



## Original paper

## Using a neural network to predict deviations in mean heart dose during the treatment of left-sided deep inspiration breath hold patients

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## ARTICLE INFO

## Keywords:

Mean heart dose  
Radiotherapy  
Breast cancer  
Deep inspiration breath hold  
Machine learning  
Keras  
Neural network

## ABSTRACT

**Purpose:** We investigated if a neural network could be used to predict the change in mean heart dose when a patient's heart deviates from its planned position during radiotherapy treatment.

**Methods:** Predictions were made based on parameters available at the time of treatment planning. The dose prescription, deep inspiration breath-hold (DIBH) amplitude, heart volume, lung volume, V90% and mean heart dose were used to predict the increase in dose to the heart when a shift towards the treatment field was undertaken. The network was trained using 3 mm, 5 mm and 7 mm shifts in heart positions for 50 patients' giving 150 data points in total. The neural network architecture was also varied to find the most optimal network design. The final neural network was then tested using cross-validation to evaluate the model's ability to generalise to new data.

**Results:** The optimal neural network found was comprised of a single hidden layer of 30 neurons. Based on twenty train/test splits, 94% of all prediction errors were below 0.2 Gy, 97.3% were below 0.3 Gy and 100% were below 0.5 Gy. The average RMSE and maximum prediction error over all train/test splits were 0.13 Gy and 0.5 Gy respectively.

**Conclusions:** Our approach using a neural network provides a clinically acceptable estimate of the increase in Mean Heart Dose (MHD), without the need for further imaging, contouring or evaluation. The trained neural network gives clinicians the information and tools required to evaluate what shift in heart position would be acceptable and which scenarios require immediate action before treatment continues.

## 1. Introduction

As medical technology advances, the volume of patient data accrued through diagnosis and treatment is growing substantially. As a result, there is increasing use of machine learning in radiotherapy using methods currently employed by large companies such as Google and Facebook [1–3]. Machine learning algorithms have been used to correlate image-based features with disease detection, diagnosis and clinical outcomes [4–9], to automatically segment structures [10–13], to predict tumour motion [14,15], to process medical images [16] and to predict QA results [17–19]. However, clinical adoption has been slow due to the high barrier to understanding these complex models, which are commonly considered “black boxes” to most clinicians [2]. In order to build confidence in the use of machine learning, models should be clearly described and also robustly evaluated using cross-validation methods to improve prediction performance and generalization to external data [1,2,20]. The model prediction accuracy should also be related back to clinical data, allowing the easy interpretation of the

likelihood and clinical impact of an incorrect prediction [2].

Breast cancer is the most common form of cancer among women world-wide [21], resulting in a large volume of data being available for machine learning. Radiotherapy has been shown to reduce the rate of breast cancer recurrence and breast cancer death if undertaken after surgery [22,23]. However, it also involves the irradiation of normal tissues which can be minimised, but not eliminated, using modern treatment and imaging techniques [24]. One of the primary organs at risk (OAR) for left-sided breast cancer patients is the heart. As breast cancer patients have a relatively good life expectancy, keeping the heart dose as low as possible becomes a key factor in minimising cardiovascular disease [25,26]. Published literature suggests that for left breast radiotherapy treatments, the heart should receive a Mean Heart Dose (MHD) of 1–5 Gy [27–31]. The UK consensus statements for post-operative radiotherapy in breast cancer state that the majority of left breast patients should be treated to a MHD < 2 Gy [32]. Darby et al related the MHD to clinical risk and found that the rate of major cardiac events increases linearly with the MHD by 7.4% per Gray [33].

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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejmp.2019.08.014>

Received 22 December 2018; Received in revised form 10 August 2019; Accepted 15 August 2019

Available online 26 August 2019

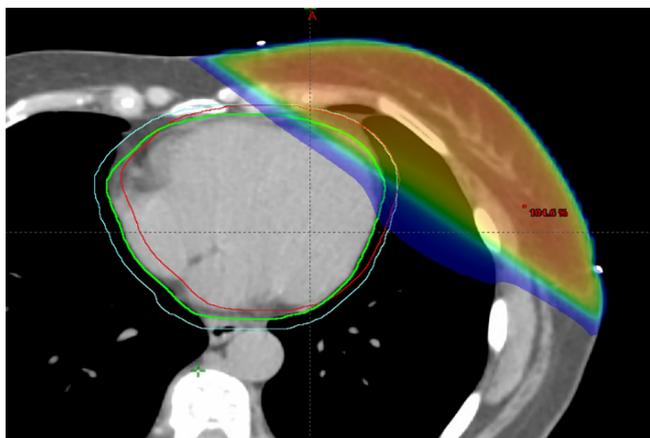
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For left-sided patients, mean heart dose is related to the distance between the heart and the treatment field and this distance can be maximised using prone or Deep Inspiration Breath Hold (DIBH) treatment techniques [31,34,35]. Studies have attempted, with varying results, to formalise this relationship using a metric called the maximum heart distance, defined as a measure of the portion of heart encroaching the treatment field [27,28,36]. However, these results are difficult to generalise for clinical use when a deviation in heart position is noted during treatment. We investigated if a neural network could be used to predict the change in planned MHD when the heart changes position during treatment, based on parameters available at the time of treatment planning. There are a wide variety of machine learning approaches available. However, for this study an artificial neural network was chosen due to its ability to model both linear and non-linear relationships. The steps taken to optimize the network architecture are outlined and results compared to previous literature where more traditional prediction methods were utilised.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. Data

Retrospective data from 50 left-breast DIBH patients treated with a tangential beam arrangement in the head-first supine position were included in this study. To generate data to train, optimise and test our model, each patient's heart structure was shifted 3 mm, 5 mm and 7 mm and the mean heart dose recorded for each shift, resulting in a total of 150 data points. To generate each shifted heart structure, the heart was initially expanded uniformly by 3 mm, 5 mm and 7 mm using Varian Eclipse's contouring tools (Varian Medical Systems, Palo Alto, CA, USA). These expanded structures were then used as a guide to shift the heart in a consistent manner towards the treatment field, as shown in Fig. 1.



**Fig. 1.** Left sided DIBH breast treatment region. The original heart is shown in green, expanded heart in cyan and shifted heart in red. The delivered dose is shown as a dose wash.

Changes in heart density were considered as each shifted heart would now contain lung density pixels. Shifted heart structures were assigned a density equivalent to the average heart density measured using the CT image data. The MHD was then re-calculated and compared to the original structure's MHD before density assignment. It was found that assigning a tissue equivalent density decreased the MHD in all cases and depended on the magnitude of the shift, e.g. the greater the shift the more lung density pixels required density re-assignment and the greater the decrease in MHD. The decrease was found to be  $-0.11 \text{ Gy} \pm 0.2 \text{ Gy}$  (1SD). As the unassigned heart slightly overestimates the MHD, it was considered appropriate to use as a

**Table 1**

Summary of the continuous parameters used to train the neural network.

	DIBH Amplitude (cm)	Heart Volume (cc)	Lung Volume (cc)	V90% (cc)	Planned MHD (Gy)
Count	150.0	150.0	150.0	150.0	150.0
Mean	1.0	649.8	2019.6	1400.8	1.27
Stdev	0.4	126.0	495.8	595.6	0.53
Min	0.3	469.4	863.4	467.6	0.40
25%	0.6	560.4	1745.4	1075.7	0.93
50%	0.9	617.3	2037.3	1358.5	1.16
75%	1.4	733.1	2289.7	1631.5	1.46
Max	2.0	973.2	3809.3	3792.3	2.82

conservative estimate due to the inherent uncertainty of contouring, MV imaging and intrafraction motion.

Seven predictive variables were used in the model: the prescription dose, DIBH amplitude, heart volume, lung volume, the volume of tissue receiving  $> 90\%$  of the prescription dose (V90%), planned MHD and the shift in heart position. Each variable was chosen as it was deemed likely to be predictive of the shifted MHD. For this study, the DIBH amplitude was calculated using each patient's breathing trace recorded using the Varian (Palo Alto, CA) Real-Time Position Management (RPM) system. Threshold bars are set  $\pm 2.5 \text{ mm}$  around the patient's stable breath-hold amplitude and the DIBH amplitude calculated as the distance between the patient's free-breathing baseline and the lowest threshold bar amplitude.

Of the seven parameters, the dose prescription for each patient was either 40 Gy/15# or 50 Gy/25# and the shifts taken were either 3 mm, 5 mm and 7 mm. The remaining five parameters were continuous in nature and are best described by the summary statistics outlined in Table 1 below.

### 2.2. Neural network

The neural network was trained and optimised on data from 50 patients using Keras (<https://keras.io/>). Keras is developed with a focus on enabling fast experimentation and allows a simple approach to the design and training of neural networks. It is written in Python and runs on top of TensorFlow, Google's open-source software for deep learning [37,38]. A neural network is typically composed of computational layers that process data in a hierarchical fashion. Each layer takes an input and produces an output, often computed as a non-linear function of a weighted linear combination of the input values as shown in Fig. 2. The output of one layer becomes an input to the next processing layer [37–39]. To find the optimal parameters for our network, Keras uses back-projection to find parameters  $w_1$  to  $w_n$ , and  $b_1$  to  $b_n$  that minimize the error on our training data.

### 2.3. Cross-validation

Network evaluation followed a k-fold cross-validation schema. As the first step, data from 50 patients were randomly separated into a random train/test split of 90%/10%. For each split, 90% of the data was used for predictor training, while the remaining 10% was used for testing model performance. To ensure we were not "lucky" in our initial split used for training and testing, we repeated the validation procedure for 20 random training–testing separations. For each train/test split, all previously trained information was completely erased from the model so that each trained model was unfamiliar with the previously trained data. This process was used to test different network architectures to find the most optimal network architecture and to evaluate the performance of our final network. However, using the results from cross-validation to make decisions regarding network architecture may inadvertently bias the network towards the test data. To ensure the decisions made by the authors were not directly influenced by the results

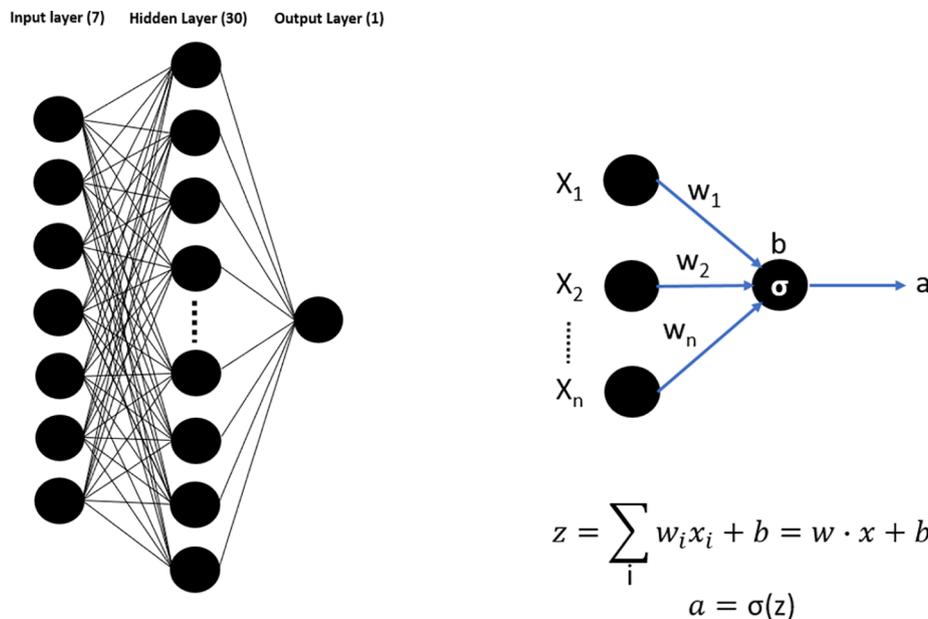


Fig. 2.  $x_i$  = Input value,  $w_i$  = Input weight,  $b$  = Bias term (threshold),  $\sigma$  = Activation function,  $a$  = Output value.

of the test data during the network optimisation phase, an additional 15 patients were included in the study to independently verify the final network performance.

#### 2.4. Network optimisation

To determine the optimal network, both the number of layers (i.e. depth) and neurons (i.e. width) were varied. The number of neurons was increased incrementally from 1 to 60 and the number of hidden layers increased from 1 to 3. Sigmoid, linear and Relu activation functions also were evaluated to find the most optimal activation function for the hidden layers. Cross-validation was undertaken to evaluate each network architecture on unseen data not used in training the network. The root mean squared prediction error (RMSE) and the maximum error in prediction from twenty models trained and tested using cross-validation was used to represent the performance of each network architecture to new data [40]. The neural network architecture which obtained the lowest RMSE and lowest maximum error during the cross-validation stage was deemed to be the optimal network for predicting the MHD.

#### 2.5. Model training and assessment

Once the most optimal network architecture was found, we progressed to the training and validation phase and set up a fully connected 3-layer neural network as shown in Fig. 2. The first layer contains 7 neurons representing the 7 input parameters of the model. The second “hidden” layer contains 30 neurons, found to be optimal from our network optimisation phase. As we want a single estimate based on our input parameters, the last layer is represented by a single neuron. The “Relu” activation function was utilised for the hidden layer only and all weights and biases were initialised as “uniform”. The training was undertaken over 5000 epochs using the “mean squared error” loss function and “Adam” optimizer. To prevent overfitting, early stopping was enabled to stop the network training when the validation loss was stable over 10 epochs [40]. A Gaussian noise regularization layer was also utilized, as added noise has been shown to achieve lower training loss by encouraging active exploration of parameter space [41]. The Keras documentation also describes the Gaussian noise layer as a method to prevent overfitting. The RMSE and maximum prediction error of our optimal network were found with cross-validation to test

whether the final optimised network performs well on new data not previously used for training. Lastly, to verify the results from our cross-validation on 50 patients, the network was used to predict the shifted MHD for 15 additional completely independent patients not previously used for either optimising network architecture or training the network.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Data exploration

The average planned MHD was 1.3 Gy  $\pm$  0.5 Gy (1SD). A shift of 3 mm, 5 mm and 7 mm resulted in an average shifted MHD of 1.8 Gy  $\pm$  0.8 Gy (1SD), 2.1 Gy  $\pm$  0.9 Gy (1SD) and 2.5 Gy  $\pm$  1.0 Gy (1SD) respectively. Our initial assessment of the raw data shows the MHD increased in a linear fashion and that the rate of change tended to increase with the initial MHD (Fig. 3). Only the initial planned MHD had a strong linear correlation ( $r > 0.9$ ) with the shifted MHD. The lung volume, V90% and prescription dose had weak correlations ( $r > 0.3$ ) while the DIBH amplitude and heart volume showed no linear

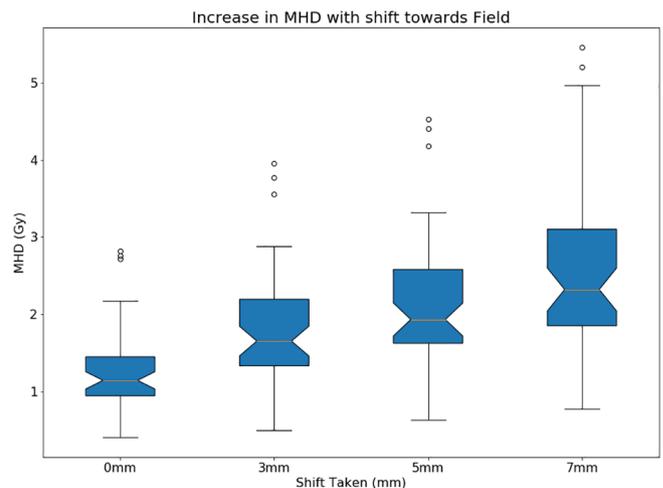


Fig. 3. Results from each shifted heart are shown. The approximately linear increase in MHD can be seen for each patient when the heart is shifted 0 mm (planned position), 3 mm, 5 mm and 7 mm from its original planned position.

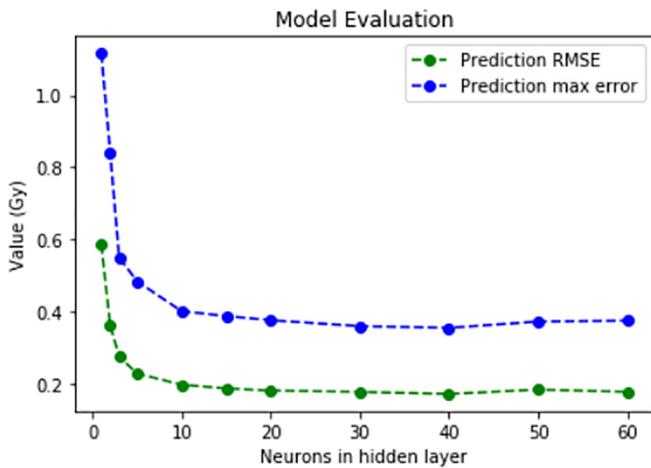


Fig. 4. Variation of network prediction ability with the number of hidden layer neurons.

correlation. Utilising these parameters in a neural network enables us to evaluate both linear and non-linear relationships between parameters, ensuring that any relationship between parameters that aid the prediction of the shifted MHD would be weighted higher than those that have little or no predictive relationship.

3.2. Model assessment

Increasing the number of hidden layers between 1 and 3 demonstrated that one single hidden layer was optimal for our data. No additional benefit was found when multiple additional hidden layers were used. However, the prediction ability of the network changed depending on the number of neurons in the hidden layer. The model prediction ability increased significantly when the number of neurons increased from 1 to 10, a very slight improvement was noted from 10 to 30 neurons and no extra improvement was found above 30 neurons, as shown in Fig. 4. Good cross-validation results were found using an early stopping patience variable of 10 epochs, increasing the number further didn't yield better prediction results and increases the likelihood of overfitting. The ReLU activation function consistently resulted in a lower RMSE and maximum prediction error compared to both linear and sigmoid activation functions and was used for the final model.

3.3. Model prediction accuracy

Results from 20 random train/test splits from our optimal network are shown in Fig. 5. Of a total 150 data points, 15 (10%) were used for testing on each train/test split resulting in a total of 300 predictions. Using the model described, 94% of all prediction errors were below 0.2 Gy, 97.3% were below 0.3 Gy and 100% were below 0.5 Gy. The average RMSE and maximum prediction error over all train/test splits were 0.13 Gy and 0.5 Gy respectively. Additional data from 15 completely independent patients resulted in predictions that correlated well with our cross-validation results. For shifts of 3 mm, 5 mm and 7 mm, 92.2% of all prediction errors were below 0.2 Gy, 97.4% were below 0.3 Gy and 100% were below 0.5 Gy. This confirms that the model performed as expected on new data and our decisions regarding network architecture did not favour test data.

4. Discussion

For left-sided breast cancer patients, mean heart dose is related to the distance between the heart and the treatment field. When this relationship changes during treatment, the increase in dose to the heart can be difficult to estimate. Traditionally, to evaluate the dosimetric impact of a difference in heart position, the imaging would first be repeated to evaluate consistency. If the heart position is consistent, a Cone Beam CT (CBCT) would be undertaken and the dosimetric impact evaluated by a Physicist. This process typically takes a number of days to complete and as patients typically receive treatment over 15–25 fractions, the patient would have received a large portion of their treatment before action is taken, reducing the impact of any intervention taken to rectify the issue. Alternatively, using the maximum heart distance to predict the mean heart dose has been shown to be prone to large uncertainties [27,28,36].

We have demonstrated that a neural network is a valid method to predict the increase in MHD when a deviation in heart position is noted during treatment. Prediction accuracy was found to be good as 94% of all prediction errors were below 0.2 Gy, 97.3% were below 0.3 Gy and 100% were below 0.5 Gy. The average RMSE and maximum prediction error over all train/test splits were 0.13 Gy and 0.5 Gy respectively. Based on the relationship between dose and risk of ischemic heart disease found by Darby et al [33], a prediction error of 0.2 Gy, 0.3 Gy and 0.5 Gy corresponds to a 1.5%, 2.2% and 3.7% increased risk of ischemic heart disease.

The uncertainty in measuring the shifted MHD was considered and found to be +/-0.12 Gy which would result in the network including

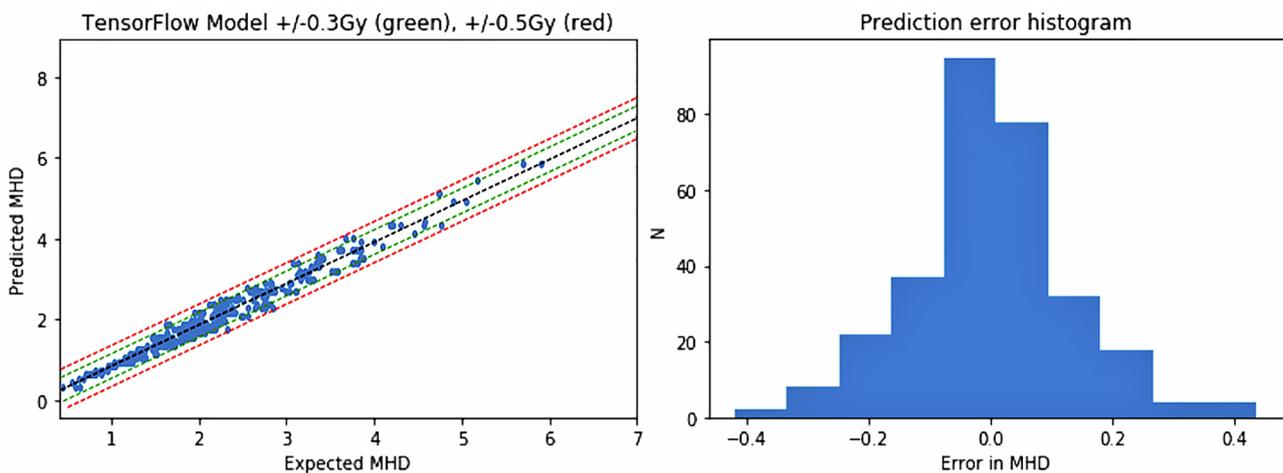


Fig. 5. Left: Prediction vs. Expected values. Error bars represent a prediction error level of +/-0.3% (green) and +/-0.5 Gy (red). Right: Histogram of all prediction errors in Gray.

this “noise” during training. To reduce this noise, an increased sample of patients could be used to further refine the prediction ability of the trained network.

These results are a significant improvement on previous studies using traditional prediction methods. Taylor et al and Kong et al found the maximum heart distance (d), defined as the maximum measure of heart protruding into the medial field, could be used as a predictor of the mean heart dose. Taylor et al’s results showed a prediction ability within 0.7 Gy<sub>2</sub> for 90% of patients and within 1.4 Gy<sub>2</sub> for 100% of patients. E.L. Lorenzen et al further investigated this relationship using linear regression analysis and found the relationship to be 2.43 Gy/cm (d) + 0.42 Gy with a RMSE ranging from 0.5 Gy to 4.5 Gy depending on the approach used.

The neural network used in this study was comprised of a single hidden layer with commonly used regularisation methods and parameters. Using Keras enabled fast experimentation for both optimizing the network architecture and validating the network. Keras also enables the user to query the weightings found during training such that the most predictive parameters, from the perspective of the neural network, can be obtained. We found that the planned MHD was the strongest parameter, which makes sense considering the relationship between how quickly the MHD increases with distance and the initial planned MHD in Fig. 3. The V90% was also strongly predictive, followed by the prescription dose, lung volume and lastly the heart volume. Each neuron in the hidden layer possessed a different combination of input parameter weightings corresponding to the different predictive relationships between the input variables. Investigating the weightings found by Keras for our single hidden layer neural network allows for interpretation of what inputs the network found to be most predictive. However, networks of higher complexity would be difficult to interpret in this manner.

Our approach using a neural network provides a clinically acceptable estimate of the increase in MHD, without the need for further imaging, contouring or evaluation. A clinician can provide an action level tolerance for treatment staff to follow when performing pre-treatment imaging. Estimated heart deviations below this tolerance allow the treatment staff to monitor the heart position with confidence that a serious dose deviation is not occurring.

## 5. Conclusions

We described a novel method to predict the change in MHD using a neural network when a deviation in heart position is noted during the treatment of left-sided DIBH breast cancer cases. The prediction is based on a number of parameters readily available at time of treatment planning. An optimal neural network was found by varying model parameters and using cross-validation to evaluate each models’ prediction ability. The trained neural network gives clinicians the information and tools required to evaluate what shift in heart position would be acceptable and which scenarios require immediate action before treatment commences. Also, the resources and time typically associated with following up these issues would be greatly reduced as no additional contouring or calculations are required, only parameters in the patient’s treatment plan. Cross-validation shows the neural network is generalisable to new data with a RMSE of 0.13 Gy and maximum error in prediction < 0.5 Gy. Results were related back to clinical risk models presented in the literature. Finally, we have shown that neural networks offer improved prediction abilities compared to traditional approaches for predicting the MHD for DIBH breast cancer cases.

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