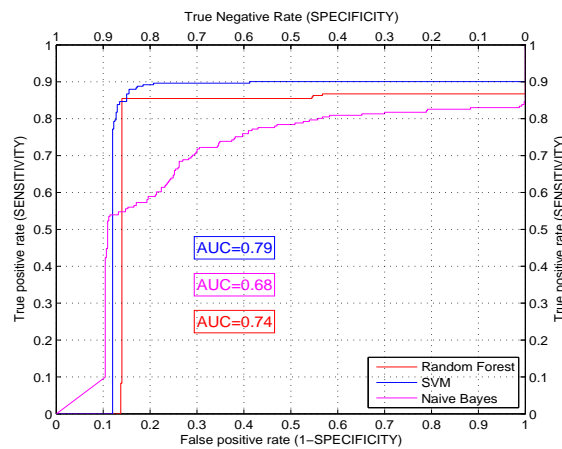
212 Using a cutoff value of  $P_c=0.5$  for the posterior class probabilities, Table 2 reports the sensitivity  
213 and specificity of the classifiers. A sensitivity of 86% was obtained using SVM. It is also notable  
214 that the methodology is specific with specificity values of 84.5% and 85% for SVM and random  
215 forest, respectively. SVM and random forest outperformed the naive Bayes classifier. SVM was  
most sensitive (86.7%) and random forest was most specific (86%).

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Table 1: Histology report for 12 patients

Patient	BIRADS	Tissue Type	Biopsy Result	Classification Result
Patient 1	5	IDC	Malignant	Malignant
Patient 2	5	IDC	Malignant	Malignant
Patient 3	5	IDC	Malignant	Benign
Patient 4	4B	IDC	Malignant	Malignant
Patient 5	4C	IDC	Malignant	Malignant
Patient 6	4C	IDC	Malignant	Malignant
Patient 7	4B	IDC	Malignant	Malignant
Patient 8	3	FA	Benign	Benign
Patient 9	4A	FA	Benign	Benign
Patient 10	4A	FA	Benign	Malignant
Patient 11	4A	FA	Benign	Benign
Patient 12	4A	FA	Benign	Benign

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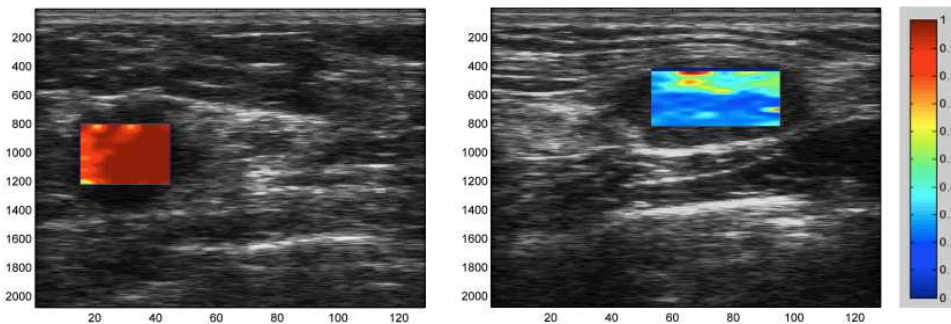


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Figure 2: ROC curves for the three classifiers

As Figure 3 shows, by plotting the values of class probabilities on the area of the lesions, a map of malignancy is obtained. These maps are generated using the SVM classifier. This can be potentially used for guiding the biopsy in real time.

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Figure 3: The malignancy map created by plotting the value of posterior malignancy probability ( $P_c$ ) of the ROIs overlaid on the B-mode image. The image on the left is from a malignant case, and one on the right is a benign case. As expected, the left image shows high probability of cancer (reddish) and the right image shows a low probability of cancer (bluish)

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Table 2: Sensitivity and specificity values for classifiers.

Classification Algorithm	Sensitivity	Specificity
SVM	86.7%	84.5%
Random Forest	85.4%	86%
Naive Bayes	70.5%	69.3%

## 4 Conclusion

In this work, the use of ultrasound RF time series as a method for detecting malignant breast lesions, is reported. This is a pressing clinical need and can potentially reduce the rate of recall for biopsy after mammography. The results of this study suggests that, by using a selection of spectral and fractal parameters extracted from temporal RF signals, within a machine learning classification framework, one can obtain high sensitivity and specificity for this problem. The present dataset includes mostly benign cases of BI-RADS 4. These are very likely to be sent to biopsy and as the results show, the biopsy could have been avoided with the use of this methodology in four out of five cases.

The time series method in this work required less than 3 seconds of data. It was found that by asking the patients to hold their breath, the amount of motion can be minimized to reduce the impact of motion on the analysis. Lastly, it can be concluded that RF time series is a practical and accurate method for sonographic augmentation of the BI-RADS criteria. Previous work has shown that a multiparametric ultrasound approach is potentially capable of improving the diagnostic value of imaging and it is argued here that RF time series can be a component of that approach.

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