Automatic classification of heterogeneous slit-illumination images using an ensemble of cost-sensitive convolutional neural networks

4	Jiewei Jiang ^{1#} , Liming Wang ^{2#} , Haoran Fu ^{2#} , Erping Long ³ , Yibin Sun ¹ , Ruiyang Li ³ , Zhongwen

Li³, Mingmin Zhu⁴, Zhenzhen Liu³, Jingjing Chen³, Zhuoling Lin³, Xiaohang Wu³, Dongni

6 Wang³, Xiyang Liu^{2*}, Haotian Lin^{3*}

7 ¹School of Electronics Engineering, Xi'an University of Posts and Telecommunications, Xi'an,

```
8 710121, China;
```

5

- ⁹ ²School of Computer Science and Technology, Xidian University, Xi'an, 710071, China;
- 10 ³State Key Laboratory of Ophthalmology, Zhongshan Ophthalmic Center, Sun Yat-sen
- 11 University, Guangzhou, 510060, China;
- ⁴School of Mathematics and Statistics, Xidian University, Xi'an, 710071, China;
- [#]These authors contributed equally to this work.
- 14

15 ***Co-corresponding authors:**

- 16 Email: haot.lin@hotmail.com (H.T.L) and xyliu@xidian.edu.cn (X.Y.L)
- 17
- 18
- 19
- 20

21 Abstract

Background: Lens opacity seriously affects the visual development of infants. Slit-illumination images play an irreplaceable role in lens opacity detection; however, these images exhibited varied phenotypes with severe heterogeneity and complexity, particularly among pediatric cataracts. Therefore, it is urgently needed to explore an effective computer-aided method to automatically diagnose heterogeneous lens opacity and to provide appropriate treatment recommendations in a timely manner.

Methods: We integrated three different deep learning networks and a cost-sensitive method into an ensemble learning architecture, and then proposed an effective model called ECCNN-Ensemble (ensemble of cost-sensitive convolutional neural networks) for automatic lens opacity detection. A total of 470 slit-illumination images of pediatric cataracts were used for training and comparison between the CCNN-Ensemble model and conventional methods. Finally, we used two external datasets (132 independent test images and 79 Internet-based images) to further evaluate the model's generalizability and effectiveness.

Results: Experimental results and comparative analyses demonstrated that the proposed method 35 36 was superior to conventional approaches and provided clinically meaningful performance in 37 terms of three grading indices of lens opacity: area (specificity and sensitivity; 92.00% and 38 92.31%), density (93.85% and 91.43%) and opacity location (95.25% and 89.29%). 39 Furthermore, the comparable performance on the independent testing dataset and the internet-40 based images verified the effectiveness and generalizability of the model. Finally, we developed 41 and implemented a website-based automatic diagnosis software for pediatric cataract grading 42 diagnosis in ophthalmology clinics.

43 *Conclusions:* The CCNN-Ensemble method demonstrates higher specificity and sensitivity 44 than conventional methods on multi-source datasets. This study therefore provides a practical 45 strategy for heterogeneous lens opacity diagnosis and has the potential to be applied to the 46 analysis of other medical images.

Key words: cost-sensitive; deep convolutional neural networks; ensemble learning;
heterogeneous slit-illumination images; pediatric cataract.

49 Background

Optical imaging technologies play a vital role in clinical diagnosis and treatment of 50 ophthalmology [1, 2]. Computational vision approaches for automatic diagnosis of lens opacity 51 have greatly improved the efficiency of ophthalmologists and the entire treatment chain, 52 53 providing real benefits for patients [3-6]. In our previous studies, we applied artificial 54 intelligence methods to the classification of diffuse-light ocular images [7-9]. However, diagnosis that is solely dependent on diffuse-light images will inevitably miss a substantial 55 proportion of potential ophthalmology patients [10-12]. The common slit-illumination image 56 offers another effective diagnosis medium and provides an essential supplement to these 57 58 diffuse-light images [13, 14]. Therefore, development of computer vision techniques for slit-59 illumination images will move the automatic diagnosis of ophthalmic diseases towards a more 60 comprehensive and intelligent strategy.

61 At present, the existing computer-aided diagnosis methods generally focus on senile cataracts using slit-illumination images [3-5, 15]. Thresholding localization and support vector 62 regression methods were used to grade the nuclear cataract [16]. Recursive convolutional neural 63 networks and support vector regression methods were implemented to enable automatic 64 65 learning of features for evaluating the severity of nuclear cataracts [17]. However, the phenotypes of senile cataracts are relatively simple and fairly homogeneous. The study of such 66 senile cataracts alone will not be sufficient for the development of a computer-aided diagnosis 67 68 system for lens opacity in complex clinical scenarios. Practical clinical applications need the ability to diagnose heterogeneous lens opacities with high recognition rates [18-20]. It is 69

therefore essential to develop an efficient, feasible and automatic diagnostic system to address
heterogeneous slit-illumination images.

The pediatric cataract is a typical lens opacity disease that suffers from severe heterogeneity 72 and complex phenotypes [21-23]. Large-scale slit-illumination images of pediatric cataracts 73 74 were collected from the long-term Childhood Cataract Program of the Chinese Ministry of 75 Health (CCPMOH) project [24], which covered a wide variety of lens opacities. In addition, imbalance between the categories is an inevitable problem in pediatric cataract diagnosis [21, 76 77 25], where the number of positive samples is relatively smaller than the number of negative samples. This can easily cause the classifiers to produce a higher false negative rate. Therefore, 78 79 these datasets represent an ideal medium for exploration of the appropriate computational 80 vision methods required to adapt to complex clinical application scenarios.

81 To develop an effective and efficient computer vision method for analysis of these 82 heterogeneous slit-illumination images, we integrated three deep convolutional neural networks (AlexNet, GoogLeNet and ResNet) [26-28] and a cost-sensitive algorithm [29, 30] into an 83 ensemble learning framework and created the CCNN-Ensemble model (ensemble of cost-84 sensitive convolutional neural networks). The three convolutional neural networks (CNNs) 85 with their different structures were used to improve both overall recognition rate and stability 86 87 of the model. The cost-sensitive algorithm was used to address the imbalanced dataset problem 88 and thus significantly reduce the model's false negative rate. We performed detailed 89 experiments to compare performance of the CCNN-Ensemble method with that of conventional methods in three grading indices of lens opacity. We also used two external datasets (an 90

91 independent testing dataset and an Internet-based dataset) to validate the method's versatility
92 and stability. Finally, potential computer-aided diagnostic software was developed and
93 deployed for use by ophthalmologists and their patients in clinical applications.

94 Methods

95 Dataset

The slit-illumination datasets consist of the following three parts: the training and validation dataset, the independent testing dataset, and the Internet-based dataset. A total of 470 training and validation datasets were derived from the routine examinations of the Zhongshan Ophthalmic Center in Sun Yat-sen University (Fig. 1a) [24]. 132 independent testing images were selected randomly in advance from the Zhongshan Ophthalmic Center; 79 Internet-based images were collected using a keyword search (including words such as congenital cataract, infant and pediatric) of the Baidu and Google search engines.

103 There are no special pixel requirements for the enrolled images provided that the lens area of the image is retained. To ensure grade labeling accuracy, three senior ophthalmologists jointly 104 105 determine the grade of each image and comprehensively evaluate its severities in terms of three lens lesion indices (opacity area, density and location) [7, 9]. An opacity area that covers more 106 107 than half of the pupil is defined as extensive; otherwise, it is defined as limited. An opacity 108 density that completely blocks the light is labelled as dense; otherwise, it is defined as 109 transparent. An opacity location that fully covers the visual axis of the pupil is called central; otherwise, it is called peripheral. The collected datasets covered a variety of pediatric cataracts, 110 111 which were divided into limited and extensive categories for area, dense and transparent 112 categories for density, and central and peripheral categories for location, as shown in Table 1.

Datagata	Total number	Opac	ity area	Opacity density		Opacity location	
Datasets		limited	extensive	transparent	dense	peripheral	central
Training and validation datset	470	275	195	260	210	274	196
Independent testing datset	132	91	41	104	28	100	32
Internet-based datset	79	19	60	18	61	16	63

113 Table 1. Distributions of slit-illumination datasets in terms of three grading indices.

114 **Preprocessing and model evaluation**

We preprocessed all labeled datasets using twice-applied Canny detection and Hough 115 116 transformation [31, 32] to acquire the lens region of interest and eliminate surrounding noise 117 zones such as the eyelids and the sclera (Fig. 1a). The localized images were subsequently resized to a size of 256×256 pixels and were then input into the computational vision models. 118 Using these training and validation datasets, we performed a five-fold cross-validation 119 procedure to compare and evaluate the performances of the different models (Fig. 1b). Four 120 representative handcrafted features (WT: wavelet transformation; LBP: local binary pattern; 121 122 SIFT: scale-invariant feature transform; and COTE: color and texture features) [8, 9, 33-35] 123 were selected and combined with support vector machine (SVM) and adaptive boosting (Adaboost) classifiers for performance comparision. After selection of the optimal CCNN-124 125 Ensemble model, we further verified its effectiveness and stability using the two external 126 datasets (the independent testing dataset and the Internet-based dataset).

127 Evaluation metrics

128 To provide a full assessment of the superiority of the CCNN-Ensemble method when compared

129 with the conventional methods, we calculated several evaluation metrics, including accuracy,

130 sensitivity, specificity, F1-measure, and G-mean, as follows.

131
$$Accuracy = (TP + TN)/(TP + FN + TN + FP)$$
(1)

132
$$Sensitivity(Recall) = TP/(TP + FN)$$
 (2)

133
$$Specificity = TN/(TN + FP)$$
(3)

134
$$Precision = TP/(TP + FP)$$
(4)

135
$$F1-measure = \frac{2*Recall*Precision}{Recall+Precision}$$
(5)

136
$$G - mean = \sqrt{\frac{TP}{TP + FN} * \frac{TN}{TN + FP}}$$
(6)

where *TP*, *FP*, *TN* and *FN* denote the numbers of true positives, false positives, true negatives and false negatives, respectively. Accuracy, sensitivity and specificity are the most commonly used evaluation measures. The F1-measure and G-mean [36] indicators simultaneously consider the accuracies of both classes and can thus effectively measure the recognition abilities of models in the case of an imbalanced dataset. Additionally, three more vital objective measures – the receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC), the area under the ROC curve (AUC), and the precision recall curve (PR) – were used for visual comparison and analysis.

144 **Overall framework of CCNN-Ensemble**

145 As shown in Fig. 2, the overall diagnosis framework of the CCNN-Ensemble consists primarily

146 of three deep CNN models (GoogLeNet, AlexNet and ResNet), a cost-sensitive adjustment

layer, ensemble learning, dataset augmentation technology and transfer learning. The three heterogeneous CNN models, as classifiers, were employed to construct the ensemble learning framework to enhance the recognition rates of the algorithms. The cost-sensitive adjustment layer was used to manage the imbalanced dataset problem, and the dataset augmentation and transfer learning processes were adopted to overcome the overfitting problem and accelerate model convergence. The technical details are described below.

153 Ensemble learning of multiple CNNs

We used three heterogeneous CNNs (AlexNet, GoogLeNet and ResNet) to form the ensemble 154 learning framework (Fig. 2). The AlexNet CNN, which was proposed by Krizhevsky [26], 155 performed image classification and won first prize in the ImageNet Large Scale Visual 156 157 Recognition Challenge (ILSVRC) in 2012, mainly used convolutional layers, overlapping pooling, nonsaturating rectified linear units (ReLUs) and three fully-connected layers to 158 construct an eight-layer CNN. Subsequently, a number of variants of CNN method were 159 160 proposed to enhance its recognition rate and incorporated many emerging technologies. In particular, a 22-layer inception deep network was achieved by Google researchers [27] that was 161 based on the Hebbian principle, intuition of multi-scale processing, filter aggregation, average 162 163 pooling and auxiliary classifier technologies. Kaiming He then used the residual connection scheme, batch normalization and scale operations to establish a 50-layer ultra-deep residual 164 CNN (ResNet) [28]. Because the above CNNs implemented different principles and techniques, 165 166 their network structures show distinct heterogeneity, and this can effectively improve the recognition rate of the ensemble learning model. 167

In order to adequately utilize the advantages of the three convolutional neural networks, we 168 implemented a two-stage ensemble learning scheme. Specifically, in the first stage, starting 169 170 with the initial parameters of models pre-trained on the ImageNet dataset, three CNNs with 171 different structures were trained using transfer learning, respectively. Thus, the optimal 172 parameters of each CNN were obtained. In the second stage, the Softmax functions of the three CNNs were removed, the high-level features of the CNNs were merged into the same cost-173 174 sensitive Softmax classification function to construct a unified ensemble CNN. The learning 175 rate of the feature extraction layers was set to one-tenth of the ensemble learning layer. The 176 transfer learning method was adopted to fully train the ensemble learning layer and fine-tune the previous feature extraction layers. Through the above two-stage ensemble learning scheme, 177 three different types of CNNs can complement their shortcomings, which is beneficial to 178 179 improve the overall performance of intelligent diagnosis for pediatric cataract.

180 Transfer learning

181 Because the number of medical images is very small, the fully-trained deep learning system cannot adequately optimize the millions of trainable parameters from scratch and this can easily 182 lead to overfitting. Transfer learning [37, 38] is a critical technology for application to such 183 184 small datasets that allows the model to be trained from a better starting point and uses the color, texture and shape characteristics that have been learned from natural images. Fine-tuning 185 allowed the final trained CNN model to obtain the unique features of the ophthalmic images 186 187 and also overcame the overfitting problem. Additionally, data augmentation methods, including transformed images and horizontal reflections [26, 39], were adopted to accelerate the 188

190 Cost-sensitive method and optimization process

191 To address the imbalanced dataset problem of the slit-illumination images effectively, the cost-192 sensitive approach [29, 30, 40] was adopted to adjust the cost-sensitive weight of the positive 193 samples in the loss function (Fig. 2). Specifically, we discriminatively determined the cost of 194 misclassification of the different classes and assigned a larger cost-sensitive weight to the 195 positive class. For one iterative training stage, n samples were selected at random to form a training dataset $\{(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (x^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), \dots, (x^{(n)}, y^{(n)})\}$, where $x^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^l$ and $y^{(i)} \in \{1, \dots, k\}$. 196 Here, $x^{(i)}$ denotes the features of the *i*-th sample and $y^{(i)}$ is the category label. The cost-197 sensitive loss function can be expressed as shown in Eq. 7. 198

199
$$F(\theta) = -\frac{1}{n} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{k} I\left\{ y^{(i)} = j \right\} * CS\left\{ y^{(i)} = \text{ positive class} \right\} * \log \frac{e^{\theta_{j}^{T} x^{(i)}}}{\sum_{s=1}^{k} e^{\theta_{s}^{T} x^{(i)}}} \right] + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \theta_{ij}^{2}$$
(7)

where n, m, k and θ denote the number of training samples, the number of input neurons, the 200 number of classes, and trainable parameters, respectively. $I\{y^{(i)} = j\}$ represents the indicator 201 $(I\{y^{(i)} \text{ is equal to } j\}=1 \text{ and } I\{y^{(i)} \text{ is not equal to } j\}=0)$ function 202 while $CS\{y^{(i)} = positive \ class\}$ is the cost-sensitive 203 weight function $(CS\{y^{(i)} \text{ is the positive class lable}\} = C \text{ and } CS\{y^{(i)} \text{ is the negative class label}\} = 1$). Using 204 a grid-search procedure, we determined that the value of the effective cost-sensitive weight 205 parameter C was within the interval [4–6]. $\frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \theta_{ij}^2$ is a weight decay term that is applied 206 to penalize the larger trainable weights. To obtain the optimal trainable weights θ^* (see Eq. 8), 207 we needed to minimize $F(\theta)$ using a mini-batch gradient descent (Mini-batch-GD) [41] as 208

shown in Eq. 9.

210
$$\theta^* = \arg\min_{\theta} F(\theta)$$
(8)

211
$$\nabla_{\theta_j} F(\theta) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \Big[PW \Big\{ y^{(i)} = positive \ class \Big\}^* x^{(i)} * (I\{y^{(i)} = j\} - p(y^{(i)} = j \mid x^{(i)}; \theta)) \Big] + \lambda \theta_j$$

(9)

213 Experimental environment

In this study, we implemented dataset preprocessing, automatic lens region of interest (ROI) 214 215 localization, conventional feature extraction, the SVM and Adaboost classifiers, and uniform 216 dataset partitioning for cross-validation using MATLAB R2014a [8, 9]. The CCNN-Ensemble 217 training, validation and testing procedures were all performed in parallel using eight Nvidia Titan X graphics processing units (GPUs) based on the Caffe toolbox [42] in the Ubuntu 16.4 218 219 OS. The initial learning rate was set at 0.001 and successively reduced by one tenth of the original value after every 500 iterations; a total of 2000 iterations were performed. We set the 220 221 mini-batch size to 32 on one GPU and used eight GPUs; we thus acquired a total of 256 samples in every iteration and calculated the average value of these samples to update the trainable 222 223 parameters. Appropriate settings for these parameters can ensure better performance and rapid 224 convergence for the CCNN-Ensemble method.

225 Results

To achieve an effective solution to assist in the diagnosis of pediatric cataracts using slitillumination images, we explored three different methods, including four conventional features, four Adaboost ensemble methods, and the CCNN-Ensemble method. First, we trained and compared the performances of these methods on the training and validation datasets to obtain the optimal CCNN-Ensemble method. Then, we used two external datasets to provide further evaluation of the robustness and the clinical effectiveness of the CCNN-Ensemble. Finally, we developed and deployed cloud-based software to serve patients that were located in remote areas.

234 Performance of CCNN-Ensemble and conventional methods

235 After application of the five-fold cross-validation [43], we compared the performances of the nine intelligent algorithms for diagnosis of the lens opacity in terms of the three grading indices 236 (opacity area, density and location). We calculated three main indicators – accuracy (ACC), 237 specificity (SPE) and sensitivity (SEN) (Fig. 3) - along with more detailed test results with 238 239 means and standard deviations (Table 2 and Supplementary Table S1-S2). First, when using 240 the conventional feature methods, both the ACC and SEN indicators are low; for example, the SEN of the LBP method is less than 70% for all grading indices. Second, after application of 241 the Adaboost ensemble learning methods, the SEN indicator is greatly improved, whereas the 242 243 value of the SPE indicator is reduced. As a result, the ACC is almost equal to the performance of the conventional feature methods (see Fig. 3). Notably, the SEN of the SIFT method 244 245 increased from 76.41% to 84.62%, whereas the SPE decreased from 76.73% to 65.45% for opacity area grading (Fig. 3 and Table 2); the SEN of the LBP method increased from 68.88% 246 247 to 81.10%, whereas the SPE again decreased from 80.27% to 73.34% for opacity location 248 grading (Fig. 3 and Supplementary Table S2). The comparison results for the other feature 249 methods and the Adaboost ensemble learning methods are also similar. Third, the CCNN-

Ensemble method provided significantly improved recognition rates for all grading indices (Fig. 3). All the average ACCs were maintained at 92% or more, while both the SPE and the SEN were satisfactory for the grading opacity area (92.00% and 92.31%), the opacity density (93.85% and 91.43%) and the opacity location (95.25% and 89.29%). Similarly, the F1-measure, Gmean and AUC indicators also showed values of more than 90% (Table 2 and Supplementary Table S1-S2).

Table 2. Performance comparison of the different methods in opacity area grading.

Method	ACC (%)	SPE(%)	SEN (%)	F1_M (%)	G_M (%)	AUC (%)
WT	80.21(3.33)§	87.27(5.45)	70.26(2.92)	74.73(3.50)	78.26(2.86)	87.47(2.87)
WT-Adaboost	81.28(2.77)	83.27(3.25)	78.46(5.90)	77.61(3.59)	80.76(3.13)	89.68(2.54)
LBP	75.11(4.09)	80.73(4.56)	67.18(5.85)	69.11(5.09)	73.59(4.26)	83.45(3.82)
LBP- Adaboost	76.17(4.36)	73.82(5.08)	79.49(5.13)	73.48(4.69)	76.56(4.36)	83.69(3.38)
SIFT	76.60(4.32)	76.73(8.76)	76.41(5.56)	73.12(3.56)	76.35(3.90)	85.66(4.05)
SIFT- Adaboost	73.40(3.98)	65.45(6.03)	84.62(4.80)	72.56(3.67)	74.33(3.94)	85.61(4.15)
COTX	79.79(7.52)	86.18(10.5)	70.77(7.82)	74.62(8.54)	77.93(7.02)	87.22(5.22)
COTX- Adaboost	84.68(4.02)	88.73(6.48)	78.97(7.78)	81.01(4.92)	83.53(4.34)	91.07(2.85)
CCNN-Ensemble	92.13(1.21)	92.00(2.07)	92.31(2.56)	90.68(1.42)	92.14(1.25)	97.76(0.81)

257 Notes: ACC: accuracy; SPE: specificity; SEN: sensitivity; F1 M: F1-measure; G M: G-mean;

AUC: area under the receiver operating characteristic curve; WT: wavelet transformation; LBP:

259 local binary pattern; SIFT: scale-invariant feature transform; COTE: color and texture features;

260 Adaboost: adaptive boosting ensemble learning; CCNN-Ensemble: ensemble learning of cost-

261 sensitive convolutional neural networks; [§]Mean (Standard Deviation).

Additionally, we used the ROC and PR curves to compare the performances of the above

263 methods (Fig. 4, Supplementary Fig. S1-S2). The ROC curve of the CCNN-Ensemble is close

264	to the upper-left area of the graph and the PR curve shows a similar performance. All the AUC
265	indicators were maintained at more than 0.969 for the three grading indices. This indicates that
266	the CCNN-Ensemble method is superior to the conventional features and Adaboost ensemble
267	learning methods.

268 **Performance in independent testing dataset**

269 Table 3. Quantitative evaluation of the CCNN-Ensemble method using two external

270	datasets.
270	ualasels.

External Datasets	Grading	ACC (%)	SPE (%)	SEN (%)	F1_M (%)	G_M (%)	AUC (%)
	opacity area	94.70	96.70	90.24	91.36	93.42	96.94
Independent testing dataset	opacity density	93.18	94.23	89.29	84.75	91.72	97.70
	opacity location	93.18	94.00	90.63	86.57	92.30	98.13
	opacity area	89.87	89.47	90.00	93.10	89.74	94.65
Internet-based dataset	opacity density	88.61	88.89	88.52	92.31	88.71	95.63
	opacity location	87.34	87.50	87.30	91.67	87.40	93.06

271 Notes: ACC: accuracy; SPE: specificity; SEN: sensitivity; F1_M: F1-measure; G_M: G-mean;

AUC: area under the receiver operating characteristic curve.

To ensure an adequate investigation of the generalizability and the effectiveness of the CCNN-Ensemble method, we used an independent testing dataset for further validation of the proposed method. A total of 132 slit-illumination images were selected randomly in advance from the Zhongshan Ophthalmic Center (details are given in the Methods section). Using the expert group's decisions for reference, we presented detailed quantitative evaluation results (as shown in Table 3) and performance comparisons of the ACC, SPE and SEN indicators (Fig. 5a). We also reported the ROC and PR curves for the three grading indices: opacity area, density and location (Fig. 5a). The experimental results indicated that the performance of the CCNN-Ensemble method on the independent testing dataset is almost equal to that of the validation dataset, with the ACC and the SPE being maintained at more than 93% and 94%, respectively, and the SEN values are 90.24%, 89.29% and 90.63% for the opacity grading area, density and location, respectively.

285 **Performance in Internet-based dataset**

In addition, we also collected 79 slit-illumination images from the Internet (details are given in 286 the Methods section). While the quality of these images varied significantly, the CCNN-287 Ensemble was still able to detect the appropriate cases with a higher recognition rate. In the 288 289 same manner, we obtained detailed prediction results (given in Table 3), intuitive comparison graphs for the main indicators (ACC, SPE and SEN), the ROC curve, and the PR curve (Fig. 290 5b). Specifically, the CCNN-Ensemble method also offered satisfactory accuracy, specificity 291 and sensitivity in terms of opacity area (89.87%, 89.47%, and 90.00%), opacity density 292 (88.61%, 88.89%, and 88.52%) and opacity location (87.34%, 87.50%, and 87.30%), 293 294 respectively.

295 Web-based software

To serve both patients and ophthalmologists located in remote areas, we developed and deployed an automatic diagnosis software based on cloud service (<u>http://www.cc-</u> <u>cruiser.com:5007/SignIn</u>), which included user registration, an image upload module, a prediction module, regular re-examinations, sample downloads, and instructions. Before using 300 the website for diagnosis, the users needed to submit personal information including age, 301 gender and telephone number to complete the registration process. This registration process 302 allowed the doctor to contact patients who were diagnosed with serious conditions, and also 303 prevented the illegal use of our software. After registration, either the patient or the 304 ophthalmologist can upload the slit-illumination images for diagnosis; the software can then perform image preprocessing, make three grading predictions and provide a final treatment 305 recommendation. Our software can diagnose multiple images simultaneously. A total of 30 306 307 sample images were available for download, and our e-mail address and telephone number were 308 also provided for all registered patients.

309 Discussion

310 The inferior performance of conventional feature methods when applied to diagnosis using the 311 slit-illumination images is mainly attributed to the following two causes. First, the conventional feature methods use handcrafted descriptors to represent the original images, which are 312 completely reliant on the designer's experience and operator techniques, and which cannot 313 314 learn statistical features from the existing large dataset. Second, the conventional feature methods and the SVM classifier do not take the problem of the imbalanced dataset into account, 315 316 and this results in the final predictions being biased towards the majority class and ignoring the minority class (i.e., the positive samples). Therefore, these methods lead to inferior overall 317 accuracy and lower sensitivity. 318

319 The Adaboost ensemble learning methods led to moderate improvement of the recognition rates 320 when compared with the conventional feature methods because they train and apply multiple classifiers jointly to determine the final grading results. Simultaneously, an under-sampling method is incorporated into Adaboost to address the imbalanced dataset. Therefore, the sensitivity of the methods is greatly enhanced, but this improvement leads to reduction of the specificity. The overall accuracy rate is almost equal to that obtained when using the conventional feature methods alone.

326 The CCNN-Ensemble method is significantly superior to the above methods in terms of all grading indices, which was attributed to the following four improvements. First, the CCNN-327 328 Ensemble method does not need to design any feature descriptor manually because it learns high-level and statistical features directly from the original images. Second, we use three 329 330 different CNNs for ensemble learning, so that they can learn the different characteristics from three different perspectives to enable joint determination of the final prediction. This ensemble 331 332 of multiple CNN technologies is beneficial in enhancing the overall performance. Third, the 333 cost-sensitive approach is integrated into the CCNN-Ensemble method and takes greater 334 account of the minority class to ensure that the sensivity indicator is valid for the imbalanced dataset. In addition, transfer learning is applied to our model to enable fine-tuning of the 335 trainable parameters from a better starting point, thus making it easier to jump out from the 336 local minimum. As a result, the higher accuracy and specificity performances are maintained 337 while the sensitivity is also greatly enhanced. 338

The CCNN-Ensemble method also demonstrated better performance on two external datasets, and their recognition rates were almost equal to that of the validation dataset. This indicates that the proposed approach is insensitive to the different data sources, and that its generalizability and robustness are better than those of the conventional methods. These
experimental conclusions provide sufficient evidence to justify the application of the CCNNEnsemble method in complex clinical scenarios.

Based on our proposed method, automated diagnostic software was developed and deployed to serve patients and ophthalmologists remotely in the form of a cloud service, which provided important clinical value for pediatric cataract diagnosis. By accessing our automatic diagnostic software remotely, any patient can upload slit-illumination images and can then quickly obtain prediction results and an appropriate treatment recommendation. Therefore, this remotely-aided diagnosis method freed the doctors from performing tedious examinations and helped patients located in remote areas. In addition, this work can also provide a teaching role for junior doctors.

352 However, several limitations of this study should be mentioned. First, multiple CNNs with different structures are integrated into an architecture. Although the strategy of ensemble 353 learning significantly improves the accuracy, it is slightly less cost-effective due to the high 354 requirement of the computing resource than a single CNN model. Second, our model is solely 355 depended on the slit-illumination image, which is insufficient to identify the lens opacity in 356 occasional situations. Combining the electronic medical records and other optical images may 357 358 provide valuable supplements for the comprehensive assessment of lens opacity. Third, the robustness and stability of our method are required to be verified before the further 359 360 generalization of other medical situations. Despite the above limitations, this study provides a 361 practical strategy for heterogeneous lens opacity diagnosis with promising performance validated in multi-source datasets. Further studies with the integration of electronic medical 362

records and more optical images will pave the way for wide-range clinical application of ourwork.

365 Conclusions

366 In this paper, we proposed a feasible and automated CCNN-Ensemble method for effective 367 diagnosis of pediatric cataracts using heterogeneous slit-illumination images. We integrated 368 three deep CNNs and cost-sensitive technology to construct an ensemble learning method that could identify the severity of lens opacity based on three grading indices. The experimental 369 370 results and comparison analyses verified that the proposed method is superior to other conventional methods. The performance of the CCNN-Ensemble method on two external 371 datasets indicated its improved robustness and generalizability. Finally, a set of cloud-based 372 373 automatic diagnostic software was produced for use by both patients and ophthalmologists. 374 This research could provide a helpful reference for analysis of other medical images and will help to promote the use of artificial intelligence techniques in clinical applications. 375

376 Supplementary file

377 Supplementary file 1: Detailed performance comparison of the different methods in terms

of the opacity density and location grading. The detailed comparison results of the different
 methods in terms of the opacity density and location grading are presented in Supplementary

380 files.

381 Declarations

382 Ethics approval and consent to participate

- 383 The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Zhongshan Ophthalmic Center of Sun Yat-
- 384 sen University. Written informed consent was obtained from all the study participants' parents

385 or legal guardian.

386 Consent for publication

387 Not applicable.

388 Availability of data and materials

389 The datasets of the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable390 request.

391 Abbreviations

CNN: convolutional neural network; CCNN-Ensemble: ensemble of cost-sensitive 392 convolutional neural networks; ResNet: residual convolutional neural network; Adaboost: 393 adaptive boosting ensemble learning; SVM: support vector machine; LBP: local binary pattern; 394 WT: wavelet transformation; SIFT: scale-invariant feature transform; COTE: color and texture 395 396 features; ReLUs: rectified linear units; Mini-batch-GD: mini-batch gradient descent; ACC: 397 accuracy; SPE: specificity; SEN: sensitivity; F1 M: F1-measure; G M: G-mean; ROC: 398 receiver operating characteristic curve; AUC: area under the ROC curve; PR: precision recall curve; ROI: region of interest; CCPMOH: Childhood Cataract Program of the Chinese Ministry 399 400 of Health.

401 **Competing interests**

402 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

403 Authors' contributions

- 404 J.W.J., H.T.L. and X.Y.L designed the research; J.W.J., E.P.L, L.M.W., Z.W.L., M.M.Z. and
- 405 R.Y.L conducted the study; E.P.L, Z.Z.L., Z.L.L., J.J.C and D.N.W. collected the data; J.W.J.,
- 406 Y.B.S., H.R.F. and L.M.W. were responsible for coding and computer-aided diagnosis software;
- 407 M.M.Z. supported the mathematical theory; J.W.J., X.H.W., Z.W.L., J.J.C., H.R.F. and Y.B.S
- 408 analyzed and completed the experimental results; and J.W.J., E.P.L., H.T.L. and X.Y.L. co-
- 409 wrote the manuscript. All the authors discussed the results and reviewed the manuscript.

410 Acknowledgements

- 411 We am grateful thanks to Dr. Lin Liu, Shuai Wang, and Fan Liu for their helpful guidance and
- 412 suggestion with this project.

413 Funding

This study was funded by the National Key R&D Program of China (No. 2018YFC0116500), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 81770967), the National Natural Science Fund for Distinguished Young Scholars (No. 81822010), the Science and Technology Planning Projects of Guangdong Province (No. 2018B010109008), the Science and Technology Planning Projects of Guangdong Province (No. 2019B030316012), and the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (No. JBX180704). The sponsor or funding organization had no role in the design or conduct of this research.

421 Authors' information

- 422 Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to H.T.L.
- 423 (haot.lin@hotmail.com) or X.Y.L. (xyliu@xidian.edu.cn).

425 References

- 426 1. Bernardes R, Serranho P, Lobo C. Digital ocular fundus imaging: a review.
 427 Ophthalmologica. 2011;226(4):161-81.
- 428 2. Ng EY, Acharya UR, Suri JS, Campilho A. Image Analysis and Modeling in
 429 Ophthalmology: CRC Press; 2014.
- 3. Zhang Z, Srivastava R, Liu H, Chen X, Duan L, Kee Wong DW, et al. A survey on computer
 aided diagnosis for ocular diseases. BMC Med Inform Decis Mak. 2014;14:80.
- 4. Ting DSW, Pasquale LR, Peng L, Campbell JP, Lee AY, Raman R, et al. Artificial
 intelligence and deep learning in ophthalmology. British Journal of Ophthalmology.
 2019;103(2):167-75.
- 435 5. Armstrong GW, Lorch AC. A (eye): A review of current applications of artificial
 436 intelligence and machine learning in ophthalmology. International Ophthalmology Clinics.
 437 2020;60(1):57-71.
- 438 6. Hogarty DT, Mackey DA, Hewitt AW. Current state and future prospects of artificial
 439 intelligence in ophthalmology: a review. Clinical & experimental ophthalmology.
 440 2019;47(1):128-39.
- 441 7. Long E, Lin H, Liu Z, Wu X, Wang L, Jiang J, et al. An artificial intelligence platform for
 442 the multihospital collaborative management of congenital cataracts. Nature Biomedical
 443 Engineering. 2017;1:0024.
- 8. Wang L, Zhang K, Liu X, Long E, Jiang J, An Y, et al. Comparative analysis of image
 classification methods for automatic diagnosis of ophthalmic images. Scientific Reports.
 2017;7.
- 447 9. Liu X, Jiang J, Zhang K, Long E, Cui J, Zhu M, et al. Localization and diagnosis framework
 448 for pediatric cataracts based on slit-lamp images using deep features of a convolutional
 449 neural network. PLOS ONE. 2017;12(3):e0168606.
- 450 10. Klein BEK, Klein R, Linton KLP, Magli YL, Neider MW. Assessment of cataracts from
 451 photographs in the Beaver Dam Eye Study. Ophthalmology. 1990;97(11):1428-33.
- 452 11. Reid JE, Eaton E. Artificial intelligence for pediatric ophthalmology. Current opinion in
 453 ophthalmology. 2019;30(5):337-46.

- 454 12. Lin H, Li R, Liu Z, Chen J, Yang Y, Chen H, et al. Diagnostic efficacy and therapeutic
- 455 decision-making capacity of an artificial intelligence platform for childhood cataracts in
- 456 eye clinics: a multicentre randomized controlled trial. EClinicalMedicine. 2019;9:52-9.
- 457 13. Chylack LT, Jr, Wolfe JK, Singer DM, et al. The lens opacities classification system iii.
 458 Archives of Ophthalmology. 1993;111(6):831-6.
- 459 14. Kumar S, Yogesan K, Constable I. Telemedical diagnosis of anterior segment eye diseases:
 460 validation of digital slit-lamp still images. Eye. 2009;23(3):652-60.
- 461 15. Kolhe S, Guru MSK. Cataract Classification and Grading: A Survey. 2015.
- 462 16. Li H, Lim JH, Liu J, Mitchell P, Tan AG, Wang JJ, et al. A Computer-Aided Diagnosis
 463 System of Nuclear Cataract. IEEE Transactions on Biomedical Engineering.
 464 2010;57(7):1690-8.
- 465 17. Gao X, Lin S, Wong TY. Automatic feature learning to grade nuclear cataracts based on
 466 deep learning. IEEE Transactions on Biomedical Engineering. 2015;62(11):2693-701.
- 467 18. Amaya L, Taylor D, Russell-Eggitt I, Nischal KK, Lengyel D. The morphology and natural
 468 history of childhood cataracts. Survey of ophthalmology. 2003;48(2):125-44.
- 469 19. Wu X, Long E, Lin H, Liu Y. Prevalence and epidemiological characteristics of congenital
 470 cataract: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Scientific Reports. 2016;6:28564.
- 471 20. Medsinge A, Nischal KK. Pediatric cataract: challenges and future directions. Clinical
 472 ophthalmology (Auckland, NZ). 2015;9:77.
- 21. Lenhart PD, Courtright P, Wilson ME, Lewallen S, Taylor DS, Ventura MC, et al. Global
 challenges in the management of congenital cataract: proceedings of the 4th International
 Congenital Cataract Symposium held on March 7, 2014, New York, New York. Journal of
 American Association for Pediatric Ophthalmology and Strabismus. 2015;19(2):e1-e8.
- 477 22. Ellis FJ. Management of pediatric cataract and lens opacities. Current opinion in
 478 ophthalmology. 2002;13(1):33-7.
- 479 23. Wilson ME, Trivedi RH, Pandey SK. Pediatric cataract surgery: techniques, complications,
 480 and management: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2005.
- 481 24. Lin H, Long E, Chen W, Liu Y. Documenting rare disease data in China. Science.
 482 2015;349(6252).
- 483 25. Chen W, Long E, Chen J, Liu Z, Lin Z, Cao Q, et al. Timing and approaches in congenital

- 484 cataract surgery: a randomised controlled trial. The Lancet. 2016;388:S52.
- 485 26. Krizhevsky A, Sutskever I, Hinton GE. ImageNet classification with deep convolutional
 486 neural networks. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems. 2012;25(2):2012.
- 27. Szegedy C, Liu W, Jia Y, Sermanet P, Reed S, Anguelov D, et al. Going deeper with
 convolutions. Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern
 Recognition. 2015:1-9.
- 490 28. He K, Zhang X, Ren S, Sun J. Deep residual learning for image recognition. arXiv preprint
 491 arXiv:151203385. 2015.
- 492 29. Ali S, Majid A, Javed SG, Sattar M. Can-CSC-GBE: Developing cost-sensitive classifier
 493 with gentleboost ensemble for breast cancer classification using protein amino acids and
 494 imbalanced data. Computers in biology and medicine. 2016;73:38-46.
- 30. Zhou Z-H, Liu X-Y. Training cost-sensitive neural networks with methods addressing the
 class imbalance problem. IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering.
 2006;18(1):63-77.
- 498 31. Daugman J. New methods in iris recognition. IEEE Transactions on Systems, Man, and
 499 Cybernetics, Part B. 2007;37(5):1167-75.
- 32. Masek L. Recognition of human iris patterns for biometric identification. The University
 of Western Australia. 2003;2.
- 33. Yang J-J, Li J, Shen R, Zeng Y, He J, Bi J, et al. Exploiting ensemble learning for automatic
 cataract detection and grading. Computer methods and programs in biomedicine.
 2016;124:45-57.
- 34. Guo L, Yang J-J, Peng L, Li J, Liang Q. A computer-aided healthcare system for cataract
 classification and grading based on fundus image analysis. Computers in Industry.
 2015;69:72-80.
- 508 35. Huang W, Chan KL, Li H, Lim JH, Liu J, Wong TY. A computer assisted method for nuclear
 509 cataract grading from slit-lamp images using ranking. IEEE Transactions on Medical
 510 Imaging. 2011;30(1):94-107.
- 36. Tang Y, Zhang Y-Q, Chawla NV, Krasser S. SVMs modeling for highly imbalanced
 classification. IEEE Transactions on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics, Part B (Cybernetics).
 2009;39(1):281-8.

- 37. Shin HC, Roth HR, Gao M, Lu L, Xu Z, Nogues I, et al. Deep convolutional neural
 networks for computer-aided detection: CNN architectures, dataset characteristics and
 transfer learning. IEEE Trans Med Imaging. 2016.
- 517 38. Ravishankar H, Sudhakar P, Venkataramani R, Thiruvenkadam S, Annangi P, Babu N, et al.
- 518 Understanding the mechanisms of deep transfer learning for medical images. arXiv preprint
 519 arXiv:170406040. 2017.
- 520 39. Ciresan D, Meier U, Schmidhuber J. Multi-column deep neural networks for image
 521 classification. Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR). 2012:3642-9.
- 40. Krawczyk B, Schaefer G, Woźniak M. A hybrid cost-sensitive ensemble for imbalanced
 breast thermogram classification. Artificial intelligence in medicine. 2015;65(3):219-27.
- 41. Bottou L. Large-scale machine learning with stochastic gradient descent. Proceedings of
 COMPSTAT'2010. 2010:177-86.
- 526 42. Jia YaS, Evan and Donahue, Jeff and Karayev, Sergey and Long, Jonathan and Girshick,
- Ross and Guadarrama, Sergio and Darrell, Trevor. Caffe: Convolutional architecture for
 fast feature embedding. arXiv preprint arXiv:14085093. 2014.
- 529 43. Kohavi R. A study of cross-validation and bootstrap for accuracy estimation and model
- selection. International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence. 1995;14(2):1137-45.
- 531

533 Figure legends

Fig. 1. Dataset preparation and performance evaluation of multiple methods. (a) Dataset 534 535 labelling and preprocessing. 470 training and validation samples and 132 independent test samples were derived from samples provided by the Zhongshan Ophthalmic Center of Sun Yat-536 sen University; 79 Internet-based samples were collected using the Baidu and Google search 537 engines. Each image was independently graded and labeled by three senior ophthalmologists; 538 539 subsequently, the images were cropped automatically using twice-applied Canny detection and Hough transformation. (b) Model comparison and evaluation. The training and validation 540 541 dataset was used to train and evaluate the performances of the different methods and select the 542 best model. Independent testing and Internet-based datasets were also used to evaluate the 543 stability and the generalizability of the CCNN-Ensemble method. Notes: WT: wavelet 544 transformation; LBP: local binary pattern; SIFT: scale-invariant feature transform; COTE: 545 color and texture features; Adaboost: adaptive boosting ensemble learning; CCNN-Ensemble: ensemble learning of cost-sensitive convolutional neural networks. 546 547 Fig. 2. Framework of the CCNN-Ensemble method. The preprocessed images were input 548 into three parallel deep learning CNNs (AlexNet, GoogLeNet, and ResNet) with different network structures for feature extraction and classification; a unified ensemble learning of 549

551 was used to adjust the costs of the positive and negative samples in the loss function to address

CNNs was then used to improve the recognition rate of the classifier. The cost-sensitive layer

- the imbalanced dataset problem. Notes: CNN: convolutional neural network; AlexNet: eight-
- 553 layer Alex CNN; GoogLeNet: 22-layer inception CNN developed by Google researchers;
- 554 ResNet: 50-layer residual CNN.

Fig. 3. Performance comparisons of the different methods for the three grading indices. 555 Images (a)-(c) show performance comparisons of conventional features, adaboost ensemble 556 557 learning and CCNN-Ensemble methods for the lens opacity area, opacity density, and opacity location, respectively. The sensitivity of adaboost ensemble learning methods is greatly 558 559 improved over the conventional feature methods, whereas their specificity indicator is reduced and the accuracy has no significant improvement. The CCNN-Ensemble method outperforms 560 561 other conventional features and adaboost ensemble approaches and offers exceptional accuracy, 562 specificity and sensitivity in terms of three grading indices of lens opacity: area (92.13%, 563 92.00%, and 92.31%), density (92.77%, 93.85%, and 91.43%) and location (92.76%, 95.25%, and 89.29%). Notes: ACC: accuracy; SPE: specificity; SEN: sensitivity; WT: wavelet 564 transformation; LBP: local binary pattern; SIFT: scale-invariant feature transform; COTE: 565 566 color and texture features; Ada: adaptive boosting ensemble learning; WT-Ada: adaptive boosting ensemble learning with wavelet transformation feature; CCNN-Ensemble: ensemble 567 learning of cost-sensitive convolutional neural networks. 568

569 Fig. 4. ROC and PR curves for the different methods in opacity area grading. (a) ROC 570 curves and AUC values for the CCNN-Ensemble method and four comparison methods: WT-Ada, SIFT-Ada, LBP-Ada, and COTE-Ada. (b) PR curves for the CCNN-Ensemble method 571 572 and the four comparison methods. Notes: WT: wavelet transformation; LBP: local binary 573 pattern; SIFT: scale-invariant feature transform; COTE: color and texture features; Ada: adaptive boosting ensemble learning; WT-Ada: adaptive boosting ensemble learning with 574 575 wavelet transformation feature; CCNN-Ensemble: ensemble learning of cost-sensitive convolutional neural networks; ROC: receiver operating characteristic curve; AUC: area under 576

577 the ROC curve; PR: precision recall curve.

Fig. 5. Performance analysis results for the CCNN-Ensemble on two external datasets. (a) 578 579 The performance comparision, ROC curves and PR curves of the CCNN-Ensemble method for lens opacity area, density and location grading on independent testing dataset. (b) The 580 581 performance comparision, ROC curves and PR curves for lens opacity area, density and location grading on Internet-based dataset. The model performances are satisfactory when 582 applied to the two external datasets, independent test images: area (94.70%, 96.70%, and 583 90.24%), density (93.18%, 94.23%, and 89.29%) and location (93.18%, 94.00%, and 90.63%); 584 585 internet-based images: area (89.87%, 89.47%, and 90.00%), density (88.61%, 88.89%, and 88.52%) and location (87.34%, 87.50%, and 87.30%), indicating that the model is universal 586 and effective. Notes: ACC: accuracy; SPE: specificity; SEN: sensitivity; ROC: receiver 587 588 operating characteristic curve; AUC: area under the ROC curve; PR: precision recall curve.