ARST: auto-regressive surgical transformer for phase recognition from laparoscopic videos

Xiaoyang Zou, Wenyong Liu, Junchen Wang, Rong Tao and Guoyan Zheng

1. Introduction

Surgical workflow analysis is an essential process in computer-assisted intervention (CAI) system, which is helpful for standardisation and quality assessment of modern surgery (Maier-Hein et al. 2017). One of the crucial and challenging tasks is automatic surgical phase recognition. Accurate surgical phase recognition helps provide timely feedback and assistance for the surgeons during surgery, alert when abnormal cases occur, effectively improving the safety and intelligence level of modern operating room (Garrow et al. 2021). In addition, analysing surgical videos of skilled surgeons provides valuable training scheme for novice surgeons to develop their surgical skills (Zisimopoulos et al. 2018).

Early works for surgical phase recognition are mainly based on the multi-dimensional state signals recorded under different operations (Ahmadi et al. 2006; Padoy et al. 2012). Compared with state signals, surgical videos are abundant and easier to acquire. However, recognising surgical phases directly from surgical videos is a difficult task. For one thing, frames at different phases are highly similar in visual perception and the inter-phase correlation is quite challenging to model. For another, there always exist various of hard frames in surgery videos, caused by fast camera motion, produced gas, and camera out of surgical scene (Jin et al. 2017).

With the development of deep learning, it has become the preferred technique for surgical phase recognition. Twinanda et al. first adopted convolutional neural network (CNN) to realise phase recognition purely based on visual frames (Twinanda et al. 2016). In order to model the temporal dependency, EndoLSTM (Twinanda 2017) additionally utilised a long short-term memory (LSTM) network (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber 1997). Jin et al. proposed an end-to-end network to integrate deep ResNet (He et al. 2016) and LSTM networks (Jin et al. 2017), and related multi-scale temporal information using non-local blocks (Jin et al. 2021). Czempiel et al. proposed TeCNO (Czempiel et al. 2020), which was a multi-stage causal temporal convolutional network (TCN) (Lea et al. 2016; Farha and Gall 2019), for temporal modelling based on ResNet features. Besides, post-processing methods such as prior knowledge inference (Jin et al. 2017) and scheme for hard frame detection and mapping (Yu and Jiang 2019) were developed.

Nowadays, transformer has demonstrated powerful capabilities for sequential data modelling in natural language processing (Vaswani et al. 2017), and has been successfully applied to surgical workflow analysis. Czempiel et al. presented an attention-regularised transformer model based on self-attention (Czempiel et al. 2021). Gao et al. designed a transformer to aggregate the spatial and temporal embeddings for better recognition performance (Gao et al. 2021). Kondo realised surgical tool detection using transformer architecture (Kondo 2021). Nwoye et al. introduced new forms of spatial attention and semantic attention to recognise surgical action triplets (Nwoye et al. 2022). However, to the best of our knowledge, existing methods mostly focus on modeling the attention dependency, without exploiting the auto-regression characteristic of transformers.

In this work, we propose an Auto-Regressive Surgical Transformer, referred as ARST, to accurately recognise surgical phases from laparoscopic videos. Our contributions can be summarised as follows:

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2. Methodology

A schematic overview of our auto-regressive surgical transformer is presented in Figure 1. The network consists of a frame-level feature extractor and a transformer-based encoder-decoder architecture for auto-regressive phase recognition.

2.1. Feature extractor

Feature extractor is pre-trained to extract frame-level features from the video as the encoder’s input embeddings. In our method, both spatial and temporal frame features are considered. Denote $F_S$ as the feature extractor. Our spatial features are extracted by a deep residual CNN, the ResNet-50 (He et al. 2016), denoted as $R$. Based on the spatial features, temporal features are extracted by a two-stage causal TCN, called TeCNO (Czempiel et al. 2020), denoted as $T$. Assuming video length is $T$, for each video frame $x_t$ ($t \in [1, T]$), a frame feature $F_t \in \mathbb{R}^{512}$ is extracted as presented below.

We first train a ResNet-50 to extract spatial features, where each video frame is regarded as an independent image and frame-wise classification is conducted. Let $c$ denote the number of phase classes. The network’s input is the video frame $x_t \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}$ and the output is a probability vector $p_t \in \mathbb{R}^c$. Specifically, following the global average pooling layer, the 2048-dimensional feature is first projected to a 512-dimensional feature, which is finally processed with a fully connected layer and a softmax layer to generate the probability vector. After training, for each input frame $x_t$, the 512-dimensional feature $F_t$ would serve as the spatial embeddings. It is used for further temporal feature extraction.

Based on the extracted spatial features, TeCNO (Czempiel et al. 2020) is employed for efficient temporal modelling to extract temporal features at frame-level. Two-stage causal TCNs are cascaded. Each causal TCN contains 8 dilated causal convolutional layers, which can enlarge the receptive field and prevent the leakage of future information. Each convolutional layer has 512-dimensional feature maps. After training, for each input frame, the 512-dimensional feature $F_t$, extracted at the second causal TCN, is used as the input to our auto-regressive surgical transformer.

Figure 1. (a) A schematic overview of our proposed auto-regressive surgical transformer built on encoder-decoder architecture for on-line surgical phase recognition, (b) the masked multi-head attention with banded causal mask in detail, (c) illustration of the banded causal mask. PE: Positional Encoding.
2.2. Auto-regressive surgical transformer

Our auto-regressive surgical transformer, as shown in Figure 1, is built on a lightweight one-layer encoder-decoder transformer (Vaswani et al. 2017). The encoder consists of two sub-layers, a masked multi-head attention layer and a fully connected feed-forward layer. Layer normalisation (Ba et al. 2016) and residual connection (He et al. 2016) are employed for each sub-layer. The decoder is designed similarly to the encoder, but has an additional masked multi-head attention layer to model the cross attention dependency between the encoder and decoder. For $t$ sequential frames starting from the first frame, frame features $F_{1:t}$ serve as input to the encoder, while the shifted outputs $y_{0:t-1}$ serve as input to the decoder. The final output probability is denoted as $p_{1:t}$, while the corresponding phase ground truth is denoted as $y_{1:t}$. Cross-entropy loss is calculated for model training.

Specific details of the masked multi-head attention layer with banded causal mask are also illustrated in Figure 1. Three linear layers are employed for the projection of query (Q), key (K) and value (V) vectors with 8 heads. The embedding dimension of our model is 512 and the Q, K, V vectors of each head are in 64 dimensions (d). Scaled dot-product attention with a banded causal mask is computed for each head. Multiple heads enable the model to learn the attention dependencies from different aspects simultaneously. The outputs of all heads are concatenated together and projected to hidden dimension using a linear layer.

Similar to human’s mode of recognition, we believe that when predictions of previous frames are available, surgical phases can be recognised effectively within a limited range of visual frames. Long-term past information can be confusing and noisy for the decision making of current frame. In this regard, different from the usually adopted upper triangular mask (Vaswani et al. 2017), we introduce a banded causal mask $M_{bc}$ in our work to limit the dependency range between frames while ensuring that future information is masked, thus supporting on-line phase recognition. Let $W$ denotes the width of banded causal mask. With element-wise multiplication, the region out of the $W$-width band is set as $-\infty$, resulting in null value for the softmax function. It means that only the previous $W$ frames before current frame are considered in modelling the attention dependency:

$$\text{Attention}(Q, K, V) = \text{Softmax}(M_{bc} \circ \frac{Q K^T}{\sqrt{d}} V)$$

It’s noteworthy that our phase inference is conducted sequentially in an auto-regressive fashion. When the phase of $t$-th frame is to be recognised, in addition to the frame features, all the predicted phases of previous frames $y_{0:t-1}$ would serve as the input to transformer decoder, which can be regarded as conditional information. This can be expressed in terms of a conditional probability distribution $p(y_t | y_{0:t-1}, F_{1:t})$. As the final prediction is determined by $p(y_{1:T} | F_{1:T})$, we can factorise it as a continued product of the conditional probability distribution according to Bayes’ theorem. In this way, we can perform the auto-regressive prediction frame by frame to complete phase recognition of a whole video.

$$p(y_{1:T} | F_{1:T}) = \prod_{t=1}^T p(y_t | y_{0:t-1}, F_{1:t})$$

At training stage, in order to speed up the training process and force the output as close as possible to the ground truth, we exploit the teacher forcing strategy (Williams and Zipser 1989) to parallelise the training process of our model. Instead of feeding shifted predicted outputs $y_{0:t-1}$ each time for sequential phase generation, the whole shifted ground truth $y_{0:T-1}$ is used as the decoder’s input to predict $y_{1:T}$ for parallel training. During training, the inter-phase correlation can be implicitly captured by modelling the conditional probability distribution using attention layers, enabling the model to learn the pattern of phase transition actively.

One key component of designing our auto-regressive framework is to embed predicted phases as the input to the transformer decoder. Specifically, shifted outputs $y_{0:t-1}$ need to be encoded as 512-dimensional phase embeddings $E_{0:t-1}$. Similar to one-hot encoding, we first divide a 512-dimensional phase embedding vector into $c$ segments $S_j$ to evenly according to the number of phase classes. We then assign binary value 1 to the $i$-th segment $S_i$ and keep other segments as 0 to obtain the encoding for the $i$-th phase ($i \in [1, c]$). The encoding strategy increases the distance between different phases in feature space compared with ordinary one-hot encoding.

$$E = (0, 0, \ldots, 0, 1, 1, \ldots, 1, \ldots, 0, 0, \ldots, 0, \hat{y} = i) \in [1, c]$$

However, without order information, identical phase embeddings at different positions in the video sequence can not be distinguished. In this regard, after phase embedding, positional encoding (PE) is added to describe the frame position in video of each phase through sine and cosine hybrid functions (Vaswani et al. 2017). The dimension index is denoted as $i$.

$$PE(t, 2i) = \sin \left(\frac{t \cdot 10000^{2i/512}}{10000^{2i/512}}\right)$$

$$PE(t, 2i + 1) = \cos \left(\frac{t \cdot 10000^{2i/512}}{10000^{2i/512}}\right)$$

2.3. Consistency constrained inference

Frequently jumped prediction is a serious problem in surgical phase recognition, which may have limited impact on the recognition performance, but lead to poor result in terms of consistency and reliability. Generally, jumped predictions are caused by low-quality frame features extracted from hard video frames, resulting in misrecognised phase transitions during on-line inference. Due to the nature of auto-regression, feeding incorrect predictions to the decoder will result in certain bias of the conditional probability distribution. The bias can be accumulated and thus has an negative impact on predictions of future frames. To minimise the impact, our model should carefully consider whether the recognised phase transitions are actually present. In this regard, consistency constraint inference
(CCI) strategy is proposed to optimise our auto-regressive inference, which is explained below.

Assume that phase transition occurs from time $t - 1$ to time $t$ (i.e., $P_t \neq P_{t-1}$) during inference. Rather than directly feeding the newly predicted phase $P_t$ to the decoder for further inference, we continue predicting the next $n$ frames between $[t + 1, t + n]$ by keeping feeding phase $P_{t-1}$ to decoder. Only if all of the predicted phases for the next $n$ frames are identical to phase $P_t$, we believe that an actual phase transition occurs. Otherwise, we consider the predicted phase transition is unreliable, which may be caused by noise or hard frames. In such a situation, prediction at $t$-th frame should be modified to phase $P_{t-1}$ for further inference. In this work, $n$ is empirically set as 10. It is worth to note that our CCI strategy is integrated with our auto-regression framework, as shown in Algorithm 1. Advantages of our newly proposed CCI strategy over previously introduced post-processing methods such as prior knowledge inference (PKI) (Jin et al. 2017) include: 1) our CCI strategy is part of our on-line inference procedure and thus is not a post-processing method; and 2) it does not use any surgery-specific a priori knowledge as in PKI (Jin et al. 2017) and thus can be extended to other types of workflow analysis tasks.

**Algorithm 1 Consistency Constraint Inference**

\[
\text{INFERRENCE (F)}
\]

\[
\text{for } t \leftarrow 1 \text{to } T \text{ do}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
F_t & \leftarrow \text{ARST}(F_{t-1}, y_{0:t-1}) \\
F_t & \leftarrow \text{argmax}(P_t) \\
\text{if } & \quad P_t \neq P_{t-1} \\
\text{for } j & \leftarrow 1 \text{to } n \text{ do}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
y_{0:t+j-1} & \leftarrow y_{0:t-1} + [y_{t-1}]_{s_j} \\
P_{t+j} & \leftarrow \text{ARST}(F_{t+j}, y_{0:t+j-1}) \\
P_{t+j} & \leftarrow \text{argmax}(P_{t+j}) \\
\text{if } & \quad P_{t+j} \neq P_t \\
P_t & \leftarrow P_{t-1} \\
\text{break}
\end{align*}
\]

3. Experiments

3.1. Data description

Our method is evaluated on a publicly available dataset Cholec80 (Twinanda et al. 2016), which is a challenging laparoscopic video dataset of cholecystectomy surgery. The dataset contains 80 videos recorded at 25 frames per second (fps) with resolutions of either 1920 x 1080 or 854 x 480. Seven defined phases as shown in Table 1 are annotated manually at 25 fps, together with seven tool presence labels provided at 1 fps. Note that only the phase labels are used in our work. All the videos are sub-sampled to 1 fps for processing and training. We divide the dataset as 40 videos for training and the remaining 40 videos for testing. 8 videos in the training set are used for validation and hyper-parameters tuning.

3.2. Evaluation metrics

To evaluate the performance of the proposed ARST quantitatively, four commonly used metrics are adopted, including accuracy, precision, recall and Jaccard index. For each video, the accuracy is evaluated by calculating the percentage of correctly recognised phases at video-level. Meanwhile, the precision, recall and Jaccard are first evaluated for each phase, and then averaged over all existing phases. We report the average value and standard deviation of each evaluation metric on the 40 testing cases.

3.3. Training protocol

Our feature extractor and ARST are implemented with PyTorch and trained on an NVIDIA TITAN RTX GPU. Spatial feature extractor ResNet-50 is initialised from a model pre-trained on ImageNet (Deng et al. 2009) and then trained for another 50 epochs using an SGD optimiser with 1e-4 learning rate. The resolution of input video frames is resized to 250 x 250. Random 224 x 224 cropping, flipping, rotating and colour jittering are applied for data augmentation. For temporal modelling, we employ an Adam optimizer with 1e-4 learning rate to train the temporal feature extractor TeCNO for 50 epochs. After training, we fix feature extractors. We then train our ARST with Adam optimizer for 20 epochs. The learning rate is set as 1e-5. Each iteration uses frame features of a complete video, with batch size identical to the video’s length.

3.4. Ablation studies

The width $W$ of the banded causal mask determines the range of previous frames considered in the attention dependency. We first evaluate the effect of the band width $W$ on the performance of our method. The ablation study results are reported in Table 2, the case with $W = 0$ can be regarded as a degenerated attention. Our experimental results show that an appropriate $W$ is of great importance to achieve better performance. Larger $W$ allows to generate smoother predictions benefitting from rich temporal information, but phase transition will become more susceptible to noise or poor frame features. On the contrary, smaller $W$ allows limited temporal information, leading to frequently jumped phase predictions. From this table, one can see that setting $W = 5$ achieves the best result.

Table 3 reports the quantitative evaluation of the ablative studies for auto-regression and the CCI strategy when either spatial features or temporal features are used as the input to our ARST encoder. Without auto-regression, we use phase predictions from ResNet-50 (He et al. 2016) or TeCNO (Czempiel et al. 2020) as the input (after embedding) to our ARST decoder. No matter what types of features are used, the worst results are achieved when both auto-regression and the CCI strategy are not used. Adding auto-regression leads to better results. The

| ID | Phase descriptions |
|----|-------------------|
| P1 | Preparation       |
| P2 | Calot triangle dissection |
| P3 | Clipping and cutting |
| P4 | Gallbladder dissection |
| P5 | Gallbladder packaging |
| P6 | Cleaning and coagulation |
| P7 | Gallbladder retraction |
improvement is substantial when either type of features are used, indicating that auto-regression is capable for temporal modelling and refinement. When both auto-regression and the CCI strategy are used, a performance boost of 4.4% (when spatial features are used) or of 3.6% (when temporal features are used) in terms of Jaccard is observed, demonstrating the superior performance of the proposed method for phase recognition.

Moreover, visual comparisons (Figure 2) are provided to show the improvements qualitatively. Baseline is the case without using auto-regression and the CCI strategy. We can see that the predictions obtained when auto-regression is used are smoother than the baseline method, indicating that the model learns the pattern of phase transition well. Additionally, by incorporating our CCI strategy, the jumped predictions observed in the results obtained when auto-regression is used nearly disappear.

### 3.5. Comparison with the state-of-the-arts

We compare our method with several state-of-the-art methods. All the methods are trained without using any tool presence information. ResNet-50 is our backbone for spatial features extraction (He et al. 2016). SV-RCNet realises end-to-end temporal modelling by seamlessly integrating ResNet and LSTM (Jin et al. 2017). TeCNO is our backbone for temporal embeddings extraction, utilising a two-stage causal TCN for temporal modeling (Czempiel et al. 2020). Trans-SVNet achieves superior recognition performance by aggregating spatial and temporal embeddings from ResNet and TeCNO (Gao et al. 2021).

In fairness, our method is compared with ResNet-50, SV-RCNet and TeCNO when spatial features are used. In addition, when temporal features are used, our method is only compared with Trans-SVNet, since both methods use temporal features extracted by TeCNO (Czempiel et al. 2020). All methods involved in the comparison are trained with same data augmentation and dataset partition setup.

Table 4 presents the quantitative evaluation results of the comparison. Please note that the results that we report here are based on the publicly available implementation of (Jin et al. 2017; Czempiel et al. 2020; Gao et al. 2021) but evaluated on our own data split. From this table, one can see that, when spatial features are used, our method outperforms TeCNO by 1.3%-3.5% in all metrics and achieves a performance that is comparable to Trans-SVNet. Meanwhile, when temporal features are used, our method outperforms Trans-SVNet by 1%-2.3% in all metrics and achieves the best result among all compared methods. We additionally show a qualitative comparison in Figure 3. No matter what types

| W   | Accuracy   | Precision | Recall | Jaccard |
|-----|------------|-----------|--------|---------|
| 0   | 84.83 ± 6.85 | 80.71 ± 8.93 | 79.92 ± 6.21 | 66.70 ± 9.61 |
| 2   | 87.00 ± 6.87 | 83.64 ± 8.11 | 83.41 ± 5.79 | 71.28 ± 9.75 |
| 5   | 87.62 ± 6.44 | 84.05 ± 6.67 | 84.04 ± 5.34 | 71.70 ± 8.93 |
| 10  | 87.13 ± 6.71 | 82.66 ± 6.75 | 83.45 ± 5.86 | 70.51 ± 8.47 |
| 20  | 86.10 ± 7.46 | 79.92 ± 9.02 | 80.93 ± 7.75 | 67.14 ± 10.48 |
| 40  | 83.57 ± 7.80 | 74.52 ± 9.40 | 77.39 ± 9.76 | 62.50 ± 10.01 |
| 60  | 82.03 ± 8.26 | 72.99 ± 8.83 | 78.40 ± 10.31 | 61.71 ± 9.85 |

Table 3. Ablative testing results for auto-regression (AR) and consistency constrained inference (CCI) strategy. Average metrics (%) and the standard deviations (±) are reported. Two types of feature extractor $F_2$, ResNet-50 ($R$) and TeCNO ($T$), are considered.

| $F_2$ | AR       | CCI | Accuracy   | Precision | Recall | Jaccard |
|-------|----------|-----|------------|-----------|--------|---------|
| $R$   | -        | -   | 86.96 ± 7.47 | 84.24 ± 8.15 | 80.26 ± 7.88 | 68.81 ± 10.88 |
| $R$   | ✓        | -   | 87.62 ± 6.44 | 84.05 ± 6.67 | 84.04 ± 5.34 | 71.70 ± 8.97 |
| $R$   | ✓        | ✓   | 88.46 ± 6.81 | 84.93 ± 7.83 | 85.05 ± 7.24 | 73.16 ± 10.17 |
| $T$   | -        | -   | 88.19 ± 8.07 | 86.09 ± 7.19 | 83.31 ± 7.93 | 72.65 ± 10.93 |
| $T$   | ✓        | -   | 88.23 ± 7.45 | 85.27 ± 7.50 | 84.94 ± 6.55 | 73.00 ± 10.25 |
| $T$   | ✓        | ✓   | 89.27 ± 7.27 | 87.08 ± 7.25 | 86.82 ± 5.99 | 76.10 ± 9.62 |

Figure 2. Qualitative illustration of the ablative testing results for auto-regression (AR) and consistency constrained inference (CCI) strategy. Two types of feature extractor $F_2$, ResNet-50 ($R$) and TeCNO ($T$), are considered.
of features are used, the proposed method achieves smoother and more reliable predictions than other methods. Trans-SVNet achieves the second-best quantitative results but still produces frequently jumped predictions. In contrast, with the proposed method nearly no jumped prediction can be found. Benefiting from the limited band width $W$ of $M_{ts}$ and light-weighted network architecture, it takes on average 15.15 milliseconds for our method to process one frame, including the computing time for both feature extractors (spatial and temporal) and ARST. The proposed method can achieve an inference rate of 66 fps.

### 4. Conclusion

In this paper, we propose an auto-regressive surgical transformer, ARST, for accurate on-line phase recognition from laparoscopic videos. Phase prediction for each frame is conditionally dependent on predictions of previous frames, which can implicitly capture the inter-phase correlation. Besides, our novel consistency constraint inference strategy helps to reduce inference bias while enhancing the consistency and reliability of phase recognition. Our method outperforms state-of-the-art methods when evaluated on the public Cholec80 dataset, which may hold the potential to develop context-aware computer assisted interventional systems.

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### Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

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### Table 4. Quantitative comparison with baseline and state-of-the-art methods. Average values (%) and standard deviations (±) are reported. Two types of feature extractor $F_s$, ResNet-50 (R) and TeCNO (T), are considered.

| Methods                      | Accuracy | Precision | Recall  | Jaccard |
|------------------------------|----------|-----------|---------|---------|
| ResNet-50 (He et al. 2016)   | 81.54 ± 7.90 | 74.68 ± 8.87 | 75.29 ± 6.95 | 59.70 ± 9.58 |
| SV-RCNet (Jin et al. 2017)   | 85.03 ± 6.81 | 79.70 ± 8.05 | 79.18 ± 6.26 | 65.46 ± 9.48 |
| TeCNO (Czempiel et al. 2020)| 87.18 ± 7.72 | 82.66 ± 8.97 | 82.80 ± 6.46 | 69.62 ± 10.90 |
| Ours ($F_s = R$)              | 88.46 ± 6.81 | 84.93 ± 7.83 | 85.05 ± 7.24 | 73.16 ± 10.17 |
| Trans-SVNet* (Gao et al. 2021)| 88.23 ± 7.97 | 84.98 ± 7.59 | 86.16 ± 6.40 | 73.83 ± 10.66 |
| Ours ($F_s = T$)*            | 89.27 ± 7.27 | 87.08 ± 7.25 | 86.82 ± 5.99 | 76.10 ± 9.62 |

*It denotes that a state-of-the-art temporal modelling method is involved, e.g. TeCNO.

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### Figure 3. Qualitative comparison with baseline and state-of-the-art methods. Two types of feature extractor $F_s$, ResNet-50 (R) and TeCNO (T), are considered.

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