Multi-modality encoded fusion with 3D inception U-net and decoder model for brain tumor segmentation

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Abstract

With deep learning playing a crucial role in biomedical image segmentation, multi-modality fusion-based techniques have gained rapid growth. For any radiologist, identification and segmentation of brain tumor (gliomas) via multi-sequence 3D volumetric MRI scan for diagnosis, monitoring, and treatment, are complex and time-consuming tasks. The brain tumor segmentation (BraTS) challenge offers 3D volumes of high-graded gliomas (HGG), and low-graded gliomas (LGG) MRI scans with four modalities: T1, T1c, T2 and FLAIR. In this article, the tumor segmentation is performed on the preprocessed multi-modalities by proposed 3D deep neural network components: multi-modalities fusion, tumor extractor, and tumor segmenter. The multi-modalities fusion component uses the deep inception based encoding to merge the multi-modalities. Tumor extractor component is passed with the fused images to recognise the tumor patterns using the 3D inception U-Net model. Finally, tumor segmenter utilises the progressive approach to decode the extracted feature maps into the tumor regions. The architecture segments each lesion region into the whole tumor (WT), core tumor (CT), and enhancing tumor (ET) using the five target classes: background, necrosis, edema, enhancing tumor and non-enhancing tumor. To tackle the class imbalance problem, the weighted segmentation loss function is proposed based on the dice coefficient and the Jaccard index. This article illustrates the significance of each component on the BraTS 2017 and 2018 datasets by achieving better segmentation results. The performance of the proposed approach is also compared with the other state-of-the-art methods.

Keywords Convolution neural networks · Healthcare · Medical image analysis · Multi-modalities · Segmentation

1 Introduction

Deep learning is bringing revolution in technological advancement for the welfare of living society, especially in the domain of biomedical image analysis [\[9\]](#page-13-0). Diagnosis and treatment

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of any severe health hazard is followed by critical observation from the medical scans such as magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), computed tomography (CT or CAT), X-Rays, etc. Analysing such scans require experienced neuro-radiologist, which however is a tedious and time consuming task. Deep learning image processing techniques [\[17\]](#page-14-0) are utilised to mitigate the complication of such tasks and produce faster and efficient diagnoses.

1.1 Multi-modalities fusion

T1 weighted (T1), T1 contrast enhanced (T1c), T2 weighted (T2), and T2 fluid attenuated inversion recovery (FLAIR) are the most common sequences or modalities captured using MRI. Figure [1](#page-1-0) shows a slice of each of these modalities that highlight certain tissues of the brain. Table [1](#page-2-0) presents the comparison of each of these modalities in presenting the brain tissues [\[23\]](#page-14-1). Since tumors vary in shape, size, appearance, and location, thereby forms the complicated structure and makes it hard to fully identify and segment the lesion regions using unary-modality sequences. The fusion of multi-modalities offers the multiinformation of the brain tissues for comprehensive analysis to improve upon the tumor segmentation results [\[18\]](#page-14-2). Fusion approaches are broadly classified into three different levels, input level, layer level, and decision level [\[11\]](#page-14-3). Zhe et al. [\[11\]](#page-14-3) observed that input level fusion produced the best segmentation results that completely exploits the information from the multi-modalities.

1.2 Overview

Following from the brain tumor segmentation (BraTS) challenge, in this article, an efficient approach is proposed for the tumor segmentation via 3D deep neural network components, inspired by the success of inception U-Net architecture [\[24\]](#page-14-4) in 2D segmentation of nucleus. Figure [2](#page-2-1) illustrates the proposed framework, divided into the following components: data preprocessor, multi-modalities fusion, tumor extractor, and tumor segmenter. In data preprocessing, the input sequences are corrected using advanced normalisation tools (ANTs) [\[1\]](#page-13-1) to remove the bias field distortion caused by the non-uniformity of the magnetic fields [\[15\]](#page-14-5). Later, the scans are cropped to maximum fit the brain structure, which reduces the number of features without the loss of information. The multi-modalities fusion component uses the deep inception based encoding to merge the input sequences T1, T1c, T2, and FLAIR with the objective to make it more informative. Then the tumor extractor component is passed with the encoded scans to extract the feature maps for gliomas using the 3D inception U-Net model. Finally, tumor segmenter decodes the obtained feature maps into the tumor regions

Fig. 1 A slice of MRI scan with modalities **a** T1, **b** TIc, **c** T2, and **d** FLAIR

Brain tissue	T ₁	T _{1c}	T ₂	FLAIR
CSF	Grey	Dark	Bright	Dark
Cortex	Grey	Grey	Light Grey	Light Grey
White matter	Light	Dark grey	Dark Grey	Dark Grey
Inflammation (infection, demyelination)	Dark	Dark	Bright	Bright
Fat (within the bone marrow)	Bright	Bright	Light	Light
Significance	Separates brain and CSF (ventricles, cyst, etc.)	Visualisation of normal vessels and vascular changes	Highlights CSF spaces	Improves grey and white distinction

Table 1 Comparative analysis of multi-modalities of MRI

as whole tumor (WT), core tumor (CT), and enhancing tumor (ET) from the five target classes as background, necrosis, edema, enhancing tumor and non-enhancing tumor.

For the training phase, the input is normalised using the instance normalisation technique [\[33\]](#page-14-6), and a segmentation loss function is proposed based on the dice coefficient and intersection-over-union metrics to address the class imbalance problem. The proposed network is implemented using the tensorflow-gpu version 1.12.0 and trained on a highperformance computing (HPC) environment of two Nvidia Tesla V-100 16 GB GPUs. Mostly, the models proposed for the BraTS challenge utilise F1 score (dice coefficient) as an evaluator metric for performance measurement; hence, in this article, the dice coefficient is considered for comparative analysis. The experimental results are compared on the BraTS 2017 and 2018 datasets with the other pre-existing approaches along with the ablation study of the proposed components and impact of different loss functions.

2 Related work

The progressive advancements in deep learning and computer vision methodologies are expanding the dimensions towards the applications in the healthcare sector [\[21\]](#page-14-7). With the evolving medical image acquisition systems, multi-modality based segmentation [\[2,](#page-13-2) [3,](#page-13-3) [20\]](#page-14-8) approach is widely studied. Most of the approaches are being proposed based on the modifications in the architectural design, training strategy, fusion methodology, pre and

Fig. 2 Components of the proposed framework

post-processing of data. Table [2](#page-3-0) highlights the recent contributions and achievements in the field of MRI segmentation. The U-Net topology [\[26\]](#page-14-9) is the most widely used base architecture for biomedical image segmentation as observed from the findings of Isensee et al. [\[14\]](#page-14-10). The symmetrical contraction and expansion pathways of convolution and pooling layers in U-Net discovers the high-level features and localise the objects in the original feature space, respectively. Later, with the advent of 3D medical images, e.g. MRI, CT, various approaches employed 3D convolution networks [\[37,](#page-15-0) [39\]](#page-15-1) to manoeuvre the spatial contextual information of the image; whereas the expense of its computation cost is reduced by GPU accelerated hardware resources.

Wang et al. [\[34\]](#page-14-11) proposed the fusion based brain tumor segmentation approach using anisotropic convolution network to hierarchically segment the brain tumor regions into WT, CT, and ET one after the other. The segmentation results are further fused across multiple views (axial, sagittal, and coronal). Though the authors achieved the dice scores of

Authors	Dataset	Contribution	Remarks
Wang et al. [34]	BraTS2017	Multi-modality fusion framework for hierarchical segmentation of WT, CT, and ET regions	Achieved dice score of 0.78, 0.87, and 0.77 for WT, CT, and ET respectively, but class correlated features were avoided
Chen et al. $[6]$	BraTS2017	Proposed two-stage 3D CNN densely connected model with partial fusion to segment the tumor regions	Improvement over concept of the hierarchical segmentation approach with dice scores of ET as 0.81
Zhou et al. $[38]$	BraTS2017	OM-Net architecture is proposed with segmentation of lesion regions based on curriculum learning scheme	Preserves class correlated features to achieve better dice scores of 0.78 (WT), 0.90 (CT), and 0.84 (ET)
Yang et al. [35]	BraTS2018	Adversarial training of residual U-Net network for supervised segmentation of tumor regions	The GAN based adversarial training resulted in significant improvements in dice score as 0.90 (WT), 0.85 (CT), and 0.79 (ET)
Myronenko et al. [22]	BraTS2018	Effective feature selection with variation autoencoder for MRI segmentation to identify tumor regions	Achieved the best results among the approaches proposed for BraTS 2018 challenge
Hatamizadeh et al. [12]	BraTS2018	Emphasise on boundary aware learning with the help of edge aware loss component to segment lesion regions	Produces accurate segmentation results as compared to U-Net and V-Net with dice score of 0.822 0.176

Table 2 Recent research works on BraTS 2017-18 challenge

0.78 (WT), 0.87 (CT), and 0.77 (ET) on the BraTS 2017 dataset, but did not consider the inter class correlation. Later, Chen et al. [\[6\]](#page-13-4) employed a 3D convolution neural network (CNN) based model with partial fusion in which a two-stage model is proposed. The first stage uses patches $(38\times38\times38)$ of FLAIR and T2 to segment WT, whereas the second stage uses patches of T1, T1c and output of the first stage to segment CT and ET. This approach achieved the dice score of 0.72 (WT), 0.83 (CT), and 0.81 (ET) on BraTS 2017. Afterwards, Zhou et al. [\[38\]](#page-15-2) proposed one pass multi-task convolution network (OM-Net) to improve the performance of the model [\[34\]](#page-14-11), using curriculum learning that preserves the class correlation through shared backbone model. This model is first trained to segment the WT region from the extracted correlated features then the resulting image is utilised to segment the CT region, and finally ET region is segmented similarly. The authors achieved better segmentation results than previous work [\[34\]](#page-14-11) on BraTS 2017 dataset, but the approach requires substantial resources to train 14M parameters. Since the segmentation of the regions of varying size requires different sizes of the receptive field, Qin et al. [\[25\]](#page-14-15) proposed the autofocus convolution that uses multiple convolution layers of varying dilation rates. The dilated convolution [\[36\]](#page-14-16) increases the receptive field of the network without increasing the number of parameters. The proposed method achieved promising results on multi-organ and brain tumor segmentation task. Later, due to the increasing popularity of generative adversarial networks (GANs) [\[10\]](#page-13-5), Yang et al. [\[35\]](#page-14-12) proposed the contour aware residual network and adversarial training framework, for brain tumor segmentation. The residual U-Net is utilised as a segmentation generator to output the identified tumor regions which are later compared with ground truth masks under the supervision of the discriminator neural network. The authors achieved competitive and robust results on BraTS 2018 dataset, but additional resources are needed to train discriminator. Later, Myronenko et al. [\[22\]](#page-14-13) employed autoencoding regularisation to learn important features that are effective for 3D MRI image classification. Indeed, the approach was ranked first in BraTS 2018 challenge. In Hatamizadeh et al. [\[12\]](#page-14-14) boundary aware convolutional neural network with end-to-end training is proposed to segment organ boundary information using the edgeaware loss terms. The network utilises the multi-scale contextual information while fusing the boundary level feature maps via tuning of weight parameters. The approach achieved more accurate segmentation results on BraTS 2018 as compared to state-of-the-art U-Net and V-Net architectures.

Following from these notions, in this article, an efficient framework is proposed based on the inception U-Net architectural design [\[24\]](#page-14-4) with the idea to exploit multi-information of deep encoded fused modalities to extract tumor patterns and later segment into the complete tumor and its sub-regions using the task specific components.

3 Proposed framework

The overall architectural design consists of inception module, data preprocessing, multimodality encoded fusion, tumor extractor and tumor segmenter units with 10.5M trainable parameters. The preprocessed multi-modalities are progressively fused to gain multiinformation that enables the tumor extractor component to analyse the deep patterns using the contraction and expansion pathways associated with the tumor regions. The contraction path extracts the features for each downsampled sequence that is carried through the max-pooling operation. Whereas, the expansion path attempts to retain the learned features while progressively restoring the dimension of the activations using the transposed convolutions. Later, the tumor regions are segmented into WT, ET, and CT by tumor segmenter component that merges the features learned at different hierarchical layers of tumor extractor component with the help of upsampling operation. All convolution operations are activated with the most widely used leaky rectified linear unit (LReLU) activation function [\[19\]](#page-14-17), except that the final convolution operation at the output layer follows the sigmoid activation function [\[28\]](#page-14-18) for voxel classification. Each convolution layer is also accompanied by the instance normalisation [\[33\]](#page-14-6) to standardise the activations and accelerate the training process. The training phase is employed with the objective function defined using the dice coefficient and Jaccard index to assist in fine-tuning of weight parameters and improving the dice score of the tumor segmentation.

3.1 Inception module

It is quite unlikely to use a single type of convolution to detect objects of varying size and shape like brain tumor. Following the concept of Google's inception neural network [\[30\]](#page-14-19), the inception segment is composed of concatenated convolutions of 1×1 , 3×3 , and 5×5 kernels which is accompanied by 1×1 convolution to reduce the 3D channels. Each of these convolutions is followed by instance normalisation [\[33\]](#page-14-6), LReLU activation function [\[19\]](#page-14-17) and downsampled enabled max pooling. Figure [3](#page-5-0) illustrates the architecture of the inception module for the proposed framework.

3.2 Data preprocessing

MRI multi-modality scans incur the problem of the bias field, which is caused by the intensity inhomogeneity that corrupts the MRI sequences [\[29\]](#page-14-20), which therefore makes it difficult for the desired analysis like segmentation. In this article, ANT's N4BiasFieldCorrection [\[32\]](#page-14-21) is utilised to correct the MRI sequences and perform the bias correction. In order to have lossless dimensionality reduction (reducing the number of features), dark slices and voxels are removed for each modality resulting in reduced 3D dimensions, i.e. from $(240\times240\times155)$ to $(144\times144\times144)$ as shown in Fig. [4.](#page-6-0) Finally, the volumes are normalised

Fig. 3 3D inception convolution module

Fig. 4 Data preprocessing with N4BiasFieldCorrection and dimensionality reduction on MRI modalities

as $(x - \mu)/(\sigma + \varepsilon)$ where μ is mean, and σ is the standard deviation of input intensities, and ε is a constant with a minimal value, added to avoid the division by zero cases.

3.3 Multi-modality fusion

Figure [5](#page-7-0) illustrates the inception based encoded fusion approach for the T1, T1c, T2, and FLAIR modalities. Instead of performing direct fusion along the batch axis, each preprocessed modality is passed as an input to the multi-modality fusion component consisting of hierarchical inception blocks. Each MRI sequence is initially processed through inception module (IM) with a filter followed by concatenation of T1 with T1c and T2 with FLAIR resulting modalities, forming two sequences of size $2 \times 144 \times 144 \times 144$. Later, the process is repeated for the resulting sequences to form $4 \times 144 \times 144 \times 144$ dimension. The fused output of this component is created via the concatenation of $2\times(2\times144\times144\t)$ and $1 \times (4 \times 144 \times 144)$, resulting in a sequence of dimension $8 \times 144 \times 144 \times 144$. Each inception block extracts features from the associated modality, which is progressively encoded and fused to incorporate weighted multi-information. The encoded fused output is then passed to the tumor extractor for deep patterns discovery of lesion regions. After extensive trials of manipulating the architectural design, the proposed fusion approach is claimed to be effective in improvement of the segmentation results.

3.4 Tumor extractor

The tumor extractor component follows from the results of the fusion component and aims to understand the deep patterns associated with the brain tumor. It follows contraction and expansion paths for the discovery of tumor patterns and reconstruction of identified tumor regions into the same dimension as that of input respectively. Figure [6](#page-7-1) shows the residual building block of the tumor extractor component consisting of IM blocks and a spatial

Fig. 5 Multi-modality (T1, T1c, T2, FLAIR) encoded fusion architecture

dropout [\[31\]](#page-14-22) of 30% for regularisation. The dropout layer tends to prevent the overfitting by reducing the correlation among the learned features in the intermediate blocks [\[13\]](#page-14-23). The spatial dropout deactivates the entire feature map along the axis, which tends to improve the performance than a standard dropout.

The complete tumor extractor architecture is developed using the interconnected layers of residual inception blocks to form the U-Net structure [\[26\]](#page-14-9), as shown in Fig. [7.](#page-8-0) The residual skip connection [\[8\]](#page-13-6) shown as the horizontal arrows in Fig. [7,](#page-8-0) enables to preserve the features learned in the previous layers. It avoids the vanishing gradient problem and aids in the upsampling of MRI sequences using transposed convolutions in the reconstruction or expansion phase. The results of the intermediate RI-32, RI-16, RI-8, and RI-3 layers are utilised for final segmentation into WT, ET, and CT regions by tumor segmenter component.

3.5 Tumor segmenter

The tumor segmenter decodes the feature maps from RI-32, RI-16, RI-8, and RI-3 layers of tumor extractor into WT, CT, and ET tumor regions, as illustrated in Fig. [8.](#page-9-0) In order to set the number of channels equivalent to the number of classes, RI layers are passed through 1×1 convolution with three filters followed by spatial dropout [\[31\]](#page-14-22) to form a volume of size $(3 \times H \times W \times D)$. The convoluted volumes are upsampled by mapping a voxel value of $(1\times1\times1)$ to $(2\times2\times2)$ dimension [\[7\]](#page-13-7), in order to match the dimensions with higher layers such that it becomes compatible for the addition operation with the higher layers along the batch axis which lastly converges at $(3 \times 144 \times 144 \times 144)$. The final activation is applied as

Fig. 6 Residual inception (RI) block for tumor extractor

* Layers are also utilized by tumor segmenter component

Fig. 7 Tumor extractor architecture

sigmoid to get intensities of each voxel within the range [0,1] and compute the segmentation loss for predicted WT, CT and ET regions.

4 Experimentation and results

4.1 Dataset setup

BraTS dataset is comprised of 3D volumes of MRI scans taken in four modalities of T1, T1c, T2, and FLAIR with 155 sequences of size 244×244 forming complete dimension as $244 \times 244 \times 155$. Each of these modalities highlight distinct features of the tumor regions. The BraTS 2017 and 2018 challenges offer dataset consisting of MRI scans of 285 patients along with the ground truth. The datasets include five classes as background, necrosis, edema, enhancing tumor and non-enhancing tumor which forms three tumor regions as whole tumor (WT), core tumor (CT), and enhancing tumor (ET). Each dataset comprises of approximately 61%, 24%, and 15% distribution of WT, CT, and ET regions, respectively, resulting in highly imbalanced dataset. Each sequence is preprocessed with N4BiasFieldCorrection [\[32\]](#page-14-21) and resampled to remove the dark voxels forming the cuboid structure of dimension $144 \times 144 \times 144$. Each dataset is randomly split into 80% of the training set and 20% of the validation set. The training and validation sets are kept same throughout the experimental trials for comparative analysis. Due to the limited availability

Fig. 8 Tumor extractor architecture

of the validation data, the results are compared on the validation split set of BraTS 2017 and 2018 datasets.

4.2 Training and testing

The proposed framework is trained and tested on BraTS 2017 and 2018 datasets. The training phase is assisted with the 5-fold cross validation, early-stopping to avoid the overfitting problem [\[4\]](#page-13-8), and Adam as a learning rate optimiser [\[27\]](#page-14-24). The most widely used metrics for model training and performance analysis in segmentation are the dice coefficient (F1-score) and intersection-over-union (IoU / Jaccard index). In this article, trials were made with the dice loss, IoU loss and weighted average of IoU-dice loss as shown in the ablation study under results and discussion section. With deep insight into the literature, it is observed that generally, the authors use dice metric as an objective function [\(1\)](#page-9-1), but the IoU metric as given in [\(2\)](#page-9-2) is comparatively more effective in punishing the false predictions, thereby making it more suitable for imbalanced datasets. For example, consider that a single voxel is available in an image, but the model detects one more voxel along with the genuine one. The model's dice and IoU score would be 2/3 and 1/2, respectively. Compared to dice, the lower IoU score penalises the training weights to improve upon the false prediction.

$$
Dice\ coefficient = \frac{2*TP}{2*TP + FP + FN}
$$
 (1)

$$
IoU = \frac{TP}{TP + FP + FN} \tag{2}
$$

where TP indicates true positive predictions (correctly classified), FP indicates false positive (wrongly classified), and FN indicates false negatives (missed objects) of each voxel.

Equations [\(3\)](#page-10-0) and [\(4\)](#page-10-1) represent the dice loss (DCL), and IoU loss (IoUL) metrics as the loss functions and their weighted average (DIUL) is defined in [\(5\)](#page-10-2). With several experiments, it is found that the proposed loss function DIUL offers a significant improvement over the segmentation results in the proposed framework than using dice coefficient loss

Fig. 9 Qualitative results of brain tumor segmentation on validation MRI sequences (**a**, **b**, and **c**) cut along the axial axis. The quantities indicate the dice score over the complete volume of slices. WT-Whole Tumor, TC-Tumor Core, ET-Emerging Tumor, and CT-Complete Tumor

and IoU loss individually, but with the cost of slow convergence, and hence increases the training time.

$$
DCL (y, p (y)) = 1 - \frac{2 \cdot y \cdot p (y)}{|y|^2 + |p (y)|^2}
$$
 (3)

IoUL (y,
$$
p(y)
$$
) = 1 - $\frac{y.p(y)}{y + p(y) - y.p(y)}$ (4)

$$
DILL(y, p(y)) = \frac{1}{2} (DCL(y, p(y)) + IoUL(y, p(y)))
$$
 (5)

where y and $p(y)$ indicates the ground truth and predicted values.

The backpropagation process fine tunes the training weights or parameters with the concern to minimise the DIUL value (L) by computing the loss gradient with respect to the prediction as shown in (6) .

$$
\frac{\partial L}{\partial p(y)} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\partial DCL(y, p(y))}{\partial p(y)} + \frac{\partial IoUL(IoU_s)}{\partial p(y)} \right]
$$
(6)

$$
\frac{\partial DCL(y, p(y))}{\partial p(y)} = -2 \left(\frac{y.(|y|^2 - |p(y)|^2)}{(|y|^2 + |p(y)|^2)} \right) \tag{7}
$$

$$
\frac{\partial (IoU_s)}{\partial p(y)} = -\frac{U(y, p(y)) \cdot y - I(y, p(y)) \cdot (1 - y)}{U(y, p(y))^2}
$$
(8)

$$
Intersection, I (yi, p (yi)) = y.p (y)
$$
\n(9)

Union, U (
$$
y_i
$$
, p (y_i)) = $y + p$ (y) – $y.p(y)$ (10)

4.3 Results and discussion

The proposed model outputs the 3D volume of the segmented mask consisting of tumor regions WT, ET, and CT. Figure [9](#page-10-4) displays the qualitative results for the MRI sequences viewed over the axial plane with randomly chosen slices. The visual representation and dice score confirm that results are quite close to the ground truth values of WT, CT, and ET.

Table [3](#page-11-0) presents the result of the proposed framework in the form of dice coefficient values for WT, CT and ET, along with the comparative analysis with other popular approaches proposed for the BraTS 2017 and 2018 challenges. For BraTS 2017, the proposed framework outperforms the other approaches in segmenting the CT and ET regions with dice score of 0.88 and 0.83, respectively. In contrast, Zhou et al. [\[38\]](#page-15-2) approach produce slightly better dice score to identify WT regions. Similarly, in BraTS 2018 challenge, the model proposed by Yang et al. [\[35\]](#page-14-12) works better to identify the whole tumor and shows similar results to the proposed approach to segment CT and ET regions. We further tried to improve the results with post-processing technique, conditional random fields (CRF) [\[16\]](#page-14-25) but resulted in degrading the performance of the model. In contrast to other methods, the main reason for the success of the proposed approach follows from the organised architectural design, comprised of task specific 3D deep inception based components and optimised loss function that tackles the class imbalance problem.

The improvement with reference to each of the proposed components (multi-modalities fusion, tumor extractor, tumor segmenter) and the objective function is shown in Table [4.](#page-12-0) Figure [10](#page-12-1) shows the training loss per epoch and box plot of dice score on the validation set for all combinations of the model mode and loss function, as shown in Table [4.](#page-12-0)

In order to develop a base platform for volumetric segmentation of brain tumor, 3D U-Net model is utilised based on the standard U-Net model [\[26\]](#page-14-9), where convolution, pooling, and other operations are extended to the third dimension. As shown in Table [4,](#page-12-0) the plain 3D U-Net model has displayed the worst performance. The non-inception model is

Dataset	Author	Model	Dice score		
			WT	CT	ET
BraTS 2017	Kamnitsas et al. $[16]$	Multi-scale 3D CNN	0.90	0.75	0.73
	Chen et al. $\lceil 5 \rceil$	Dilated multi-fiber network	0.72	0.83	0.81
	Wang et al. $[34]$	Cascaded anisotropic CNN	0.78	0.87	0.77
	Zhou et al. $[38]$	OM-Net	0.91	0.82	0.80
	Proposed		0.89	0.88	0.83
BraTS 2018	Chen et al. $[5]$	Dense 3D CNN	0.90	0.84	0.80
	Yang et al. $[35]$	Context aware residual network with adversarial training	0.91 0.94	0.83	
	Proposed		0.92	0.91	0.84

Table 3 Comparative analysis of the proposed model with the existing models on BraTS 2017 and 2018 datasets

Bold values indicate the best segmentation results

Model mode	Loss function	Dice score				
		WT	CT	ET		
Plain 3D U-Net	DCL	0.64	0.15	0.00		
	IoUL	0.58	0.08	0.00		
	DIUL	0.66	0.18	0.00		
Non inception	DCL	0.81	0.76	0.55		
	IoUL	0.75	0.67	0.30		
	DIUL	0.81	0.78	0.56		
Non encoded fusion	DCL	0.82	0.73	0.70		
	IoUL	0.79	0.69	0.65		
	DIUL	0.83	0.71	0.70		
Proposed model	DCL	0.89	0.87	0.80		
	IoUL	0.85	0.85	0.80		

Table 4 Results of the ablation study of the components of the proposed framework

developed by replacing the inception convolutions with the 3D convolutions while retaining other proposed components of the framework with the aim to identify the effectiveness of the inception convolution [\[30\]](#page-14-19) module in the proposed approach. The dice value for noninception model mode outperforms the plain 3D U-Net mode, especially in identifying the ET regions. Similarly, for non-encoded fusion mode, the multi-modality fusion component is replaced with the simple input level concatenation of the multi-modalities, while retaining other components of the framework. This model mode has some improvements in dice score over the other model modes, but still not close to the results of the proposed model.

DIUL 0.92 0.91 0.84

Fig. 10 Training, validation loss and box plot (box – median, first/third quartile, whiskers – min/max, and circles – outliers) for dice score across validation set for **a** plain 3D-Unet, **b** non-inception, **c** non-encoded fusion, and **d** proposed model, by using DCL, IoUL, and DIUL loss functions

Despite bad results from the other model modes, it can be observed that in most of the cases, the combination of dice loss and IoU loss tends to improve the performance and achieves better dice score.

5 Conclusion

In the present article, the complex task of brain tumor segmentation is divided into multiple components: data-preprocessing, multi-modalities fusion, tumor extractor, and tumor segmenter. The proposed approach achieved significant improvements on BraTS 2017 and BraTS 2018 datasets by exploiting the advantages of inception convolutions, 3D U-Net architecture, and segmentation loss function that is based on Jaccard index and dice coefficient. With exhaustive experiments, it was found that each segment of the proposed framework serves its desired purpose in understanding the deep patterns associated with the tumor regions and contributing towards improvement in the segmentation results. As an extension, the work of the present article could further be improved by employing hybrid, cascaded, ensembled or other learning approaches. It is believed that this work can also be extended to wide variety of biomedical image analyses like image registration, disease quantification, etc. and other application areas.

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