Fully Automated 3D Ultrasound Segmentation of the Placenta, Amniotic Fluid and Fetus for Early Pregnancy Assessment

Pádraig Looney, Yi Yin, Sally L. Collins, Kypros H. Nicolaides, Walter Plasencia, Malid Molloholli, Stavros Natsis, and Gordon N. Stevenson *Member, IEEE*

Abstract-Volumetric placental measurement using 3D ultra-1 sound has proven clinical utility in predicting adverse pregnancy 2 outcomes. However, this metric can not currently be employed 3 as part of a screening test due to a lack of robust and real-time 4 segmentation tools. We present a multi-class convolutional neural 5 network (CNN) developed to segment the placenta, amniotic fluid 6 and fetus. The ground truth dataset consisted of 2,093 labelled 7 8 placental volumes augmented by 300 volumes with placenta, amniotic fluid and fetus annotated. A two pathway, hybrid 9 model using transfer learning, a modified loss function and 10 exponential average weighting was developed and demonstrated 11 the best performance for placental segmentation, achieving a 12 Dice similarity coefficient (DSC) of 0.84 and 0.38 mm average 13 Hausdorff distance (HDAV). Use of a dual-pathway architecture, 14 improved placental segmentation by 0.03 DSC and reduced 15 HDAV by 0.27mm when compared with a naïve multi-class model. 16 Incorporation of exponential weighting produced a further small 17 improvement in DSC by 0.01 and a reduction of HDAV by 18 0.44mm. Per volume inference using the FCNN took 7-8 seconds. 19 This method should enable clinically relevant morphometric 20 measurements (such as volume and total surface area) to be 21 automatically generated for the placenta, amniotic fluid and 22 fetus. Ready availability of such metrics makes a population-23 based screening test for adverse pregnancy outcomes possible. 24 25

Index Terms—Medical Diagnostic Imaging, Ultrasonic Imag ing, Image Segmentation, Pregnancy, Sonogram, Convolutional
 Neural Networks, Deep Learning, Transfer Learning.

I. INTRODUCTION

³⁰ **P**LACENTAL insufficiency is the most common cause of ³¹ stillbirth [1] as well as other adverse pregnancy outcomes

Research reported in this publication was supported by the Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) Human Placenta Project of the National Institutes of Health under award number UO1-HD087209. We gratefully acknowledge the support of NVIDIA Corporation who donated the Tesla GTX Titan X GPU used for the image analysis. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health.

Pádraig Looney is the corresponding author. P.L, Y.Y, S.L.C and S.N are with Nuffield Department of Women's and Reproductive Health, University of Oxford, UK (e: padraig.looney@gmail.com, yi.yin@wrh.ox.ac.uk and sally.collins@wrh.ox.ac.uk). K.H.N is with Harris Birthright Research Centre of Fetal Medicine, King's College Hospital, UK (e: kypros@fetalmedicine.com). W.P is with Fetal Medicine Unit, Hospiten Group, Tenerife, Spain (e: walter.plasencia@hospiten.com). M.M is with Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, Wexham Park Hospital, Slough, UK (e: malid.molloholli@nhs.net). S.L.C and S.N are with Fetal Medicine Unit, The Women's Centre, John Radcliffe Hospital, Oxford, UK (e: stavrosnatsis79@gmail.com). G.N.S is with School of Women's and Children's Health, University of New South Wales, Sydney, NSW, AU (e: gordon.stevenson@unsw.edu.au). such as fetal growth restriction [2] and pre-eclampsia [3]. 32 The consequences of a poorly functioning placenta last well 33 beyond pregnancy for the fetus, conferring them with an 34 increased risk of developing obesity, diabetes and high blood 35 pressure in adulthood [4]. A robust early screening test which 36 can reliably predict those pregnancies destined to develop pla-37 cental insufficiency would allow increased monitoring of fetal 38 growth with early delivery if the baby becomes compromised 39 thereby prevent a stillbirth occurring. It could also facilitate 40 targeted treatment strategies such as low-dose aspirin which, 41 if started in the first trimester, has been shown to reduce the 42 incidence of preeclampsia and improved triage of perinatal 43 care. This could have far reaching, long-term health benefits 44 globally [4]. 45

A. Clinical Motivation

Placentas destined to fail later in pregnancy already show signs of sub-optimal performance in the first trimester, (11– 14 weeks) such as reduced volume and vascularity [5]. A systematic literature review concluded that placental volume, measured by 3D ultrasound (3D-US), could have value when integrated into a multivariable screening method for fetal growth restriction in the first trimester [6]. However, volume estimation currently requires off-line manual annotation by a trained sonographer which is time-consuming and cannot be performed within the 15 minutes in which a standard scan takes place [6]. Furthermore, manual labelling is highly operator dependent, inter-observer reproducability studies have demonstrated very different intra-class correlation coefficients (ICC; 95% CI)) of 0.59 (0.33-0.80) [7] and 0.81 (0.68-0.91) [8].

There is a clinical need for a precise, fully automated, method for real-time 3D-US image segmentation which can be used to provide an estimation of placental volume and demarcate its boundaries (enable identification of the interface between placenta and uterus, thereby providing the basis for automated perfusion assessment [9], [10]). These imaging biomarkers could then be incorporated into a multi-factorial population-based screening test to improve early prediction of adverse pregnancy outcomes.

B. Related Works

Real-time volume estimation has been achieved using fully convolutional neural networks (FCNNs) [11] to produce state-

29

46 47 48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

of-the-art performance in a range of medical imaging modali-74 ties [12]. FCNNs are particularly suited to segmentation since 75 the parameters are shared and independent of image size. Seg-76 mentation accuracy of FCNNs can be further improved with 77 technical enhancements such as loss function modification, 78 which has demonstrated improved performance in segmenting 79 the prostate in MRI images [13]. Use of multiple pathways, to 80 increase the context of an FCNN, has improved accuracy [14] 81 and has been successfully applied to placental segmentation 82 in both MRI [15] and 3D-US [16]. 83

Image analysis in feto-placental ultrasound imaging is rela-84 tively understudied compared to other areas of medical image 85 analysis. A recent review [17] describes the unique challenges 86 of placental segmentation. The placenta has a heterogeneous 87 appearance and can implant on any of the uterine walls. 88 Placentas that implant on the posterior uterine wall present a 89 significant segmentation challenge as the overlying fetus can 90 attenuate and scatter the US signal causing shadows and image 91 artefact. 92

Attempts at placental MRI segmentation have shown 93 promise. A semi-automated technique combining multiple 94 volumes and a single annotated slice, with learned random 95 forest and random field features combined with a 4D graph 96 cut, demonstrated a mean Dice similarity coefficient (DSC) in 97 16 cases of 0.89 ± 0.02 (std. dev) [18]. An FCNN method 98 applied to placental MRI data using a V-Net architecture 99 in 12 patients provided a mean DSC of 0.75 ± 0.11 [19]. 100 Using 3D-US, automated methods of segmenting first trimester 101 placentas (n = 13) in an anterior position using a joint label 102 fusion and majority vote technique achieved a mean DSC 103 of 0.83 ± 0.05 [20], [21]. Yang et al in [22] used a U-Net 104 style encoder/decoder FCNN to perform automatic multi-class 105 segmentation of the placenta, amniotic fluid and fetus: 104 106 cases were used to develop the FCNN incorporating a recurrent 107 neural network, of which 50 volumes were used to train, 10 108 to validate and 44 were tested. This achieved a mean DSC of 109 0.64 for the placenta, 0.89 for the amniotic fluid, and 0.88 for 110 the fetus, while variability was not reported. 111

112 C. Contributions

Previously using 2,393 cases, an FCNN segmented placental 113 volumes to predict small for gestational age (SGA) babies 114 [23] which obtained a mean DSC of 0.82 ± 0.10 (std. dev) 115 for placental segmentation. The size of the dataset, being ~20 116 times of that used by Yang et al. [22], indicates the obvious 117 benefits of dataset size in improving segmentation accuracy 118 when our previous work is compared to a multi-class FCNN 119 trained on a smaller set of data. 120

This work aims to exploit the strong performance of this large-scale FCNN network and incorporate it into a framework that can solve the problem of multi-class labelling. We present a number of technical enhancements to solve this problem and present a full evaluation of the performance of the new FCNN, which are summarized as follows:

The use of multiple pathway FCNNs trained on single and multi-class datasets, which by addition of a modified loss function, exponential averaging (EA) and transfer

learning improved average DSC to segment the placenta, amniotic fluid and fetus.

- By combining pathways from different models and using 132 these features, our previous state of the art segmentation 133 performance on the placenta was combined with segmen-134 tation of the amniotic fluid and fetus that was comparable 135 to the state of the art as measured by DSC and Hausdorff 136 distance (HD) and compared to other works and to more 137 classical U-Net based FCNNs the features of which are 138 listed in Table I. 139
- An evaluation technique to test real-world performance 140 using a comparative Turing test indicated that automated 141 segmentation was highly comparable to human perfor-142 mance (<50% positive prediction rate; i.e. the automated 143 segmentation was selected blindly as better quality more 144 often than the human.). Repeatability measured by intra-145 class correlation coefficients (ICC), showed good to ex-146 cellent repeatability (measured by ICC) for respective 147 organs. 148

II. Method

The data used was from a research study conducted at 150 a large UK tertiary referral hospital with local ethical ap-151 proval (NHSREC ID: 02-03-033). Following signed, informed 152 consent, a 3D ultrasound scan containing the placenta was 153 recorded for singleton pregnancies in women at 11+0 to 13+6 154 weeks of gestation. The 3D-US volume was acquired by trans-155 abdominal sonography using a GE Voluson[™] 730 Expert 156 system (GE Healthcare, Milwaukee, WI, USA) using a 3D 157 RAB4/8L transducer [24]. All 2,392 participants went on to 158 deliver a chromosomally normal baby. Data were exported for 159 off-line analysis to hard drive by USB and converted from 160 scan-line representation into a 3D Cartesian volume [25] with 161 an 0.6 mm isotropic voxel spacing. A complete digest of 162 ultrasound settings used can be found in the original clinical 163 paper [26]. 164

Segmentation of the placenta used as label map was per-165 formed using the semi-automated Random Walker algorithm, 166 as described in our previous study [9]. Initialisation or 'seed-167 ing' of the placental segmentation was performed by a clinical 168 expert (SN). These "seedings" then underwent quality control 169 with each one being examined by a second, independent, 170 clinical expert (MM) and "re-seeded" where mistakes were 171 evident. A third clinical expert (SC) examined cases where 172 there was uncertainty or dispute regarding the boundaries of 173 the placenta. From the available 2,393 3D-US volumes with an 174 existing placental segmentation, 300 volumes were randomly 175 selected for multi-class segmentation. The amniotic fluid and 176 the fetus were "seeded" (PL and YY) and combined with 177 the placental "seeding" performed from the previous study. 178 Initialisation of the amniotic fluid and fetus is much easier 179 than the placenta because the edges of the structures are 180 easier to discriminate but any cases where there was ambiguity 181 were examined by a clinical expert (SC). These three different 182 classes were then segmented as a multi-class label map using 183 the Random Walker algorithm [9], [27]. Mean time (\pm std. 184 dev) to "seed" the two new features in a single volume was 185 $30\,\pm\,10$ min. 186

2

130

131



Fig. 1. Convolutional neural network architecture of the models: (a) placental segmentation (PS) model; (b) the dual pathway (T - top; B - bottom pathway) hybrid (HB) model, where T encodes the PS model. The architectures of the multi-class (MC) and multi-class transfer learning (MCTL) models are not shown as they are identical to Fig 1a except for having four channels instead of two in the layer before softmax.

187 A. Placenta segmentation (PS) model

The remaining 2,093 cases were partitioned into 1,893 train-188 ing cases, 150 validation cases and 50 test cases. These were 189 used to train an FCNN, similar in architecture to the U-Net 190 [28], extended to 3D and shown in Figure 1a. Image volumes 191 varied in size but were typically had dimensions of 200 x 300 192 x 300 voxels. The volume was decomposed into patches that 193 overlapped such that the output of the convolutional neural 194 network that used convolutions without padding was non-195 overlapping to avoid edge effects. Input patches with isotropic 196 dimensions of 86³ voxels were passed through three down-197 sampling blocks, three up-sampling blocks, two convolutional 198 layers and a final classification layer. A down-sampling block 199 used convolution followed by convolution with a stride of 2 200 voxels wide and a 2x2x2 kernel. An up-sampling block used 201 convolution followed by transpose convolution of stride 2 and 202 a 2x2x2 kernel. All other kernels had size 3x3x3. Features 203

from layers with the same resolution were forwarded from 204 earlier layers to later layers. 205

3

The FCNN was trained for 30 epochs (373 steps per epoch), 206 where a single epoch was defined as all the patches for the 207 whole dataset. The placenta segmentation (PS) model was 208 chosen by selecting the highest mean DSC on the validation set 209 that was not improved upon by ten percent within the next five 210 epochs. The parameters: Adam optimizer learning rate, β_1 , β_2 211 and ϵ were set as 0.001, 0.9, 0.999 and 1×10^{-8} , respectively. 212 The learning rate decayed at a rate of 0.92 every 1000 213 steps. Variance scaling was used to initialise the parameters 214 of the model. L2 regularisation was used with a coefficient 215 of 0.0001. A batch size of 40 was used while training the 216 model. Full validation was performed every 1000 steps. An 217 averaged version of the PS model (PSEA) was created using 218 an exponential moving average during training. Exponential 219 moving averaging reduces noise by averaging the weights 220

290

291

292

293

TABLE I SUMMARY OF THE FEATURES OF EACH FULLY CONVOLUTIONAL NEURAL NETWORK (FCNN) DESCRIBING CLASS (S - SINGLE; M - MULTIPLE), USE OF EXPONENTIAL AVERAGING (EA), APPLICATION OF TRANSFER LEARNING (TL) FROM OTHER MODELS AND NUMBER OF PATHWAYS USED.

Acronym	Model	Class	EA	TL	Pathways
PS	Placenta Segmentation	S	Ν	Ν	1
PSEA	Placenta Segmentation with EA	S	Y	Ν	1
МС	Multi-class Segmentation	М	N	Ν	1
MCTL	Segmentation with TL	М	Ν	PS	1
HB	Hybrid	М	Ν	PS	2
HBEA	Hybrid with EA	Μ	Y	PSEA	2

of the model over the training process and favouring more
recent values of the weights as well as providing computational
efficiency, since it does not require the storage of all the
weights [29].

225 B. Multi-class (MC) models

The 300 multi-class (MC) cases were sub-divided into 200 226 training cases, 40 validation cases and 60 test cases. Four 227 multi-class models were each trained for 40 epochs with a 228 batch size of 30. Firstly, a MC model was trained using 229 a network identical to the architecture in Fig. 1a but with 230 four output classes in the layer before the softmax function 231 with parameters initialised using variance scaling. Then, a 232 multi-class transfer learning (MCTL) model, using the same 233 architecture as the MC model, with the weights and biases 234 for all layers except the last taken from the PS model, was 235 trained. By initialising the weights and biases of the MCTL 236 model using the PS model, the MCTL had effectively a larger 237 training dataset of 1,893 cases in addition to the 200 cases 238 of the MC model. Since the PS model was trained to detect 239 placenta, we hypothesised that the MCTL model may better 240 segment the placenta at the expense of fetal and amniotic fluid 241 segmentation performance compared to the MC model, this 242 243 will be discussed in later sections.

244 C. Hybrid (HB) models

To overcome the shortcomings of MC/MCTL models, two 245 hybrid models were used. The hybrid model (HB) and hybrid 246 model with exponential averaging (HBEA) both consisted of 247 a dual pathway model which were implemented as shown 248 in Fig. 1b. In the top pathway, which encoded the placental 249 segmentation, parameters for HB model were initialised using 250 the values from the large-scale PS model and the HBEA 251 model were initialised using the PSEA model. In the bottom 252 pathway, which encoded the remaining classes, parameters 253 were initialised using variance scaling and then trained on 254 the MC data. For both HB and HBEA models, parameters 255 in the bottom pathway were allowed to change but for the 256 top pathway were fixed, in order to encorporate the results 257

for placental segmentation from the PS/PSEA models. The Adam optimizer parameters were identical to those used in the PS training. Batch size and number of epochs were altered to accommodate the differences in number of parameters and data used for each model evaluated. 260

The features of the two pathways were combined as follows: 263 let $P_{Background}$, $P_{Placenta}$, $P_{Amniotic}$, and P_{Fetus} be the 264 confidences that a voxel belongs to the background, placenta, 265 amniotic fluid and fetus, respectively. For a given voxel i, the 266 softmax output of the top pathway (T) was given as only 267 two values $P_{Background}^T$ and $P_{Placenta}^T$ that summed to 1. In this case, the fetus and amniotic fluid were included in the 268 269 background. In the bottom pathway (B), the softmax of the 270 final layer produced a confidence for membership of a given 271 voxel with scalar values of $P_{Background}^B$, $P_{Placenta}^B$, $P_{Amniotic}^B$ and P_{Fetus}^B that summed to 1. The $P_{Background}^B$ indicated the 272 273 confidence that a voxel is neither placenta, fetus or amniotic 274 fluid. 275

By design, the regions of the output layer that are charac-276 terised as placenta cannot change through training. Placental 277 regions will still contribute to the loss but the neural network 278 will be unable to modify the parameters to reduce the loss 279 from these regions of the image. This motivates the use 280 of a modified loss function to ignore the contribution from 281 placental regions to the loss. The loss function L was defined 282 combining the outputs of two pathways as 283

$$L = \sum_{i \in M} m_i \times sl(o_i/n_i), \tag{1}$$

Since the loss function was masked over the placental region/segmentation, the placenta did not contribute to the training of the model. The final confidence vector in the HB model had scalar components given as:

$$P_{Background}^{HB} = P_{Background}^{T} \times \left(\frac{P_{Background}^{B}}{1 - P_{Placenta}^{B}}\right) \quad (2)$$

$$P_{Placenta}^{HB} = P_{Placenta}^{T} \tag{3}$$

$$P_{Amniotic}^{HB} = P_{Background}^{T} \times \left(\frac{\Gamma_{Amniotic}}{1 - P_{Placenta}^{B}}\right) \quad (4)$$

$$P_{Fetus}^{HB} = P_{Background}^{T} \times \left(\frac{P_{Fetus}^{B}}{1 - P_{Placenta}^{B}}\right) \quad (5)$$

where the final segmentation of a voxel was the maximum of the four values defined in Eq. 2-5. The sum of the terms in Eq. 2,4 & 5 are equal to $P_{Background}^T$. From Equation 3, the placental segmentation of the HB model was set to the PS model for all voxels where $P_{Placenta}^{HB} > 0.5$. For voxels where $0.25 < P_{Placenta}^{HB} < 0.5$, a voxel was

For voxels where $0.25 < P_{Placenta}^{HB} < 0.5$, a voxel was classified as placenta by the HB model but classified as background by the PS model if the remaining classes, $P_{Background}^{HB}$, $P_{Amniotic}^{HB}$ and P_{Fetus}^{HB} , each had values $< P_{Placenta}^{HB}$.

303 D. Post-Processing, Implementation & Analysis

The predictions for test data were post processed using 304 morphological filters using the same process as described 305 in [23] but performed on each of the three classes. Region 306 fragments of the placenta < 40% of the size of the largest 307 region were omitted. Only the largest continuous region of 308 amniotic fluid and fetus were retained as part of the final 309 segmentation. The segmentation was then grayscale closed 310 using a 3D kernel (3 voxel radii) and a hole filling filter 311 was applied. This removed small regions separated from the 312 largest, contiguous placental segmented regions, smoothed the 313 boundary of the placenta, amniotic fluid and fetus and filled 314 any holes. Ultrasound volumes were processed and visualised 315 using SimpleITK (version 1.2.4) [30], ITK [30] and VTK 316 (version 8.2) [31]. R (version 3.3.2) [32] was used for data 317 analysis and hypothesis testing and ggplot2 (version 2.2) [33] 318 for plotting. The models were implemented in Python (version 319 3.6) using the open-source OxNNet [34] library developed 320 for 3D-US segmentation and Tensorflow (version 1.12) [35]. 321 Training and inference was performed on a Linux PC (Intel i7 322 5820) using a Titan X GPU (NVidia Corporation, Santa Clara, 323 CA) with 12Gb VRAM. The CNN models are fully available 324 online [36]. 325

326 E. Evaluation

Comparison between model generated volumetric binary 327 volumes was assessed by similarity metrics: Dice similarity 328 coefficient (DSC), Hausdorff Distance (HD) and the average 329 Hausdorff distance (HDAV) defined for two segmentations 330 X and Y and a Euclidean distance metric d reported in 331 millimetres [23]. The significance threshold was set at P < .05. 332 Pairwise comparison between DSC measurements between 333 models were assessed using Student's paired t-test. 334

Reproducibility of the final placenta, fetus and amniotic 335 fluid volume in millilitres was assessed using the ICC (2,1) 336 [37], [38] for inter-observer repeatability between the semi-337 automated Random Walker results, regarded as the ground-338 truth used for performance evaluation, and the newly generated 339 FCNN outputs. Finally, a blinded comparison was performed 340 to assess an experienced operator's (GS) ability to discriminate 341 between the manual and automated outputs using a side-by-342 side comparison, akin to a comparative Turing test [39] for 343 the 60 multi-class test cases. The user was presented with 344 two B-Mode volumes sliced in 2D and scrolling between 345 both volumes linked using a mouse, the contours of each 346 segmentation class were displayed with the Random Walker 347 result presented in one randomly assigned viewport and the 348 FCNN contours in the other. The operator used the arrow 349 keys to denote which contours deemed 'best' once viewed 350 each image within the volume through scrolling through. 351 This viewer and test is available online [40]. The positive 352 recognition rate (%) or percentage that the operator selected 353 a Random Walker based contour set for each model was 354 reported. 355

III. RESULTS

A. Placental segmentation (PS) model

5

356

357

370

The PS model obtained the best mean DSC (std. dev) on the validation set of 0.85 (0.09) after 17,000 training steps. The performance of the model is shown in Fig. 3. On the 50 test cases, the PS model had a mean DSC (std. dev) of 0.85 (0.05) and the PSEA model had a mean DSC of 0.85 (0.05)). The performance of the model had a mean DSC of 0.85 (0.05).

The data publicly available and published by [21] was also used to evaluate the performance of the PS model. The available images were resampled to the same isotropic spacing and the same pre-processing, PS model application and postprocessing was applied as described in Section II. The mean DSC (std. dev) on this data set was 0.67 (0.24), mean HD was 21.28 (14.18) mm and mean HDAV was 1.59 (2.27) mm.

B. Multi-class (MC) and Hybrid Models

To compare performance to a reduced dataset size, as per 371 Yang et al, using 50 training data the model was trained over 372 40 epochs. Placental DSC was 0.73 (0.1), amniotic fluid DSC 373 was 0.90 (0.06) and fetus DSC was 0.83 (0.08) for the HBEA 374 model. For HD (mm), the placenta was 22.48 (8.78), amniotic 375 fluid was 14.20 (9.25) and fetus was 21.74 (11.79). For HDAV 376 (mm), the placenta was 1.23 (1.16), amniotic fluid was 0.36 377 (0.84) and fetus was 21.74 (11.79). 378

Comparing the same HB model using the modified loss 379 function defined in Eq. 1 to standard cross entropy loss, 380 similarity metrics improved. DSC for placenta increased by 381 0.01 and remained the same for the fetus and amniotic 382 fluid. For surface similarity metrics, small increases in HD 383 (mm) (placenta +0.44; amniotic fluid -0.01; fetus 1.4) and 384 decreases in HDAV (placenta -0.04mm; amniotic fluid -0.01; 385 fetus 0.0mm) were observed. 386

For the multi-class models, when trained on the fullest set 387 of data, compared to the dataset of 50, results improved for all 388 metrics. The mean DSC of the segmentation of the placenta, 389 amniotic fluid and fetus on the validation set during training 390 are shown in Fig. 4. After 40 epochs, the MC model obtained 391 the lowest placenta DSC of 0.78 (0.09). The MCTL model was 392 better at 0.80 (0.09). Both hybrid models were at 0.81 (0.09) 393 for the HB and the HBEA model was 0.82 (0.08). Similiar 394 values for amniotic fluid DSC were obtained for the MC model 395 at 0.93 (0.04), 0.92 (0.04) for the MCTL model, 0.92 (0.04) 396 for HB and 0.93 (0.04) for the HBEA model. The DSC of the 397 fetus was 0.88 (0.05) for the MC model, 0.87 (0.05) for the 398 MCTL model, 0.87 (0.05) for the HB model and 0.88 (0.04) 399 for the HBEA model. Fig. 4 shows the expected behaviour 400 for the hybrid models incorporating the PS model, where in 401 the DSC did not alter for the placenta over the epochs, as 402 compared to the other classes segmented. 403

The comparison of the performance of the models on the 404 test set after post processing is shown in Table II and Fig. 5. 405 The mean (std. dev) of the placenta DSC for the MC, MCTL 406 HB and HBEA models were 0.78 (0.09), 0.80 (0.09), 0.81 407 (0.09) and 0.82 (0.08) respectively. The HDAV of the placenta 408 segmentation was lowest for the HBEA model at 0.58 (0.70) 409 mm. The mean of the amniotic fluid DSC for the MC, MCTL, 410 HB and HBEA models were 0.93 (0.04), 0.92 (0.04), 0.92 411



Fig. 2. Visualization of multi-class 3D ultrasound (3D-US) segmentation of the placenta \blacksquare , amniotic fluid \blacksquare and fetus \blacksquare in three subjects (each outlined in black) performed using the Random Walker (RW; top) and Hybrid Averaged model (HBEA; bottom) shown as three orthogonal views and a semi-opaque 3D rendering (left to right).

TABLE II MEAN (STD. DEV) OF THE DICE SIMILARITY COEFFICIENT (DSC), HAUSDORFF DISTANCE (HD) AND AVERAGE HD (HDAV) AND TIME TO INFER SEGMENTATION PERFORMANCE FOR THE MULTI-CLASS (MC) MODEL, MULTI-CLASS MODEL WITH TRANSFER LEARNING (MCTL), THE HYBRID MODEL (HB) AND THE EXPONENTIAL MOVING AVERAGED HYBRID MODEL (HBEA) ON THE MC TEST SET AFTER POST PROCESSING.

Model	DSC	Placenta HD	HDAV	DSC	Amniotic Fluid HD	HDAV	DSC	Fetus HD	HDAV	Time (s)
MC MCTL HB HBEA	$\begin{array}{c} 0.78 \ (0.09) \\ 0.80 \ (0.09) \\ 0.81 \ (0.09) \\ 0.82 \ (0.08) \end{array}$	19.43 (8.22) 17.71 (8.12) 15.38 (7.75) 16.22 (8.11)	0.86 (0.93) 0.70 (0.92) 0.59 (0.74) 0.58 (0.70)	$\begin{array}{c} 0.93 \ (0.04) \\ 0.92 \ (0.04) \\ 0.92 \ (0.04) \\ 0.93 \ (0.04) \end{array}$	11.80 (6.85) 11.68 (5.27) 11.00 (5.58) 10.86 (5.28)	0.15 (0.22) 0.12 (0.14) 0.13 (0.17) 0.13 (0.17)	$\begin{array}{c} 0.88 \ (0.05) \\ 0.87 \ (0.05) \\ 0.87 \ (0.05) \\ 0.88 \ (0.04) \end{array}$	16.88 (10.48) 17.83 (10.77) 15.59 (9.32) 16.57 (10.22)	0.25 (0.36) 0.29 (0.47) 0.21 (0.24) 0.22 (0.25)	8.13 (1.86) 7.75 (1.94) 8.46 (2.54) 8.46 (2.54)



Fig. 3. Error plot of median (interquartile range) Dice similarity coefficient (DSC) on the 150 PS validation cases during training for the PS model to segment the placenta.

(0.04) and 0.93 (0.04) respectively. The mean of the fetus 412 DSC for the MC, HB and HBEA models were all 0.88 (0.04) 413 but was 0.87 (0.04) for the MCTL model. Examples showing 414 segmentations using the Random Walker and HBEA model 415 are shown in Fig. 2. DSC was 0.85, 0.85 and 0.71 for the 416 placenta; 0.96, 0.96 and 0.95 for the amnion and 0.94, 0.92 417 and 0.90 for the fetus, in the three subjects shown. Timings for 418 the inference of each model indicate an average inference of 419 7-8 seconds per image. Statistical comparison of the DSC for 420 all models using a paired t-test showed significant differences 421 for the placenta (P < 0.001) and fetus (P < 0.005). There 422 was no significant difference for amniotic fluid (P > 0.3). 423

424 C. Repeatability

Repeatability as assessed by ICC (95 CI%) for each seg-425 mentation across the four models is provided in Table III. ICC 426 values for the placenta were lower than for those for the fetus 427 and amniotic fluid which reported excellent reproducability. 428 For the placenta, ICC was increased for the HB models over 429 the MC models. Using the lower end of the CI reported, it 430 was shown the HBEA model was significantly better than 431 the MC model in terms of repeatability as reported by ICC. 432 For the other classes, no significant differences were observed 433 although. There were small increases in ICC when the HBEA 434 model was compared to the others. The positive recognition 435 rates for the Random Walker based ground-truth data when 436



Fig. 4. Median Dice similarity coefficient (DSC) on the 40 MC validation cases during training for the placenta, amniotic fluid and fetus, showing the performance difference between the multi-class models defined in Table I.

compared to the four different models were: MC 52.5%, MCTL 44.0%, HB 56.0% and HBEA 45.8%.

TABLE III INTRA-CLASS CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS (95% CI) FOR EACH ORGAN VOLUME FROM A GIVEN MULTI-CLASS FCNN DEFINED IN TABLE I TO THE RANDOM WALKER ESTIMATE.

Model	Placenta	Amniotic Fluid	Fetus
MC	0.52 (0.31 - 0.69)	0.98 (0.96 - 0.99)	0.850 (0.76 - 0.91)
MCTL	0.56 (0.36 - 0.71)	0.98 (0.96 - 0.99)	0.839(0.75 - 0.90)
HB	0.64 (0.45 - 0.77)	0.98 (0.96 - 0.99)	0.831 (0.73 - 0.90)
HBEA	0.69 (0.53 - 0.80)	0.98 (0.96 - 0.99)	$0.863 \ (0.78 - 0.91)$

IV. DISCUSSION

In this work, we demonstrated improved performance of a FCNN for segmentation of anatomical structures in early pregnancy using 3D ultrasound. By using a combined dataset of images, with both single and multi-class label maps generated by Random Walker as ground truth, a state-of-the-art performance was achieved for segmentation of the placenta.

439

437

438



Fig. 5. Histograms of the Dice similarity coefficient (DSC) for the placenta, amniotic fluid and fetus for all four FCNN models on 60 MC test cases. The median and mean values are shown as red and blue vertical lines, respectively.

Our results show that there are differences in the perfor-446 mance of each multi-class FCNN model. The MC and MCTL 447 models have identical architectures but the performance of 448 the MC model in segmenting the placenta is reduced in 449 comparison to the MCTL model although the amniotic fluid 450 and fetus segmentation is improved. As the MCTL model 451 parameters were initialised using the PS model it is unsur-452 prising that it appears to be biased towards segmenting the 453 placenta. Additionally, the MC model was trained using only 454 200 MC training cases which confirms previous findings that 455 performance is related to the size of the training dataset 456 [23]. By adding the PS model as an extra pathway, the 457 performance gained from training on 2,093 placentas is added, 458 giving the hybrid model improved placental segmentation 459 when compared to a single pathway model which is only 460 trained on 300 cases. The HB and HBEA models have an 461 almost constant performance in the placenta segmentation, as 462 shown in Fig. 4, reflecting the fixed nature of the parameters of 463 the top pathway which we used to exploit the more accurate 464 PS model that has been trained on the largest set of cases. 465 Small differences between the PS and HB models can occur, 466 when some background voxels can be classified as placenta if 467 their background probability was distributed among the other 468 classes such that the placental probability was maximum. We 469 also showed that the modified loss function allows for the 470

bottom pathway to focus on segmenting the fetus and amniotic fluid. The exponential moving averaged reduced volatility in the weights which we propose improved model inference. This is reflected in the HBEA model yielding the best performance of the four models. 475

The performance of the PS model on the publicly available 476 data set in [21] were reduced compared to data used for this 477 study. The data used to train our model was translated from 478 a toroidal coordinate system [25] while the publicly available 479 data was already in a Cartesian geometry and was resampled to 480 have isotropic spacing of 0.6 mm and did not contain the full 48 scan region. We speculate that the reduced performance maybe 482 due to error introduced from the resampling or the effect on 483 the normalisation due to the cropping of the volume. With 484 the availability of multi-class prediction results of placenta, 485 amniotic fluid and fetus on this public data set online and 486 the models we would expect that improvements can be made 487 by interested researchers [41]. The only other multi-class 488 segmentation work in this field by Yang et al. [22] obtained 489 DSC values of 0.64, 0.89 and 0.88 to segment the placenta, 490 amniotic fluid and fetus, respectively, using 104 3D-US scans. 491 They also used a 3D extension of U-Net [28] and combined the 492 output with a recurrent neural network. This strategy uses four 493 times the number of features compared to the FCNN models 494 used in our work. Other differences in the implementation 495 included patch size, batch normalisation and image spacing. 496 These differences as well as the greater number of training 497 cases used may account for the increased performance in this 498 study, particularly in segmenting the placenta (DSC of 0.82 499 compared with 0.64). The ground truths in [22] were obtained 500 using manual segmentation. Whilst it has been demonstrated 501 that the much faster Random-Walker technique has equivalent 502 performance to manual segmentation in terms of both inter 503 and intra-operator variability [9], the same has not been 504 demonstrated for segmentation of the fetus or amniotic fluid. 505

Having shown that performance based on similarity metrics 506 leads to good estimation of the organs, we applied clinically 507 used statistics for reproducability assessment. These provide 508 a measure of performance from medical studies where human 509 operators have compared their performance where commercial 510 software would not allow voxel-wise comparison. As shown 511 in Table III, the ICC for amniotic and fetal estimation were 512 excellent based on standard interpretations for ICC > 0.75. 513 For the placenta, ICC values increased with the HBEA model 514 providing best performance at a moderate level of reported 515 ICC. We went further in this assessment, given that the nature 516 of placental segmentation combined with ultrasound imaging 517 is a hard task. The standard for evaluation of the performance 518 of the automated detection is an operator defined ground truth 519 and the 'human eye' is not necessarily always accurate. In this 520 problem, the border between the placenta and the surrounding 521 tissue often appears very diffuse making it difficult for even 522 highly experienced sonographers to distinguish the boundary 523 between placenta and the uterine myometrium. However, 524 where there is a low DSC, trying to ascertain whether the 525 ground truth or the predicted segmentation more closely repre-526 sents the 'true' anatomy is extremely difficult. As such, using a 527 comparative Turing test we showed < 50% positive prediction 528

9

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

595

596

597

598

599

600

601

602

603

604

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

627

628

629

630

631

632

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

650

651

652

653

654

655

656

657

658

659

rate for the original Random Walker labelled result versus the
MCTL and HBEA models. This indicates that for a blinded
observer, the automated labelling would seem be considered
more "human" over 60 cases. This result is encouraging
and with additional analysis using multiple observers and an
increased size of dataset will bolster these findings.

As discussed, this work does have limitations. The 3D-535 US data were collected a number of years ago using an US 536 machine that has been superseded by two newer generations 537 of hardware. It is hoped that the image quality will be in-538 creased in future studies facilitating easier segmentation since 539 signal-to-noise ratio and spatial resolution have significantly 540 improved. The use of methods of ultrasound reconstruction 541 such as spatial averaging [42] may change the texture of 542 the image and impact the performance of our FCNN which 543 would need to be considered. However, in future studies useful 544 features learned by our models could still be used with transfer 545 learning on newer modalities. The effect of the many param-546 eters within the model have not been investigated with full 547 ablation studies nor full evaluation of other post-processing 548 strategies. However, suitable choices of the parameters have 549 been suggested and the effect of patch size has previously 550 been studied by other authors [14], [43] and we would foresee 551 these only provide minor increases in performance compared 552 to increasing the dataset trained on which we have previously 553 shown [23]. 554

The HBEA model had a median segmentation time of 555 8.46 seconds compared to the 30 minutes required for semi-556 automated segmenation. Hence, the model realised in this 557 work will allow rapid calculation of not only placental volume 558 but other important morphometrics such as shape and surface 559 area of the utero-placental interface since these can now also 560 be calculated using the MC segmentation. When combined 561 with power Doppler ultrasound this will allow for automated 562 measurement of perfusion of the utero-placental interface [10], 563 [44]. These measurements when combined with blood serum 564 and maternal characteristics, [45] should improve population-565 based screening algorithms for the prediction of adverse preg-566 nancy outcomes in early pregnancy. 567

568

V. CONCLUSION

We present an automated method based on deep learning 569 that achieves state-of-the-art performance, measured using 570 DSC, HD, and HDAV in segmenting the placenta while 571 obtaining similar values to the state-of-the-art performance for 572 the amniotic fluid and fetus. This was possible by combining 573 a multi-class dataset labelled by a semi-automatic technique 574 with a multiple pathway FCNN using a modified loss function. 575 This image analysis technique demonstrates a FCNN can now 576 provide estimates of placental volume, surface area of the 577 utero-placental interface and other morphometric measure-578 ments in real-time to facilitate population-based ultrasound 579 screening. These measures, combined with maternal charac-580 teristics and serum biomarkers, can now be used to develop a 581 first trimester screening tool aimed at improving identification 582 of pregnancies at-risk of later complications. 583

REFERENCES

- [1] S. E. Seaton, D. J. Field, E. S. Draper, B. N. Manktelow, G. C. Smith, A. Springett *et al.*, "Socioeconomic inequalities in the rate of stillbirths by cause: a population-based study," *BMJ open*, vol. 2, no. 3, p. e001100, 2012.
- [2] S. Sankaran and P. M. Kyle, "Actiology and pathogenesis of IUGR," *Best Practice & Research Clinical Obstetrics & Gynaecology*, vol. 23, no. 6, pp. 765–777, 2009.
- [3] C. W. Redman and I. L. Sargent, "Latest advances in understanding preeclampsia," *Science*, vol. 308, no. 5728, pp. 1592–1594, 2005.
- [4] G. J. Burton, A. L. Fowden, and K. L. Thornburg, "Placental origins of chronic disease," *Physiological reviews*, vol. 96, no. 4, pp. 1509–1565, 2016.
- [5] S. L. Collins, A. W. Welsh, L. Impey, J. A. Noble, and G. N. Stevenson, "3D fractional moving blood volume (3D-FMBV) demonstrates decreased first trimester placental vascularity in pre-eclampsia but not the term, small for gestation age baby," *PloS one*, vol. 12, no. 6, p. e0178675, 2017.
- [6] A. Farina, "Systematic review on first trimester three-dimensional placental volumetry predicting small for gestational age infants," *Prenatal diagnosis*, vol. 36, no. 2, pp. 135–141, 2016.
- [7] N. W. Jones, N. J. Raine-Fenning, H. A. Mousa, E. Bradley, and G. J. Bugg, "Evaluating the intra- and interobserver reliability of threedimensional ultrasound and power Doppler angiography (3D-PDA) for assessment of placental volume and vascularity in the second trimester of pregnancy," *UMB*, vol. 37, no. 3, 2011.
- [8] M. Larsen, K. Naver, M. Kjaer, F. Jorgensen, and L. Nilas, "Reproducibility of 3-dimensional ultrasound measurements of placental volume at gestational ages 11–14 weeks," *Facts, Views & Vision in ObGyn*, vol. 7, no. 4, p. 203, 2015.
- [9] G. N. Stevenson, S. L. Collins, J. Ding, L. Impey, and J. A. Noble, "3D ultrasound segmentation of the placenta using the Random Walker algorithm: reliability and agreement," *Ultrasound in Medicine & Biology*, vol. 41, no. 12, pp. 3182–3193, 2015.
- [10] A. W. Welsh, J. B. Fowlkes, S. Z. Pinter, K. A. Ives, G. E. Owens, J. M. Rubin *et al.*, "Three-dimensional US Fractional Moving Blood Volume: Validation of Renal Perfusion Quantification," *Radiology*, p. 190248, 2019.
- [11] A. Krizhevsky, I. Sutskever, and G. E. Hinton, "Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks," in *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 2012, pp. 1097–1105.
- [12] G. Litjens, T. Kooi, B. E. Bejnordi, A. A. A. Setio, F. Ciompi, M. Ghafoorian *et al.*, "A survey on deep learning in medical image analysis," *Medical image analysis*, vol. 42, pp. 60–88, 2017.
- [13] F. Milletari, N. Navab, and S.-A. Ahmadi, "V-net: Fully convolutional neural networks for volumetric medical image segmentation," in 3D Vision (3DV), 2016 Fourth International Conference on. IEEE, 2016, pp. 565–571.
- [14] K. Kamnitsas, C. Ledig, V. F. Newcombe, J. P. Simpson, A. D. Kane, D. K. Menon *et al.*, "Efficient multi-scale 3D (CNN) with fully connected (CRF) for accurate brain lesion segmentation," *Medical Image Analysis*, vol. 36, pp. 61 78, 2017.
- [15] A. Alansary, K. Kamnitsas, A. Davidson, R. Khlebnikov, M. Rajchl, C. Malamateniou *et al.*, "Fast fully automatic segmentation of the human placenta from motion corrupted MRI," in *International Conference on Medical Image Computing and Computer-Assisted Intervention*. Springer, 2016, pp. 589–597.
- [16] P. Looney, G. N. Stevenson, K. H. Nicolaides, W. Plasencia, M. Molloholli, S. Natsis *et al.*, "Automatic 3D ultrasound segmentation of the first trimester placenta using deep learning," in *Biomedical Imaging, IEEE 14th International Symposium on*. IEEE, 2017, pp. 279–282.
- [17] J. Torrents-Barrena *et al.*, "Segmentation and classification in MRI and US fetal imaging: Recent trends and future prospects," *Medical Image Analysis*, vol. 51, pp. 61–88, 2019.
- [18] G. Wang, M. A. Zuluaga, R. Pratt, M. Aertsen, T. Doel, M. Klusmann et al., "Slic-seg: A minimally interactive segmentation of the placenta from sparse and motion-corrupted fetal mri in multiple views," *Medical image analysis*, vol. 34, pp. 137–147, 2016.
- [19] J. Torrents-Barrena et al., "Lstm fully convolutional neural networks for umbilical cord segmentation in ttts foetal surgery planning," in Proc. 32nd International Conference on Computer Assisted Radiology and Surgery, 2018.
- [20] I. Oguz, A. M. Pouch, N. Yushkevich, H. Wang, J. C. Gee, N. Schwartz et al., "Automated placenta segmentation from3Dultrasound images," in *MICCAI workshop on perinatal, preterm and paediatric image analysis* (*PIPPI*), 2016.

- [21] P. A. Yushkevich, A. Pashchinskiy, I. Oguz, S. Mohan, J. E. Schmitt,
 J. M. Stein *et al.*, "User-guided segmentation of multi-modality medical imaging datasets with ITK-SNAP," *Neuroinformatics*, vol. 17, no. 1, pp.
- 83–102, 2019.
 [22] X. Yang, L. Yu, S. Li, H. Wen, D. Luo, C. Bian *et al.*, "Towards automated semantic segmentation in prenatal volumetric ultrasound,"
- *IEEE Transactions on Medical Imaging*, 2018.
 [23] P. Looney, G. N. Stevenson, K. H. Nicolaides, W. Plasencia, M. Molloholli, S. Natsis *et al.*, "Fully automated, real-time 3D ultrasound segmentation to estimate first trimester placental volume using deep learning," *JCI insight*, vol. 3, no. 11, 2018.
- [24] P. Wegrzyn, C. Faro, O. Falcon, C. Peralta, and K. Nicolaides, "Placental volume measured by three-dimensional ultrasound at 11 to 13+ 6 weeks of gestation: relation to chromosomal defects," *Ultrasound in Obstetrics & Gynecology*, vol. 26, no. 1, pp. 28–32, 2005.
- [25] P. Looney, G. N. Stevenson, and S. L. Collins, "plooney/kretz v1.1,"
 Jan 2019. [Online]. Available: https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2537876
- W. Plasencia, R. Akolekar, T. Dagklis, A. Veduta, and K. H. Nicolaides,
 "Placental volume at 11–13 weeks' gestation in the prediction of birth
 weight percentile," *Fetal Diagnosis and Therapy*, vol. 30, no. 1, pp. 23–28, 2011.
- [27] L. Grady, "Random walks for image segmentation," *IEEE Transactions* on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence, vol. 28, no. 11, pp. 1768–
 1783, 2006.
- [28] O. Ronneberger, P. Fischer, and T. Brox, "U-net: Convolutional networks
 for biomedical image segmentation," in *International Conference on Medical image computing and computer-assisted intervention*. Springer, 2015, pp. 234–241.
- [29] C. C. Holt, "Forecasting seasonals and trends by exponentially weighted
 moving averages," *International journal of forecasting*, vol. 20, no. 1,
 pp. 5–10, 2004.
- [30] H. J. Johnson, M. McCormick, L. Ibáñez, and T. I. S. Consortium, *The ITK Software Guide*, 3rd ed., Kitware, Inc., 2013.
- [31] W. Schroeder, K. Martin, and B. Lorensen, *The Visualization Toolkit–* An Object-Oriented Approach To 3D Graphics, 4th ed. Kitware, Inc.,
 2006.
- [32] R Core Team, *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Comput- ing*, R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria, 2013.
- [33] H. Wickham, ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis. Springer-Verlag New York, 2016.
- [34] P. Looney, "OxNNet," https://github.com/plooney/oxnnet, 2017, online;
 accessed January 13, 2021.
- [35] M. Abadi, A. Agarwal, P. Barham, E. Brevdo, Z. Chen, C. Citro *et al.*,
 "Tensorflow: large-scale machine learning on heterogeneous distributed
 systems. arxiv preprint (2016)," *arXiv preprint arXiv:1603.04467*, 2016.
- [36] Looney, Pádraig. IEEE models. [Online]. Available: https://github.com/
 plooney/IEEE_models/
- [37] P. E. Shrout and J. L. Fleiss, "Intraclass correlations: uses in assessing rater reliability." *Psychological bulletin*, vol. 86, no. 2, p. 420, 1979.
- [38] T. K. Koo and M. Y. Li, "A guideline of selecting and reporting intraclass correlation coefficients for reliability research," *Journal of Chiropractic Medicine*, vol. 15, no. 2, pp. 155–163, 2016.
- [39] M. J. Gooding *et al.*, "Comparative evaluation of autocontouring in clinical practice: A practical method using the turing test," *Medical Physics*, vol. 45, no. 11, pp. 5105–5115, 2018.
- [40] G. Stevenson, "imageturingtest," https://github.com/gordon-n-stevenson/
 imageturingtest, 2020, online; accessed January 13, 2021.
- 717 [41] P. Looney, "OxNNet," https://github.com/plooney/oxnnet, 2017, online;
 718 accessed January 13, 2021.
- [42] R. T. O'Brien and S. P. Holmes, "Recent advances in ultrasound technology," *Clinical techniques in small animal practice*, vol. 22, no. 3, pp. 93–103, 2007.
- Y. Bengio, "Practical recommendations for gradient-based training of deep architectures," in *Neural networks: Tricks of the trade*. Springer, 2012, pp. 437–478.
- [44] G. N. Stevenson, S. L. Collins, A. W. Welsh, L. W. Impey, and J. A.
 Noble, "A technique for the estimation of fractional moving blood volume by using three-dimensional power Doppler US," *Radiology*, vol. 274, no. 1, pp. 230–237, 2014.
- [45] N. Salavati, M. Smies, W. Ganzevoort, A. K. Charles, J. J. Erwich,
 T. Plösch *et al.*, "The possible role of placental morphometry in the
 detection of fetal growth restriction," *Front Physiol*, vol. 9, p. 1884,
 2018.