

# Prostate Cancer Detection in Bi-Parametric MRI using Zonal Anatomy-Guided U-Mamba with Multi-Task Learning

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## Abstract

Prostate cancer (PCa) remains a leading cause of cancer-related morbidity, emphasizing the need for accurate and non-invasive diagnostic tools. While deep learning models have advanced PCa detection in magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), they often fail to integrate anatomical knowledge. This study evaluates U-Mamba, a deep learning architecture designed to enhance long-range dependency modeling with linear time complexity, for PCa detection. Furthermore, a multi-task learning (MTL) extension, U-Mamba MTL, is introduced to incorporate prostate zonal anatomy, aligning with clinical diagnostic workflows. The models were assessed using diverse datasets, including the PI-CAI hidden tuning cohort (N=100) and an in-house collected out-of-distribution cohort (N=200). Results demonstrate that U-Mamba achieves state-of-the-art detection performance, while U-Mamba MTL further improves PCa detection through the auxiliary zonal segmentation task. These findings highlight the potential of integrating U-Mamba with anatomical context to improve PCa detection. The code and model weights are available at <https://github.com/mokkalokka/U-MambaMTL>.

**Keywords:** Deep Learning, Medical Image Analysis, Prostate Cancer, Mamba, Multi-Task Learning

## 1. Introduction

Prostate cancer (PCa) is the fourth most prevalent cancer worldwide, despite exclusively affecting the male population (Bray et al., 2024). Prostate biopsies remain the gold standard for classifying cancer aggressiveness; however, the procedure is associated with health risks (Borghesi et al., 2017). To minimize unnecessary biopsies, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is increasingly used alongside prostate-specific antigen (PSA) blood tests as an effective, non-invasive tool for detection of clinically significant PCa (csPCa) using the prostate imaging-reporting and data system (PI-RADS) v2.1 protocol (Park et al., 2021). However, the diagnostic accuracy of MRI assessment can vary significantly depending on the reader’s level of expertise (Wei et al., 2021).

A promising solution to mitigate this inter-reader variability in prostate MRI assessment is the application of artificial intelligence (AI) for automatic PCa detection. Training and validating AI models, however, requires large amounts of labeled data. In response to this need, the organizers of the PI-CAI challenge provided a large-scale multi-center dataset comprising 10,207 bi-parametric MRI (bpMRI) cases to advance research in PCa detection (Saha et al., 2024). While only a small subset of this dataset (N=1,500) is publicly available for training and validation, it still surpasses the size of previously available labeled prostate bpMRI datasets (Adams et al., 2022; Litjens et al., 2017).

The top-performing submissions to the PI-CAI challenge utilized either convolutional neural network (CNN)-based architectures (Debs et al., 2022; Li et al., 2022; Karagoz et al., 2023) or hybrid CNN-transformer architectures (Yuan et al., 2022; Kan et al.). The challenge organizers also introduced three strong baseline methods, leveraging three widely used CNN-based architectures. The first, nnU-Net, is a self-configuring network for medical segmentation that optimizes pre- and post-processing as well as architectural parameters based on the dataset and available computing resources (Isensee et al., 2021). The second, nnDetection, is similarly self-configuring but focuses on object detection using the Retina U-Net architecture (Baumgartner et al., 2021; Jaeger et al., 2020). The final baseline is a standard CNN-based U-Net (Ronneberger et al., 2015).

While CNN-based architectures dominate the field, they are inherently limited in capturing long-range dependencies due to the localized nature of convolutional filters. Transformer-based architectures, on the other hand, offer greater potential for modeling long-range dependencies but face challenges such as computational complexity, particularly in dense prediction tasks like segmentation, where small patch sizes and windowed self-attention are often required (Liu et al., 2021). These constraints reduce their ability to fully leverage long-range information.

A recent alternative to CNNs and transformers called Mamba (Gu and Dao, 2023), claims to excel at leveraging long range dependencies for sequence to sequence tasks while maintaining a linear time complexity. U-Mamba (Ma et al., 2024), is one of the most popular mamba adaptations for medical image segmentation tasks, which is reported to achieve state of the art segmentation performance. However, efficacy on PCa detection in bpMRI remains unknown.

The prostate comprises two main zones: the transitional zone (TZ) and the peripheral zone (PZ), with the PZ accounting for most PCa cases. In PI-RADS v2.1, the dominant MRI sequence is determined by the lesion’s zone. While zonal segmentation in MRI using deep learning has been extensively studied (Adams et al., 2022; Kou et al., 2024; Cuocolo et al., 2021; Aldojo et al., 2020), most PCa detection methods overlook anatomical knowledge like prostate zones. Some PCa detection studies use zonal masks as inputs (Yuan et al., 2022; Karagoz et al., 2023), while (Zheng et al., 2024) included zones as output classes using mpMRI. However, bpMRI has been shown to be non-inferior to mpMRI for diagnosing PCa, and is now commonly used as a more cost-effective and less time-consuming alternative. (Twilt et al., 2024).

This paper advances deep learning-based PCa detection in bpMRI by evaluating the previously unknown efficacy of U-Mamba (Ma et al., 2024), a Mamba-based architecture designed to efficiently model long-range dependencies with linear time complexity. A novel parallel multi-task extension of U-Mamba is proposed, integrating prostate zonal segmenta-

tion masks to incorporate anatomical context and enhance performance for PCa detection. The methodology is validated on an out-of-distribution in-house dataset (N=200) and an external dataset (N=100), demonstrating superior detection performance compared to a selection of state-of-the-art models.

## 2. Methodology

### 2.1. Datasets

The datasets utilized in this study include the training cohort (N=1500) (which incorporates the ProstateX dataset (Litjens et al., 2017)), and the hidden tuning cohort (N=100) of the PI-CAI dataset (Saha et al., 2022). 425 cases in the PI-CAI training cohort are confirmed histologically to have clinically significant PCa (csPCa), defined as grade group  $\geq 2$ . Of the csPCa cases in the PI-CAI training cohort, 220 cases include human expert annotations, while the remaining csPCa cases are derived from the approach outlined in (Bosma et al., 2023). Transition zone (TZ) and peripheral zone (PZ) masks for the training subset were AI-generated using a standard nnUNet (Isensee et al., 2021), trained on the ProstateX subset of the PI-CAI training data (Yuan et al., 2022).

The study further incorporated an in-house dataset (N=200) from NTNU/St. Olavs hospital, Trondheim, Norway (Krüger-Stokke et al., 2021), along with the Prostate158 dataset (N=158) (Adams et al., 2022). Both datasets provide expert annotations for PCa and zonal anatomy. PCa annotations for the in-house cohort is defined similarly to the PI-CAI datasets, but Prostate158 includes grade group 1, and is thus excluded from the csPCa detection assessment in this study. An overview of all datasets utilized in this study is provided in Table 1 and the clinical variables for each cohort can be seen in Appendix A.

All datasets in this study include T2-weighted (T2W), apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC), and high b-value (HBV) diffusion-weighted images, collectively referred to as bpMRI.

Dataset	Cases	Type	Annotations
In-House <sup>1</sup>	200	3T mpMRI	PCa, Zonal
PI-CAI Training cohort	1500	1.5T, 3T bpMRI	PCa <sup>2</sup> , Zonal <sup>3</sup>
PI-CAI Hidden tuning cohort	100	1.5T, 3T bpMRI	PCa
Prostate158	158	3T bpMRI	PCa, Zonal

Table 1: Prostate cancer dataset information. <sup>1</sup> denotes that the dataset is contained within the PI-CAI hidden test set cohort, <sup>2</sup> denotes that a subsection of the labels are AI generated (N=200) and <sup>3</sup> denotes that all the masks are AI generated

### 2.2. Network Architecture

We implemented the U-Mamba architecture (Ma et al., 2024) to investigate the hypothesis that the enhanced long-range dependency capabilities of Mamba (Gu and Dao, 2023) will be beneficial for PCa detection. As the performance of the Enc and Bot variant is reported

to be similar, we opted for the Bot variant due to its reduced computational complexity (Isensee et al., 2024).

The particular configuration of the U-Mamba architecture used in this paper consists of 7 convolution stages in the encoder and decoder, where each stage in encoder consists of 2 ( $3 \times 3$ ) convolutions. The decoder consists of the upsampling blocks in addition to a residual block. The bottleneck consists of the mamba-based block called the U-Mamba block in addition to a residual block. The full U-Mamba architecture overview can be seen in Figure 1.

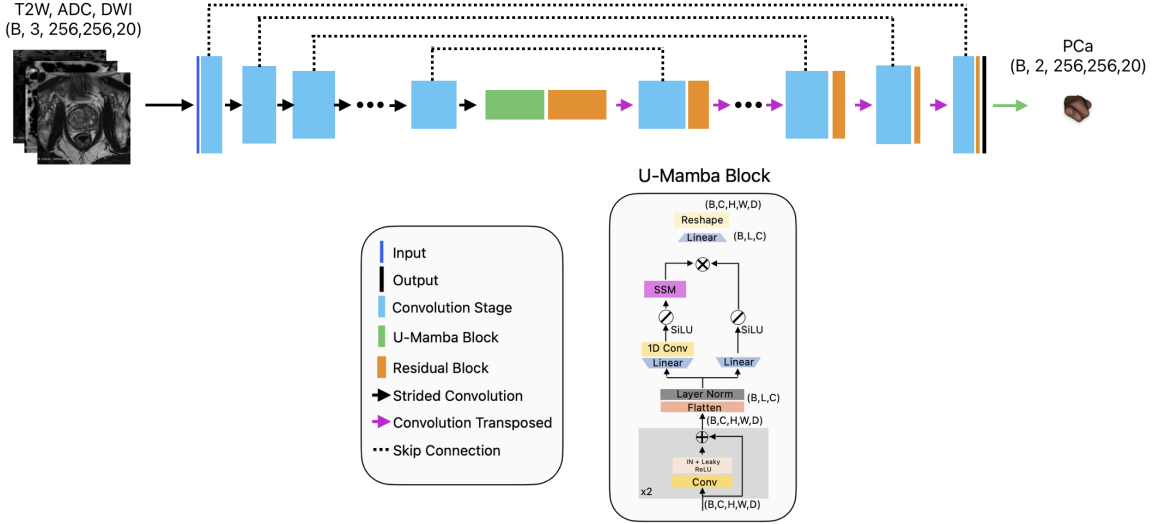


Figure 1: General overview of the U-Mamba (Bot) architecture

### 2.3. U-Mamba MTL

To explore the hypothesis that the inclusion of zonal masks (TZ and PZ) is beneficial for PCa prediction, we extended the original U-Mamba architecture using a parallel multi-task learning strategy. As zonal masks (TZ and PZ) are considered an auxiliary task and the difficulty of predicting zonal masks is comparably easier than the PCa prediction, we opted to consider the zonal masks as a single task. We would expect these two classes to work well within a shared decoder, as the two classes are closely related, and by limiting our architecture to two decoders, additional computational complexity is avoided in terms of trainable parameters.

We define the two tasks as  $T_0 = \text{PCa}$  and  $T_1 = \text{Peripheral Zone (PZ) and Transitional Zone (TZ) zonal masks}$ . Our U-Mamba MTL architecture can then be formulated as:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{z} &= f_{\text{enc}}(\mathbf{x}; \theta_{\text{enc}}), \\ \mathbf{y}_i &= f_{\text{dec}_i}(\mathbf{z}; \theta_{\text{dec}_i}), \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, N\} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Where  $N = 2$  such that the two decoder branches predict  $y_{T_0}$  and  $y_{T_1}$ . The encoder is then shared between the two tasks such that a shared representation can be learned in the shared parameters  $\theta_{\text{enc}}$ , and task specific representation is represented in the corresponding

decoder parameters  $\theta_{\text{dec}_i}$ . Except for the additional decoder branch, the network follows the same exact structure as the U-Mamba network described above, and the full architecture overview of our U-MambaMTL can be seen in Figure 2.

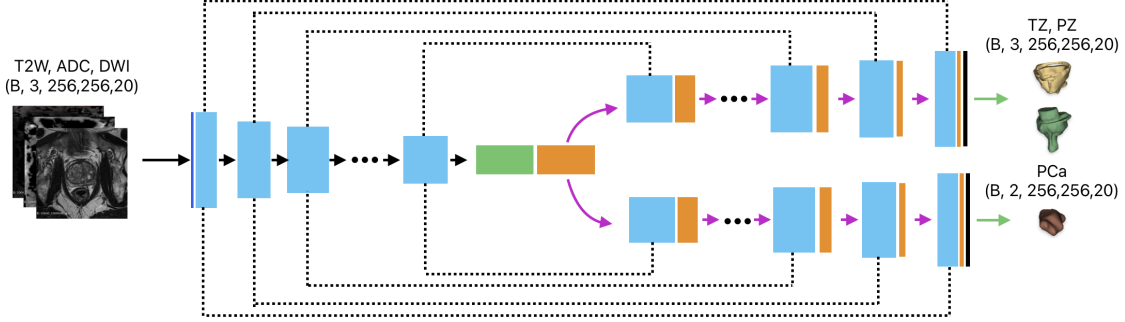


Figure 2: General overview of our U-Mamba MTL Architecture (see Figure 1 for block descriptions)

#### 2.4. Loss Functions

The two different tasks we aim to predict with our U-Mamba MTL architecture observe very different characteristics, which can cause issues with convergence if not handled carefully. The PCa task observes a severe class imbalance compared to the background, and is not present in all cases. These observations fits well with the selection criteria for the Focal loss function. The zonal mask prediction task on the other hand observes a moderate class imbalance compared to the background, and is present in all cases. Therefore, a combination of Dice and CE loss is deemed more suited for this task.

Due to the scale difference between the two task losses and the difference in relative difficulty of the tasks, a balancing factor  $\beta$  is introduced. If we formulate the two targets in our MTL variant of U-Mamba as  $T_0 = \text{PCa}$  and  $T_1 = \text{PZ and TZ zonal masks}$ , the full formulation of the multi-task loss can be defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{T_0} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{Focal}}, \quad \mathcal{L}_{T_1} = \lambda \mathcal{L}_{\text{Dice}} + (1 - \lambda) \mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}}, \quad \mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{T_0} + \beta \mathcal{L}_{T_1}. \quad (2)$$

The weight balancing parameter  $\lambda = 0.5$  which gives equal weight to the Dice and Cross Entropy component of  $\mathcal{L}_{T_1}$ . The weight balancing parameter  $\beta$  is set to 0.2 to balance both loss range and the relative difficulties of the tasks. Please note that the un-altered U-Mamba network uses  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{Focal}}$  as its only loss function.

#### 2.5. Model Training

Each model was trained using the PI-CAI challenge training dataset (N=1500) split into a training and a validation set by using 5-fold cross validation. Each split contains approximately 80% for training and 20% for validation.

All the models were trained using 5-fold cross validation for 200 epochs, while the baseline models from the PI-CAI challenge organizers were trained for 1000 epochs. The model training was conducted using a single A100 (80GB VRAM) GPU with a cosine annealing learning rate scheduler and AdamW optimizer, which resulted in 5 model weights for each model.

To enhance the dataset diversity for model training, a set of data augmentations was used to augment the training data each epoch randomly. To ensure equal size of each image, we resample all images to the common spacing and perform crop or pad using the prostate as the center. Specific settings for each augmentation can be seen in Appendix B.

## 2.6. Baseline Models

To assess the performance of our model in relation to current state-of-the-art (SOTA) we opted to use the three baseline methods provided by the PI-CAI Challenge organizers which includes: nnUNet (Isensee et al., 2021), nnDetection (Baumgartner et al., 2021) and a standard U-Net (Ronneberger et al., 2015). In addition to the PI-CAI baselines we trained a SOTA transformer model called Swin UNETR (Hatamizadeh et al., 2022) using the same setup as the U-Mamba and our U-Mamba MTL model, except for the input size in the Z-dimension which was set to 32 due to model requirements.

## 2.7. Metrics

We assess PCa segmentations masks using average precision (AP) and area under the receiver operating curve (AUC), following PI-CAI guidelines (Saha et al., 2024). In order to compute the metrics, non-overlapping lesion candidates are extracted from the PCa probability map. The lesion candidates are iteratively extracted by selecting the voxel with the maximum probability and selecting all connected voxels with a minimum of 40% of its peak probability (Bosma et al., 2023). A PCa detection map is defined as the collection of all lesion candidates for a given case, where each lesion candidate have a single probability defined by its maximum probability.

A lesion is considered true positive in the AP calculation if its intersect over union exceeds 10%. AUC is computed per patient using the highest probability in the PCa detection map. The combined performance metric averages AP and AUC to evaluate lesion detection and patient-level PCa classification. The metrics are calculated with the `picai_eval` script provided by the PI-CAI challenge (Saha et al., 2024).

## 3. Results

In this section, two datasets from four separate institutions, the PI-CAI hidden tuning cohort (N=100) and our out-of-distribution in-house cohort (N=200), are used to evaluate the performance of our trained model against all baseline models. As each model was trained using 5-fold cross validation, a simple mean ensemble is employed on the softmax output of each model fold before extracting lesion candidates using the post processing steps described in Section 2.7. The lesion candidates are then reverted to original size before evaluating the metrics. Results for zonal segmentation can be seen in Appendix C.



### 3.1. Qualitative Results

Figure 3 shows qualitative results on the in-house dataset (N=200), where all models are able to produce lesion detection maps that match most of the ground truth lesions. nnDetection does display the highest probabilities, but fails to delineate the lesions due to its object detection architecture.

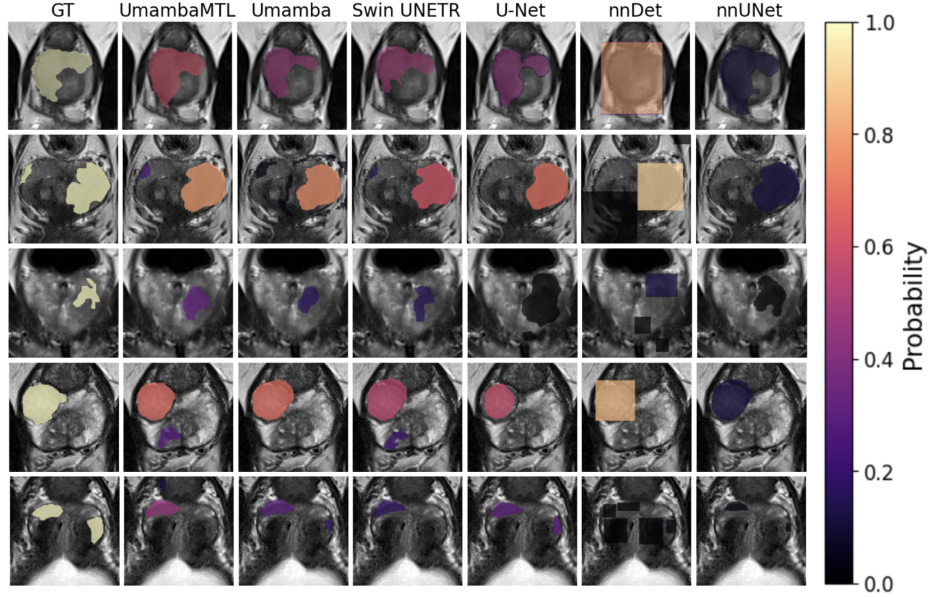


Figure 3: Qualitative comparison on the in-house dataset (N=200) of the PCa detection maps among all models compared to ground truth (GT).

### 3.2. Quantitative results

Model	Score	AUC	AP	Type
<b>U-Mamba MTL (ours)</b>	<b>0.735</b>	0.843	0.622	Mamba
nnDetection	0.734	<b>0.885</b>	0.582	CNN
U-Net	0.731	0.829	0.633	CNN
U-Mamba	0.727	0.820	<b>0.635</b>	Mamba
nnU-Net	0.714	0.818	0.610	CNN
Swin UNETR	0.665	0.792	0.537	Transformer

Table 2: Results on PI-CAI hidden development set (N=100)

The evaluation of the models on the PI-CAI hidden development set (N=100) was acquired by submitting a docker container for each trained model to the challenge website

(Saha, 2025). Table 2 shows the quantitative results on the PI-CAI hidden development set where our U-Mamba MTL achieved the highest aggregated score.

Model	Score	AUC	AP	Type
U-Mamba MTL (ours)	<b>0.805±0.063</b>	<b>0.925±0.043</b>	<b>0.685±0.097</b>	Mamba
U-Mamba	0.799±0.060	0.923±0.044	0.674±0.089	Mamba
Swin UNETR	0.773±0.063	0.902±0.054	0.643±0.094	Transformer
nnDetection	0.765±0.064	0.920±0.045	0.610±0.099	CNN
U-Net	0.759±0.061	0.913±0.043	0.605±0.095	CNN
nnUNet	0.731±0.070	0.910±0.045	0.555±0.113	CNN

Table 3: Results from our in-house dataset N=200, where  $\pm$  refers to the largest difference from mean to the 95% confidence interval bounds, derived from 10.000 bootstrap samples (Jurdi et al., 2023).

Table 3 Shows the quantitative results on the out-of-distribution in-house dataset (N=200), where U-Mamba MTL achieves the highest score in all performance metrics.

#### 4. Discussion and Conclusion

This work shows that our U-Mamba MTL model outperformed the baseline state-of-the-art models for PCa detection in bpMRI. Additionally, our U-Mamba MTL model attains zonal segmentation performance on par with inter-reader variability, as evidenced by the results on the Prostate158 dataset (Appendix C).

Integrating zonal masks into the U-Mamba architecture using multi-task learning (MTL) demonstrated improvements over the unaltered U-Mamba in both our out-of-distribution in-house dataset (N=200) and the PI-CAI hidden development set (N=100), as measured by the aggregated score. Notably, the improvement on the in-house dataset was primarily attributed to the model’s enhanced ability to detect tumor regions, as reflected in the AP metric. However, quantitative results on the PI-CAI hidden tuning cohort indicated that the unaltered U-Mamba outperformed its MTL variant in terms of AP, while nnDetection achieved the highest AUC. While a multi-task loss weight balancing factor  $\beta$  of 0.2 yielded the best performance among the tested values (0.2 and 0.5), this hyperparameter warrants further investigation in future work.

Although our U-Mamba MTL model does outperform all introduced baselines in terms of the aggregated score on the PI-CAI hidden tuning cohort, it is important to note that other submissions to the PI-CAI leaderboard displayed superior performance, leaving our submission at 127th place out of 448 submissions at the time of writing. Testing on the PI-CAI hidden test set (N=1000), which is of higher quality than the hidden development cohort, is subject to further research.

In conclusion, the U-Mamba architecture’s enhanced long-range dependency modeling improved PCa detection in bpMRI. Additionally, we demonstrated that integrating zonal masks via multi-task learning further enhanced PCa detection performance.



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## Appendix A. Clinical Information

Table 4 contains the clinical information for the datasets used in this study and their origin.

	PI-CAI Training cohort			PI-CAI Hidden tuning cohort			In-House cohort
	RUMC	ZGT	PCNN	RUMC	ZGT	PCNN	STOH
Sites	2	1	8	2	1	3	1
Patients	792	346	338	40	30	30	200
Median age, years	65 (60–69)	67 (62–72)	68 (63–72)	64 (58–70)	66 (61–71)	66 (60–74)	66 (60–69)
Median prostate-specific antigen, ng/mL	9 (6–14)	7 (5–11)	9 (6–12)	8 (5–11)	8 (6–11)	9 (6–14)	7 (5–12)
Median prostate volume, mL	63 (45–88)	49 (36–70)	50 (35–70)	64 (46–91)	46 (35–54)	42 (30–65)	50 (36–71)
Field strength, Tesla	1.5, 3	3	1.5, 3	3	3	1.5, 3	3
Cases	800	350	350	40	30	30	200
Clinically significant prostate cancer (Gleason grade group $\geq 2$ )	236 (30%)	80 (23%)	109 (31%)	16 (40%)	12 (40%)	13 (43%)	80 (40%)
Positive MRI lesions	614	186	287	21	25	33	131
PI-RADS 3	149 (24%)	32 (17%)	65 (23%)	4 (19%)	3 (12%)	7 (21%)	29 (23%)
PI-RADS 4	226 (37%)	71 (38%)	141 (49%)	10 (48%)	7 (28%)	17 (52%)	34 (25%)
PI-RADS 5	239 (39%)	83 (45%)	81 (28%)	7 (33%)	15 (60%)	9 (27%)	68 (52%)
Gleason grade group 1	150 (36%)	74 (45%)	87 (43%)	6 (24%)	13 (52%)	8 (35%)	23 (18%)
Gleason grade group 2	136 (33%)	46 (28%)	78 (39%)	8 (32%)	7 (28%)	8 (35%)	40 (30%)
Gleason grade group 3	64 (16%)	21 (13%)	24 (12%)	5 (20%)	1 (4%)	4 (17%)	39 (30%)
Gleason grade group 4	28 (7%)	6 (4%)	7 (3%)	2 (8%)	1 (4%)	2 (8%)	14 (10%)
Gleason grade group 5	33 (8%)	16 (10%)	6 (3%)	4 (16%)	3 (12%)	1 (4%)	15 (12%)

Table 4: Clinical variables and statistics for the PI-CAI hidden tuning and in-house cohorts are presented as n, n (%), or median (IQR), unless otherwise specified. Abbreviations: PCNN – Prostaat Centrum Noord-Nederland, PI-RADS – Prostate Imaging Reporting and Data System, PSA – prostate-specific antigen, RUMC – Radboud University Medical Center, STOH – St. Olav’s Hospital, Trondheim University Hospital, ZGT – Ziekenhuisgroep Twente ([Saha et al., 2024](#)).

## Appendix B. Data Augmentation

Table 5 contains the augmentations used for training and validation of the models used in this study. All augmentations were implemented using MONAI ([Consortium, 2024](#)).

Augmentation	Parameter
Spacing*	(0.5mm, 0.5mm, 3.0mm)
Crop or Pad*	(256, 256, 20†)
Z-score normalization*	Channel wise
Random flip	Along each axis
Random Gaussian Smoothing	sigma=(0.5, 1.0)
Random Scale Intensity	10%
Random Shift Intensity	10%
Random Gaussian Noise	mean=0, std=0.1
Random Affine	rotate=(0.15, 0.15, 0)

Table 5: Dataset augmentations. \* denotes that the augmentation is used for all splits, the rest is used only for the training split. † denotes that the Z dimension was changed to 32 for Swin UNETR as this is the lowest size for the architecture.

## Appendix C. Zonal Segmentation

Although the zonal segmentation task for our U-MambaMTL model is deemed as an auxiliary task, these masks might be useful for downstream tasks given sufficient quality. In order to assess the accuracy of the zonal masks, inference was performed on the 200 patients from the in-house dataset and the 158 patients from the Prostate158 dataset. The predicted segmentation masks are then compared to the ground truth using the Dice Score (DSC) metric (Table 4). Please note that the DSC is compared to reader 1 in the P158 dataset.

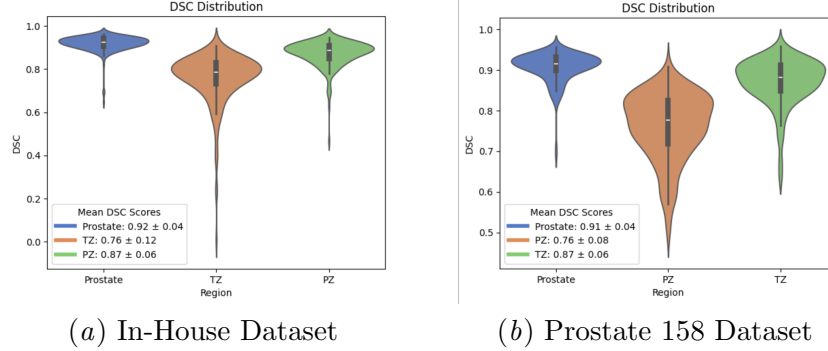


Figure 4: Dice score distributions for prostate zones for the U-Mamba MTL model

The auxiliary task of zonal segmentation within the U-Mamba MTL architecture yielded strong results on both our in-house dataset and the Prostate158 dataset. Specifically, our model achieved DSC scores of 0.76 and 0.87 for the peripheral zone (PZ) and transition zone (TZ), respectively, aligning closely with reported inter-reader variability ( $DSC_{PZ} = 0.75$ ,  $DSC_{TZ} = 0.87$ ). Notably, except for the ProstateX subset (N=346) of the PI-CAI Training set (N=1500), all zonal masks were AI-generated, indicating that the model’s zonal segmentation performance is largely a product of weak supervision.