Knee Injury Detection using MRI with Efficiently-Layered Network (ELNet)

**Abstract**

Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) is a widely-accepted imaging technique for knee injury analysis. Its advantage of capturing knee structure in three dimensions with variable contrast makes it the ideal tool for radiologists to locate potential tears in the knee. In order to better confront the ever growing workload of musculoskeletal (MSK) radiologists, automated tools for patients’ triage are becoming a real need, reducing delays in the reading of pathological cases. In this work, we present the Efficiently-Layered Network (ELNet), a convolutional neural network (CNN) architecture optimized for the task of initial knee MRI diagnosis for triage. Unlike past approaches, we train ELNet from scratch instead of using a transfer-learning approach. The proposed method is validated quantitatively and qualitatively, and compares favorably against state-of-the-art MRNet while using a single imaging stack (axial or coronal) as input. Additionally, we demonstrate our model’s capability to locate tears in the knee despite the absence of localization information during training. Lastly, the proposed model is extremely lightweight (< 1MB) and therefore easy to train and deploy in real clinical settings.

**Keywords:** Knee Diagnosis, MRI, Deep Learning, ACL Tear, Meniscus Tear, Knee Injury, Medical Triage

1. Introduction

Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) has long been considered the most robust knee examination tool available (Saeed, 2018). Its widespread use is partly due to its capability to capture detailed structures in the knee joint while remaining a non-invasive procedure (Crues et al., 1987; Boeree et al., 1991). Given its profound capabilities to capture the knee in three dimensions, MRI has become the tool-of-choice for radiologists in an extensive range of examinations such as knee osteoarthritis and internal derangement of the knee. (Hayashi et al., 2014; Arumugam et al., 2015). Considering the ever growing workload of musculoskeletal (MSK) radiologists, automated tools for patients’ triage are needed, leading to shorter delays in the reading of pathological cases. Several techniques have been proposed for this purpose. Štajduhar et al. (2017) presented a semi-automated approach that used support vector machines (SVM) to diagnose anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) injuries in the knee. In their work, an ROI is first manually extracted before being fed into the SVM for prediction. Liu et al. (2018) introduced a fully-automated cartilage lesion detection system by employing a CNN for segmentation followed by another CNN for patch classification. Although their network is trained end-to-end, the amount of manual labeling required to create the patch training set makes it an overwhelmingly cumbersome task. Bien et al.
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(2018) proposed an architecture that consists of three individual MRNets whose output are combined using logistic regression. An MRNet extracts a distinctive feature vector for each slice of the scan, stacks the vectors into a 2D array, max-pools the array to obtain a single vector, and performs classification by a fully connected layer with softmax activation. The backbone of the feature extractor is a pre-trained AlexNet (Krizhevsky et al., 2012).

In this work, we present an Efficiently-Layered Network (ELNet) architecture optimized for knee diagnosis using MRI. The main contribution of this work is a novel slice feature extracting network that incorporates multi-slice normalization along with BlurPool downsampling. The proposed methods will be detailed in Section 2, followed by quantitative and qualitative experimental results in Section 3. Conclusion and future work will be given in Section 4.

2. Methods

The ELNet architecture is illustrated in Figure 1 and the details are listed in Table 1. The backbone of ELNet’s design centers around Block modules. Inspired by ResNet (He et al., 2016), we define a Block as a sequence of:

\[ \text{[2D Convolution} \rightarrow \text{Multi-slice Normalization} \rightarrow \text{ReLU activation]} \]

Blocks are designed to allow for non-linearities in the network, and they may be repeated while ensuring equal input and output dimensions. A skip connection is added between the input and output, allowing better optimization of the network. The first two Blocks are repeated twice with 4K and 8K channels, and the remaining Blocks are fixed with 16K channels.

Each Block is followed by another 2D Convolution and ReLU activation, and they serve to increase channel dimension. The spatial height and width are reduced using a BlurPool layer. Eventually, in the final layer of the feature extractor, 2D max-pooling is applied to obtain a 16K-dimensional feature vector for each MRI slice. Max-pooling is consecutively applied to obtain a single 16K-dimension feature vector that combines feature information across slices. Dropout is performed before feeding into a fully-connected layer with two output logits, and the final probability \( p(y|x) \) is computed by softmax (Goodfellow et al., 2016).

In the following two subsections, we detail two innovative features of ELNet: the use of multi-slice normalization, and BlurPool.

Multi-Slice Normalization

We propose two possible variants of multi-slice normalization: a first one based on layer normalization (Ba et al., 2016), and a second one based on contrast normalization (Ulyanov et al., 2016). Let’s assume a feature representation \( x^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^{S \times C \times H \times W} \) from some layer \( i \) in the network (usually a 2D-convolution), where \( S \) is the number of slices in the MRI sequence, \( C \) is the number of channels in the representation, and \( H, W \) are the spatial height and width of the representation. The network applies a normalization on \( x \) (omitting \( i \) for simplicity) by computing the appropriate mean and variance.

In the layer normalization variant, the mean \( \mu_s \) and variance \( \sigma_s^2 \) are computed from \( x \) for each slice \( s \) (1 ≤ \( s \) ≤ \( S \)). In contrast normalization, the mean \( \mu_{sc} \) and variance \( \sigma_{sc}^2 \) are
Figure 1: ELNet Design

computed for each slice \( s \) and also for each channel \( c \) (1 ≤ \( c \) ≤ \( C \)) (Figure 2 a-c). Using the computed mean and variance, \( x \) is standardized into \( \hat{x} \). An affine transform is applied to \( \hat{x} \) to obtain the normalized output \( y \). The normalization process is expressed by Equation (1) for layer normalization and Equation (2) for contrast normalization respectively:

\[
\hat{x}_n = \frac{x_n - \mu_n}{\sqrt{\sigma^2_n + \epsilon}} \rightarrow y_n = \gamma \hat{x}_n + \beta \quad \forall n : 1 \rightarrow N
\]  

(1)

\[
\hat{x}_{nc} = \frac{x_{nc} - \mu_{nc}}{\sqrt{\sigma^2_{nc} + \epsilon}} \rightarrow y_{nc} = \gamma \hat{x}_{nc} + \beta \quad \forall n : 1 \rightarrow N, c : 1 \rightarrow C
\]  

(2)

Parameters \( \gamma, \beta \) (\( C \) dimensional vectors) are learned independently for each normalization layer. Typically, \( \gamma, \beta, \epsilon \) are initialized to 1, 0, and 1e-8 respectively.

**BlurPool**

In the work of Zhang (2019), a BlurPool operation was proposed to mitigate the shift-variance phenomenon observed in modern CNN architectures where max-pooling and average-pooling are often utilized. BlurPool functions by first applying an anti-aliasing filter (binomial filter with kernel size \( B \) and stride 1) to the input representation, then strided pooling is applied to obtain the pooled feature map (see Figure 2d). In addition to imposing shift-invariance in the network, BlurPool is computationally more efficient given the frozen weights of the binomial filter.

Table 1: ELNet architecture in detail

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Layer Operation</th>
<th>Output Size</th>
<th>Trainable Parameters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7 × 7 Conv, 4K</td>
<td>4K × 128 × 128</td>
<td>196K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normalization</td>
<td></td>
<td>4K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s × 4K × 62 × 62</td>
<td>ReLU → BlurPool</td>
<td>800K² + 16K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 × 5 Conv, 8K</td>
<td></td>
<td>800K²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Block [5 × 5] x2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s × 8K × 29 × 29</td>
<td>ReLU → BlurPool</td>
<td>1152K² + 32K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 × 3 Conv, 16K</td>
<td></td>
<td>1152K²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Block [3 × 3] x2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s × 16K × 13 × 13</td>
<td>ReLU → BlurPool</td>
<td>2304K² + 32K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 × 3 Conv, 16K</td>
<td></td>
<td>2304K²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Block [3 × 3]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s × 16K × 5 × 5</td>
<td>ReLU → BlurPool</td>
<td>2304K² + 32K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 × 3 Conv, 16K</td>
<td></td>
<td>2304K²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Block [3 × 3]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s × 16K</td>
<td>ReLU → BlurPool → 2D Max-Pool</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16K</td>
<td>1D Max-Pool → Dropout</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Fully Connected → Softmax</td>
<td>32K + 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Trainable Parameters</td>
<td>13120K² + 348K + 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 2: (a) An ELNet Block. (b) Layer normalization (c) Contrast normalization (d) Decomposition of the BlurPool operation.

2.1. Training Pipeline

As suggested by Nyúl and Udupa (1999), we perform histogram-based intensity standardization according to the training set statistics, thus enabling similar-valued pixels to be associated with the relevant tissue type. In addition, we perform randomized data augmentations to each series which includes translation, horizontal flip, scaling, and minor rotations up to ±10 degrees around the center of the volume. For volumes captured in the axial and coronal orientations, we apply an additional random rotation of a multiple of 90 degrees to the volume. Finally, all the images are resized to 256 × 256 before entering the network.

Aside from data augmentation, we implement oversampling to compensate for dataset imbalance. For each pathology, we select the minority class samples (allowing repeats) from our training set and apply augmentations on them until the number of minority class samples (along with their augmented copies) equals the number of majority samples.

We train ELNet using standard cross-entropy loss (Goodfellow et al., 2016). Optimization can be done using a simple grid-search over relevant hyperparameters such as learning rate, choice of multi-layer normalization, BlurPool kernel sizes, dropout rate, etc.

3. Experiments

3.1. Datasets

MRNet Dataset. The MRNet Dataset contains 1,370 knee MRI examinations that were carried out at the Stanford University Medical Center. Each case was labeled according to the presence/absence of an anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) tear, a meniscus tear, or other signs of abnormalities in the corresponding knee. Each exam was randomly assigned either to the training, validation, or test set (Bien et al., 2018). It should be noted that each exam may contain multiple labels (e.g. an exam labeled positive for abnormality and ACL tear indicates other forms of abnormality in addition to an ACL tear).

The provided dataset includes, for each case, corresponding axial, coronal and sagittal MRI acquisitions. As reported by Bien et al., a sagittal T2-weighted series, a coronal T1 weighted series, and an axial proton density weighted series were selected for this dataset.
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Each image is of size 256 × 256 and the number of slices ranges between 17-61 (mean 31 and standard deviation 7.97). The MRNet Dataset is currently the largest public labeled knee MRI dataset.

KneeMRI. The KneeMRI dataset collected at the Clinical Hospital Centre Rijeka, Croatia by Stajduhar et al consists of 917 exams labeled with ACL conditions in the corresponding knee. For each exam, the ligament condition was classified as either healthy (690 exams, 75.2%), partially injured (172 exams, 18.8%), or completely ruptured (55 exams, 6%). Each assessment corresponds to a T1-weighted sagittal MRI series, containing 320 × 320 or 290 × 300 images. The number of images in each series ranges between 21-45 (mean 31 and standard deviation 2.27). The dataset was divided into 10 strata with similar distributions, and we perform stratified sampling for evaluation.

3.2. Training

MRNet Dataset. In the MRNet dataset, we were provided with three imaging orientations per examination. Based on experiments, we selected axial images for detecting ACL tears and abnormalities, and coronal images for detecting meniscus tears. For each pathology, we used an ELNet with $K = 4$. We initialized the network weights uniformly by choosing the best random seed between 0-4 (He et al., 2015). Contrast normalization yielded the best results for detecting meniscus tears, and layer normalization for detecting the remaining pathologies. We trained each model using Adam with a learning rate between 1e-5 and 3e-5 for 200 epochs, taking roughly 1.5 hours (Kingma and Ba, 2014).

KneeMRI Dataset With the KneeMRI dataset, we perform 5-fold cross validation using eight out of the ten strata, and validation using the remaining two. Similar to the MRNet Dataset, we train an ELNet with $K=2$ using SGD+Momentum for 200 epochs and the training time is roughly an hour for each fold (Sutskever et al., 2013).

By choosing $K=2$, and $K=4$ for the ELNet architectures, our trained model involves 53,178, and 211,314 trainable parameters respectively. In comparison to AlexNet (~61M trainable parameters), ELNet contains three orders of magnitude fewer parameters than AlexNet. Each trained model was saved using standard PyTorch format. Model sizes are 850kB and 435kB for $K=4$ and $K=2$ respectively. Our experiments were perfomed on an NVIDIA GTX 1070 8GB GPU.

3.3. Evaluation

MRNet Dataset. We evaluate ELNet’s performance using the validation set provided by the MRNet dataset (since the test set is not publicly available), and we compare it with the MRNet model proposed and trained by Bien et al. Although they evaluated their models primarily using the ROC-AUC, we perform a more thorough analysis by considering additional metrics that are just as significant, such as Sensitivity and the Matthew Correlation Coefficient (MCC). The evaluation results are presented in Table 2 and the ROC is plotted in Figure 3 (a-c), where we can observe noticeably higher sensitivity of the ELNet model. From a clinical perspective, a model with higher sensitivity is always preferred since better
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Architecture</th>
<th>Pathology</th>
<th>Accuracy</th>
<th>Sensitivity</th>
<th>Specificity</th>
<th>ROC-AUC</th>
<th>MCC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MRNet</td>
<td>Meniscus Tear</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td>0.827</td>
<td>0.662</td>
<td>0.826</td>
<td>0.489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ACL Tear</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.907</td>
<td>0.894</td>
<td>0.956</td>
<td>0.769</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abnormality</td>
<td>0.883</td>
<td>0.947</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.936</td>
<td>0.628</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELNet</td>
<td>Meniscus Tear</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.904</td>
<td>0.745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ACL Tear</td>
<td>0.904</td>
<td>0.923</td>
<td>0.891</td>
<td>0.960</td>
<td>0.815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abnormality</td>
<td>0.917</td>
<td>0.968</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.941</td>
<td>0.736</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Evaluation Statistics between MRNet and ELNet on the MRNet validation set

detection of true positives has always been the goal of automated diagnosis algorithms.

**KneeMRI Dataset.** We evaluate ELNet using a 5-fold cross-validation scheme in detecting injuries in the ACL. The evaluation metrics following the 5-folds are shown on figure 3 (d-g); we highlight the lowest value in for each metric in red. In the original paper, Štajdhuar et al trained an SVM and reported an AUC of 0.894 using 10-fold cross-validation. Bien et al reported an AUC of 0.911 on a particular train/valid/test set split using a pre-trained MRNet. In our experiment, we obtain an average AUC of 0.913 from the 5-folds, with three of the five folds exceeding 0.92 and the highest being 0.924. Moreover, we observe just minor variations in multiple performance metrics across folds; this demonstrates our model’s robustness despite limited data and a highly unbalanced distribution.

### 3.4. Model Interpretation

To understand how ELNet identifies certain attributes for diagnosis, we compute the Full-Gradient representation of ELNet using the FullGrad algorithm (Srinivas and Fleuret, 2019). FullGrad generates a heat-map that corresponds to parts of the input that most influence the output prediction. Conceptually, the generated heat-map should be “hotter” in areas indicating an injury and “cold” elsewhere. To verify that ELNet is indeed performing diagnosis based on features in the given acquisition, a board-certified MSK radiologist with 17 years of experience was asked to identify the most informative slice in a given series and to indicate regions that correspond to an ACL injury. In the majority of the cases provided, ELNet was able to indicate the most informative slice and has generated a heat-map that coincided with the region reported by the radiologist. In Figure 4, we present a few examples of the generated heat-maps.

### 4. Conclusion

In this work, we present ELNet, a unique CNN architecture optimized for knee injury detection. The novel integration of multi-slice normalization and BlurPool operations allow ELNet models to remain lightweight (∼0.2M parameters, requiring single imaging stack, trained from scratch) while performing favorably against MRNet models (∼183M parameters, requiring three imaging stacks, pretrained AlexNet) on the MRNet dataset. Cross-validation on the KneeMRI dataset have demonstrated consistent improved performance with ELNet models, proving the architecture to be robust regardless of a highly
Figure 3: **MRNet Dataset:** (a-c) Comparision of ELNet and MRNet ROC  
**KneeMRI Dataset:** (d) ELNet ROC’s obtained from 5-fold cross-validation  
(e) ELNet metrics following 5-fold cross-validation
unbalanced distribution. In a clinical setting, where large number of cases await evaluation, our algorithm may be used for triage, improving workflow efficiency. In addition, by having our algorithm locate regions containing tears, radiologists can benefit by having the most significant slice presented first for each case.

Future work may include performance enhancement by incorporation of all three MRI volumes, axial, coronal and sagittal, if available. Further research is also needed to facilitate application of trained models on MRI data acquired using different scanners with various intensity scales. With the promising findings thus far, we believe ELNet may serve as a solid basis for future works involving knee injury triage.

References


Nicholas Bien, Pranav Rajpurkar, Robyn L. Ball, Jeremy Irvin, Allison Park, Erik Jones, Michael Bereket, Bhavik N. Patel, Kristen W. Yeom, Katie Shpanskaya, Safwan Halabi,


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