



## Classification of Breast Microcalcification- CAD System and Performance Evaluation Using SSNE

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**Abstract:** *Mammogram is measured the most consistent method for early detection of breast cancer. Computer-aided diagnosis system is also able to support radiologist to detect abnormalities earlier and more rapidly. In this paper the performance evaluation of the computer aided diagnostic system for the classification of microcalcification in digital mammogram based on Discrete Wavelet Transform (DWT), Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (SNE) and the Support Vector Machine (SVM) is presented. This proposed system classifies the mammogram images into normal or abnormal, and the abnormal severity into benign or malignant. The performance evaluation is completed using Symmetric SNE. Mammography Image Analysis society (MIAS) database is used to evaluate the proposed system. The average classification rate achieved is very satisfied.*

**Keywords:** *Discrete Wavelet Transform, Stochastic Neighbor Embedding, Digital mammograms, Microcalcification, SSNE, MIAS.*

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### I. INTRODUCTION

Breast cancer is the most extensive cancerous pathology among women. It is also an important public health problem in the world. As causes of its onset are still unknown, there are no efficient ways to avoid breast cancer. For this reason, an efficient diagnosis in its early stage can give women a better chance of full healing and survival. Therefore, early detection of breast cancer is the key for reducing the associated morbidity and death rates.

To study the human breast, Mammography is widely used as a diagnostic and a screening tool that uses X-rays. The objective of mammography is the premature revealing of breast cancer, usually through detection of characteristic microcalcifications and/or masses. Mammography is the only effective and viable technique to detect breast cancer in particular in the case of minimal tumors. About 30% to 50% of breast cancers reveal deposits of calcium called microcalcifications. Computer aided diagnosis system is also able to support radiologist to detect abnormalities earlier and faster. Mammography is believed to decrease mortality from breast cancer.

All the following mentioned related research works are reviewed aptly to construct the proposed system with the high efficiency, A Computer Aided Diagnosis (CAD) system for the automatic detection of clustered microcalcifications in digitized mammograms is presented by (Song yang Yu, 2000). A computerized scheme for detecting early stage microcalcification clusters in mammograms is proposed by (Ryohei Nakayama, 2006). A computer aided decision support system for an automated diagnosis and classification of breast tumor using mammogram is presented by (M. Suganthi, 2009). A new method of feature extraction from Wavelet coefficients for classification of digital mammograms is proposed by (Ibrahima Faye, 2009). A novel methodology for the classification of suspicious areas in digital mammograms is presented by (Peter McLeod, 2010), Initial study with microwave imaging of the axilla to aid breast cancer diagnosis is presented by (Eleuterio, R.; Medina, A.; Conceicao, R.C- 2014) and so on.

In this research the proposed system uses, two techniques for building a computer aided diagnostic system for the classification of microcalcification in digital mammograms based on DWT and SNE are presented. The SNE applied to wavelet transformed image and also applied on sub-bands of wavelet transformed image individually. SNE is essentially used for reducing high dimensionality data into relatively low dimensional data, efficiently. Then classifier system based on Support Vector Machine (SVM) is constructed and the same is compared with the results of the KNN Classifier. Experiments are conducted on Mammography Image Analysis society (MIAS) database. The MIAS is an organization of UK research groups interested in the understanding of mammograms and has generated a database of digital mammograms. Films taken from the UK National Breast Screening programme have been digitized to 50 micron pixel edge with a Joyce -Loebl scanning microdensitometer. It is a device linear in the optical density range 0 to 3.2 and representing each pixel with an 8-bit word. MIAS database consists of a total of 322 digital mammogram images (161 breast pairs) in the mediolateral oblique view. The performance of the proposed system is carried on 99 normal images and 25 microcalcification images. Among the 25 abnormal images, there are 12 benign and 13 malignant images available. All the images are considered for the classification test.

This proposed system classifies the mammogram images into normal or abnormal, and the abnormal severity into benign or malignant. The proposed methods are implemented in MATLAB and the performances of these methods are also analyzed productively. Finally, in order to serve the cancer patients with due diagnosis, the classification accuracy rate is sensibly derived from our proposed system.

## II. METHODOLOGY

The proposed system for the classification of microcalcification in digital mammograms is built based on DWT, SNE and by applying KNN and SVM for building the classifiers. In this following section the theoretical background of all the approaches are introduced.

### A. DISCRETE WAVELET TRANSFORM

Nowadays, wavelets have been used quite frequently in image processing and used for feature extraction, denoising, compression, face recognition, and image super-resolution. The decomposition of images into different frequency ranges permits the isolation of the frequency components introduced by “intrinsic deformations” or “extrinsic factors” into certain sub-bands. This process results in isolating small changes in an image mainly in high frequency sub-band images.

The 2-D wavelet decomposition of an image is performed by applying 1-D DWT along the rows of the image first, and, then, the results are decomposed along the columns. This operation results in four decomposed sub-band images referred to as low–low (LL), low–high (LH), high–low (HL), and high–high (HH). The frequency components of those sub-band images as shown in Figure 1 (b) cover the frequency components of the original image in Figure 1 (a).

### B. STOCHASTIC NEIGHBOR EMBEDDING

SNE is a probabilistic approach to the task of placing objects, described by high-dimensional vectors or by pairwise dissimilarities in a low-dimensional space in a way that preserves neighbor identities. A Gaussian is centered on each object in the high-dimensional space and the densities under this Gaussian (or the given dissimilarities) are used to define a probability distribution over all the potential neighbors of the object.

In the proposed approach for the classification of breast microcalcification system, SNE is used as a dimension reduction technique. Among the various state of art dimension reduction techniques, Principal component analysis (PCA) is a very popular technique for dimensionality reduction.

SNE is a probabilistic approach to the task of placing objects, described by high-dimensional vectors or by pairwise dissimilarities in a low-dimensional space in a way that preserves neighbor identities. A Gaussian is centered on each object in the high-dimensional space and the densities under this Gaussian (or the given dissimilarities) are used to define a probability distribution over all the potential neighbors of the object. The aim of the embedding is to approximate this distribution as well as possible when the same operation is performed on the low-dimensional “images” of the objects. A natural cost function is a sum of Kullback-Leibler divergences, one per object, which leads to a simple gradient for adjusting the positions of the low-dimensional images.

For each object,  $i$  and each potential neighbor,  $j$  the asymmetric probability is calculated by the formula that  $i$  would pick  $j$  as its neighbor is given by

$$p_{ij} = \frac{\exp(-d_{ij}^2)}{\sum_{k \neq i} \exp(-d_{ik}^2)}$$

The dissimilarities,  $d_{ij}^2$ , may be given as part of the problem definition (and need not be symmetric), or they may be computed using the scaled squared Euclidean distance (“affinity”) between two high-dimensional points,  $X_i, X_j$ :

$$d_{ij}^2 = \frac{\|X_i - X_j\|^2}{2\sigma_i^2}$$

Where  $\sigma_i$  is either set by hand or found by a binary search for the value of  $\sigma_i$  that makes the entropy of the distribution over neighbors equal to  $\log k$ . Here,  $k$  is the effective number of local neighbors or “perplexity” and is chosen by hand. In the low-dimensional space, the Gaussian neighborhoods are used with a fixed variance so the induced probability  $q_{ij}$  that point  $i$  picks point  $j$  as its neighbor is a function of the low-dimensional images  $y_i$  of all the objects and is given by the expression

$$q_{ij} = \frac{\exp(-\|y_i - y_j\|^2)}{\sum_{k \neq i} \exp(-\|y_i - y_k\|^2)}$$

The aim of the embedding is to match these two distributions as well as possible. This is achieved by minimizing a cost function which is a sum of Kullback-Leibler divergences between the original ( $p_{ij}$ ) and induced ( $q_{ij}$ ) distributions over neighbors for each object is given by (4)

$$C = \sum_i \sum_j p_{ij} \log \frac{p_{ij}}{q_{ij}} = \sum_i KL(P_i || Q_i)$$

The minimization of the cost function in Equation 4 is performed using gradient method. The gradient has the simple form as

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial Y_i} = 2 \sum_j (y_i - y_j) (p_{ij} - q_{ij} + p_{ij} - q_{ij})$$

The gradient descent is initialized by sampling map points randomly from an isotropic Gaussian with small variance that is center around the origin. For speed up the optimization and avoid been stuck in local optima, a momentum term is added to the gradient [4]. The current gradient is added to an exponentially decay sum of previous gradients in order to determine the changes in the coordinates of the map points at each iteration of gradient search. Mathematically, the gradient with a momentum term is given by

$$y^{(t)} = y^{(t-1)}\eta \frac{\partial J}{\partial y_i} + \alpha(t)(y^{(t-1)} - y^{(t-2)})$$

Where  $y^{(t)}$  indicate the solution at iteration  $t$ ,  $\eta$  indicates the learning rate, and  $\alpha(t)$  represents the momentum at iteration  $t$ . In the early stages of the optimization, after the each iteration, a random jitter is added to the map points. Then gradually reducing the variance of this noise performs a type of simulated annealing that helps the optimization to escape local minima in the cost function.

### C. PRINCIPLE COMPONENT ANALYSIS:

Given a set of data on  $n$  dimensions, PCA aims to find a linear subspace of dimension  $d$  lower than  $n$  such that the data points lie mainly on this linear subspace .Such a reduced subspace attempts to maintain most of the variability of the data. The linear subspace can be specified by  $d$  orthogonal vectors that form a new coordinate system, called the 'principal components'. The principal components are orthogonal, linear transformations of the original data points, so there can be no more than  $n$  of them.

However, the hope is that only  $d < n$  principal components are needed to approximate the space spanned by the  $n$  original axes. The most common definition of PCA is that, for a given set of data vectors  $x_i, i \in 1, \dots, t$ , the  $d$  principal axes are those orthonormal axes onto which the variance retained under projection is maximal. In order to capture as much of the variability as possible, let us choose the first principal component, denoted by  $U_1$ , to have maximum variance. Suppose that all centered observations are stacked into the columns of a  $n \times t$  matrix  $X$ , where each column corresponds to an  $n$ -dimensional observation and there are  $t$  observations. Let the first principal component be a linear combination of  $X$  defined by coefficients (or weights)  $w = w_1 \dots w_2$ .

In matrix form:

$$U_1 = w^T X$$

$$\text{var}(U_1) = \text{var}(w^T X) = w^T S w$$

where  $S$  is the  $n \times n$  sample covariance matrix of  $X$ . Clearly  $\text{var}(U_1)$  can be made arbitrarily large by increasing the magnitude of  $w$ . Therefore,  $w$  is chosen in order to maximize  $w^T S w$  while constraining  $w$  to have unit length.

$$\max w^T S w$$

$$\text{subject to } w^T w = 1$$

To solve this optimization problem a Lagrange multiplier  $\alpha_1$  is introduced:

$$L(w, \alpha) = w^T S w - \alpha_1 (w^T w - 1)$$

Differentiating with respect to  $w$  gives  $n$  equations,

$$S w = \alpha_1 w$$

Premultiplying both sides by  $w^T$ , we get

$$w^T S w = \alpha_1 w^T w = \alpha_1$$

$\text{var}(U_1)$  is maximized if  $\alpha_1$  is the largest Eigen value of  $S$ . Clearly  $\alpha_1$  and  $w$  are an Eigen value and an eigenvector of  $S$ . Differentiating with respect to the Lagrange multiplier  $\alpha_1$  gives us back the constraint:

$$w^T w = 1$$

This shows that the first principal component is given by the normalized eigenvector with the largest associated Eigen value of the sample covariance matrix  $S$ . A similar argument can show that the  $d$  dominant eigenvectors of covariance matrix  $S$  determine the first  $d$  principal components. Another nice property of PCA, closely related to the original discussion is that the projection onto the principal subspace minimizes the squared reconstruction error,

$$\sum_{i=1}^t \|x_i - \hat{x}_i\|^2$$

In other words, the principal components of a set of data in  $\mathfrak{R}^n$  provide a sequence of best linear approximations to that data, for all ranks  $d \leq n$ .

Consider the rank- $d$  linear approximation model as:

$$f(y) = \bar{x} + U_d y$$

This is the parametric representation of a hyper plane of rank  $d$ .

For convenience, suppose  $\bar{x} = 0$  (otherwise the observations can be simply replaced by their centered versions  $\tilde{x} = x_i - \bar{x}$ ). Under this assumption the rank  $d$  linear model would be

$$f(y) = U_d y \text{ where } U_d \text{ is a } n \times d$$

matrix with  $d$  orthogonal unit vectors as columns and  $y$  is a vector of parameters. Fitting this model to the data by least squares leaves us to minimize the reconstruction error:

$$\min_{U_d, y_i} \sum_i \|x_i - U_d y_i\|^2$$

By partial optimization for  $y_i$  we obtain:

$$\frac{d}{dy_i} = 0 \Rightarrow y_i = U_d^T x_i$$

Now we need to find the orthogonal matrix  $U_d$ :

$$\min_{U_d} \sum_i \|x_i - U_d U_d^T x_i\|^2$$

Define  $H_d = U_d U_d^T$ .  $H_d$  is a  $n \times n$  matrix which acts as a projection matrix and projects each data point  $x_i$  onto its rank  $d$  reconstruction. In other words,  $H_d x_i$  is the orthogonal projection of  $x_i$  onto the subspace spanned by the columns of  $U_d$ . A unique solution  $U$  can be obtained by finding the singular value decomposition of  $X$ . For each rank  $d$ ,  $U_d$  consists of the first  $d$  columns of  $U$ . Clearly the solution for  $U$  can be expressed as singular value decomposition (SVD) of  $X$  (J. Friedman, 2002).

$$X = U \Sigma V^T$$

Since the columns of  $U$  in the SVD contain the eigenvectors of  $XX^T$ .

#### D. SNE Vs SSNE

The variation of SNE, Symmetric SNE is also used to evaluate the proposed approach. Compared with an earlier method Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (SNE), SSNE uses a symmetric cost function with simpler gradients. Suppose the pair wise similarities of a set of  $m$ -dimensional data points  $x = \{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$  are encoded in a symmetric matrix  $P \in \mathbb{R}_+^{n \times n}$ , where  $P_{ii} = 0$  and. Symmetric Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (SSNE) seeks  $r$ -dimensional ( $r \ll m$ ) representations of  $x$  denoted by  $y = \{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ , such that

$$\mathfrak{J}(y) = D_{KL}(P \parallel Q) = \sum_{i \neq j} p_{ij} \log \frac{P_{ij}}{Q_{ij}}$$

is minimized, where  $Q_{ij} = q_{ij} / \sum_{a \neq b} q_{ab}$  are the normalized similarities in low dimensional embedding and

$$q_{ij} = \exp(-\|y_i - y_j\|^2), q_{ii} = 0$$

The optimization of SSNE uses the gradient descent method with

$$\frac{\partial \mathfrak{J}}{\partial y_i} = 4 \sum_j (P_{ij} - Q_{ij})(y_i - y_j)$$

A momentum term is added to the gradient in order to speed up the optimization:

$$Y^{(t+1)} = Y^t + \eta \frac{\partial \mathfrak{J}}{\partial Y} \Big|_{Y=Y^t} + \beta(t)(Y^{(t)} - Y^{(t-1)}),$$

where  $Y^{(t)} = [y_1^{(t)} \dots y_n^{(t)}] \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times n}$  is the solution in matrix form at iteration  $t$ ;  $\eta$  is the learning rate; and  $\beta(t)$  is the momentum amount at iteration  $t$ . Figure 1 and 2 shows the histogram plot for normal mammogram and benign and malignant mammograms images using SSNE based dimension reduction.

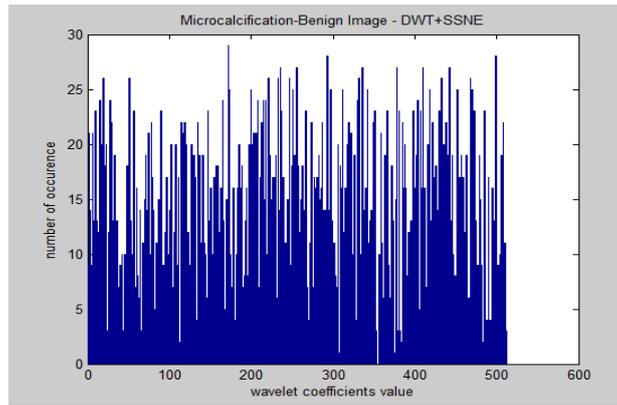


Figure 1 Histogram plot of dimension reduced 2-level wavelet coefficients of a microcalcification- benign image by SSNE

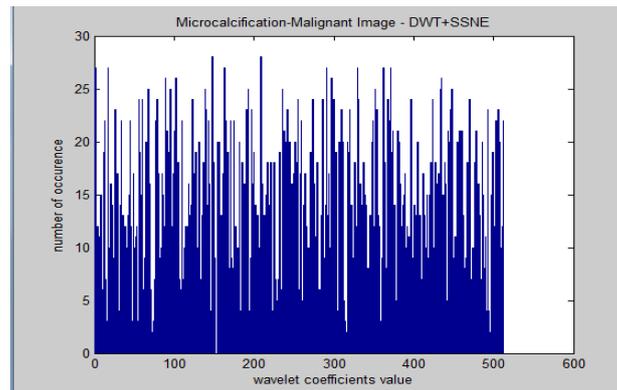


Figure 2 Histogram plot of dimension reduced 2-level wavelet coefficients of a microcalcification- malignant image by SSNE

To evaluate the performance in comparison with SNE, the SNE reduction block of the proposed approach is replaced by SSNE technique. The obtained results are given in Table 1 for normal/abnormal classification and benign/malignant classification in Table 2.

Table 1 Classification results of proposed method of first stage based on SNE and SSNE using SVM classifier

Normal/Abnormal classification				
Level of decomposition	Wavelet		Wavelet Sub-bands	
	SNE (%)	SSNE (%)	SNE (%)	SSNE (%)
2	<b>92.99</b>	91.49	90	84
3	90.99	90	86	86
4	92.49	91.49	88	86
5	90.99	87.49	86	86
6	90.99	91.49	86	84

There is no high variation in the classification accuracy obtained by the SNE and SSNE reduced features. However, the SNE reduced features at 2<sup>nd</sup> level decomposition produces 1.5% higher classification accuracy over SSNE.

Table 2 Classification results of proposed method for final stage based on SNE and SSNE using SVM classifier

Microcalcification Benign/Malignant classification				
Level of decomposition	Wavelet		Wavelet Sub-bands	
	SNE (%)	SSNE (%)	SNE (%)	SSNE (%)
2	92.14	88.14	96.16	91.67
3	87.82	91.99	<b>100</b>	91.99
4	<b>100</b>	88.14	95.99	95.83
5	96.16	92.31	91.99	91.67
6	95.84	88.14	95.84	91.67

It is clearly noted that the maximum classification accuracy is obtained by the SNE dimension reduction technique indicated in bold letters. The Graphical representations of the above two tables in Figure 1 and 2 clearly show SNE performance over SSNE technique.

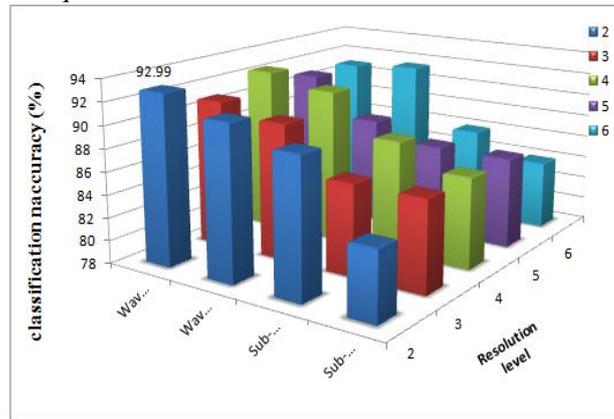


Figure: 3 Graphical representations of performance of normal/abnormal classification using SNE and SSNE

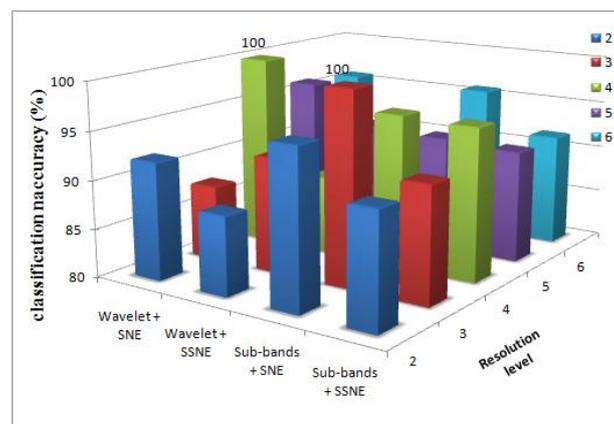


Figure: 4 Graphical representations of performance of benign/malignant classification using SNE and SSNE

#### IV. CONCLUSION

The classification accuracy shows in the above table gives the accuracy of SNE and SSNE for microcalcifications severity into benign or malignant.

- There is no high variation in the classification accuracy obtained by the SNE and SSNE reduced features. However, the SNE reduced features at 2<sup>nd</sup> level decomposition produces 1.5% higher classification accuracy over SSNE.
- It is clearly noted that the maximum classification accuracy is obtained by the SNE dimension reduction technique indicated in bold letters. The Graphical representations of the above two tables in Figure 1 and 2 clearly show SNE performance over SSNE technique.
- The most of the highest bars in the charts are belongs to SNE that shows the efficiency of SNE over SSNE.

This proposed system classifies the mammogram images into normal or abnormal, and the abnormal severity into benign or malignant. The proposed methods are implemented in MATLAB and the performances of these methods are also analyzed productively. Finally, in order to serve the cancer patients with due diagnosis, the classification accuracy rate is sensibly derived from our proposed system.

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