Optical Coherence Tomography Vulnerable Plaque Segmentation Based on Deep Residual U-Net

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Automatic and accurate segmentation of intravascular optical coherence tomography imagery is of great importance in computer-aided diagnosis and in treatment of cardiovascular diseases. However, this task has not been well addressed for two reasons. First, because of the difficulty of acquisition, and the laborious labeling from personnel, optical coherence tomography image datasets are usually small. Second, optical coherence tomography images contain a variety of imaging artifacts, which hinder a clear observation of the vascular wall. In order to overcome these limitations, a new method of cardiovascular vulnerable plaque segmentation is proposed. This method constructs a novel Deep Residual U-Net to segment vulnerable plaque regions. Furthermore, in order to overcome the inaccuracy in object boundary segmentation which previous research has shown extensively, a loss function consisting of weighted cross-entropy loss and Dice coefficient is proposed to solve this problem. Thorough experiments and analysis have been carried out to verify the effectiveness and superior performance of the proposed method.

Keywords
Intravascular optical coherence tomography; image semantic segmentation; encoder-decoder architecture; residual block; boundary segmentation

1. Introduction
Advanced atherosclerosis in the coronary arteries is now one of the leading causes of death worldwide although it is preventable and treatable (Fleg et al., 2012). In order to accurately and effectively diagnose cardiovascular atherosclerosis (i.e. vulnerable plaque), Optical Coherence Tomography (OCT) imaging is often employed (Ambrose and Srikanth, 2010). However, the vast amount of OCT images acquired in a routine clinical exam makes it difficult and time-consuming for physicians to diagnose patients’ images manually. Because of this, computer algorithms are needed to address this dilemma. Image segmentation is a crucial step in cardiovascular vulnerable plaque diagnosis, and there are two issues which need to be solved.

First, OCT datasets are small compared to typical datasets in natural image domain; variations in data acquisition make OCT datasets even more heterogeneous. Deep learning networks can learn to recognize invariance towards image properties if the dataset is large enough. However, for a small dataset, deep learning network may soon over fit. To address this problem, a light convolutional neural network structure with fewer network parameters and high accuracy is needed. This will require a relatively small image dataset to train and accurately conduct network parameter optimization.

Second, Some standard clinical acquisition protocols in OCT still have limitations in visualizing the underlying anatomy due to imaging artifacts (e.g. guide-wire artifacts, blood artifacts) or operator-dependent errors (e.g. shadows, signal drop-outs). All of which increase the complexity of plaque region boundary segmentation. In these circumstances, new methods and functions should be introduced into the segmentation network, making the network better able to recognize the object boundary pixels.

1.1 Related Work
In the field of coronary artery plaque segmentation, Lu et al. (2014) proposed a method based on image feature extraction and Support Vector Machine (SVM), which realized semi-automatic segmentation of OCT images and achieved a 83% accuracy on a test dataset. Shalev et al. (2016) proposed a segmentation method based on hidden Markov random field (HMRF), which can detect plaques from OCT cardiovascular images. Wang et al. (2017) proposed a semi-automatic segmentation algorithm using K-means clustering to obtain points aggregation which is needed for random walk in the next stage, then used the obtained points aggregation as seed points, realizing plaque segmentation by random walk algorithm of weight function.

Deep learning techniques have made breakthroughs in medical imaging processing in recent years. Researchers have also applied deep learning models to the task of OCT image diagnosis. Gessert et al. (2018) proposed a novel adversarial training network for plaque classification with a small dataset. The presented classification network is able to learn invariant features from patient images, which achieved improvements in plaque classification accuracy. Abdolmanafi et al. (2017) developed an automatic algorithm using convolutional neural network as feature extractor, combined convolutional neural network, SVM and random forest method,
which is capable to classify the coronary artery (tunica adventitia, tunica media, tunica intima).

1.2 Contributions

In view of those studies, they still have not addressed our previously mentioned two concerns. First, this paper constructs a Deep Residual U-Net for segmentation task, using pre-trained ResNet101 as a backbone network of encoder and designed residual blocks as a decoder. The proposed Deep Residual U-Net achieves a fast convergence rate while the number of network layers is large. Since the network is very deep, it's able to learn more abundant image semantic features, thus providing more accurate segmentation results.

Secondly, a loss function composed of weighted cross-entropy loss and Dice coefficient is proposed to improve the network segmentations performance on the object boundary. During the algorithm training stage, the proposed loss function gives a greater penalty on boundary pixels which are inaccurately predicted by the network than a false predicted pixel within the object, so as to improve the accuracy of boundary segmentation.

In our experiment, the proposed method is applied to a segmented OCT cardiovascular vulnerable plaque dataset (Guo et al., 2018), which is provided by the Chinese Academy of Sciences, the First Affiliated Hospital of China Medical University, and the Beijing Health Promotion Association. Segmentation results are qualitatively and quantitatively evaluated, which shows the superiority and effectiveness of our method.

2. OCT Cardiovascular Image Preprocessing

2.1 Description of the OCT Cardiovascular Dataset

The dataset used in our research is collected, dealt, and labeled by the Chinese Academy of Sciences, the First Affiliated Hospital of China Medical University, and Beijing Health Promotion Association. All cardiovascular images in the dataset are manually labeled by several specialists. Fig. 1 shows four OCT cardiovascular image samples. Among them, imaging artifacts (e.g. guide-wire artifacts, blood artifacts and artifacts caused by operational errors) are marked with white lines and text, while vulnerable plaque regions are marked with red lines and red text.

The dataset comprises of 2000 images in polar coordinates, 1000 of them are positive samples (i.e. images which include vulnerable plaques), the remaining 1000 images are negative samples (i.e. images without vulnerable plaques). The size of each image is 720 * 352 pixels. For the convenience of algorithm design, the OCT images used in this paper are transformed from polar coordinate to Cartesian coordinates (Athanasiou et al., 2014), the size of converted image is 703 * 703 pixels.

2.2 Data Augmentation of OCT Cardiovascular Images

In OCT cardiovascular images, vulnerable plaque regions only account for a small part of the image, that is to say, the positive and negative class pixels are extremely unbalanced. The imbalance between positive and negative pixels makes the classifier inclined to classify an image pixel into a negative class (Lin et al., 2017), which makes segmentation boundaries inaccurate even identifying regions containing vulnerable plaque as a region without vulnerable plaque. Therefore, we discard negative samples directly and randomly select 800 positive samples as training set. The remaining 200 images were used as test data.

Data augmentation is necessary because of the relatively small training set. As shown in Fig. 1, the foreground of OCT image in Cartesian coordinate is in a circular shape. Considering the geometric properties of circle, it’s very suitable to make a rotational transformation. To be specific, we can rotate the image foreground clockwise by 30 degrees, 60 degrees, 90 degrees, 120 degrees, 150 degrees, 180 degrees, 210 degrees, 240 degrees, 270 degrees, and 300 degrees. As a result, the amount of image data increases to 8000, 10 times that of the original number.

3. Methodology

3.1 The Design of Encoder

In the field of image semantic segmentation, there is a basic convolutional neural network structure named U-Net, which has been widely used in medical image segmentation, satellite image segmentation, and road scene segmentation. It’s advantages and excellent performance have been analyzed and discussed by researchers.
U-Net structure consists of a convolutional encoding path and a symmetrical decoding path, also called "the Encoder-Decoder structure" by the academic world. An image uploaded to the encoding path will be processed by several repeated 3 * 3 convolution layers and 2 * 2 pooling layers. While the feature map is gradually down sampled, the number of channels increases by multiples. In the expansion path, however, the upsampling operation is conducted in each step, which increases the resolution of the feature map and reduces the number of channels by half. The feature map from the encoding path and decoding path are then concatenated together on a channel dimension through the "skip connection" structure, thus accurate positioning can be achieved. The last layer of U-Net is a 1 * 1 kernel convolutional layer, which maps the number of channels to the number of pixel categories. The number of pixel points in each channel suggests the probability that the pixel belongs to a certain category.

\[
Y = f(h(x) + F(x, w)) \tag{1}
\]

Where \(x\) denotes the input of residual unit, \(h\) denotes identity mapping (i.e. \(h(x) = x\)), and \(F\) denotes residual function. The structure of a residual unit used in our research is displayed in Fig. 2.

How to add residual units into Deep Residual U-Net is described as follows: we utilize ResNet101 in network encoder part, this is to say that the encoder has already become a residual structure. In decoder part, we construct the residual decoder block, adding residual connections in the original decoder. Upsampling operation between two adjacent residual decoders is realized by bilinear interpolation. The last layer, before output, is a 1 * 1 kernel convolutional layer, which adjusts the number of channels and outputs a pixel-level probability map. The structure of a deep residual U-Net is demonstrated in Fig. 3. As Fig. 3 shows, the encoder is ResNet101, and we modify each decoder layer to residual decoder block. The structure of residual decoder block is also shown in Fig. 3.

3.3 Improved Loss Function for Accurate Boundary Segmentation

The original U-Net achieves superior segmentation results by calculating cross-entropy loss between feature map and the actual label in each pixel. However, in the OCT cardiovascular dataset, vulnerable plaque regions only account for a small part of whole image. Unbalanced foreground and background makes it easy for the network to predict a pixel as background, which leads to incomplete detection of vulnerable plaque regions. In order to im-
prove segmentation results, a loss function comprised of weighted cross-entropy and Dice coefficient is adopted (Papandreou et al., 2015; Ronneberger et al., 2015).

Weighted cross-entropy loss provides more attention to object boundary pixels, making segmentation boundaries more accurate. While Dice coefficients provide high accuracy of pixel classification, ensuring the general segmentation is in good quality. Details of the proposed loss function is described as follows. We use weighted cross-entropy loss to counteract the unbalanced foreground and background. The expression of weighted cross-entropy loss is displayed in Eqn. 2:

\[ E = \sum_{x \in \Omega} w(x) \log \left( \frac{P_{l(i)}(x)}{p_l(x)} \right) \]  

Where the weight \( w(x) \) is an approach to counteract unbalanced foreground and background, hoping the algorithm will learn more information about vulnerable plaque boundary. The weight \( w(x) \) is calculated using Eqn. 3:

\[ w(x) = w_c(x) + w_0 \exp \left( -\frac{(d_1(x) + d_2(x))^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \]

Where denotes the frequency of classes, \( d_1(x) \) denotes the distance between a pixel and the nearest vulnerable plaque boundary, and \( d_2(x) \) denotes the distance between a pixel and the second nearest vulnerable plaque boundary. The value of constant parameter are determined following literature (Han and Ye, 2018; Man et al., 2019; Ronneberger et al., 2015). We set \( w_0 = 10 \) and \( \sigma = 5 \) pixel.

Dice coefficient is derived from dichotomy and is essentially a measure of the overlapping parts of two samples. The index ranges from 0 to 1, in which 1 represents completely overlap. Dice loss is also appropriate for unbalanced foreground and background. Eqn. 4 shows the expression of Dice coefficient loss:

\[ D = 1 - \frac{2 \sum \text{pixels} y_{true} y_{pred}}{\sum \text{pixels} y_{true}^2 + \sum \text{pixels} y_{pred}^2} \]

Where \( y_{true} \) denotes the real value of a pixel and \( y_{predict} \) denotes the predicted value of a pixel. Combining the two kinds of losses together, the total loss is obtained as shown in Eqn. 5:

\[ L_{total} = E + D \]

4. Experiments and Analysis

Experiments were performed using the OCT cardiovascular dataset as previously described. 800 samples were randomly selected from 1000 positive images, and the training set was augmented to 8000 images using the data augmentation method stated above. The remaining 20% of original dataset is used as a test set.

4.1 Evaluation Index of Experiments

The evaluation indexes in our experiment are shown in Table 1.

1) Pixel Accuracy (PA): This is a basic and commonly used segmentation performance evaluation index, which calculates the...
Table 1. Segmentation evaluation indexes and explanation.

| Evaluation indexes       | Explanation                                                                                                                                 |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Pixel Accuracy (PA)      | The proportion of correctly classified pixels to total pixels. The calculation equation is the following:  
                           | \[
                           PA = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} n_{ii}}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} t_{i}}
                           \]  (6)                                                   |
| Mean Pixel Accuracy (MPA)| An improved index based on PA. MPA calculates the proportion of correctly classified pixels to total number of pixels in each pixel category, then calculates the average value from all categories. The equation is described as Eqn. 7:  
                           | \[
                           MPA = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{k} n_{ii}}{\sum_{i=0}^{k} t_{i}}
                           \]  (7)                                                   |
| Mean Intersection over Union (MIoU)| The proportion of the union of predicted region and ground truth region to predicted region plus ground truth region. MIoU equation is listed as equation Eqn. 8:  
                           | \[
                           \text{MIoU} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=0}^{k} \frac{n_{ii}}{t_{i} - n_{ii} + \sum_{j=1}^{k} n_{ji}}
                           \]  (8)                                                   |
| Frequency Weight IoU (FWIoU)| An improved index based on MIoU. FWIoU balances the weight of each category according to the occurrence frequency of each category. The equation is given as below:  
                           | \[
                           \text{FWIoU} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} t_{i}\right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{n_{ii}}{t_{i} - n_{ii} + \sum_{j=1}^{k} n_{ji}}
                           \]  (9)                                                   |
| Precision Rate (P)       | Proportion of actual positive samples in the positive samples predicted by the algorithm. The equation of precision rate can be obtained as following:  
                           | \[
                           \text{precision rate} : P = \frac{TP}{(TP + FP)}
                           \]  (10)                                                  |
| Recall Rate (R)          | Proportion of positive samples predicted by the algorithm in total actual positive samples. The equation of recall rate can be obtained as following:  
                           | \[
                           \text{recall rate} : R = \frac{TP}{(TP + FN)}
                           \]  (11)                                                 |

4.2 Experiment Detail of Deep Residual U-Net

Input images are normalized after subtracting the mean value. We utilize the SGD optimization algorithm, where the parameter momentum of SGD is set to 0.0005, and the parameter weight_decay is set to 0.0002. Learning rate of the network is set to 0.001 and batch-size is set to 1 during training.

The segmentation results of deep residual U-Net are evaluated qualitatively and quantitatively. Qualitative evaluation is shown in Fig. 4, and quantitative evaluation is shown in Table 2.

4.3 Experiment and Analysis of Boundary Segmentation

To verify the effectiveness of the proposed loss function on object boundary, several experiments are conducted as described below:

1) Prototype U-Net and prototype U-Net with proposed loss function.

2) Deep Residual U-Net + ResNet101 and Deep Residual U-Net + ResNet101 with proposed loss function.

The experiment results are shown as follows:

From Fig. 6, it can be seen that (d) has improved boundary segmentation results than (c). Comparing (e) with (f), both of them utilized Deep Residual U-Net proposed in this paper, the difference is that (e) only used common loss function while (f) used the proposed loss function. Results demonstrate that (f) has a smoother boundary shape and is closer to manual labeling.

After qualitative evaluation, we investigate further to see how much the proposed function improves boundary segmentation accuracy. Quantitative evaluation is conducted as following. We contour object boundary pixels from manual image labeling as shown in Fig. 7, and pay close attention to the boundary pixels only.

We recorded IoU rate of boundary pixels during network training iterations and plotted the IoU value-Iteration curve, which is
Table 2. Quantitative evaluation of different U-Net based segmentation methods.

|                      | Pixel Accuracy (PA) | Mean Pixel Accuracy (MPA) | Mean Intersection over Union (MIOU) | Frequency Weighted IoU (FWIoU) | Precision Rate (P) | Recall Rate (R) |
|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------|----------------|
| Prototype U-Net      | 0.6253              | 0.6514                    | 0.4207                            | 0.5023                        | 0.8245             | 0.7438         |
| U-Net + VGG16        | 0.7829              | 0.8042                    | 0.6511                            | 0.7356                        | 0.8633             | 0.8267         |
| U-Net + ResNet50     | 0.8931              | 0.824                     | 0.7748                            | 0.8627                        | 0.8721             | 0.8384         |
| U-Net + ResNet101    | 0.9195              | 0.9005                    | 0.777                             | 0.8587                        | 0.8965             | 0.8691         |
| Deep Residual U-Net  | 0.9331              | 0.9011                    | 0.8548                            | 0.864                         | 0.9433             | 0.9135         |

Figure 6. Original image in OCT cardiovascular image dataset is shown in (a), the manual label segmentation boundary from specialists is shown in (b), prototype U-Net segmentation result are shown in (c), prototype U-Net with proposed loss function segmentation result are shown in (d), Deep Residual U-Net + ResNet101 segmentation result are shown in (e) and Deep Residual U-Net + ResNet101 with proposed loss function segmentation result are shown in (f).

also known as a “learning curve”. As discussed before, IoU rate is a common object segmentation indicator, giving quantitative evaluation of segmentation accuracy. Fig. 8 shows the IoU value-Iteration curve of Deep Residual U-Net with the proposed loss function and Deep Residual U-Net with common loss function. It’s not difficult to see that Deep Residual U-Net with proposed loss function gets a higher IoU value than with common loss function. Also, Deep Residual U-Net with the proposed loss function converges faster and gets less fluctuation in the curve.

5. Conclusion

In this paper, a Deep Residual U-Net segmentation network is proposed for OCT cardiovascular image segmentation. We focused on solving two problems in the application of deep learning to vulnerable plaque diagnose in OCT images. (1) Compared with typical datasets in natural image domain, the OCT cardiovascular dataset is smaller and variables in the image acquisition process make the OCT cardiovascular dataset more complex. In this case, deep learning network will overfit easily. (2) Owing to imaging artifacts (e.g. guide-wire artifacts and blood artifacts) or operational error, which cause image information loss and partial shadow, vulnerable plaque segmentation becomes more complex.
al., 2013). To solve these problems, a Deep Residual U-Net segmentation network is proposed where the backbone network of encoder is replaced by pre-trained ResNet101 and the decoder is comprised of designed residual blocks. The deepening of the network layer and the introduction of residual block provide superior segmentation results. Furthermore, a novel loss function consists of weighted cross entropy and Dice coefficient is proposed to improve the segmentation accuracy of object boundary.

We conducted qualitative and quantitative evaluation to the proposed Deep Residual U-Net. Qualitative evaluation by randomly selecting four images from the test set and compared segmentation results using different methods. Quantitative evaluation uses Pixel Accuracy (PA), Mean Pixel Accuracy (MPA), Mean Intersection over Union (MIoU), Frequency Weight IoU (FWIoU), Precision Rate (P) and Recall Rate (R) as indicators and compared the value of different methods.

The proposed Deep Residual U-Net and loss function which consisted of weighted cross entropy and Dice coefficient received the highest score in all of the indicators we choose for quantitative evaluation. Besides, in qualitative evaluation, the proposed approach demonstrated the most accurate segmentation results. Both quantitative and qualitative evaluation prove the feasibility and advantage of the proposed method. Finally, the conclusion can be made that the method proposed in this paper is valuable and useful for automatic OCT cardiovascular image segmentation.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no financial and personal relationships with other people or organizations that can inappropriately influence their work, there is no professional or other personal interest of any nature or kind in any product, service and/or company that could be construed as influencing the position presented in, or the review of the manuscript entitled.

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