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Towards improved breast mass detection using dual-view mammogram matching

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ABSTRACT

Breast cancer screening benefits from the visual analysis of multiple views of routine mammograms. As for clinical practice, computer-aided diagnosis (CAD) systems could be enhanced by integrating multi-view information. In this work, we propose a new multi-tasking framework that combines craniocaudal (CC) and mediolateral-oblique (MLO) mammograms for automatic breast mass detection. Rather than addressing mass recognition only, we exploit multi-tasking properties of deep networks to jointly learn mass matching and classification, towards better detection performance. Specifically, we propose a unified Siamese network that combines patch-level mass/non-mass classification and dual-view mass matching to take full advantage of multi-view information. This model is exploited in a full image detection pipeline based on You-Only-Look-Once (YOLO) region proposals. We carry out exhaustive experiments to highlight the contribution of dual-view matching for both patch-level classification and examination-level detection scenarios. Results demonstrate that mass matching highly improves the full-pipeline detection performance by outperforming conventional singletask schemes with 94.78% as Area Under the Curve (AUC) score and a classification accuracy of 0.8791. Interestingly, mass classification also improves the performance of mass matching, which proves the complementarity of both tasks. Our method further guides clinicians by providing accurate dual-view mass correspondences, which suggests that it could act as a relevant second opinion for mammogram interpretation and breast cancer diagnosis.

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1. Introduction

Breast cancer is the second most common cause of cancerrelated deaths in women (Rakhlin et al., 2018), responsible for 11 25% of cancer cases and 15% of cancer deaths (Torre et al., 12 2017). Mammography is the main imaging modality used to 13 detect breast abnormalities at early stage. Standard mammography views are bilateral craniocaudal (CC), extracted from 15

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top-down, and mediolateral-oblique (MLO), an oblique view taken under 45°. These two views comprise routine screening mammography. Dual-view analysis is an effective way for clinicians to reduce both morbidity and mortality associated with breast cancer (Jørgensen and Bewley, 2015). Examining the correspondence between suspicious findings in multiples views enables radiologists to improve interpretations (Vijayarajan and Jaganathan, 2014). Compared to single-view screening, the clinical use of dual-view techniques therefore reduces false-positive cases and improves cancer detection rates (Warren et al., 1996). This analysis is mainly related to the de-

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tection and classification of lesions such as masses, calcifica- 76
tions, asymmetry or distortions. Among those abnormalities, 77
masses are the most important clinical symptoms of carcino- 78
mas. Characterized by medium gray to white regions within 79
the breast area, masses exhibit a great diversity of size, shape 80
(irregular, oval, lobulated, round), contours (circumscribed, ill-81
defined, spiculated, obscured) and texture (Yan et al., 2019).

Mammogram analysis is usually performed manually by a 83 26 radiologist. This task is time-consuming and prone to strong 84 27 inter-expert variability (Hamidinekoo et al., 2018). Moreover, 85 28 it is difficult and impractical for clinicians to perform double 86 29 reading in most screening situations. This leads to a consider- 87 30 able amount of patients which are given heavy treatments by 88 31 mistake (Myers et al., 2015). Computer-aided diagnosis (CAD) 89 32 systems have been designed for supplemental lesion detection, 90 33 classification and segmentation purposes. However, conven-⁹¹ 34 tional CAD systems for mammogram interpretation are inef- 92 35 ficient and not automatic enough to significantly improve diag-93 36 nosis performance (Lehman et al., 2015). The use of multi-view ⁹⁴ 37 contexts is a known weakness of current CAD technology. 38

In recent years, deep learning has achieved remarkable 96 39 breakthroughs in medical image analysis through convolutional 97 40 neural networks (CNN). Deep models have shown the most 41 promising performance in recent breast cancer mammography-42 related competitions (Hamidinekoo et al., 2018). CAD systems¹⁰⁰ 43 that employ deep learning demonstrate stronger robustness in 44 clinical implementation than traditional methodologies. The 45 main advantage lies in avoiding the need of hand-crafted fea-46 tures and automatically learning representative features directly¹⁰⁴ 47 from data. Nevertheless, breast mass detection and classifica-48 tion are still open issues due to the strong variations in ${\rm mass}^{\rm 106}$ 49 appearance (Yan et al., 2019). It remains therefore difficult to¹⁰⁷ 50 distinguish a mass from its surrounding healthy tissues. Some¹⁰⁸ 51 studies (Geras et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018;¹⁰⁹ 52 Shen et al., 2019) focus on whole mammograms which sim-¹¹⁰ 53 plify such complex problem by providing a unique image-level¹¹¹ 54 label (normal, benign or malignant). The drawback is that it¹¹² 55 avoids conducting a comprehensive analysis comprising lesion¹¹³ 56 types and locations. Other works are mostly region-based meth-57 ods (Wang et al., 2018; Choukroun et al., 2017; Arevalo et al., 58 2015; Lévy and Jain, 2016; Zhou et al., 2017), where images 59 are first decomposed into regions to further distinguish normal 60 from abnormal tissues. However, most of the above methods¹¹⁵ 61

use single-view mammograms only, thus neglecting the rich in-116
 formation that can be extracted from multi-view images.
 To address the limitation of single-view processing, we aim118

at taking advantage of information arising from CC and MLO119 65 mammograms, as do clinicians when making decisions in clini-120 66 cal practice (Vijayarajan and Jaganathan, 2014). There is a huge₁₂₁ 67 potential to improve the performance of CAD systems by inte-122 68 grating information from paired views. The concept of multi-123 69 view information fusion was recently introduced to improve the124 70 performance of detection, classification or content-based mam-125 71 mogram retrieval tasks (Jouirou et al., 2019). Several multi-126 72 view fusion schemes learn on full images from each view sep-127 73 arately and concatenate respective features afterwards. (Geras₁₂₈ 74 et al., 2017) proposed to apply CNN models to each view sepa-129 rately to obtain view-specific representations for further classification purposes. Nevertheless, such late-fusion schemes only exploit image-level view-specific representations.

Alternatively, we propose a novel multi-tasking Siamese deep model that combines CC and MLO mammograms to improve breast mass detection. A Siamese model includes two identical sub-networks with shared weights, such that features from two different input images can be extracted simultaneously. Previous related works (Ma et al., 2019; Perek et al., 2018) also employ Siamese networks (Koch et al., 2015) for multi-view study. However, these are single-task studies dedicated to mass detection (Ma et al., 2019) or mass matching (Perek et al., 2018) only. To design a more comprehensive and efficient CAD system, we aim at exploiting the multi-tasking properties of deep CNN. Multi-task learning processes multiple tasks jointly with many advantages such as saving computation time and resources as well as improving robustness against overfitting (Ruder, 2017). The network parameters from feature extraction layers are updated through the optimization of a combined loss dealing with both mass/non-mass classification and matching. Contrary to (Ma et al., 2019; Perek et al., 2018), our method can provide both classification and matching results. Specifically, our contributions are two-folds. First, we propose a new deep learning algorithm that capitalizes on multi-view fusion and multi-task learning to improve breast mass detection. To the best of our knowledge, our framework is the first that exploits multi-tasking abilities of deep learning models to improve mass detection using multi-view matching. Second, we conduct a comprehensive evaluation of various networks towards multitask learning on public datasets. Both quantitative and visual results prove the effectiveness of the proposed strategy.

This paper is organized as follows. We present background material and previous works related to mass classification, detection and matching using deep learning in Sect.2. Sect.3 focuses on our methodology for jointly learning mass/non-mass classification and matching. Sect.4 reports and discusses experimental results extending a preliminary study presented in (Yan et al., 2020a). We end up with conclusions in Sect.5.

2. Related works

2.1. Mass detection and classification

Deep learning methods have shown impressive performance in medical image applications. CNN models make it possible to automatically extract and learn features without feature engineering. Several works have started to explore deep learning for mass detection and classification. Arevalo et al. (2015) applied a hybrid approach in which CNNs are used to learn the feature representation in a supervised way. Zhou et al. (2017) analyzed the effectiveness of CNN in abnormality detection and classified lesions as benign or malignant. Lévy and Jain (2016) evaluated three different CNN architectures including shallow CNN, AlexNet (Krizhevsky et al., 2012) and GoogLeNet (Szegedy et al., 2015) for breast mass classification and further studied the performance reached by each architecture. Afterwards, Zhu et al. (2017) conducted benign/malign

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mass classification based on whole mammograms using an end-184 130 to-end deep multi-instance network without any detection or₁₈₅ 131 segmentation annotations for training. Dhungel et al. (2017)₁₈₆ 132 proposed an integrated cascade of deep belief networks and187 133 gaussian mixture models to provide mass candidates, followed 134 by cascades of CNN and random forest classifiers to refine de-135 tection results. Agarwal et al. (2019) developed an end-to-end188 136 mass detection framework using a patch-level classification ap-137 proach. However, the above methods only exploit single-view189 138 mammograms, and therefore neglect the rich information aris-190 139 ing from multi-view images which appears as essential to im-191 140 prove breast cancer diagnosis. 192 141

142 2.2. Multi-view mammography analysis

To address the single-view interpretation issue, a growing¹⁹⁶ 143 number of works focus on multi-view information fusion. Vi-197 144 jayarajan and Jaganathan (2014) extracted 2D features from 145 whole mammograms, obtained the locations from CC and MLO₁₉₈ 146 views and merged this information to get a 3D view of the mass 147 location. Carneiro et al. (2015) trained a separate CNN model¹⁹⁹ 148 for each view and finally applied a CNN classifier that estimates²⁰⁰ 149 the BI-RADS score using features learned from unregistered²⁰¹ 150 CC and MLO mammograms, as well as respective mass delin-202 151 eations. Geras et al. (2017) proposed to apply a CNN model²⁰³ 152 153 separately to each view to obtain view-specific representations²⁰⁴ for further classification purposes. All the above studies are205 154 designed based on whole mammograms. However, there may²⁰⁶ 155 be multiple different benign or malignant masses in a given ex-207 156 amination. In order to simplify the complex analysis of whole208 157 mammograms, some studies assign a unique label (benign, ma-209 158 lignant or normal) to the whole image. The drawback is that it²¹⁰ 159 avoids conducting a comprehensive analysis of each mammo-211 160 gram, comprising lesion types and locations. 212 161

¹⁶² 2.3. Patch-based matching

Patch-based image matching has been extensively used in216 163 computer vision. Han et al. (2015) presented MatchNet, a deep217 164 convolutional approach based on Siamese networks for patch-218 165 based matching between two images I_1 and I_2 . The MatchNet²¹⁹ 166 architecture consists of a feature network followed by a metric²²⁰ 167 network. The former is a "two-tower" structure network which221 168 jointly processes two patches (one extracted from I_1 , another²²² 169 from I_2) and maps them to a feature representation. The lat-223 170 ter models the similarity between the paired features through224 171 fully-connected (FC) layers and a softmax layer to get a match-225 172 ing score. Zagoruyko and Komodakis (2015) made use of and226 173 explored CNN architectures to encode a general similarity func-227 174 tion to quantify the correspondence between image patches.228 175 Amit et al. (2015) combined unsupervised segmentation and₂₂₉ 176 random-forest classification to detect candidate masses in CC230 177 and MLO views before estimating the correspondence between231 178 pairs of candidates in the two views. Ma et al. (2019) ex-232 179 ploited the latent relation information between the correspond-233 180 ing mass regions of interest (RoI) from the two paired views234 181 using a cross-view relation region-based CNN for mass detec-235 182 tion. Based on MatchNet (Han et al., 2015), Perek et al. (2018)236 183

proposed a dual-view Siamese network that learns patch representations and similarity for lesion matching. This suggests a potential added value of multi-view matching to improve breast mass detection, with respect to single-view detection strategies.

3. Methods

We first formally define the problem settings and provide an overview of the proposed unified framework for mass classification and matching in Sect.3.1. Multi-view mass matching combining Siamese networks and contrastive learning is described in Sect.3.2. As presented in Sect.3.3, this methodology is then extended to address both patch matching and classification simultaneously. Multi-task learning is followed to obtain better predictive breast mass classification performance than traditional single-task learning schemes.

3.1. Overview

Our multi-tasking framework (Fig.1) takes unregistered CC/MLO view pairs as inputs and provides as outputs accurate mass detections along with correspondences between mass regions in both views. Among existing deep detectors including Faster R-CNN (Ren et al., 2015) or SSD (Liu et al., 2016), YOLOv3 (Redmon and Farhadi, 2018) is adopted for candidate patch generation and selection from high resolution full mammograms (Yan et al., 2020b), since it offers an excellent trade-off between accuracy and efficiency.

Given a pair of mammograms { I_{CC} , I_{MLO} }, YOLO predicts two sets of candidate mass patches $P_{CC} = \{p_{CC}^1, ..., p_{CC}^N\}$ and $P_{MLO} = \{p_{MLO}^1, ..., p_{MLO}^M\}$. Although recent deep learning-based detectors have yielded impressive accuracy for object detection in natural images, it still remains difficult to reach the same level of performance when applied to medical images, especially mammograms. The following reasons arise. First, object size variance may affect the performance. In our context, mass sizes and aspect ratios vary strongly (Yan et al., 2019). Second, mass detection is generally more difficult than common object detection since masses are visually less obvious and less contrasted with respect to their surrounding healthy tissues, combined with a great diversity of shape and texture. On top of that, we should also struggle with the barrier between true and false masses to retain as much as possible true positives while reducing false positives.

To further finely select mass candidates and discover the latent relation between CC and MLO views, we design a combined model through a Siamese network that jointly deals with patch-level mass/non-mass classification and matching (Fig.1). We sample candidate mass patches P_{CC} and P_{MLO} to the same size via a data sampler, while performing data augmentation to prevent from overfitting. These samples are then fed into our combined network. Based on robust generic feature extraction, the result of our model is whether each patch of the two views contains mass as well as the correspondence between two patches of two views. Subsequently, we can visualize final detection results on both views to further guide clinicians in their mammogram interpretation task.



Fig. 1. Proposed multi-tasking deep pipeline. In images, green contours indicate ground truth delineations, red (yellow) boxes indicate false (true) detections.



Fig. 2. Matching Siamese network. A: Two-branch feature network which takes as input both positive (green patch) and negative (red patch) patch samples of CC and MLO views separately to compute features. Resulting features f_1 and f_2 are concatenated for patch comparison. B: Metric network.

237 3.2. Dual-view mammogram matching

Essential to make decisions in clinical routine, the infor-263 238 mation presented in the two paired CC/MLO views is highly²⁶⁴ 239 complementary and could serve as a second source of deci-265 240 sion (Jouirou et al., 2019). However, due to breast deformation²⁶⁶ 241 and different acquisition conditions combined with the lack of²⁶⁷ 242 3D information, multi-view fusion for dual-view mammogram²⁶⁶ 243 analysis is a challenging task. Therefore, only few deep convo-²⁶⁹ 244 lutional methods for breast screening consider learning jointly²⁷⁰ 245 271 effective features from both views. 246

Inspired by (Perek et al., 2018) and (Han et al., 2015), we²⁷² 247 employ a Siamese framework to identify correspondences²⁷³ 248 between masses in both CC/MLO views. The deep architecture²⁷⁴ 249 for multi-view mammogram matching is shown in Fig.2. Patch²⁷⁵ 250 pairs from CC and MLO views are fed separately to the two276 251 branches of the network. The feature network A is a Siamese²⁷⁷ 252 model in which two fully convolutional networks with shared²⁷⁸ 253 weights are employed for feature extraction. For illustration²⁷⁹ 254 (Fig.2), we use a VGG16 architecture (Simonyan and Zisser-255 man, 2014) with repeated 3×3 convolutions followed by an 256 activation function (ReLU) and 2×2 max pooling. To reduce 257 the number of parameters and avoid overfitting, we apply 258 a global average pooling layer before subsequent FC layers281 259 (Szegedy et al., 2015; He et al., 2016). Particularly, different₂₈₂ 260 widely used deep convolutional models such as VGG16283 261

(Simonyan and Zisserman, 2014), ResNet50, ResNet101 (He et al., 2016), InceptionV3 (Szegedy et al., 2016) and EfficientNet (Tan and Le, 2019) can be exploited for feature extraction purposes. For feature comparison, two manners are explored based on different loss functions. First, one can use a metric network as in (Perek et al., 2018) and (Han et al., 2015) consisting of several FC layers and softmax layers, trained with a cross-entropy loss. Alternatively, we can rather employ a contrastive loss (Hadsell et al., 2006) to improve the representation ability of network A to extract discriminative features.

Contrastive loss for matching. Contrastive learning, whose labels are used to guide the choice of positive and negative pairs, is employed to learn powerful feature representations. The contrastive loss is usually exploited for image retrieval tasks, along with Siamese networks to learn paired data relationships. During training, an image pair is fed into the model with their ground truth relationship Y. The loss function is as follows:

$$L_{mat}(Y, X_1, X_2) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} Y D_W^2 + (1 - Y) \max(m - D_W, 0)^2 (1)$$

where $D_W(X_1, X_2) = ||f_1 - f_2||_2$ represents the Euclidean distance between two sample features f_1 and f_2 . Y is the label of whether the two samples match. Y = 1 if the two samples



Fig. 3. The proposed Combined Matching and Classification Network (CMCNet). Green (red) patches correspond to positive (negative) samples.

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are similar and 0 otherwise. m > 0 is a margin that defines a_{321} radius: dissimilar pairs contribute to the loss only if their dis-285 tance is within this radius. N is the number of samples. Unlike³²² 286 conventional learning systems where the loss function is a sum 287 over samples, the contrastive loss runs over pairs of feature vec-323 288 tors $\{f_1, f_2\}$ such that there is no more need for FC and softmax³²⁴ 289 layers. Moreover, compared to cross-entropy which learns the³²⁵ 290 patch "match" or "not match" in an inexplicable manner, the³²⁶ 291 contrastive loss optimizes the mass matching task by manipu-292 lating the distance between pairs in feature space. Therefore,327 203 the contrastive loss is more in line with matching requirements 294 than binary sample classification. The loss function L_{mat} (Eq.1)³²⁸ 295 is minimized using stochastic gradient descent (SGD). 329 296 330

297 3.3. Combined mass matching and classification

Mass classification and dual-view matching are two tasks of a³³³ 298 very different nature. The challenge is thus to learn generic fea-299 tures for both tasks. We propose to exploit Siamese networks³³⁴ 300 towards simultaneous deep patch-level matching and classifi-335 301 cation. In this direction, we design a multi-tasking learning³³⁶ 302 model (Fig.3) referred as Combined Matching and Classifica-337 303 tion Network (CMCNet). Positive and negative patch sam-338 304 ples of CC/MLO views arising from YOLOv3 detector are 305 fed into the two-branch feature network (Fig.3-A) to compute 340306 robust patch representations. Apart from the matching net-307 work (Sect.3.2, Fig.3-B), we incorporate into the pipeline two 308 branches (Fig.3-C) for CC/MLO mass classification purposes. 342 309 Each of these branches has its own FC layers. We not only 310 jointly learn representations from the two views but also simul-311 taneously learn matching and classification tasks to exploit the $\frac{3}{346}$ 312 potential relationship between view-points. 313 347

The combined learning of classification and matching refers to the idea of multi-task learning which has been proven to improve learning efficiency and generalization performance of task-specific models. We expect thus that the dual-view matching task can improve the robustness of mass classification, towards better predictive results than classification-only strategies. The designed loss *L* is the sum of three losses to optimize to the idea of multi-task learning which has been proven to task-specific models. the entire CMCNet parameters through SGD:

$$L = \alpha L_{cls,CC} + \beta L_{cls,MLO} + \gamma L_{mat}$$
(2)

where $L_{cls,CC}$ and $L_{cls,MLO}$ represent the classification loss (cross-entropy) for CC and MLO view respectively. L_{mat} is the matching loss which can be cross-entropy or contrastive loss (Eq.1). α , β and γ are coefficients balancing the loss terms.

4. Experiments and results

In what follows, we present the datasets used in this study in Sect.4.1. Sect.4.2 reports the experimental settings. We evaluate the proposed approach both quantitatively and qualitatively in Sect.4.3. Deep models for patch classification and matching are implemented using pytorch. Experiments are performed with a single Nvidia GeForce GTX 1080Ti GPU (11GB/s).

4.1. Imaging datasets

We focus on mass detection from high-resolution 2048×1024 mammograms arising from two publicly-available mammogram datasets: INbreast (Moreira et al., 2012) and DDSM-CBIS (Lee et al., 2017). Here are the dataset characteristics:

- INbreast (Moreira et al., 2012) has a total of 410 mammograms from 115 examinations, with four images per case corresponding to the four standard views used in screening mammography: R-CC, L-CC, R-MLO, and L-MLO where L and R stand respectively for left and right. Four types of lesions (masses, calcifications, asymmetry and distortions) are included but only 107 images contain masses for which accurate contours made by specialists are provided. In this work, we selected 35 CC/MLO pairs (70 images) out of 107 examinations with mass.
- DDSM-CBIS (Digital Database for Screening Mammography) (Lee et al., 2017) is a larger database which contains approximately 2,500 mammograms including normal, benign, and malignant cases with verified pathology information and coarse ground truth manual delineations.

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| | DDSM | I-CBIS | INbreast | | |
|----------|-----------|------------|----------|---------------|--|
| | training | validation | test | full-pipeline | |
| classif. | 4690/4690 | 1170/1170 | 700/700 | 125/225 | |
| matching | 2345/4690 | 585/1170 | 350/700 | 125/225 | |

Table 1. Data distribution setting for experiments. Each cell has the following format: number of positive samplings / number of negative samplings.³⁸

| Network | learning rate | batch size | margin (<i>m</i>) | γ |
|-----------------|---------------|------------|---------------------|-----|
| VGG16 | 0.0005 | 128 | 15 | 0.1 |
| ResNet50 | 0.0005 | 128 | 15 | 0.1 |
| ResNet101 | 0.001 | 64 | 10 | 0.1 |
| InceptionV3 | 0.001 | 32 | 10 | 0.1 |
| EfficientNet-B3 | 0.001 | 128 | 10 | 0.1 |

Table 2. Optimal hyper-parameters used for each deep network.

In this work, we selected 586 pairs of CC/MLO mammo-410 grams (1172 images).

During training, the principle followed for CC/MLO pair se-413 356 lection is that both views should contain only one mass. The₄₁₄ 357 reason is that if the image contains two or more masses, multi-415 358 view correspondences become unknown without the help of an₄₁₆ 359 expert. Accordingly, the existence of a single pair is the $only_{417}$ 360 data selection criterion for training. However, this is not a lim-418 361 itation for inference or clinical use. Among the 586 DDSM-419 362 CBIS pairs, 80% are used for training and the remaining 20% 363 for validation. The 35 INbreast pairs are only used in the testing 364 stage since it is too small to be representative as training data. 365 The only pre-processing step is to crop most of the blank area₄₂₁ 366

from the original image (4084×3328 or 3328×2560) and resize₄₂₂ the remaining area to 2048×1024 .

369 4.2. Experimental settings

Data sampling and augmentation. In our multi-task frame-426 370 work, sampling in training is crucial. However, regions of⁴²⁷ 371 healthy tissues in a whole mammogram are much larger than428 372 the mass areas, leading to inevitable false positive YOLOv3429 373 proposals. Similarly, sample imbalance can make the deep430 374 classification model very biased. To minimize these effects,431 375 data sampling is conducted as follows. For classification432 376 training, positive samples are taken according to provided⁴³³ 377 ground truth masks, while negative patches are generated by⁴³⁴ 378 YOLOv3 (Sect.3.1). In particular, we randomly generate K435 379 patches per image with an intersection over union (IoU) with436 380 respect to the ground truth box larger than 0.5. In practice,437 381 K = 5 (respectively 10) for DDSM-CBIS (INbreast) since the⁴³⁸ 382 INbreast dataset is much smaller. Likewise, we choose K439 383 negative patches from false YOLO predictions. We thus use⁴⁴⁰ 384 a very small threshold $(<10^{-4})$ on detection probabilities to⁴⁴¹ 385 retain as many predictions as possible and select the K false442 386 candidates with the highest scores. All patches are resized to443 387 64×64 pixels, as in Han et al. (2015) and Perek et al. (2018).444 388 Random rotations of 25 degree, random horizontal flips and445 389 random resized crops are applied for data augmentation. For446 390 matching, we consider a pair of positive patches of the same447 391 mass from the two views as a matching sample. If one of the448 392 patches is labeled negative, they are considered as a negative449 393

match. The detailed data distribution is shown in Tab.1 for both DDSM-CBIS and INbreast datasets.

Training patch-level classification and matching. As a proof of concept, we conduct experiments using various model backbones for the feature network: VGG16 (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2014), ResNet50, ResNet101 (He et al., 2016), InceptionV3 (Szegedy et al., 2016) and EfficientNet (Tan and Le, 2019). The feature size varies depending on the model used. Let M be the number of feature map channels and B denote the batch size. The FC layers of each classification branch will turn the input vector (B, M) into (B, 2) and pass it to the Softmax layer to transfer logits into probabilistic predictions. The input of the metric network (Fig.3-B) is the concatenation of two feature vectors. For VGG16, M = 512. For ResNet50 and ResNet101, M = 2048. For EfficientNet, it has 8 pre-trained models from EfficientNet-B0 to B7 where M is respectively {1280, 1280, 1408, 1536, 1792, 2048, 2304, 2560}. All deep models are initialized using pre-trained weights (Litjens et al., 2017) from the ImageNet dataset (Russakovsky et al., 2015) and trained using the SGD optimizer. Optimal hyper-parameters vary depending on the network. For loss functions, we choose $\alpha = \beta = 1$ and $\gamma = 1$ for cross-entropy and $\gamma = 0.1$ and margin $m \in \{5, 10, 15\}$ for contrastive loss (Eq.1). The detailed hyper parameters used are shown in Tab.2.

4.3. Evaluation on clinical data

Multi-task learning versus classification-only. Classification performances are measured using classification accuracy (acc). We calculate the accuracy of each view separately and collectively. The statistical significance of the multi-tasking model with respect to the classification-only baseline is estimated using Student's t-tests (Tab.3). Overall, we observe better classification results on MLO than on CC views. In most cases, multi-tasking models that combine classification and matching are better than classification-only from 2% to 4% in accuracy with statistical significance (p < 0.05), which reflects the benefits of dual-view matching. Except for ResNet101, we obtain slight gains with the contrastive loss compared to cross-entropy. The difference between networks is not obvious. ResNet101 achieves the best overall accuracy with statistical significance (acc = 0.9098, p = 0.007 compared to baseline). Improvements obtained by VGG16 using the contrastive loss are also significant (acc = 0.9084, $p < 1e^{-6}$), followed by ResNet50 (acc = 0.9049), InceptionV3 (acc = 0.90) and EfficientNet-B3 (acc = 0.8979), showing that using deeper networks is not necessary to reach better performance.

Full detection pipeline. To further prove the effectiveness of our method, we conduct experiments with a full detection pipeline. Instead of extracting positive candidates using ground truth mass delineations while using YOLO as a negative patch generator, we use YOLO to generate all candidate patches.

Specifically, coarse mass YOLO detections (Yan et al., 2020b) are performed on INbreast images to generate testing samples. YOLO is pre-trained on ImageNet and fine-tuned on

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| Network | matching | matching loss | CC acc | MLO acc | overall acc | p-value |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|---------------|--------|---------|-------------|-------------|
| | × | - | 0.8558 | 0.8857 | 0.8699 | - |
| VGG16 (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2014) | \checkmark | cross-entropy | 0.8796 | 0.9163 | 0.8958 | $< 1e^{-6}$ |
| | \checkmark | contrastive | 0.9061 | 0.9156 | 0.9084 | $< 1e^{-6}$ |
| | × | - | 0.8517 | 0.9034 | 0.8734 | - |
| ResNet50 (He et al., 2016) | \checkmark | cross-entropy | 0.8958 | 0.9116 | 0.9014 | $4e^{-4}$ |
| | \checkmark | contrastive | 0.9010 | 0.9122 | 0.9049 | $< 1e^{-6}$ |
| | × | - | 0.8680 | 0.9097 | 0.8823 | - |
| ResNet101 (He et al., 2016) | \checkmark | cross-entropy | 0.8980 | 0.9265 | 0.9098 | 0.007 |
| | \checkmark | contrastive | 0.8891 | 0.9252 | 0.9049 | 0.003 |
| | × | - | 0.8238 | 0.8980 | 0.8601 | - |
| InceptionV3 (Szegedy et al., 2016) | \checkmark | cross-entropy | 0.8776 | 0.9184 | 0.8972 | $< 1e^{-6}$ |
| | \checkmark | contrastive | 0.8946 | 0.9095 | 0.9000 | $4e^{-4}$ |
| | × | - | 0.8701 | 0.8803 | 0.8741 | - |
| EfficientNet-B3 (Tan and Le, 2019) | \checkmark | cross-entropy | 0.8748 | 0.9116 | 0.8923 | 0.065 |
| | \checkmark | contrastive | 0.8830 | 0.9163 | 0.8979 | $< 1e^{-6}$ |

Table 3. Multi-task learning (with cross-entropy and contrastive losses) versus classification-only. Results include CC, MLO and overall classification accuracy (acc) as well as statistical significance p-values with respect to the classification-only baseline. Best results per network are in bold.

1514 DDSM-CBIS images. Thereafter, we use a small thresh-488 450 old (10^{-4}) on detection probabilities to ensure that predictions₄₈₉ 451 with high and low confidence are both selected. The averaged₄₉₀ 452 inference time per image is 78.7ms. We finally obtain 350 can-453 didates, labeled as positive (125 cases) or negative (225 cases) 454 according to IoU (\geq or < than 0.5) between RoIs and ground 455 truth. All 350 candidate patches arising from INbreast are for 456 the test set and all combinations are evaluated. The perfor-494 457 mance of each setting (classification-only, CMCNet with cross-458 entropy and CMCNet with contrastive loss using different deep 459 497 models) is measured using the AUC (Area Under the receiver 460 498 operating characteristics Curve). 461 499

Results for full-pipeline experiments (Tab.4) show that the⁵⁰⁰ 462 classification performance is highly improved over the baseline⁵⁰¹ 463 models by combining dual-view matching. In terms of AUC,⁵⁰² 464 503 the performance of VGG16 (resp. Resnet101) increases from 465 90.47% (71.46%) to 94.78% (92.82%), which corresponds to a 504 466 gain of 3.31% (21.36%). These results prove the appropriate-505 ness of our contributions. The best AUC score (94.78%, p = 506468 0.001) is obtained using the VGG16 model trained with con-507 469 trastive loss, with an overall accuracy of 0.8791. Results us-508 470 ing the contrastive loss are slightly better than cross-entropy₅₀₉ 471 in most cases, except for ResNet50. InceptionV3 using cross-510 472 entropy and EfficientNet using both losses improve moderately511 473 without statistical significance (p > 0.05). Compared to Tab.3,512 474 the advantages of combining classification and matching are513 475 more highlighted with full-pipeline experiments. Higher AUC514 476 indicates that we can significantly reduce false positive propos-515 477 als resulting from YOLO. We also compute the inference time516 478 per image to compare computing time costs of each method₅₁₇ 479 (Tab.4). This includes testing all possible pairs. The infer-518 480 ence time of the CMCNet varies from 2.7 (VGG16) to 25.4ms519 481 (EfficientNet-B3). Since no significant improvement arises520 482 when using deeper models, models with low time complex-521 483 ity (VGG, ResNet) are more appropriate. Multi-tasking meth-522 484 ods do not cost more time than classification-only schemes.523 485 Computing time increases significantly with model complexity,524 486 whereas no significant improvement arises. The time increase525 487

with respect to YOLO detector (78.7ms per image) is almost negligible. This demonstrates that using very deep networks is not useful for our application.

Additionally, we provide mass matching performances during inference. As shown in Tab.5, mass matching performance is measured using accuracy (*acc*) and AUC. We compare mass matching using our multi-task learning (with cross-entropy and contrastive losses) versus matching-only. The matching-only scheme refers to the matching Siamese network illustrated in Fig.2. Results show that the proposed multi-task learning brings gain from 0.62% to 8.64% in AUC and from 0.9% to 11.12% in *acc*. Best results are achieved by ResNet50 (AUC = 94.30%, *acc* = 89.49). On the basis of the experimental results, we can draw the conclusion that not only matching can improve classification, classification can also improve matching, proving that the multi-tasking properties and the multi-view learning can help towards better breast cancer diagnosis and management.

Using the INbreast dataset, we also compare the overall mass detection performance using the True positive rate (TPR) at the average false positive per image (FPavg) with state-of-the-art methods (Tab.6). Since there is no official split of INbreast, each study has its own split between training, testing and validation subsets. Results shown in the top part of Tab.6 give an idea of the overall detection performance without giving a relevant comparison with these studies. For a fair comparison with respect to state-of-the-art, we re-implemented the recently published method of Agarwal et al. (2019) and conducted experiments using the same data as used in our work (80% DDSM-CBIS for training, 20% DDSM-CBIS for validation and 70 INbreast images for testing) to obtain the Free Response Operating Characteristic (FROC) curve of final detections. The bottom part of Tab.6 includes results obtained on the same testing data. In particular, it displays the best TPR@FPavg score achieved using Agarwal et al. (2019): 0.74@0.99. The best TPR@FPavg score (0.96@0.23) is reached by the proposed framework (CM-CNet with VGG16 and contrastive loss). It outperforms the classification-only model (0.89@0.29) and shows consistent performance with respect to existing approaches such as Yan



Fig. 4. Full-pipeline mass detection: (a) YOLO detection only, (b) YOLO followed by a classification-only model, (c) YOLO followed by the proposed combined model (with VGG16 and contrastive loss). Red and blue boxes are detected mass bounding boxes. Green labels represent ground truth annotations. Blue boxes show the matching pair selected through dual-view matching. Visual examples are labeled from (1) to (6).

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| Network | matching | matching loss | overall acc | AUC (%) | AUC p-value | inference time (ms) |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|---------------|-------------|---------|-------------|---------------------|
| | × | - | 0.8260 | 90.47 | - | 2.7 |
| VGG16 (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2014) | | cross-entropy | 0.8761 | 94.17 | $2e^{-5}$ | 2.7 |
| | \checkmark | contrastive | 0.8791 | 94.78 | 0.001 | 2.7 |
| | X | - | 0.6814 | 70.03 | - | 8.4 |
| Resnet50 (He et al., 2016) | \checkmark | cross-entropy | 0.8555 | 91.98 | $< 1e^{-6}$ | 8.3 |
| | | contrastive | 0.8496 | 90.30 | $< 1e^{-6}$ | 8.4 |
| | × | - | 0.7080 | 71.46 | - | 16.2 |
| Resnet101 (He et al., 2016) | | cross-entropy | 0.8555 | 91.74 | $< 1e^{-6}$ | 15.8 |
| | \checkmark | contrastive | 0.8584 | 92.82 | $< 1e^{-6}$ | 16.3 |
| | Х | - | 0.8112 | 89.75 | - | 17.2 |
| InceptionV3 (Szegedy et al., 2016) | | cross-entropy | 0.8201 | 89.86 | 0.9142 | 16.7 |
| | | contrastive | 0.8702 | 93.61 | 0.009 | 16.8 |
| | × | - | 0.8142 | 87.97 | - | 25.2 |
| EfficientNet-B3 (Tan and Le, 2019) | | cross-entropy | 0.8378 | 89.80 | 0.1795 | 25.4 |
| | | contrastive | 0.8466 | 88.91 | 0.5735 | 24.7 |

Table 4. Full detection pipeline results including overall classification accuracy (acc), AUC scores, statistical significance p-values of AUC scores with respect to the classification-only baseline, as well as inference times per image. Best results per network are in bold.

| Network | matching | classification | matching loss | matching AUC(%) | matching acc |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|----------------|---------------|-----------------|--------------|
| Perek et al. (Perek et al., 2018) | \checkmark | × | cross-entropy | 79.92 | 0.7504 |
| | \checkmark | × | cross-entropy | 91.05 | 0.8523 |
| VGG16 (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2014) | \checkmark | \checkmark | cross-entropy | 91.49 | 0.8671 |
| | \checkmark | \checkmark | contrastive | 92.97 | 0.8714 |
| | \checkmark | × | cross-entropy | 92.77 | 0.8693 |
| ResNet50 (He et al., 2016) | \checkmark | \checkmark | cross-entropy | 92.46 | 0.8775 |
| | \checkmark | \checkmark | contrastive | 94.30 | 0.8949 |
| | \checkmark | × | cross-entropy | 90.01 | 0.8345 |
| ResNet101 (He et al., 2016) | \checkmark | \checkmark | cross-entropy | 92.31 | 0.8716 |
| | \checkmark | \checkmark | contrastive | 91.72 | 0.8758 |
| | \checkmark | × | cross-entropy | 89.50 | 0.8405 |
| InceptionV3 (Szegedy et al., 2016) | \checkmark | \checkmark | cross-entropy | 90.64 | 0.8536 |
| | \checkmark | \checkmark | contrastive | 90.01 | 0.8588 |
| | \checkmark | × | cross-entropy | 82.99 | 0.7391 |
| EfficientNet-B3 (Tan and Le, 2019) | √ | \checkmark | cross-entropy | 89.50 | 0.8379 |
| | √ | \checkmark | contrastive | 91.63 | 0.8503 |

 Table 5. Mass matching AUC with the proposed multi-task learning (with cross-entropy and contrastive losses) versus matching-only schemes including (Perek et al., 2018). Best results per network are in bold.

et al. (2020b) and Dhungel et al. (2017) obtaining respectively⁵⁴⁶
 0.94@0.22 and 0.95@5, while additionally providing accurate⁵⁴⁷
 dual-view mass correspondences.

Evaluation is supplemented with qualitative results on full⁵⁴⁹ 529 mammograms (Fig.4). The additional classification stage (b)550 530 helps in eliminating most of false YOLO detections (a). The551 531 improvement reached by the combined model (c) compared to552 532 the classification-only scheme (b) is highlighted with further553 533 wrong proposal removals. For instance, in Fig.4 (2), the554 534 number of false positive detections decreased from 7 to 1 from555 535 (a) to (b) and further decreased to 0 without any false negatives.556 536 In addition, the combined model (c) also successfully identifies557 537 the matching patches in both views, which can provide clini-558 538 cians with reference to further rule out false positives that are559 539 difficult to detect, as in Fig.4 (4). Fig.4 demonstrates that vari-560 540 able mass sizes and shapes can be correctly managed. All these 541 findings suggest that exploiting multi-view relationships and561 542 multi-tasking learning can greatly guide mammogram interpre-562 543 tation, towards better breast cancer diagnosis and management. 544 545 564 **Closer to clinical screening conditions.** To evaluate the incidence of false positives under closer to clinical breast screening conditions, a test set of normal mammograms (without masses) has been considered to evaluate our method. Among the 410 INbreast mammograms, 60 CC/MLO image pairs that contain no mass were found. Coarse mass detections are firstly performed on these normal images to generate candidate patches. We use YOLOv3 pre-trained on ImageNet and fine-tuned on 1514 DDSM-CBIS images. Then, a small threshold (10^{-3}) is applied on detection probabilities to ensure that enough predictions from YOLOv3 are selected. We finally obtain 646 candidates patches (374 from CC view, 410 from MLO view), labeled as negative. Then, candidate patches from two views of the same patient are given as inputs of the two branches of our Siamese model for mass/non-mass classification and matching.

We finally obtained 56 false positive predictions whereas 590 true negatives were detected. Accordingly, the obtained specificity was 0.9133. Concerning the 56 false positive detections, only 6 pairs were considered as matched pairs. Thus, the other

| Methods | TPR@FPavg | dataset (INbreast) | 60- |
|-------------------------------|-------------|---------------------|-----------|
| Kozegar et al. (2013) | 0.87 @ 3.67 | 107 | 60 |
| Akselrod-Ballin et al. (2017) | 0.93 @ 0.56 | 100 | 60 |
| Ribli et al. (2018) | 0.90 @ 0.3 | 107 | 60 |
| Dhungel et al. (2017) | 0.95 @ 5 | 410 | -60 60 |
| Agarwal et al. (2019) | 0.92 @ 0.5 | 107 | 00 61 |
| Yan et al. (2020b) | 0.94 @ 0.22 | 107 | 61 |
| Agarwal et al. (2019) | 0.74 @ 0.99 | 70 (inference only) | 61 |
| YOLOv3 only | 0.86 @ 1.41 | 70 (inference only) | 61 61 |
| classification-only VGG16 | 0.89 @ 0.29 | 70 (inference only) | 61 |
| CMCNet VGG16 (ours) | 0.96 @ 0.23 | 70 (inference only) | 61 |
| | | | 61 |

 Table 6. Final detection performance comparisons on INbreast (Moreira618

 et al., 2012) between the proposed method (CMCNet with VGG16 and con-619

 trastive loss) and state-of-the-art approaches.
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44 patches can be further eliminated because there is no corre sponding detection in the other view. These results confirm that
 our contributions can also provide reliable detection results in a₆₂₅
 setup more similar to a screening process in real life.

569 5. Conclusion

In this paper, we propose a novel multi-tasking approach631 570 that combines breast mass/non-mass classification with dual-571 view mass matching between complementary CC/MLO mam-634 572 mograms. We prove the effectiveness of integrating multi-view635 573 information within the breast mass detection pipeline by ex-636 574 tensive experiments on public datasets. Based on Siamese net-575 works and contrastive learning, our method generalizes well us-639 576 ing different deep networks and shows impressive results as an640 577 integrated CAD system. We can thus easily address the prob-641 578 lem of false detections without struggling with difficult whole-579 image detection schemes. More globally, the proposed contri-644 580 butions pave the way for robust automatic second opinions in⁶⁴⁵ 581 breast cancer diagnosis. 582 647

Even if multiple masses can still be detected using the classi-583 fication network, dealing with more than one mass with respect649 584 to matching purposes should deserve further investigation. In⁶⁵⁰ 585 future works, our framework could also be extended by associ-651 586 ating detection and matching with segmentation techniques to653 587 further guide clinicians in their interpretation tasks. Further-654 588 more, it is essential to push further data fusion by extracting655 589 and integrating both multi-view and longitudinal information. 590 657

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