

STEMedicine



Vol 2 • Issue 8 • Oct 2021

ISSN 2705-1188

Convolutional neural network
for disease detection

STEMedicine

stemedicine.org

Multiple sclerosis detection via 6-layer stochastic pooling convolutional neural network and multiple-way data augmentation

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<https://doi.org/10.37175/stemedicine.v2i8.101>

ABSTRACT

Background: Multiple sclerosis is one of most widespread autoimmune neuroinflammatory diseases which mainly damages body function such as movement, sensation, and vision. Despite of conventional clinical presentation, brain magnetic resonance imaging of white matter lesions is often applied to diagnose multiple sclerosis at the early stage.

Methods: In this article, we proposed a 6-layer stochastic pooling convolutional neural network (CNN) with multiple-way data augmentation for multiple sclerosis detection in brain magnetic resonance imaging. Our approach does not demand hand-crafted features unlike those traditional machine learning methods. Via application of stochastic pooling and multiple-way data augmentation, our 6-layer CNN achieved equivalent performance against those deep learning methods which consist of so many layers and parameters that ordinarily bring difficulty to training. Further, we also conducted ablation experiments to examine the contribution of stochastic pooling and multiple-way data augmentation to the original CNN model.

Results: The results showed that this 6-layer CNN obtained a sensitivity of $95.98 \pm 0.46\%$, a specificity of $95.67 \pm 0.92\%$, and an accuracy of $95.82 \pm 0.58\%$. According to comparison experiments, our results are better than state-of-the-art approaches.

Conclusion: Our scheme of stochastic pooling and multiple-way data augmentation enhanced the original 6-layer CNN model compared to those using maximum pooling or average pooling and inadequate data augmentation.

Keywords: Multiple sclerosis · Convolutional neural network · Stochastic pooling · Data augmentation · Magnetic resonance imaging

Introduction

Multiple sclerosis (MS) is an autoimmune disease characterized by demyelinating inflammatory white matter lesions of the central nervous system. MS does harm for patient's health by impeding nerve-signal transmitted

between brain and other parts of body. It often involves periventricular white matter, spinal cord, brainstem, cerebellum, and optic nerve. Multiple sclerosis may cause loss of muscle coordination, impaired vision, and loss of body function to people. And it is still not clear about its etiology and pathogenesis, which needs further study by medical researchers. Multiple sclerosis can be divided into four categories: (i) relapsing-remitting MS, (ii) secondary-progressive MS, (iii) primary-progressive MS, and (iv) progressive-relapsing MS. Relapsing-remitting MS (R-R) is most commonly observed in clinic, accounting for

Received: Aug 27, 2021; Accepted: Sep 16, 2021.

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around 85% of the total. R-R patients usually endure several times of relapse while in remission period the condition is stable. Secondary-progressive MS (S-P) is derived from R-R gradually. About 80% of R-R patients lead to S-P within twenty-five years and the condition would not be relieved like what it occurs in R-R period. Unlike the R-R and S-P MS, primary-progressive MS (P-P) skips the beginning stage. Patient's condition is aggravated since firstly affected by multiple sclerosis. This category of MS accounts for almost 10% of the total. As for progress-relapsing (P-R) MS, it is rarely seen in clinic. As we can see, R-R and S-P take major proportion of multiple sclerosis. If patients receive effective and suitable treatment in the early stage of MS, it will decrease the chance of turning from R-R to S-P which means patients could suffer less relapse and pain. Therefore, detection for multiple sclerosis as soon as possible is momentous to doctors fighting against multiple sclerosis.

Though researchers realized the significance of diagnosing multiple sclerosis in the early stage, it is not effortless to identify MS from healthy people accurately. In terms of clinical manifestations, multiple sclerosis is similar with other white matter diseases including disseminated encephalomyelitis (ADEM), acute cerebral infarction (ACI) and neuromyelitis optica (NMO). Under this circumstance, researchers had to look for other techniques to improve the success rate of MS diagnosis. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is often utilized for the diagnosis of MS due to its characteristics of less ionizing radiation damage to human body, clear soft tissue imaging quality, and the ability to obtain original three-dimensional cross-sectional images without reconstruction. In the meanwhile, scientists also realized that computer-aided diagnosis was playing an increasingly important role in the field of medical image analysis. The methods applying computer vision and digital image processing to brain MRI have surpassed humans in diagnosing diseases such as Alzheimer's (1), epilepsy (2), Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease (3), and cerebral glioma (4). Therefore, the application of computer vision and digital image processing in craniocerebral MRI to improve the diagnosis rate of multiple sclerosis has become the focus of researchers. For example, Wang, et al. (5) proposed a method for multiple sclerosis detection based on biorthogonal wavelet transform, RBF kernel principal component analysis, and logistic regression. Nayak, et al. (6) presented an approach using discrete wavelet transform and AdaBoost with random forests. Recently, Zhang, et al. (7) applied dropout and parametric ReLU in building convolutional neural network (CNN) for MS identification. Eitel, et al. (8) proposed their CNN-based method for MS detection with layer-wise relevance propagation. Alijamaat, et al. (9) put forward wavelet CNN for MS detection in brain MRI images. Han, et al. (10) used adaptive genetic algorithm (AGA) for MS recognition. Han, et al. (11) employed particle swarm optimization (PSO) for MS recognition. Tang (12) used a five-layer CNN (5I-CNN) for MS detection.

These previous works could be divided into two

categories. The first category of methods (5, 6) is based on traditional hand-crafted features. They need to coin specific features manually and it is usually boring and time-consuming. The second category of methods (7-9) is based on deep learning. It is common that they adopted deep neural networks which may contain over fifty layers or even two hundred layers to conduct the classification. These huge neural networks, nevertheless, are hard to train and cost too much computational resources (mainly GPUs) which are expensive for some researchers to afford.

In this study, we proposed an approach based on 6-layer convolutional neural network to identify brain MRI images for diagnosis of multiple sclerosis. Compared with the traditional methods based on manual feature extraction, our approach applies CNN. So it has stronger capability of feature extraction and object classification and also avoid the complicated process of manual feature selection. Compared with the methods based on deep neural network, our model structure has only six layers, instead of dozens or even hundreds of layers. Large networks tend to be time-consuming, laborious, and difficult to reach convergence, and also easy to overfit, while our 6-layer neural network does not have these disadvantages. The second strength of the proposed 6-layer CNN is that it adopts stochastic pooling, which brings better generalization performance compared to those deep neural networks using max pooling. And crucially, we conducted up to sixteen methods of data augmentation. To the best of our knowledge, there is no other previous work in a model of diagnosing MS using so many ways of data augmentation. Our approach has the most diverse and comprehensive methods of data augmentation at present. In general, the proposed approach has the characteristics of simple network architecture, fast training speed and easy convergence. At the same time, due to the application of stochastic pooling and multiple-way data augmentation, this approach achieved competitive results in the detection of multiple sclerosis on brain MRI images.

In the next chapter of the paper, we will first introduce the experiment data and the preprocessing operation for the data set. Data and preprocessing are also vital for building a successful neural network of vision task. In the third chapter, we will present the CNN architecture, stochastic pooling, and multiple-way data augmentation step by step. Then we will show the design of our experiments, including validation and evaluation. In the fourth chapter, we will give discussion of experimental results. It is worth noting that our experimental results contain ablation experimental results to demonstrate how much stochastic pooling and multiple-way data augmentation we applied could boost the performance of a simple CNN in MS diagnosis. Finally, in the fifth chapter, we will provide the summary of this study and put forward some possible improvement directions in the future.

Dataset Sources

We acquired the same dataset as (7). This dataset totally

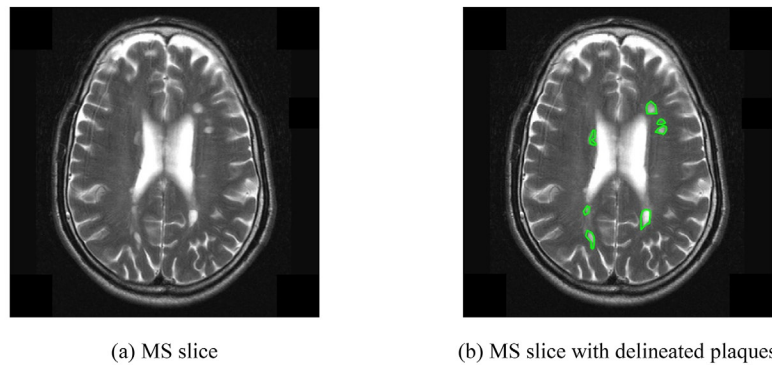


Figure 1. Samples of our dataset.

consists of 1357 MRI images in which 676 slices (13) are multiple sclerosis images and 681 slices (7) are health controls. We randomly selected two samples from the dataset as shown in **Figure 1**. **Figure 1** (a) presented one original MS slice and **Figure 1** (b) described the delineated plaques on **Figure 1** (a). We also provided **Table 1** to illustrate the demographic characteristics of the dataset.

Data preprocessing

As we mentioned, our dataset was combined from two sources of images. This would lead to difference of image characteristics between two sources of images on account of factors such as scanning equipment and reconstruction process. In order to restrain the difference, we need to apply contrast normalization technique to balance the two sources of images into a same range of gray-level intensity. In this study, we adopted histogram stretching (14) as our method of contrast normalization because of its effectiveness and simplicity.

The histogram stretching method could be presented as following:

$$\varphi(x,y) = (g(x,y) - g_1)/(g_2 - g_1) \quad (1)$$

$$g_2 = \max(g(x,y)) \quad (2)$$

$$g_1 = \min(g(x,y)) \quad (3)$$

in which parameters are defined in **Table 2**.

Via this operation, we can observe that the distribution of gray-level intensity in two sources of images are stretched to the same field. As a result, we as far as possible formed the two sources of images into one entire dataset and avoided the negative influence on subsequent process.

Convolutional Neural Network

Pooling Layer

Pooling layer, also named as subsampling or downsampling, is often used behind of convolutional layer in a classic architecture of CNN (15). Its main purposes include reducing feature dimension of convolutional layer output (16), suppressing noise, reducing quantity of parameters and computation cost, and dampening overfitting (17).

Unlike most of other neural network using CNN (18) as backbone, our 6-layer CNN applied stochastic pooling rather than max pooling or average pooling. Suppose there existed a pooling window upon the region of feature map which covered k elements. Each element of feature map was recorded as v_i , and i was the index of element (19). After the pooling window slide upon this region, the output of pooling operation was written as u . Then the max pooling operation could be described as:

$$u = \max(v_i) \quad (4)$$

which means max pooling always selects the biggest element within a region of feature map (20). The average pooling operation could be described as:

$$u = (\sum v_i)/k \quad (5)$$

which means average pooling adopts the mean value of k elements. In stochastic pooling, we first calculated the probability map of the chosen region.

$$p_i = v_i/\sum v_i \quad (6)$$

Then stochastic pooling would choose the value of one element as sampling value according to the probability distribution (21). The p_i was bigger, v_i was more likely chosen as the sampling value, but not definitely. The mechanism could be described as:

$$u = v_i, i \sim P(p_1, \dots, p_i, \dots, p_k) \quad (7)$$

Figure 2 illustrated the comparison between max pooling,

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the dataset.

Dataset	Source	Slices	Subjects	Male/Female	Age
Health controls [7]	private	681	26	12/14	33.5 ± 8.3
Multiple sclerosis [13]	eHealth	676	38	17/21	34.1 ± 10.5

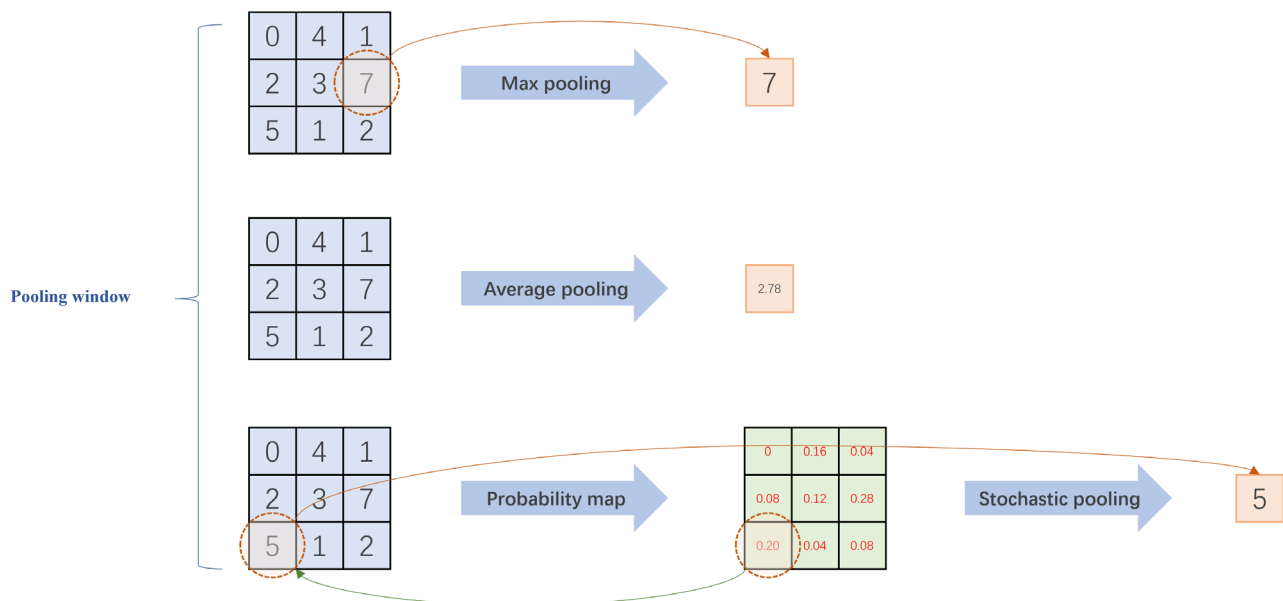


Figure 2. Comparison of max pooling, average pooling, and stochastic pooling.

average pooling, and stochastic pooling.

Structure of our six-layer CNN

Our proposed CNN structure consisted of three convolutional layers and three fully-connected layers (22). Generally speaking, convolutional layers are meant to extract features while fully-connected layers are used for classification. Each convolutional layer was followed by activation function and a stochastic pooling layer (23, 24). Activation function was applied for nonlinear transformation after convolution calculation. During the procedure of activation function and pooling layer, there exists no learnable weights (25). Hence, we usually do not count them in neural network structure. As it is shown in **Table 3**, three convolutional layers and three stochastic pooling layers formed the 3-layer convolutional network in the structure.

In our 6-layer CNN structure, it contained three fully-connected layers and three dropout layers. Ahead of each fully-connected layer, a dropout layer was inserted to make CNN more robust to training. The retention probabilities of three dropout layers are set as 0.5, 0.5, and 0.5, respectively, by trial-and-error method. **Table 4**

presented the structure of fully-connected layers in our proposed model. At last, we offered **Figure 3** to portray the whole structure of the proposed 6-layer stochastic pooling CNNs.

Multiple-way data augmentation

It is known that the learning process of neural network cannot leave the support of massive data samples. On most occasions, the more training data are fed to neural network, the better model we attain (26, 27). However, in reality, data samples is often insufficient. Lack of samples will not only impair the model to obtain the best performance, but also lead to difficult training and frequent overfitting. Data augmentation (DA) technology (28, 29) is aimed at expanding the original small dataset into a larger one by means of digital signal processing, so as to alleviate the problem of insufficient samples. In previous work, data augmentation has been applied but with only five ways (rotation, scaling, Gaussian noise, random translation, and Gamma correction) (30). It is our contribution that we exploited up to 18-way data augmentation methods. As far as we are aware, this study applied most ways of data augmentation among existing

Table 2. Parameters in histogram stretching.

Parameter	Meaning
x	Horizontal coordinate in an image
y	Vertical coordinate in an image
$g(x,y)$	The original gray-level intensity in location (x,y)
g_2	The highest gray-level intensity in an image
g_1	The lowest gray-level intensity in an image
$\varphi(x,y)$	The stretched gray-level intensity in location (x,y)

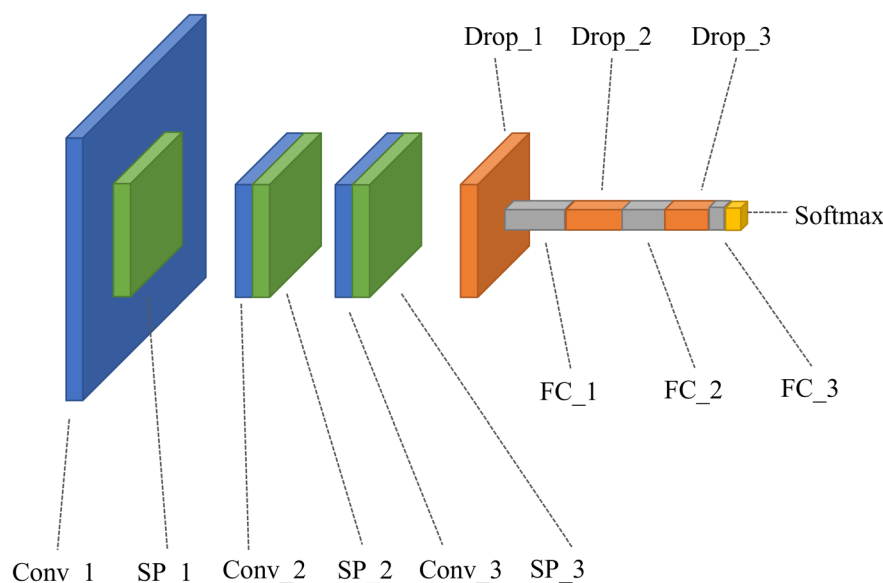


Figure 3. Structure of 6-layer stochastic pooling CNN.

CNN-based MS detection approaches (31). Our data augmentation methods contained three categories that were geometric-based methods, noise-based methods, and photometric-based methods. At first, there were nine ways of data augmentation (32). Then via reflecting these augmented samples horizontally, we got double sets of data augmentation methods which contained twenty ways in total. **Table 5** provided a list of data augmentation methods we used.

Geometric-based methods

In geometry, geometric-based methods are also named

as affine transformation, which indicates transforming one existing vector space to another one (33). Affine transformation is combined with a linear transformation plus a shift (34). Assume an original vector space was recorded as \vec{v} , and the linear transformation could be described as a matrix written as A , meanwhile the shift was written as \vec{b} . Then the new transformed vector space \vec{u} was calculated as below.

$$\vec{u} = A\vec{v} + \vec{b} \quad (8)$$

Back to digital image processing, affine transformation means transform points in the image from their previous

Table 3. Convolutional layers.

Layer	Filter size	Channel	Filters	Stride
Conv_1	7×7	1	1	2
SP_1	3×3			2
Conv_2	3×3	16	16	2
SP_2	3×3			1
Conv_3	3×3	32	32	2
SP_3	3×3			1

Table 4. Fully-connected layers.

Layer	Weights	Bias	Probability
Drop_1			0.5
FC_1	200×16384	200×1	
Drop_2			0.5
FC_2	100×200	100×1	
Drop_3			0.5
FC_3	2×100	2×1	



Figure 4. Data augmentation results.

coordinates to new ones. Assume the coordinates of the raw image were recorded as $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, and the transformed

coordinates were written as $\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then the transformation process could be described as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & \vec{b} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (9)$$

in which $\begin{bmatrix} A & \vec{b} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ was called affine transformation matrix and was also frequently written as $\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

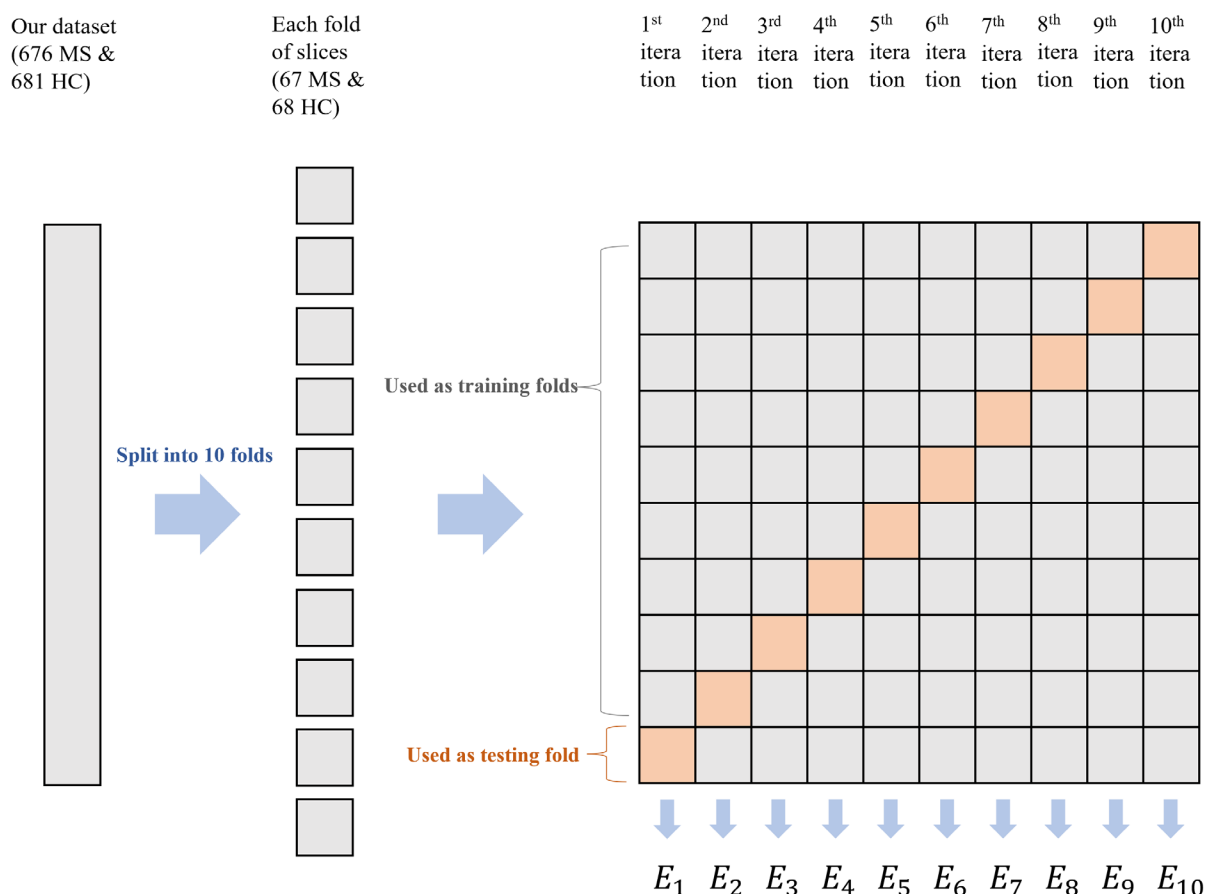


Figure 5. 10-fold cross validation.

Every affine transformation can be represented through particular affine transformation matrix. Here we introduce six ways of affine transformation that employed in this study.

Horizontal flipping. It is a geometric transformation operation performing on the raw image to generate a mirror image which is symmetrical about y-axis (35). Compared to vertical flipping, horizontal flipping is more often adopted and has been tested effectiveness on popular datasets such as ImageNet and CIFAR-10 (36). The affine transformation matrix of horizontal flipping could be written as $\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Thus, we get the transformed coordinates as follows.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (10)$$

Horizontal shear. It is defined as changing location of each point in the image horizontally, along the x-axis. And the amount of displacement along the x-axis is determined by each point's coordinate of y-axis (37). The affine transformation matrix of horizontal shear could be written as $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \tan \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. So we attain the transformed

coordinates as below.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \tan \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (11)$$

Figure 4 (a) showed examples of horizontal shear.

Vertical shear. In contrast to horizontal shear, vertical shear is defined as changing location of each point in the image vertically, along the y-axis. And the amount of displacement along the y-axis is determined by each point's coordinate of x-axis. The affine transformation matrix of vertical shear could be written as $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \tan \alpha & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Therefore, we obtain the transformed coordinates as follows.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \tan \alpha & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (12)$$

Figure 4 (b) showed examples of vertical shear.

Rotation. Like its name, it rotates an image around a fixed point. In most cases, rotation is around the central point of the image in data augmentation. The affine transformation matrix of rotation could be written as

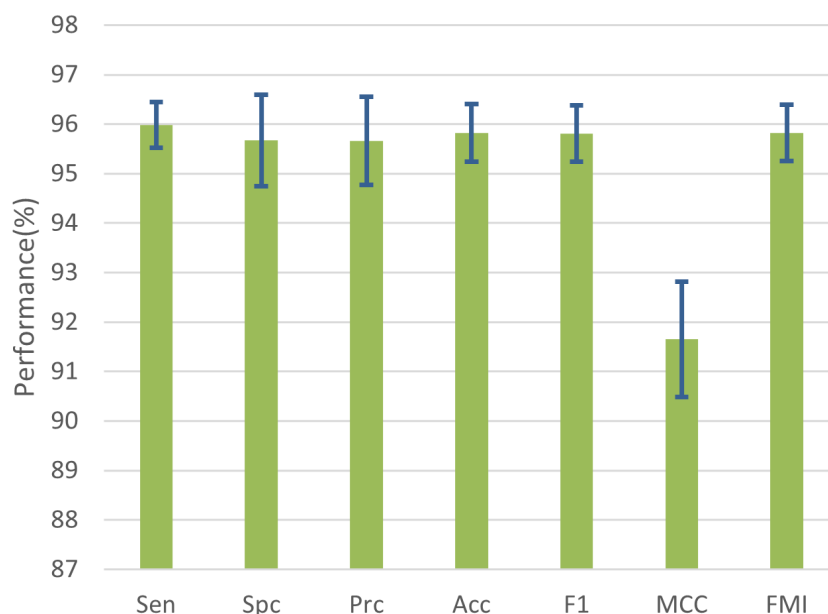


Figure 6. Error bar of stochastic pooling results.

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & c \\ 0 & 1 & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then the transformation operation could be described as below.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & c \\ 0 & 1 & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (15)$$

Figure 4 (e) showed examples of random translation.

Noise-based methods

In data augmentation, noise-based methods are defined as injecting noise to image samples. Via adding noise into images, training dataset would enhance its sampling variance so as to overcome the lack of data.

Gaussian noise. As one the most commonly-used noises, Gaussian noise is often added to raw images in data augmentation. Mark z as the gray level, z obeys the probability density function as follow:

$$p(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(z-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2} \quad (16)$$

where μ represents the mean gray value, and σ means standard deviation of z . Figure 4 (f) showed examples of Gaussian noise.

Salt-and-pepper noise. It is a widely-used noise in data augmentation as well. In salt-and-pepper noise augmentation, z obeys the probability density function which could be depicted as:

$$p(z) = \begin{cases} P_a & z = a \\ P_b & z = b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

where a and b are threshold values for salt noise and

pepper noise. Figure 4 (g) showed examples of salt-and-pepper noise.

Speckle noise. As a granular interference, speckle noise naturally occurs in radar or ultrasound images. Suppose F was the observed image, f was the image without noise, N_m referred to multiplicative noise, and N_a referred to additive noise. Then speckle noise could be defined as follows.

$$F = f + N_m f + N_a \quad (18)$$

Figure 4(h) showed examples of speckle noise.

Photometric-based method

Gamma correction. In the beginning, Gamma correction was made for luminance adjustment in imaging or display system (38). Because human's perception of luminance is not linear with light power, but with a relation of power function. And the exponent of this power function was recorded as γ . The gamma correction is usually written as follows.

$$v_{out} = A v_{in}^\gamma \quad (19)$$

In this equation, v_{out} represents output gray value and v_{in} represents input gray value. When $\gamma < 1$, we often regard this gamma correction as gamma compression. While $\gamma > 1$, we regard it as gamma expansion (39). In this study, we applied gamma correction on raw images of datasets as one of data augmentation methods to enlarge our training samples. Figure 4 (i) showed examples of Gamma correction.

In the end we provided Figure 4 to illustrate effects of multiple-way data augmentation.

10-fold Cross Validation

In this study, we utilized 10-fold cross validation as our method of dataset division. We divided the whole dataset into ten folds (40). Each fold contains 67 multiple

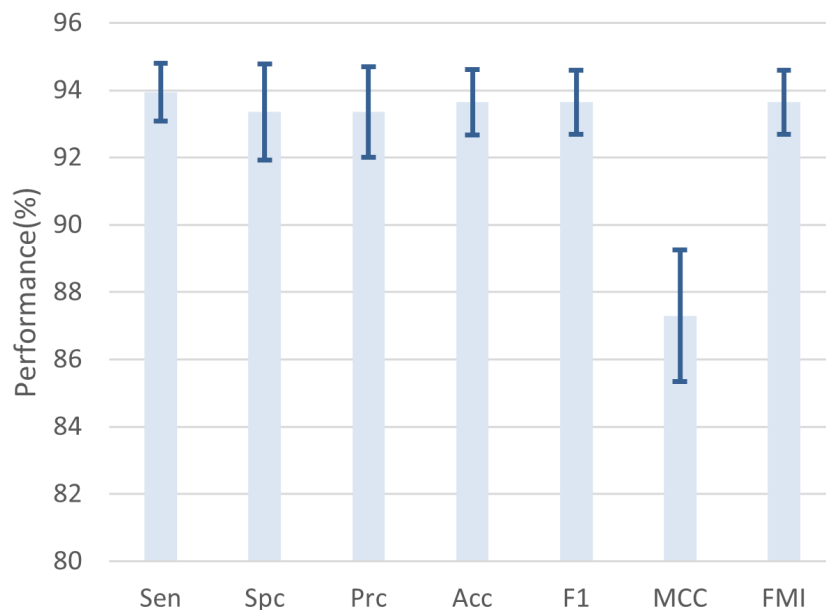


Figure 7. Error bar of average pooling results.

sclerosis slices and 68 health controls. In every iteration, we adopted nine folds of data as training set while the other one fold as testing set and repeated this procedure ten times. **Figure 5** described this process of splitting the dataset into ten folds and repeating training-testing for ten iterations.

In the end, we obtained ten expectations of model performance and calculated the final expectation by averaging the expectations of each iteration (41). This calculation could be written as below:

$$E = \frac{1}{10} \sum_{i=1}^{10} E_i \quad (20)$$

Measure

In this study, we applied confusion matrix (shown in **Table 6**) to measure the performance.

In confusion matrix, we counted true positive (TP), true negative (TN), false positive (FP), and false negative (FN) and used these values to calculate sensitivity (SEN), specificity (SPC), precision (PRC), accuracy (ACC), F_1 score, Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC), and Fowlkes-Mallows index (FMI). The calculation processes were described as below:

$$SEN = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \quad (21)$$

$$SPC = \frac{TN}{TN + FP} \quad (22)$$

$$PRC = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \quad (23)$$

$$ACC = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN} \quad (24)$$

$$F_1 = \frac{2PRC * SEN}{PRC + SEN} \quad (25)$$

$$MCC = \frac{TP \times TN - FP \times FN}{\sqrt{(TP + FP)(TP + FN)(TN + FP)(TN + FN)}} \quad (26)$$

$$FMI = \frac{TP}{\sqrt{(TP + FP)(TP + FN)}} \quad (27)$$

In addition to original measures of sensitivity, specificity, precision, accuracy, F_1 score, MCC, and FMI, we calculated the standard deviation and the average based on these seven measures for further performance comparison experiments as well.

Results and Discussions

Statistical Analysis

Table 7 showed the results of 10 runs. Our approach based on 6-layer stochastic pooling CNNs and multiple-way data augmentation secured a sensitivity of $95.98 \pm 0.46\%$, a specificity of $95.67 \pm 0.92\%$, a precision of $95.66 \pm 0.89\%$, an accuracy of $95.82 \pm 0.58\%$, a F_1 score of $95.81 \pm 0.57\%$, a MCC of $91.65 \pm 1.16\%$, and a FMI of $95.82 \pm 0.57\%$. Also, we gave **Figure 6** to present the error bar of 10-run results.

Pooling Methods Comparison

In order to inspect into the contribution stochastic pooling made on the model's performance, we conducted comparison experiments which replaced stochastic pooling with average pooling and max pooling respectively in proposed CNNs. As we can see in **Table 8**, our 6-layer CNN achieved a sensitivity of $93.93 \pm 0.86\%$, a specificity of $93.35 \pm 1.42\%$, a precision of $93.35 \pm 1.35\%$, an accuracy of $93.64 \pm 0.98\%$, a F_1 score of 93.64

Table 5. 18-way data augmentation.

DA category	Method	Representation
Geometric-based methods		
	Horizontal flipping	$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
	Horizontal shear	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \tan \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
	Vertical shear	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \tan \alpha & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
	Rotation	$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \beta & \sin \beta & c \\ -\sin \beta & \cos \beta & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
	Scaling	$\begin{bmatrix} r & 0 & c \\ 0 & r & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
	Random translation	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & c \\ 0 & 1 & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
Noise-based methods		
	Gaussian noise	$p(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(z-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$
	Salt-and-pepper noise	$p(z) = \begin{cases} P_a & z = a \\ P_b & z = b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
	Speckle noise	$F = f + N_m f + N_a$
Photometric-based method		
	Gamma correction	$v_{out} = Av_{in}^\gamma$

$\pm 0.96\%$, a MCC of $87.29 \pm 1.96\%$, and a FMI of $93.64 \pm 0.96\%$. And the error bar of results using average pooling was shown in **Figure 7**.

As it was presented in **Table 9**, with max pooling, the proposed CNN obtained a sensitivity of $94.06 \pm 1.54\%$, a specificity of $94.56 \pm 1.44\%$, a precision of $94.54 \pm 1.41\%$, an accuracy of $94.31 \pm 1.27\%$, a F1 score of $94.30 \pm 1.29\%$, a MCC of $88.64 \pm 2.54\%$, and a FMI of $94.30 \pm 1.28\%$. **Figure 8** depicted the error bar of results using max pooling.

Via these comparison experiments, we could observe that using stochastic pooling earned best performance in almost every measure including sensitivity, specificity,

precision, accuracy, F1 score, MCC, and FMI. To make it convenient for presenting the advantage of stochastic pooling, we drew **Figure 9**. It revealed that our model achieved improvement of nearly 2% in each measure when applying stochastic pooling compared with results using average pooling or max pooling.

Comparison with State-of-the-art Algorithms

We compared our 6-layer stochastic pooling CNN with state-of-the-art algorithms for multiple sclerosis detection such as AGA (10), PSO (11), and 5l-CNN (12). These three state-of-the-art algorithms were tested with the same dataset as ours. The comparison results was given in **Table 10**.

Table 6. Confusion matrix of binary classification.

		Predicted	
		Positive	Negative
Actual	Positive	TP	FN
	Negative	FP	TN

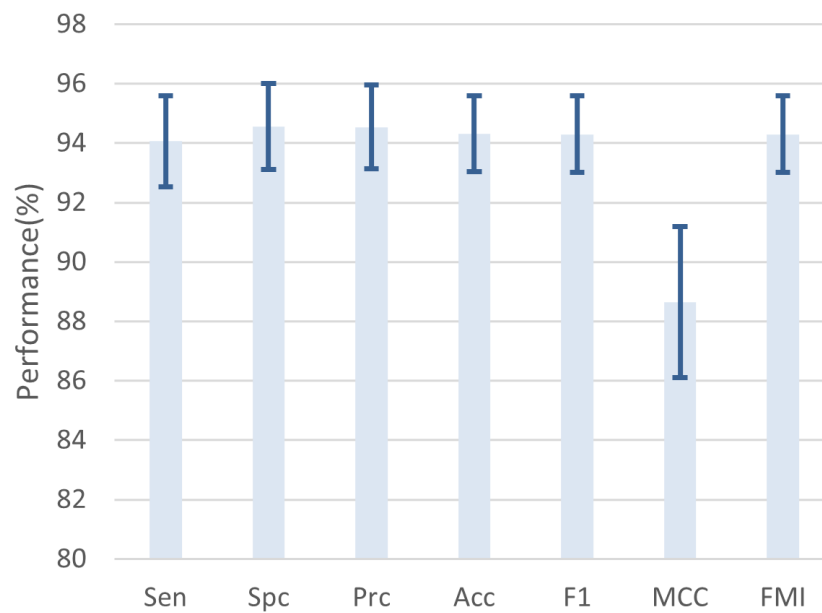


Figure 8. Error bar of max pooling results.

Table 7. Results of ten runs.

Run	Sen	Spc	Prc	Acc	F1	MCC	FMI
1	95.86	95.45	95.43	95.65	95.65	91.31	95.65
2	96.60	96.77	96.74	96.68	96.67	93.37	96.67
3	95.71	96.33	96.28	96.02	95.99	92.04	95.99
4	95.41	95.59	95.56	95.50	95.48	91.01	95.48
5	96.89	95.89	95.90	96.39	96.39	92.78	96.40
6	96.15	96.92	96.87	96.54	96.51	93.08	96.51
7	95.56	96.04	96.99	95.80	95.77	91.60	95.77
8	96.01	94.42	94.47	95.21	95.23	90.43	95.23
9	95.86	95.15	95.15	95.50	95.50	91.01	95.51
10	95.71	94.13	94.18	94.92	94.94	89.84	94.94
MSD	95.98 ± 0.46	95.67 ± 0.92	95.66 ± 0.89	95.82 ± 0.58	95.81 ± 0.57	91.65 ± 1.16	95.82 ± 0.57

Table 8. Experimental results using average pooling.

Run	Sen	Spc	Prc	Acc	F1	MCC	FMI
1	93.05	92.51	92.50	92.78	92.77	85.56	92.77
2	95.27	94.27	94.29	94.77	94.78	89.54	94.78
3	93.05	92.95	92.91	93.00	92.98	86.00	92.98
4	92.90	94.13	94.01	93.52	93.45	87.04	93.45
5	94.08	91.63	91.77	92.85	92.91	85.73	92.92
6	94.38	91.92	92.06	93.15	93.21	86.32	93.21
7	93.34	91.63	91.72	92.48	92.52	84.98	92.53
8	95.12	95.45	95.40	95.28	95.26	90.57	95.26
9	94.38	95.15	95.08	94.77	94.73	89.54	94.73
10	93.79	93.83	93.79	93.81	93.79	87.62	93.79
MSD	93.93 ± 0.86	93.35 ± 1.42	93.35 ± 1.35	93.64 ± 0.98	93.64 ± 0.96	87.29 ± 1.96	93.64 ± 0.96

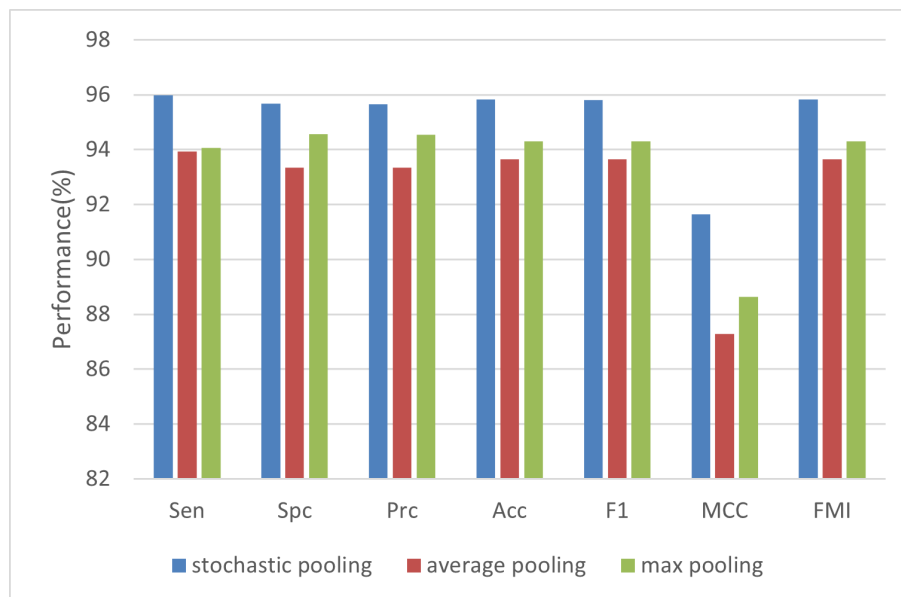


Figure 9. Pooling methods comparison.

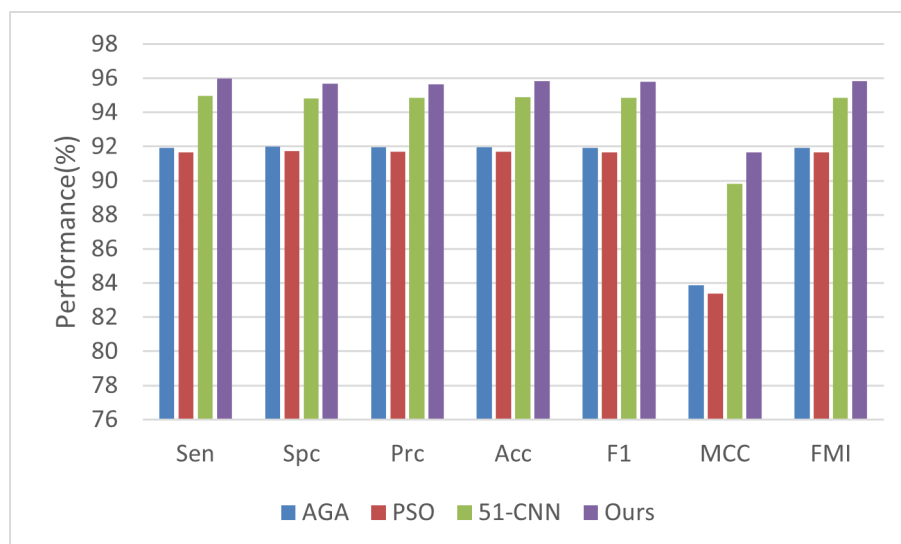


Figure 10. Comparison plot.

Table 9. Experimental results using max pooling.

Run	Sen	Spc	Prc	Acc	F1	MCC	FMI
1	95.00	94.69	94.70	94.84	94.85	89.69	94.85
2	95.00	95.00	95.00	95.00	95.00	90.00	95.00
3	93.12	95.31	95.21	94.22	94.15	88.46	94.16
4	94.69	95.62	95.58	95.16	95.13	90.32	95.13
5	95.31	96.88	96.83	96.09	96.06	92.20	96.07
6	95.31	95.94	95.91	95.62	95.61	91.25	95.61
7	95.31	92.50	92.71	93.91	93.99	87.85	94.00
8	93.12	93.12	93.12	93.12	93.12	86.25	93.12
9	93.12	93.12	93.12	93.12	93.12	86.25	93.12
10	90.62	93.44	93.25	92.03	91.92	84.10	91.93
MSD	94.06 ± 1.54	94.56 ± 1.44	94.54 ± 1.41	94.31 ± 1.27	94.30 ± 1.29	88.64 ± 2.54	94.30 ± 1.28

Table 10. Comparison with SOTA.

Method	Sen	Spc	Prc	Acc	F1	MCC	FMI
AGA [10]	91.91 ± 1.24	91.98 ± 1.36	91.97 ± 1.32	91.95 ± 1.19	91.92 ± 1.20	83.89 ± 2.41	91.92 ± 1.19
PSO [11]	91.67 ± 1.41	91.73 ± 0.77	91.70 ± 0.78	91.70 ± 0.97	91.67 ± 1.00	83.40 ± 1.98	91.67 ± 0.99
5l-CNN [12]	94.96 ± 1.43	94.82 ± 1.67	94.85 ± 1.62	94.89 ± 1.37	94.87 ± 1.37	89.83 ± 2.74	94.87 ± 1.37
Ours	95.98 ± 0.46	95.67 ± 0.92	95.66 ± 0.89	95.82 ± 0.58	95.81 ± 0.57	91.65 ± 1.16	95.82 ± 0.57

We also offered **Figure 10** to show our method's strength against state-of-the-art algorithms. We could observe that our proposed method acquired the best sensitivity, specificity, accuracy, F1 score, MCC, and FMI, surpassing the second-best algorithm by nearly 1% in every measure. Besides, our method gained the least standard deviation compared state-of-the-art algorithms. These results showed the effectiveness of our proposed approach.

There are some shortcomings of our proposed approach: (i) The dataset we used in this study is not abundant. We will seek for bigger datasets or collecting more sample images. (ii) We will try some new deep learning technologies in multiple sclerosis detection such as attention mechanism.

Conclusions

In this study, we proposed a novel framework for multiple sclerosis detection using 6-layer stochastic pooling CNN combined with multiple-way data augmentation. We added stochastic pooling in our framework and tested its superiority to other pooling methods via comparison experiments. We also proposed 18-way data augmentation methods including geometric-based methods, noise-based methods, and photometric-based methods. Our approach beat several state-of-the-art algorithms, attaining a sensitivity of $95.98 \pm 0.46\%$, a specificity of $95.67 \pm 0.92\%$, a precision of $95.66 \pm 0.89\%$, an accuracy of $95.82 \pm 0.58\%$, and a F1 score of $95.81 \pm 0.57\%$. The experimental results showed that our approach achieved highest performance in multiple sclerosis detection compared to several state-of-the-art algorithms.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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Alcoholic brain injury via 8-layer deep convolutional neural network

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<https://doi.org/10.37175/stemedicine.v2i8.97>

ABSTRACT

Alcohol can act quickly in the human body and alter mood and behavior. If people drink too much alcohol, it will accumulate in the liver and brain. To a certain extent, the symptoms of alcoholism will appear. So far, the main method of diagnosis of alcoholic brain injury is through MRI images by radiologists. However, this is a very subjective diagnosis. Radiologists could be influenced by external factors, resulting in diagnostic errors, such as physical discomfort, inattention, lack of rest, etc.. In the paper, we introduced a 8-layer deep convolutional neural network structure for alcoholic brain injury detection. Three fully connected layers, five pooling layers, and five convolution layers formed the proposed neural network structure. We proposed three improvements in this paper, (i) An automatic diagnosis method of alcoholic brain injury based on deep learning was proposed; (ii) We introduced Dropout to the proposed structure to improve robustness; (iii) Compared with other seven advanced approaches, the proposed 8-layer deep convolutional neural network structure is more efficient. The experimental results demonstrated that the specificity, sensitivity, accuracy, precision, FMI MCC and F1 were 96.20 ± 1.47 , 96.14 ± 1.99 , 96.17 ± 1.55 , 95.98 ± 1.54 , 96.06 ± 1.62 93.34 ± 3.11 , 96.05 ± 1.62 , respectively. Based on the comparison results, our method had the excellent performance. The proposed method can be used as one of the methods to detect alcoholic brain injury based on MRI images.

Keywords: Alcoholism · Deep convolution neural network · Dropout · MRI

Introduction

Alcohol, which is present in different proportions in various kinds of alcohol, can act quickly in the human body and alter mood and behavior. It can spread and distribute directly into the bloodstream throughout the body. The liver is where alcohol is mainly metabolized in the body. After entering the human body, a small amount of alcohol can be immediately discharged through the lungs or sweat glands. In the liver, the vast majority of alcohol reacts with alcohol dehydrogenase to produce acetaldehyde. People cannot metabolize alcohol indefinitely. If people drink too much alcohol, it

would accumulate in the liver and brain. When alcohol accumulates in the human body to a certain extent, it will lead to alcoholism. In medicine, alcoholism is medically divided into chronic and acute alcoholism. Acute alcoholism is the central nervous system dysfunction caused by heavy consumption of alcohol or alcoholic beverages over a period of time, which is usually manifested as abnormal behavior and consciousness. Severe damage to organ function can result in respiratory and circulatory failure, and then endanger life. Chronic alcoholism is a serious poisoning of the central nervous system caused by excessive drinking over a long period of time. The human body will not absorb and digest ethanol in alcohol. The ethanol in alcohol flows into the brain through the circulation of blood, further damages the nerve cells in the human brain, causes harm to the central nervous system, leads to the increase of inhibitory neurons, inhibit active neurons, and makes people slow to

Received: Aug 23, 2021; Accepted: Sep 12, 2021.

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respond. Once the excessive accumulation of ethanol in alcohol will cause irreparable damage to nerve cells. Patients with chronic alcoholism encephalopathy may have Wernicke's encephalopathy, Kosakoff syndrome, chronic alcoholic dementia, alcoholic delirium, alcoholic epilepsy, alcoholic psychotropic behavior disorder, and so on. Excessive drinking can also cause an alcoholic coma. Alcoholism is very common in some countries (e.g., Europe, America). Alcoholism is the third leading public health issue in the United States, after cardiovascular disease and cancer.

With the continuous research and development of deep learning, deep learning technology has been widely used in many fields, such as medicine. Lu proposed a radial-basis-function neural network (RBFNN) to detect pathological brains (1). S. Sudha used convolutional neural network (CNN) for automatic segmentation of RoI in medical imaging modalities such as carotid artery ultrasound images (2). Y.-C. Hsieh used VGG16 to find out breast MC clusters from the image. Moreover, they used Mask RCNN to find MCs from the clusters to remove the noise from the background (3). S. Kido developed an image-based computer-aided detection (CAdE) algorithm by use of regions with CNN features (R-CNN) for detection of lung abnormalities (4). K. Karthik used benchmark deep learning models to improve the quality of diagnostic images, through Super-resolution, for enabling faster and easier detection of anomalies that may be missed otherwise (5). Y. Bar explored the ability of CNN learned from a non-medical dataset to identify different types of pathologies in chest x-rays (6). The best performance was achieved using CNN and GIST features. C.-Y. Sun proposed a novel deformable cascade faster region-based convolutional neural networks (Faster R-CNN) to realize vascular plaque recognition in OCT images (7). W. S. Kim presented a new automatic CAC voxel classification model with multi-scale CNN architecture which can reflect the advantages of large receptive CNN and small receptive CNN (8). W. Li et al. demonstrated a new region-based convolutional neural network framework for multi-task prediction using an epithelial network head and a grading network head (9). Compared with a single-task model, their multi-task model can provide complementary contextual information, which contributes to better performance. L. Li, J introduced a new convolutional neural network structure for medical image denoising-deep neural network based on wavelet domain (deep wavelet denoising net, DWDN) (10).

In the field of AI applied to alcoholism, we have collected results from existing publications. Hou used Hu moment invariant (HMI) to identify alcoholism (11). Yang combined HMI with machine learning (ML) to identify pathological brains (12). Their method is used as a comparison basis in this study. Han proposed a Three-Segment Encoded Jaya (TSEJ) to identify alcoholism (13). Chen, et al. employed fractional Fourier transform (FrFT) to identify pathological brains (14). Their method is used as a comparison method. Qian used cat swarm optimization (CSO) to identify alcoholism (15).

Macdonald employed logistic regression (LR) to identify alcoholism (16). Chen used wavelet energy entropy (WEE) to identify alcoholism (17). Xie presented an AlexNet transfer learning model to identify alcoholism (18).

So far, the main method of diagnosis of alcoholic brain injury is through MRI images by radiologists. However, this is a very subjective diagnosis. Radiologists could be influenced by external factors, resulting in diagnostic errors, such as physical discomfort, inattention, lack of rest, etc.. This paper proposed 8-layer customized deep convolution neural network to address this issue. There are three improvements in this paper, (i) An automatic diagnosis method of alcoholic brain injury based on deep learning was proposed; (ii) We introduced Dropout to the proposed structure to improve stability and robustness; (iii) Compared with other seven advanced approaches, the proposed 8-layer deep convolutional neural network structure is more efficient.

The structure of paper is as follows: Section 2 introduces the materials, Section 3 talks about the basics of deep convolution neural network (DCNN), Section 4 describes the experimental and comparison results, conclusion is included in Section 5.

Dataset

Subjects

We strictly checked and excluded the data of the research subjects. Participants were first interviewed by computer diagnosis. We would exclude participants with serious mental illness. We would exclude participants who are not in a coma for more than 15 minutes caused by schizophrenia, depression, and alcoholism. If participants suffered from stroke, epilepsy, AIDS and Wernicke-Korsak of syndrome, we excluded them. Finally, the first language of the participants was mandarin, which was also one of requirements.

Participants can participate in the experiment through Nanjing Brain Hospital and Jiangsu Provincial People's Hospital or by Internet advertisements and flyer. We spent three years collecting data from 235 research subjects. All the data in this paper were agreed by the hospitals and participants. There were 121 non-alcoholic control participants in the study, including 59 males and 62 females. In addition, we collected 114 chronic alcohol participants (males-58, females-56) who had long-term abstinence.

Scan

The scanning instrument in this paper was Siemens VERIO TIM 3.0T Magnetic Resonance Scanner. During the scan, 235 participants kept calm and laid down with their eyes closed. MP-RAGE sequence was used to get a total of 216 transection slices of the participants' brain. The imaging parameters were TI = 900 ms, gray level depth = 8-bit, TR = 2000 ms, TE = 2.50 ms, FA = 9°, FOV = 256 mm × 256 mm, matrix = 256 × 256. It is important to note here that in this paper our images replaced 16-bit

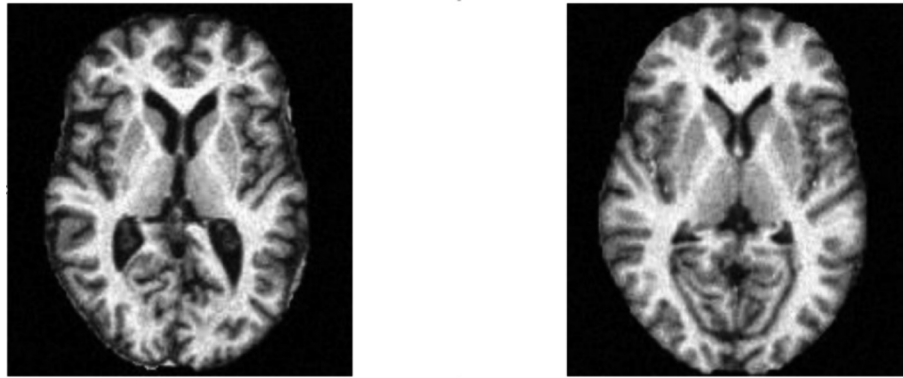


Figure 1. Slice example.

grayscale depth with 8-bit grayscale depth. Alcohol doesn't affect the depth of the brain images, so 8-bit grayscale depth was used in this paper. At the same time, the 8-bit grayscale depth of the images are enough to complete the experiment.

Slice Selection

FMRIB Software Library (FSL) V5.0 software was used to remove the skull and extract the brain. Standard MINI templates were standard for all volumetric images. Then each image is redefined as a 2 mm isotropic voxel. Finally, we selected the slice at $G = 80$ mm at MNI 152 coordinates, which was obtained linearly by 152-weighted MRI scanning plane, as shown in **Figure 1**. This location was chosen because it is the optimal location of the lateral ventricle and basal ganglia region. Finally we used a matrix of size 176×176 for subsequent classification.

Methodology

For the automatic diagnosis of alcoholic brain injury, we used a new method based on deep convolutional neural network (DCNN). Since 2012, deep convolutional neural network has been presented. More and more deep convolution neural network structures with better performance have been designed such as Alexnet (19), ResNet (20), Unet (21), VGGnet (22), and DenseNet (23). Due to the great progress of DCNN, DCNN has been applied in many fields, such as human detection (24), ear

detection (25), etc. DCNN makes the network model no longer complex through three methods: local receptive field, weight sharing, and downsampling. Meanwhile, the depth convolution network structure has no effect on translation, rotation and scaling. In general, the common DCNN is composed of input layer, convolution layers, fully connected layers and output layer, as shown in **Figure 2**.

Figure 2 is a simple DCNN model, which contains three convolution layers, three pooling layers and three pooling layers. Finally, the results are exported through two fully connected layers.

Convolution layer

Convolution layer is the key parts of deep convolution neural network. Convolution layer uses convolution kernel to extract features (26, 27). Convolution kernel is a matrix (28). Starting from the upper left corner of the input matrix, the convolution kernel corresponds to the input matrix range, and then multiplies and adds to get a value (29). In this order, convolution is performed from left to right. This is the principle of convolution layer (30). The convolution layer formula is as follows:

$$W_{o+1} = \frac{W_o - K_w + 2B}{L} + 1 \quad (1)$$

$$H_{o+1} = \frac{H_o - K_h + 2B}{L} + 1 \quad (2)$$

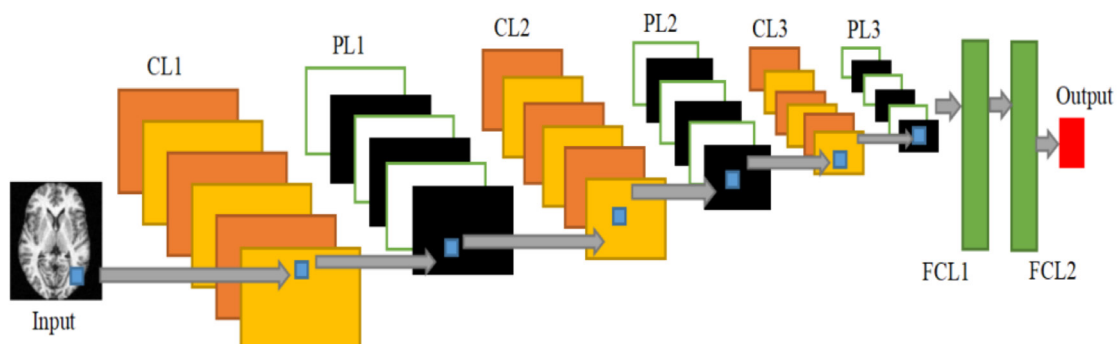


Figure 2. DCNN mo.

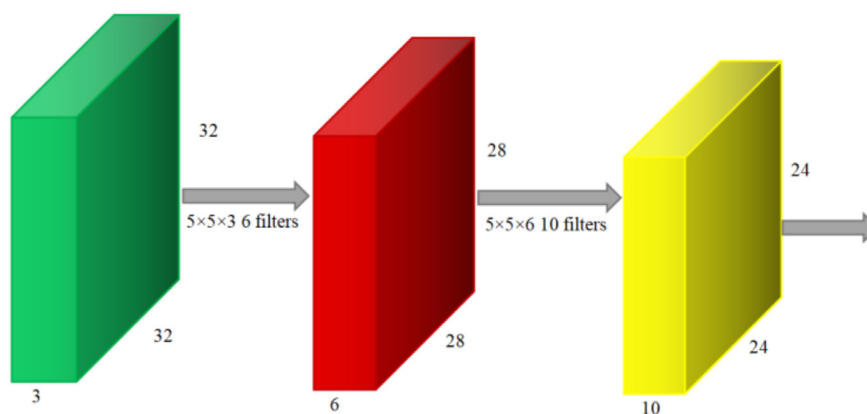


Figure 3. Convolution operation.

$$D_o + 1 = N \quad (3)$$

In the above formula, width is represented by W , height is represented by H , and depth is represented by D , the matrix of input is $W_o \times H_o \times D_o$, the matrix of output is $W_{o+1} \times H_{o+1} \times D_{o+1}$, K_w is the kernel width, K_h represents the kernel height, B is padding, L is stride, N is the kernel width, K_h represents the kernel height, B is padding, L is stride, N is the filters numbers.

Figure 3 is an example of image convolution. The input matrix is $32 \times 32 \times 3$, and 3 is its depth. The first convolution layer is composed of 6 filters with $5 \times 5 \times 3$. After the first convolution, the output matrix is $28 \times 28 \times 6$. The second convolution layer is composed of 10 filters with $5 \times 5 \times 6$. After the second convolution, the output matrix is $24 \times 24 \times 10$.

Figure 4 shows the flow chart of convolution layer.

Pooling layer

The feature map is obtained through convolution layer, and then these features are synthesized and classified. Theoretically, the features extracted from the convolution layer can be used as the input of the classifier. However, too many input values will cause a lot of calculation (31). At this time, the pooling layer is used to reduce the dimension of the feature map (32). There are two advantages for pooling layers: (i) it can make the feature graph smaller, simplify the calculation complexity of the network, reduce the parameters and calculations, and prevent over fitting (33); (ii) the receptive field can be increased by compressing features, extracting features and retaining main features, and keeping scale invariance.

Two methods are usually used for pooling layer, one is maximum pooling and another one is average pooling. Max pooling calculates the maximum value of the location and its adjacent matrix area and takes this maximum value as the value of the location (34). Generally, the average value of adjacent areas is calculated, and the calculated value is taken as the output value. This method is called average pooling. The pooling layer will not have any effect on depth of data matrix, but it can reduce the width and height to accomplish the goal of dimensionality reduction. Specific formula of pooling layer as follows:

$$\text{MaxP} = \text{Max}(E_c) \quad (4)$$

$$\text{AverP} = \frac{\sum E_c}{|E_c|} \quad (5)$$

As the formula above shows, E is the pooling region, C represents the activation set in the pooling region, E_c is elements numbers in the activation set.

Figure 5 shows the different results of different pooling methods. Taking the top left region as an example, the pooling stride of the two pooling methods is 2. The calculation process is as follows: $\text{AP} = (1+3+5+8)/4 = 4.25$; $\text{MP} = \max(1, 3, 5, 8) = 8$.

Batch Normalization

For shallow models, data standardization preprocessing will be effective. However, With the continuous training of the model, the parameters of each layer are constantly changing. The closer to the output layer, the less stable the parameters would remain. When we train the deep neural network, although we have standardized the input data before training, the continuous updating of the model will lead to the instability of the output layer (35). Because of the instability of numerical, it is not easy to train a good deep neural network structure with great depth. Batch normalization (BN) continuously adjusts the neural network through the mean and standard deviation of small batches (36). Through this method, the value of each layer of the whole neural network can not fluctuate too much. The structure of batch normalization is shown as Figure 6.

Suppose u is the input, W is the weight and b is the deviation parameter. The output is x :

$$x = Wu + b \quad (6)$$

Small batch B composed of m samples, $B = \{x(1), x(2), \dots, x(n)\}$. Calculate the mean and variance of small batch B :

$$\mu_B \leftarrow \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \quad (7)$$

$$\sigma_B^2 \leftarrow \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu_B)^2 \quad (8)$$

The standardization for x_i :

$$\bar{x}_i \leftarrow \frac{x_i - \mu_B}{\sqrt{\sigma_B^2 + \Delta}} \quad (9)$$

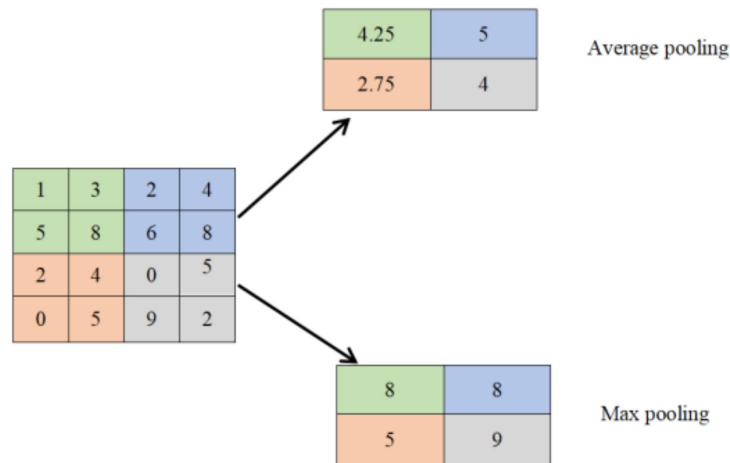


Figure 5. A example of average and max pooling.

This $\Delta > 0$ is which Δ is a very small number to ensure that the denominator is greater than 0, which makes the formula and the results meaningful. Introduce learnable parameter: scale parameter ϕ And shift parameters ω .

$$y_i \leftarrow \phi \bar{x}_i + \omega \quad (10)$$

Dropout

In the deep learning structure, if the parameters of the structure are too many and the training samples are too few, over fitting is a common problem in trained models (37). The phenomenon of over fitting could appear in neural network training, which is shown in the following aspects (38): the structure has small loss function and high prediction accuracy in the training data. However, contrary to the results obtained from the training data, the model has large loss function and low prediction accuracy. If the model is over fitted, the resulting model can hardly be used (39). Dropout can be one of the solutions to reduce over fitting. In each training, by neglecting half of the feature detectors. It can significantly alleviate the problem of over fitting. The interaction between feature detectors (hidden layer nodes) can be reduced through dropout. **Figure 7** shows the difference between using dropout and not using dropout in deep learning.

Rectified Linear Unit

In the neuron, after the input is summed by weighting, the activation function is applied, as shown in **Figure 8**. The operation of the activation function is to activate some neurons in the neural network and transmit the activation information to the next layer of neural network (40). In order to increase neural network model nonlinearity, activation function is added. When there is no activation function, the output value of each layer in the convolutional neural network structure is a linear function (41). The output is the linear function of the input, which is the most primitive perceptron (42). In order to make the deep convolution neural network closer to the nonlinear function, a nonlinear factor is introduced into the activation function. In this way, deep neural network is suitable for a lot of nonlinear models (43). The activation function can also construct a sparse matrix to eliminate the redundancy in the data and retain the characteristics of the data as much as possible. The most commonly used activation functions are sigmoid and relu function, as shown in **Figure 9**. The formula of relu and sigmoid function:

$$\text{relu} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ x, & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

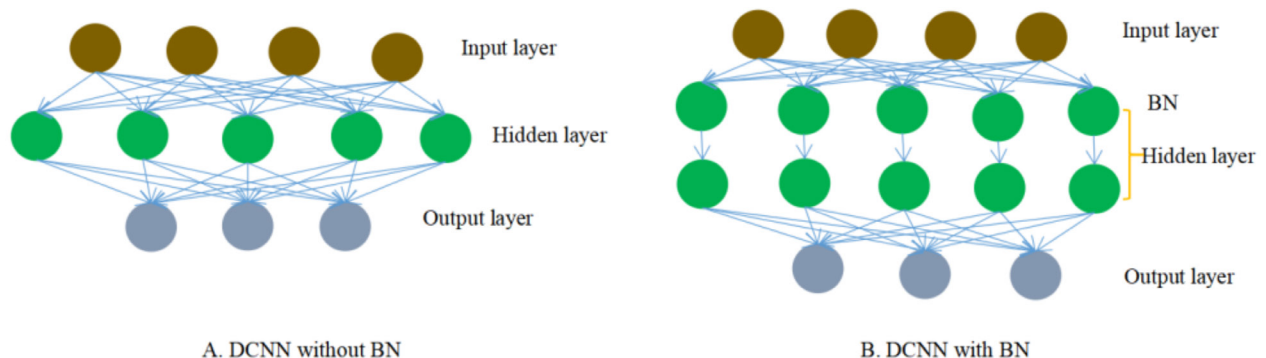


Figure 6. Structure of BN.

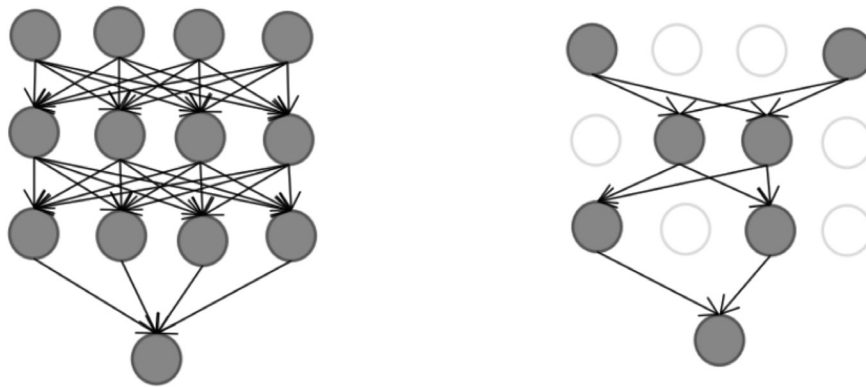


Figure 7. An example of network with dropout.

Comparing relu and sigmoid functions, (i) the sigmoid function has a problem of gradient vanishing. In contrast, the output of relu function is very stable, because it is a linear function when $x > 0$, and the problem of gradient disappearance is avoided; (ii) the calculation of sigmoid function is large; using relu function can save a large number of computation; (iii) the output of some neurons of relu function could be zero, which reduces the relationship between parameters and the density of the network, thus reducing the possibility of over fitting. Based on the above advantages, we used the relu function in this paper.

Structure of customized DCNN

In the paper, we introduced a 8-layer deep convolutional neural network structure for alcoholic brain injury detection. Three fully connected layers, five pooling layers, and five convolution layers formed the proposed neural network structure. Each convolution layer is connected to the pooling layer, and dropout is in front of each fully connected layer. The structure of 8-layer DCNN is shown in **Figure 10**.

The parameter settings of 8-layer DCNN structure are shown in **Table 1**. The input size is 176×176 . The filter size of each convolution layer is 3×3 . The number of filters in the first convolution layer is 32, that in the second convolution layer is 64, that in the third convolution layer

is 128, that in the fourth convolution layer is 256, and that in the fifth convolution layer is 512. After five times convolution and pooling, three dropout and three fully connected layers are added, and the final output size is 2.

Measures

For the evaluation index of binary classification, the results are divided into positive and negative categories. In the actual classification, there are four categories. Suppose the confusion matrix is:

$$\text{confusion matrix} = \begin{bmatrix} TP & FN \\ FP & TN \end{bmatrix} \quad (13)$$

TP represents True Positive; FN is False Positive; FP represents False Negative; TN is True Negative. In the paper, seven indicators are used to evaluate the model.

$$\text{Sensitivity} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \quad (14)$$

$$\text{Specificity} = \frac{TN}{FP + TN} \quad (15)$$

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \quad (16)$$

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FP + TN + FN} \quad (17)$$

$$F1 = \frac{2TP}{2TP + FP + FN} \quad (18)$$

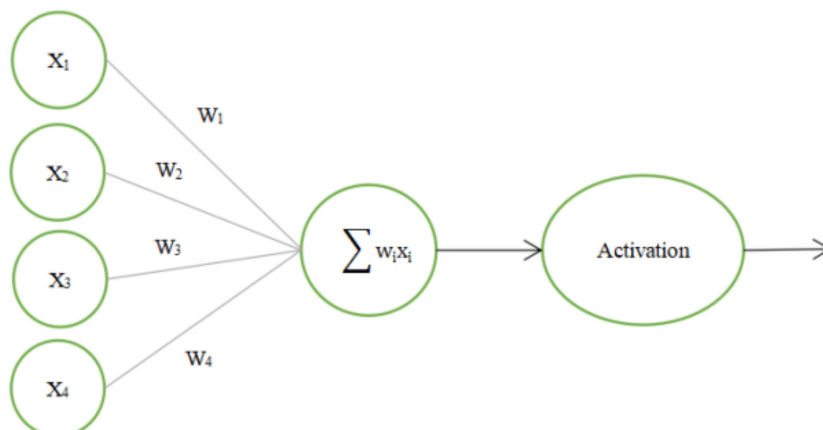


Figure 8. Schematic diagram of activation function.

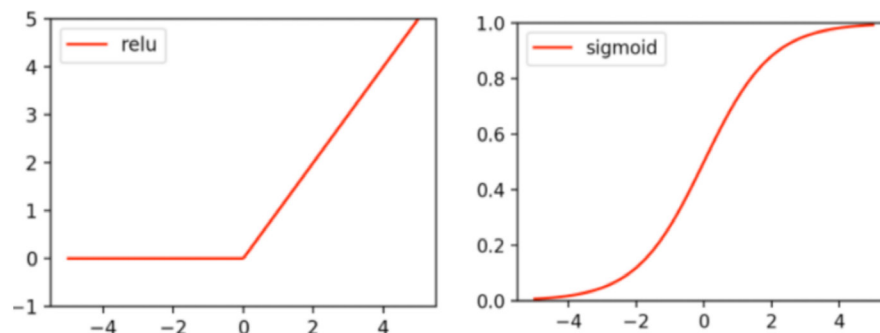


Figure 9. relu and sigmoid function.

$$MCC = \frac{TP \times TN - TP \times FN}{\sqrt{(TP + FP) \times (TP + FN) \times (TN + FP) \times (TN + FN)}} \quad (19)$$

$$FMI = \frac{TP}{\sqrt{(TP + FP) \times (TP + FN)}} \quad (20)$$

In order to avoid contingency, 10 runs were carried out, and the mean and variance of each indicators were calculated.

Experiment Result

Statistical Analysis

In this paper, we ran 10 times and got ten groups of data. Each time the division was updated randomly. The experimental results are shown in **Table 2**. The average of specificity, sensitivity, accuracy, precision, FMI MCC and F1 were 96.20 ± 1.47 , 96.14 ± 1.99 , 96.17 ± 1.55 , 95.98 ± 1.54 , 96.06 ± 1.62 , 93.34 ± 3.11 , 96.05 ± 1.62 , respectively. From **Figure 11**, we can get this conclusion that the eighth group is the best and the sixth group is the eighth group is the best and the sixth group is the worst.

Comparison with State-of-the-art Approaches

We compare the proposed “8-layer customized DCNN”

with seven advanced approaches: HMI (11), HMI+ML (12), TSEJ (13), FrFT (14), CSO (15), LR (16), WEE (17). We have described these advanced approaches in detail in the first chapter introduction. Table 3 shows the comparison test results. The accuracy of the proposed DCNN structure is 96.17 ± 1.55 . Our accuracy is at least 2% higher than that of other seven approaches. HMI (11) yields 89.15, HMI + ML (12) obtains 85.15, TSEJ (13) gets 93.66, FrFT [14] achieves 86.77, CSO (15) obtains 92.13, LR (16) gets 83.70 ± 1.35 , WEE (17) achieves 92.55 ± 0.67 . It is easy to conclude that the DCNN structure which is introduced in the paper has superior performance than these seven approaches. For clear view, a comparison plot is shown in **Figure 12**.

Conclusion

In the paper, we introduced a 8-layer deep convolutional neural network structure for alcoholic brain injury detection. Three fully connected layers, five pooling layers, and five convolution layers formed the proposed neural network structure. In this framework, we added dropout to reduce over fitting problem. We compared our

Table 1. Parameter settings of deep convolutional neural network.

Layers	Size	Parameters
Input	176×176	
Conv Layer -first	$88 \times 88 \times 32$	$32 \ 3 \times 3$, pooling size = 2
Conv Layer -second	$44 \times 44 \times 64$	$64 \ 3 \times 3$, pooling size = 2
Conv Layer -third	$22 \times 22 \times 128$	$128 \ 3 \times 3$, pooling size = 2
Conv Layer -forth	$11 \times 11 \times 256$	$256 \ 3 \times 3$, pooling size = 2
Conv Layer -fifth	$5 \times 5 \times 512$	$512 \ 3 \times 3$, pooling size = 2
Dropout-1		0.5
FCL-1	1000	12800×1000
Dropout-2		0.5
FCL-2	100	1000×100
Dropout-3		0.5
FCL-3	2	100×2

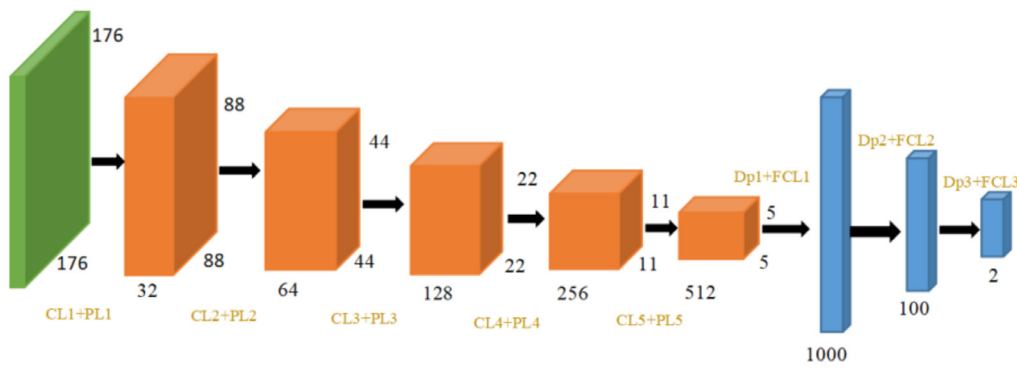


Figure 10. Structure of DCNN.

Table 2. Experimental result.

Run	sensitivity	specificity	precision	accuracy	F1	MCC	FMI
1	97.37	97.52	97.37	97.45	97.37	94.89	97.37
2	96.49	96.69	96.49	96.60	96.49	93.19	96.49
3	98.25	97.52	97.39	97.87	97.82	95.75	97.82
4	96.49	95.04	94.83	95.74	95.65	91.50	95.66
5	94.74	96.69	96.43	95.74	95.58	91.49	95.58
6	92.11	94.21	93.75	93.19	92.92	86.38	92.92
7	93.86	95.04	94.69	94.47	94.27	88.93	94.27
8	98.25	98.35	98.25	98.30	98.25	96.59	98.25
9	97.37	94.21	94.07	95.74	95.69	91.54	95.70
10	96.49	96.69	96.49	96.60	96.49	93.19	96.49
MSD	96.14 ± 1.99	96.20 ± 1.47	95.98 ± 1.54	95.98 ± 1.54	96.05 ± 1.62	92.34 ± 3.11	96.06 ± 1.62

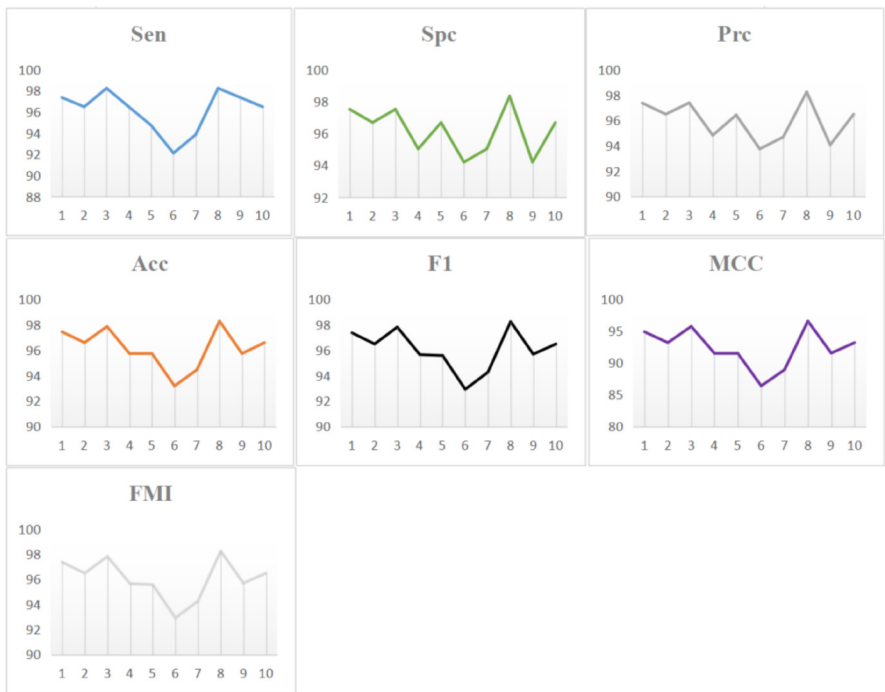


Table 2. Experimental result.

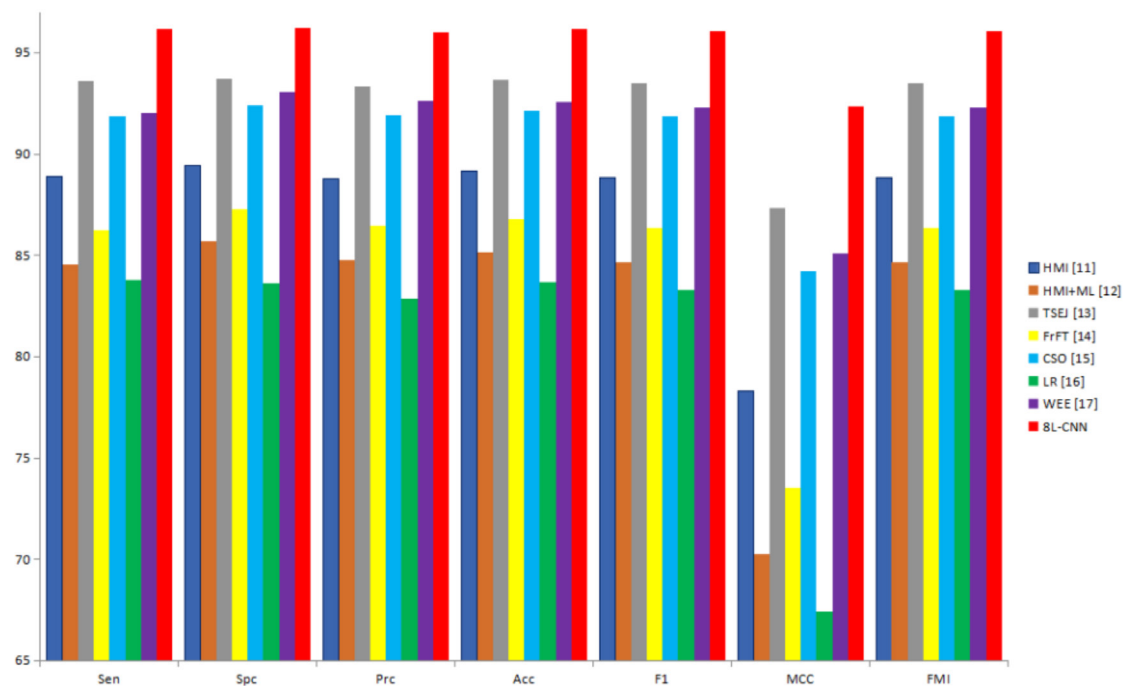


Figure 12. comparison of seven state-of-the-art approach.

method with other seven advanced approaches to test the performance of the DCNN structure. According to the comparison test results, we validated the DCNN structure had the excellent performance. The proposed model can be used as one of the methods to detect alcoholic brain injury based on MRI images.

The limitations of the paper: (i) there are very few training data set. With the number of cases increases and the amount of training increases, the performance of the system will achieve higher accuracy; (ii) we did not compare DCNN structures with different number of hidden layers.

In the next paper, more data will be collected in our next experiment to test performance. Meanwhile, getting the best combination of hidden layers is also one of the main purposes of our next paper. What's more, some new technologies may be applied to our next paper for comparison, such as transfer learning pre-trained models.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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Table 3. The comparison results.

Method	Sen	Spc	Prc	Acc	F1	MCC	FMI
HMI [11]	88.86	89.42	88.78	89.15	88.82	78.28	88.82
HMI+ML [12]	84.56	85.70	84.78	85.15	84.67	70.27	84.67
TSEJ [13]	93.60	93.72	93.35	93.66	93.47	87.31	93.47
FrFT [14]	86.23	87.27	86.46	86.77	86.34	73.51	86.34
CSO [15]	91.84	92.40	91.92	92.13	91.88	84.24	91.88
LR [16]	83.77 ± 2.42	83.64 ± 2.33	82.88 ± 1.90	83.70 ± 1.35	83.29 ± 1.42	67.44 ± 2.66	83.31 ± 1.41
WEE [17]	92.02 ± 1.13	93.06 ± 1.42	92.61 ± 1.36	92.55 ± 0.67	92.30 ± 0.67	85.11 ± 1.35	92.31 ± 0.68
8L-CNN (Ours)	96.14 ± 1.99	96.20 ± 1.47	95.98 ± 1.54	96.17 ± 1.55	96.05 ± 1.62	92.34 ± 3.11	96.06 ± 1.62

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MicroRNA-155 inhibitor ameliorates collagen-induced arthritis by modulating the phenotype of pro-inflammatory macrophages in a mouse model

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<https://doi.org/10.37175/stemedicine.v2i8.105>

ABSTRACT

Background: Here, we aimed to illustrate the roles of microRNA (miR)-155 in collagen-induced arthritis (CIA) and its underlying mechanisms.

Methods: A mouse model of CIA was first established, and miR-155 inhibitor was intravenously injected. In *in vitro* studies, bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDMs) were induced to M1 macrophages followed by the treatment of miR-155 inhibitor. RT-qPCR was applied to determine the mRNA expression. The frequency of M1 or M2 macrophages was determined by flow cytometry. Western blotting was employed to detect protein expression. Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay was employed to measure the production of inflammatory cytokines and anti-collagen antibody.

Results: The levels of miR-155 were increased in macrophages from rheumatoid arthritis (RA) patients and M1 macrophages. The treatment of miR-155 inhibitor decreased inflammatory cytokines in M1 macrophages. Besides, treatment of miR-155 inhibitors promoted the differentiation of M0 macrophages into M2 macrophages. *In vivo* studies showed that miR-155 inhibitors ameliorated the RA symptoms by decreasing inflammatory cytokines in the CIA mouse model. Treatment of miR-155 also led to decreased M1 macrophage biomarker and increased M2 macrophage biomarker.

Conclusion: MiR-155 inhibitor ameliorates RA symptoms in part by regulating macrophage phenotypes.

Keywords: MicroRNA-155 · Arthritis · Collagen-induced arthritis · Macrophages · Macrophage polarization

Introduction

RA (rheumatoid arthritis), as an autoimmune disease, is characterized by synovial inflammation and the destruction of bones and cartilages (1, 2). The development of RA also induces other tissue damages including the vascular system, lung, heart, and skins (1). The prevalence and incidence of RA are 1% and 0.03%, respectively, worldwide (3). Besides, the medical cost for

RA is more than 5,000 dollars per patient per year (3). Although it is reported to be associated with inflammation, the underlying mechanisms of RA is still unclear.

Many studies have demonstrated that macrophages are involved in RA pathology by the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α , interleukin (IL)-6 and IL-1 (4, 5). The activation of inflammation-related signaling pathways also triggers the release of adhesion molecules, which recruits the leukocytes to the damaged tissues (4). Typical macrophages in activated condition are M1 or M2 types (6), also called classical and alternative activated macrophage, respectively (7). Previous studies have demonstrated that M1 macrophages could produce vast

Received: Sep 8, 2021; Accepted: Sep 18, 2021.

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inflammatory cytokines, thus accelerate the process of RA, while M2 macrophages could attenuate inflammation and repair the tissues (6, 8). Importantly, M1 macrophages can be shifted into M2 phenotype (7).

MicroRNAs (miRNAs, miRs) have been identified to play crucial roles in the modulation of gene expression (9). Interestingly, macrophage polarization can also be regulated by miRNAs (10). Previous studies have demonstrated that miR-9, miR-127, miR-155, and miR-125b promote M1 polarization, whereas miR-124, miR-223, miR-132, and miR-146a induce M2 polarization (11). Therefore, the regulation of miRNAs is a good strategy for the regulation of macrophage polarization. In 2011, Stephan and colleagues found that miR-155 knockout mice could not develop collagen-induced arthritis (CIA), indicating that miR-155 contributes to the pathogenesis development of CIA (12). Furthermore, Su and colleagues reported that the levels of miR-155 were increased in RA animal models and patients. The knockdown of miR-155 ameliorates the development of RA. All these results demonstrated the important roles of miR-155 in RA (13).

Materials and Methods

Patients and healthy volunteers

All participants signed the documents of consent. The study was approved by Haikou Orthopedic and Diabetes Hospital of Shanghai Sixth People's Hospital. Peripheral blood was collected from RA patients and healthy volunteers. The peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were isolated based on the published protocol (14). Macrophages were then separated from PBMCs for further assays.

Animals

Animal studies were approved by Haikou Orthopedic and Diabetes Hospital of Shanghai Sixth People's Hospital. Male DBA/1 mice were housed under humidity ($60 \pm 5\%$) and temperature-controlled ($22-24^\circ\text{C}$) condition. A CIA mouse model was established by immunizations of bovine type 2 collagen that was emulsified in complete or incomplete Freund's adjuvant at day 0 and day 21.

The mice were divided into phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) group, control inhibitor group, and miR-155 inhibitor group. In the PBS group, the mice were intravenously injected with PBS on day 15 and day 31. In the control inhibitor group and miR-155 inhibitor group, the mice were intravenously injected with control inhibitors or miR-155 inhibitors ($50\text{ }\mu\text{g}$ per mouse) that were mixed with Entranster-in vivo at day 15 and day 31.

In the experimental period, the CIA score and ankle thickness were measured every two days. An X-ray was applied to determine the joint damage induced by arthritis at the end of the experiment. After the mice were sacrificed, the joint tissues, blood were collected.

Histopathology examination

The mice were sacrificed at the end of the experiments.

The joint tissues were collected, then fixed in formalin solution (10%) prior to embedding in paraffin. Hematoxylin and eosin staining was conducted. A microscope was used for the observation of the slides.

Bone marrow-derived macrophage (BMDM) isolation and culture

BMDMs were isolated based on the published protocol (15). Briefly, the collected cells were maintained in DMEM (Dulbecco's modified eagle medium) with M-CSF (macrophage colony-stimulating factor, 10 ng/ml) and 10% fetal bovine serum for 5 days. To generate M1 macrophages, cells were incubated with interferon (IFN)- γ (50 ng/mL) and lipopolysaccharides (LPS) (100 ng/mL) for 24 h. After phenotype examination, M1 macrophages were treated with miR-155 inhibitor or control inhibitor.

Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)

Inflammatory cytokine levels including IL-6, MCP-1 (monocyte chemoattractant protein 1), IL-1 β , TNF- α , and anti-collagen antibody were determined using ELISA based on the manufacturers' documents.

Flow cytometry analysis

After the polarized macrophages were transfected with miR-155 inhibitor or control inhibitor, cell suspension was prepared and stained with PE-Cy7 conjugated MHCII and PE-conjugated CD206. FlowJ (BD FACSCalibur) was applied to analyze the results.

RT-qPCR

RNA was isolated using RNA extraction kit. The melt curves were used to analyze the accuracy. Gene expression was calculated using $2^{-\Delta\Delta\text{Ct}}$ values with GAPDH as control.

Western blotting

The protein was extracted following routine procedures (16, 17). Briefly, the joint tissue was lysed using cold radioimmunoprecipitation assay buffer with protease inhibitor. Then, the extraction buffer was centrifuged ($13,000\text{ g}$) for 15 mins to remove insoluble materials and sample debris. Concentrations of extracted proteins were quantified using BCA protein assay kits. The protein was then loaded, subjected to separation using sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. The gels were transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride membranes, which were blocked with 5% non-fat milk at room temperature for 2 hours. Primary antibodies against inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) or CD206 were used for incubation with the membranes at 4°C overnight. Appropriate secondary antibodies conjugated with horseradish peroxidase were used.

Statistics

Data were shown as mean \pm standard deviation (SD). One-way analysis of variance with Student-Newman-Keuls test and multiple comparisons were employed for the data comparison. Statistical significance was

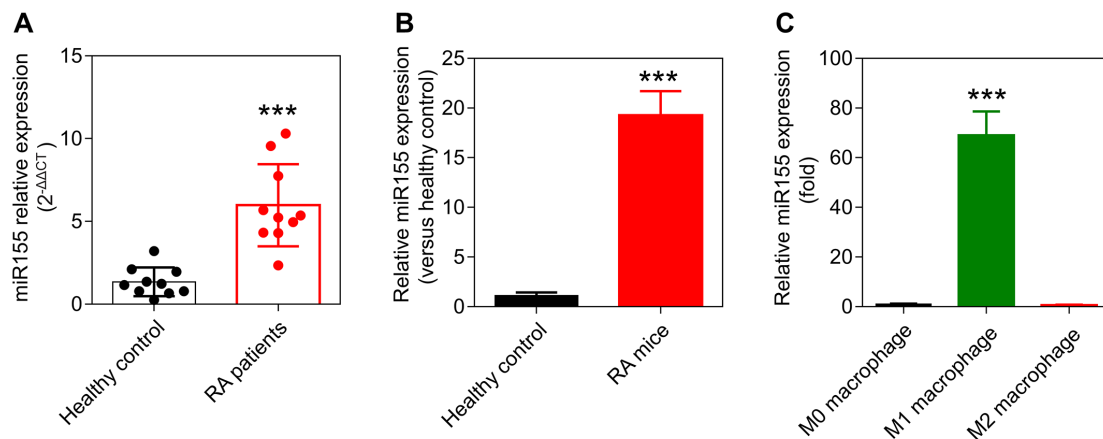


Figure 1. (A) qRT-PCR was determined to detect the mRNA levels of miR-155 in the macrophages that were isolated from PBMCs in the RA patients and healthy control ($n = 10$). (B) The mRNA levels of miR-155 in the macrophages isolated from collagen-induced arthritis (CIA) mouse model ($n = 8$). (C) The mRNA levels of miR-155 in M0, M1 and M2 macrophages. Data were shown as mean \pm SD, *** $p < 0.001$.

determined when p value was less than 0.05.

Results

MiR-155 was upregulated in macrophages of RA patients and M1 macrophages

We first investigated the mRNA levels of miR-155 in healthy volunteers and RA patients. mRNA levels of miR-155 in the macrophages from PBMCs of RA patients were remarkably enhanced when compared to the healthy volunteers ($p < 0.001$, **Figure 1A**). Next, we analyzed the mRNA levels of miR-155 in the macrophages from RA mouse model and healthy mice. Interestingly, the mRNA levels of miR-155 in the macrophages of RA mice were significantly increased when compared to the healthy control mice ($p < 0.001$, **Figure 1B**). Finally, to investigate the relationship of miR-155 expression pattern and macrophage phenotype, we determined the mRNA levels of miR-155 in M0 macrophages and polarized M1 and M2 macrophages. mRNA levels of miR-155 were much higher in M1 macrophages in comparison to M0 and M2 macrophages ($p < 0.001$, **Figure 1C**), suggesting that miR-155 expression pattern is associated with the inflammatory status of macrophages.

MiR-155 inhibitor decreased the production of inflammatory cytokines in M1 macrophages

The effects of miR-155 inhibitor on the production of inflammatory cytokines in M1 macrophages were further examined. To obtain M1 macrophages, BMDMs were stimulated with IFN- γ (50 ng/mL) and LPS (100 ng/mL). We observed the levels of inflammatory cytokines including TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-6, and MCP-1 were obviously decreased in M1 macrophages in the presence of miR-155 inhibitors in a concentration-dependent manner (**Figure 2A-D**).

Effects of MiR-155 inhibitors on the inflammatory gene expression and macrophages phenotype

We then explored the potential of miR-155 on the expressions of inflammatory genes. To obtain M1 macrophages, BMDMs were stimulated with IFN- γ (50 ng/mL) and LPS (100 ng/mL) followed by the treatment of miR-155 inhibitors (**Figure 3A**). Interestingly, we observed that, in the presence of miR-155 inhibitors, the gene expressions of M1 macrophage-related biomarkers including IL-12 and Nos2 was significantly decreased, whereas the gene expression of M2 macrophage-related biomarkers including Arg1 and Mrc1 was significantly increased (**Figure 3B**). We inferred that miR-155 might affect macrophages polarization. Besides, we also analyze the population of M1 and M2 macrophages. miR-155 inhibitors significantly reduced the percentage of MHC IIhi macrophages ($p < 0.001$, **Figure 3C and D**) and increased the percentage of CD206hi macrophages ($p < 0.001$, **Figure 3E and F**).

Effects of miR-155 inhibitors on the RA symptoms of CIA mouse model

To confirm the effects of miR-155 inhibition in vitro, the effects of miR-155 in a CIA mouse model were investigated. As shown in **Figure 4A**, a CIA mouse model was established by immunizations of bovine type 2 collagen emulsified in complete or incomplete Freund's adjuvant. The mice were intravenously injected with control inhibitors or miR-155 inhibitors (50 μ g per mouse) that were mixed with Entranster-in vivo at day 15 and day 31. We observed that the miR-155 inhibitors significantly decreased the RA score and mean ankle diameter at day 34 in comparison to the control inhibitor group (**Figure 4B and C**). At the end of the experimental period, X-ray was applied to determine the joint change in each group. We observed that arthritic changes in the PBS and control inhibitor group, whereas the treatment of miR-155 inhibitor ameliorated these changes (**Figure 4D**).

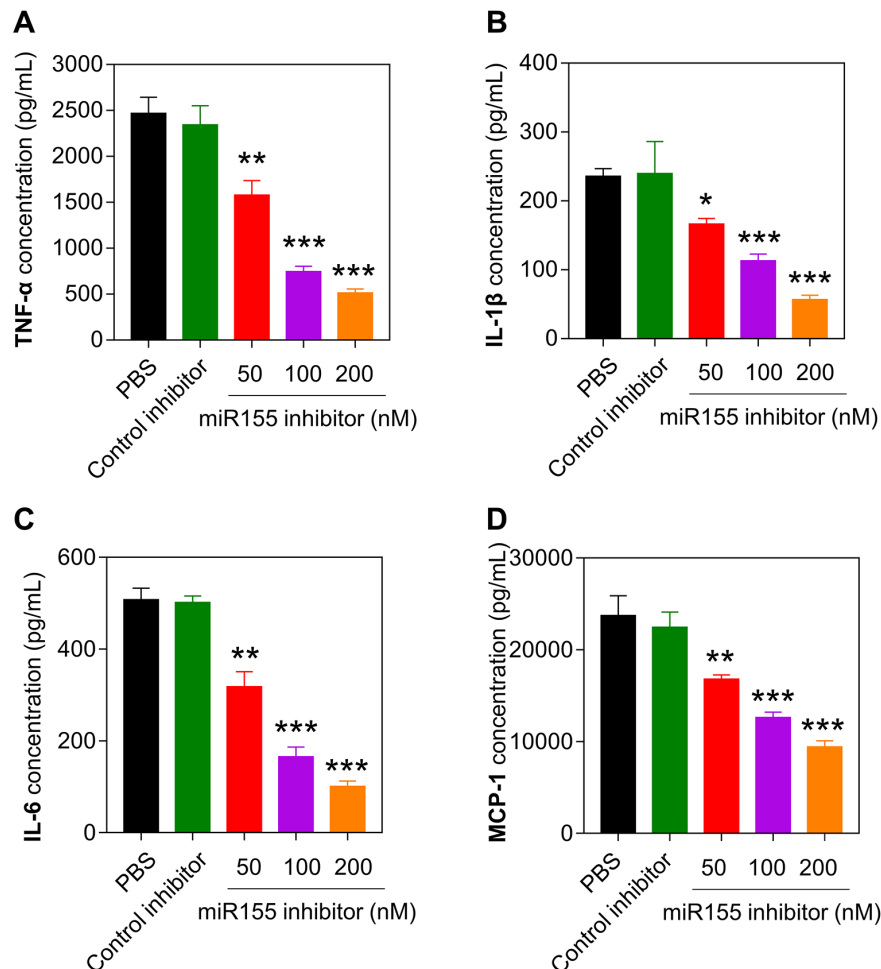


Figure 2 Inflammatory cytokines including TNF- α (A), IL-1 β (B), IL-6 (C), and MCP-1 (D) in M1 macrophages transfected with miR-155 inhibitors were determined using ELISA. To induce M1 macrophages, BMDMs were incubated with LPS (100 ng/mL) and IFN- γ (50 ng/mL) for 24 and then transfected with miR-155 inhibitors for another 48 h. Data were shown as means \pm SD, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, and *** p < 0.001 vs M1 macrophage transfected with control inhibitor.

Treatment of miR-155 inhibitor attenuated CIA symptoms

Finally, the effects of miR-155 inhibitor on the CIA symptoms were evaluated. Histopathological examination demonstrated synovial lining and bone erosions and proliferation of synovial membrane cells in the PBS and control inhibitor groups, whereas synovial lining and bone erosions were ameliorated and fewer numbers of synovial membrane cells were observed in the miR-155 inhibitor groups (Figure 5A). These results demonstrated that the treatment of miR-155 inhibitor reversed the histopathological changes in RA. Additionally, miR-155 inhibitor decreased the levels of anti-collagen IgG in comparison to the PBS and control inhibitor groups (Figure 5B).

The expressions of M1/ M2 macrophages biomarkers and inflammatory cytokines were studied. The results demonstrated that miR-155 inhibitor-treated resulted in a decrease of M1 macrophage biomarker iNOS and an increase of M2 macrophage biomarker CD206, suggesting that the levels of miR-155 are associated with the changes of macrophage phenotypes (Figure 5C). Furthermore, the

results also showed the levels of inflammatory cytokines including TNF- α , IL-1 β , and IL-6 were significantly decreased in the presence of miR-155 inhibitor, indicating the inhibition of miR-155 attenuated the expressions of inflammatory cytokines in the joint tissue of CIA mouse (Figure 5D-F).

Discussion

In the present study, the mRNA level of miR-155 was found to be increased in CIA animal models and RA patients. Notably, our results showed a significant increase of miR-155 in M1 macrophages as compared to M0 and M2 macrophages. We further analyzed the relationship between miR-155 and macrophage polarization.

First, we found that miR-155 inhibitor decreased inflammatory cytokines in M1 macrophages. Second, miR-155 inhibitor promoted the polarization of macrophages into M2 phenotypes. The in vivo studies also confirmed the regulatory effects of miR-155 inhibitor on the macrophage phenotype and RA symptoms. Therefore, we speculated that the inhibition of miR-155 might be a

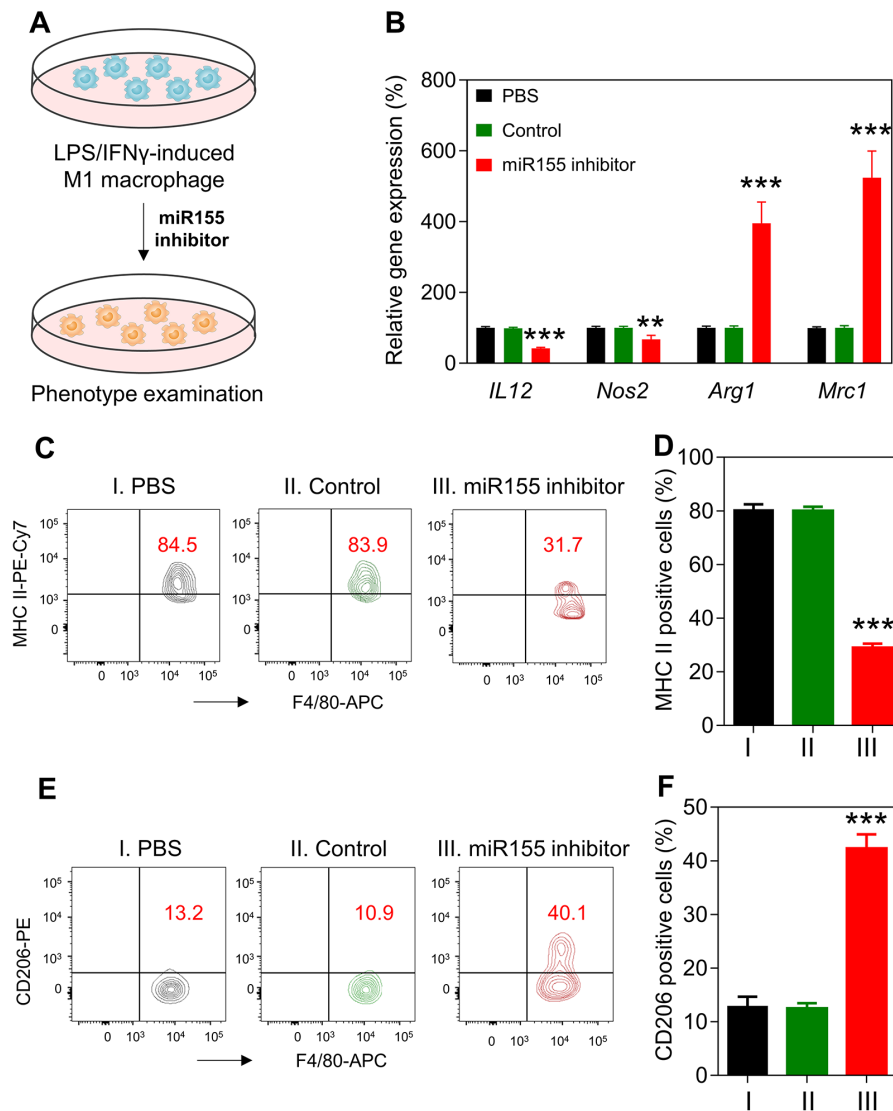


Figure 3 (A) Diagram of the generation of M1 macrophages. BMDMs were incubated with LPS plus IFN- γ and the phenotype was determined after transfection of miR-155 inhibitor for 48 h. (B) qRT-PCR was determined to detect the mRNA levels of IL12, Nos2, Arg1, and Mrc1 in M1 macrophages after the treatment of miR-155 inhibitor. (C-F) Flow cytometry was applied to determine the percentage of MHCII positive macrophages and CD206 positive macrophages after treatment. Data were shown as means \pm SD, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001 (vs M1 macrophage treated with control inhibitor).

promising strategy for RA treatment.

The role of macrophages in RA occurrence and development has been well documented (5, 8, 18). The inflammatory mediators and cytokines secreted by macrophages trigger an adaptive immune response in the synovium and contributes to the local joint destruction (4, 19, 20). Here, we specifically determined the expressions of miR-155 in the macrophages. miR-155 was significantly increased in the macrophages from PBMCs of RA patients and in the BMDMs. Our findings are consistent with previous studies, in which an elevation of miR-155 is observed in RA animal models and patients.

Furthermore, activated macrophages in joint tissue are including M1 or M2 phenotypes (7). M1 is called classical activated macrophage whereas M2 is recognized as an alternative activated macrophage (8). M1 phenotypes accelerate the process of RA by the release of large

amounts of inflammatory mediators such as iNOS and other pro-inflammatory cytokines, whereas M2 phenotypes could exert anti-inflammatory activities via the secretion of anti-inflammatory cytokines (21, 22). In this study, the expressions of miR-155 in the different types of macrophages including M0, M1, and M2 were all determined. The results showed that the mRNA levels of miR-155 were much higher in M1 macrophages as compared to the other two phenotypes. We then explored the relationship between miR-155 and inflammatory cytokines in the M1 macrophages. Interestingly, we found that the inflammatory cytokines including IL-6, IL-1 β , TNF- α and chemokine MCP-1 were significantly decreased in the presence of miR-155 inhibitors. These results demonstrated that inhibition of miR-155 reduced the expressions of inflammatory cytokines and chemokines.

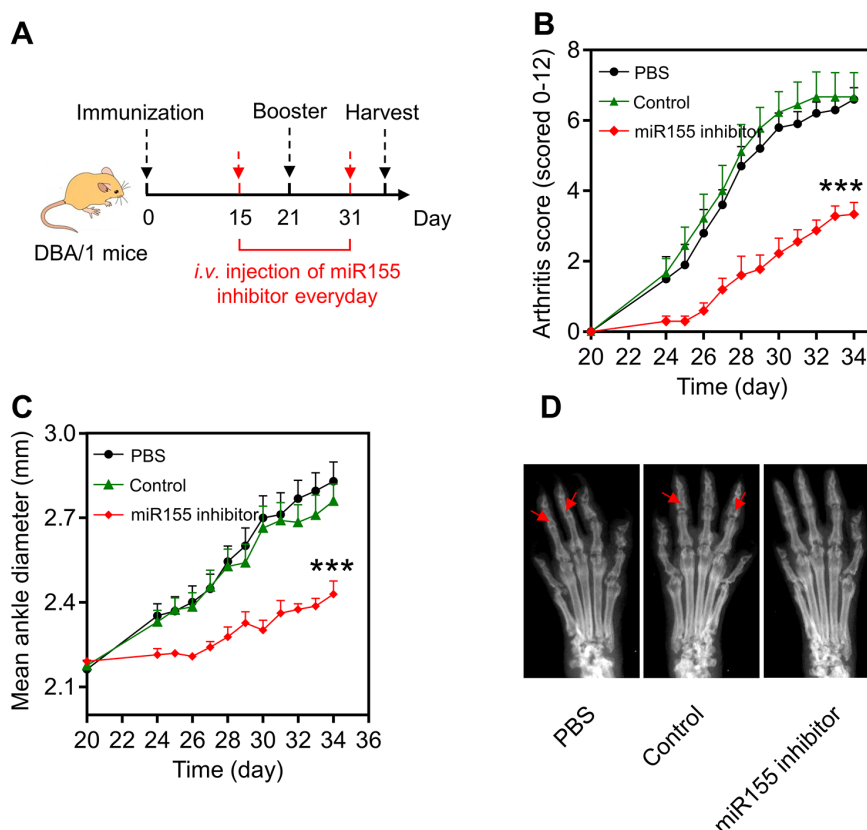


Figure 4 (A) The schematic diagram showed the process of immunization and treatment methods on the CIA mouse model. To establish a CIA model, the mice were immunized twice with bovine type 2 collagen emulsified in Freund's adjuvant. Next, the mice were intravenously injected with 50 μ g miR-155 inhibitor or control inhibitor on 15th and 31th day. In the experimental period, CIA score (B) and ankle thickness (C) were determined every two days. At the end of the experimental period, (D) X-ray was applied to evaluate the joint damage. Data were shown as means \pm SD, *** p < 0.001 (vs mice injected with control inhibitor).

It has been verified that M1 macrophages can be shifted into M2 phenotypes (23). M1 to M2 transition ameliorates the inflammatory status, leading to the resolution of inflammation and tissue repair in RA (7). We next sought the effects of miR-155 inhibitor on the regulation of macrophages polarization. It is known that M1 macrophages produce iNOS and pro-inflammatory cytokine IL-12, while genes including Arg1 and Mrc1 were highly expressed in the M2 macrophages (24, 25). Our results demonstrated that M1 macrophage-related biomarkers were significantly decreased whereas M2 macrophage-related biomarkers were significantly increased in the presence of miR-155 inhibitor. In addition to detection of the M1 or M2 macrophages related genes, we also explored the effects of miR-155 inhibitor on the frequency of M1 and M2 macrophages. M1 macrophages can be characterized by MHC-IIhi while M2 macrophages can be characterized by CD206hi (26, 27). Interestingly, our results suggested that miR-155 inhibitors promoted the polarization of M2 macrophages.

CIA mouse model was established to determine the effects of miR-155 inhibitor on the RA symptoms, inflammatory cytokine expressions, and macrophages phenotypes. We observed the increase of mean ankle and RA scores in the experimental period. Besides, we also found that arthritic changes including 1) synovial lining

and bone erosions, 2) proliferation of synovial membrane cells, 3) an increase of anti-collagen IgG in serum, and 4) the increase of inflammatory cytokines in the joint tissue. These results supported that the CIA mouse model was successfully constructed (28, 29). Interestingly, the treatment of miR-155 inhibitor significantly decreased the RA score and mean ankle diameter. At the end of the experimental period, X-ray and histopathology examinations supported that the treatment of miR-155 inhibitor ameliorated the arthritic changes and pathophysiology of RA.

Finally, we determined the effects of miR-155 inhibitor on the macrophage phenotypes and expressions of inflammatory cytokine. Interestingly, the results demonstrated that the treatment of miR-155 inhibitor promoted the polarization of M2 phenotypes and reduced the polarization of M1 phenotypes. The also showed inflammatory cytokines were remarkably decreased in the presence of miR-155 inhibitor, indicating the inhibition of miR-155 also ameliorated the inflammation in the joint tissues.

Conclusion

We observed that miR-155 was increased in RA patients and CIA animal models. Treatment of miR-155 inhibitor

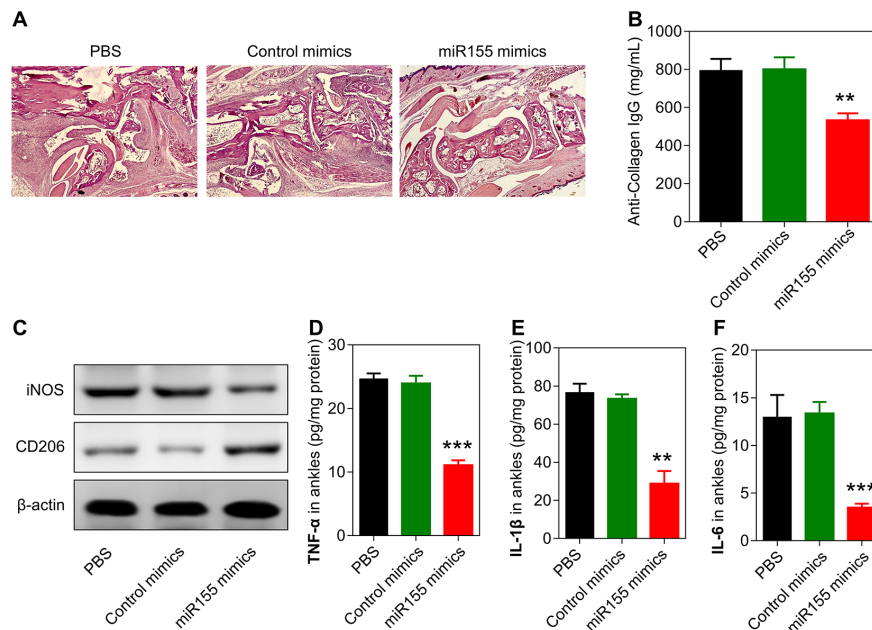


Figure 5. Figure 5 (A) Histopathology examination was performed and represented histopathology pictures showed the ankle joints in each group. (B) ELISA was applied to measure the serum anti-collagen antibody. (C) Western blot was applied to determine the protein expressions of iNOS and CD206 in the ankle joint tissues. (D-F) ELISA was applied to determine the levels of TNF- α , IL-1 β , and IL-6 in the joint tissues. Data were shown as mean \pm SD, ** $p < 0.001$, *** $p < 0.001$ (vs mice injected with control inhibitor).

decreased inflammatory cytokines in M1 macrophages and promoted M2 macrophages polarization. Additionally, miR-155 inhibitor ameliorated the RA pathological changes and decreased inflammatory cytokines and resulted in the changes of macrophage phenotypes. In summary, microRNA-155 inhibitor ameliorates RA symptoms in part by regulating macrophage phenotypes.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

Funding

This work was funded by a Municipal Human Resources Development Program for Outstanding Leaders in Medical Disciplines in Shanghai (2018BR38).

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Dual coronary embolization associated with atrial fibrillation: a case report

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<https://doi.org/10.37175/stemmedicine.v2i8.99>

ABSTRACT

Background: Thrombotic occlusion of the coronary artery, which succeeds the atherosclerotic plaque rupture or erosion, gives rise to a major portion of acute myocardial infarction (AMI) incidences. Nevertheless, coronary embolism is gaining increasing recognition as another important factor contributing to AMI.

Case presentation: A 72-year-old woman with atrial fibrillation (AF) and diabetes mellitus histories, presented with chest pain radiating to the left arm and shoulder that began 6 hours prior to admission. Electrocardiogram revealed AF plus ST-segment elevation in the anterior leads.

Intervention: Patient was first treated with anti-platelet agents (aspirin plus ticagrelor) and atorvastatin. Emergency coronary angiography depicted multi-site coronary embolization of the left circumflex artery (LCX) and the left anterior descending artery (LAD). Blood flow was not restored after intracoronary injection of 600 ug tirofiban. 40 mg recombinant human prourokinase was then administered via aspiration thrombectomy catheter.

Outcome: Two weeks later, coronary angiography showed no residual obstructive lesion in the LCX and LAD with TIMI (thrombolysis in myocardial infarction) 3 flow.

Conclusion: Primary percutaneous coronary intervention is the most effective measure. In the case of failed blood flow restoration, thrombolytic treatment in both intravenous and intracoronary route should be considered.

Keywords: Embolization · Acute myocardial infarction · Atrial fibrillation · Thrombolytic treatment

Introduction

The characteristics of acute myocardial infarction (AMI) include atherosclerotic plaque rupture, fissure, ulceration, dissection or erosion with subsequent thrombus in coronary arteries in most cases, which leads to a disturbed balance between the demand and supply of myocardial oxygen and subsequent myocardial necrosis (1).

Clinically, myocardial ischemia can often be identified based on the medical history of the patient as well as the electrocardiography. Symptoms of ischemia include upper extremity, chest, epigastric or mandibular pain or discomfort (at rest with exertion), or ischemic equivalents such as dyspnea or fatigue, which may last about 20 min. In most cases, the AMI-associated discomfort is diffuse - not positional, nor localized, and not altered by local movements - and it is sometimes accompanied by nausea, syncope, and diaphoresis. Those symptoms, however, are not myocardial ischemia specific, and therefore may be mistakenly diagnosed as gastrointestinal, pulmonary, musculoskeletal, or neurological disorders. Further, it is

Received: Aug 25, 2021; Accepted: Sep 9, 2021.

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possible that MI occurs with only atypical symptoms (eg. cardiac arrest or palpitations), or no symptom at all; for instance in female patients, diabetics, post-operative or critically ill patients, or the elderly (2). Cautious assessment of such patients is encouraged, particularly with a falling and/or rising trend of cardiac biomarkers.

Meanwhile, coronary artery embolism (CE) is regarded as a significant non-atherosclerotic factor contributing to AMI. However, its prevalence is still not clear due to the difficulty to generate acute diagnosis (3). Atrial fibrillation (AF) is the leading cause of CE, and correlates with high risks of thromboembolic incidence. The AF prevalence is predicted to rise due to population aging (4). However, the clinical characteristics, incidence rate, and prognosis of AF remain largely elusive.

We hereby described a case study of a 72 year old female who was admitted to our hospital with persistent AF and ST elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI).

Case description

This study was performed in June 2020 in Department of cardiology, Cangzhou Central Hospital. A 72-year-old female with histories of complete atrioventricular block, persistent AF, and diabetes mellitus, presented with complaints regarding chest pain radiating to the left arm and shoulder that began 6 hours prior to her arrival. Electrocardiogram revealed AF, complete atrioventricular block and ST-segment elevation in the anterior leads. 10 minutes after first medical contact she was given a combination of antiplatelet agents (aspirin, ticagrelor, IIb/IIIa receptor inhibitors) and atorvastatin. Emergency coronary angiography demonstrated multi-site coronary embolization, with abrupt 'cut-off' at the proximal of the left anterior descending artery (LAD) and the distal end of the left circumflex artery (LCX). No significant obstructive lesion was found in the right coronary artery (Figure 1).

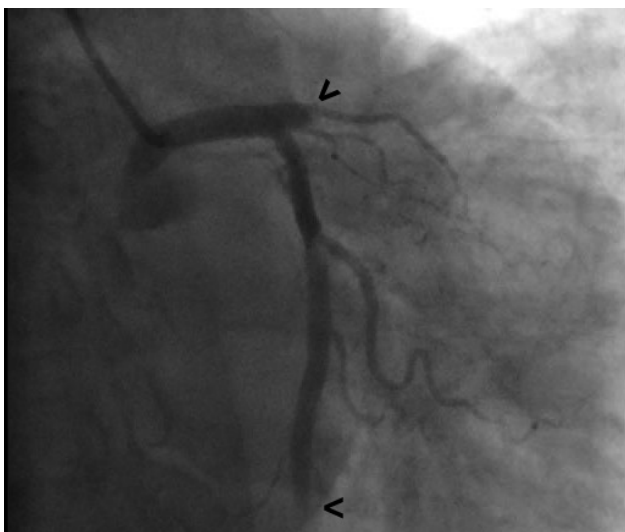


Figure 1. Emergency coronary angiography, arrow heads indicate abrupt 'cut-off' sites.



Figure 2. Coronary angiography after 2 weeks showed no residual obstructive lesions in the LAD and the LCX with TIMI 3 flow.

Despite that emergency thrombo-aspiration as well as balloon angioplasty was performed, the coronary blood flow kept TIMI (thrombolysis in myocardial infarction) 0 flow. Still, there appeared no improvement in the blood flow after intracoronary injection of 600 ug tirofiban. In consideration of her past history of untreated AF together with the angiography finding, AF-related coronary artery embolus was highly suggestive as the underlying pathophysiological evidence of the STEMI. 40 mg recombinant human prourokinase was then administered via aspiration thrombectomy catheter.

Two weeks later, she underwent another coronary angiography showed that no residual obstructive lesions in the LAD and the LCX with TIMI 3 flow (Figure 2).

Discussion

AMI events are mainly the results of thrombotic occlusion of coronary arteries following rupture or erosion of atherosclerotic plaques. Nevertheless, CE is increasingly acknowledged as a vital non-atherosclerotic factor to induce AMI (3). In a prior report using coronary angiography or autopsy data, 4 ~ 7% of patients with AMI had no atherosclerotic coronary disease (5). Another study based on autopsy findings reported that coronary artery embolic infarct was found in ~13% patients (55 out of 419) (6).

The current report on CE prevalence may be an underestimation, considering that elevated risks of thromboembolic incidence have been observed in patients with rheumatic valvular diseases, prosthesis, cardiomyopathy, intra-cardiac shunts, chronic AF, infective endocarditis, tumors, and several other hypercoagulable states (7, 8). As CE is less often, there is currently a lack of consensus guidelines for CE treatments. Among the possible therapeutic options, triple anti-platelet therapy

(clopidogrel, IIB/IIIa receptor inhibitors, aspirin) (9), intracoronary catheter aspiration (10), PTCA (11), implantation of stents (12), as well as coronary arterial thrombectomy (13) have been shown to be successful.

However, in our case, despite of thrombus aspiration and balloon dilatation, as well as intracoronary injection of IIB/IIIa antagonist agent, were administered to the patient, there was no restore of blood flow of coronaries.

In the century that angioplasty still under-developed, thrombolytic treatment was the standard treatment for STEMI. However, it gets rarely practiced nowadays following the advance of primary percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) technique. The most common cause of STEMI resulted from coronaries thrombosis is AF, and the most common origin of thrombus is the left appendage. The thrombus may be well organized. The pathophysiological components are different from the thrombus of unstable plaque rupture. Thrombus aspiration may do well in taking out the thrombus in order to restore blood flow, but not necessarily able to remove all the thrombus.

The standard treatment for cerebral thromboembolic event caused by AF is intravenous thrombolysis, and the successful rate is getting higher as the development of new lytic agent with less complication. Considered as a thromboembolic complication of AF, STEMI resulted by coronaries thromboembolism should receive thrombolytic treatment, and it might give a better outcome. Indeed, our patient was given alteplase lytic treatment after failed PCI, and repeated coronary angiography also showed resolution of clot. In retrospectively reconsideration, the thrombolytic treatment effect might be better if the drug was given via intracoronary route while intervention is ongoing.

Conclusion

In summary, CE-associated STEMI in AF patients is indeed a rare situation. Early systemic anti-thrombosis therapy as well as patient compliance are required to alleviate both short- and long-term adverse effects. Nonetheless, novel approaches for more effective CE treatments in the future are warranted.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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