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Supplementary appendix

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Are all clinical decisions equal? A retrospective analysis combining the strengths of radiologists and AI for breast cancer screening

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eMethods 1. Study inclusion criteria and information regarding the German national breast screening program

The German national breast screening program operates in full compliance with the quality process indicators of the European guidelines on breast cancer screening (EUREF) and maintains high standards for diagnostic accuracy. In Germany, women are invited to participate in breast screening every two years. A double-reading system is used where initial reads are conducted by two certified physicians who are blinded to each other's decisions. Both readers have professional experience of at least 5,000 mammogram readings per year. Both readers have access to patient records while preparing their assessment, including breast cancer history and images from prior studies. In situations where one or both readers assign BI-RADS > 2, a consensus conference is held whereby a group of readers guided by a leading physician reconciles the differences in interpretation. Each year, ~3% of all women presenting to screening are recalled. 1·1% will undergo biopsy, resulting in 0·59% of the total screening population diagnosed with breast cancer.¹ Recall rates range between $1·4–5·4%$, indicating considerable variation between screening sites within one screening system.¹

The following steps were taken to determine inclusion:

- Confirm the time range (500 days; 27 months) after the initial screening period.
- If there is one malignant biopsy in this period, the study does not count as negative.
- If there is a study in this period, and it does not have a malignant biopsy, then the study is considered a follow-up negative.
- If there is no study in this period (500 days; 27 months), we looked at the next study that followed after the initial screening period, but no later than 4–5 years.

The dates from which the retrospective data were extracted from each screening site are as follows:

Screening Site	Date Range of Extracted Retrospective Data
Internal screening site 1	01 January 2008 - 31 December 2017
Internal screening site 2	01 January 2007 – 26 August 2019
Internal screening site 3	01 January 2007 - 31 December 2018
Internal screening site 4	01 January 2008 - 31 December 2017
Internal screening site 5	01 January 2010 – 30 April 2020
Internal screening site 6	01 January 2008 - 31 December 2017
External screening site 1	01 January 2020 - 31 December 2020
External screening site 2	25 November $2010 - 25$ November 2020

The distribution of studies according to ACR breast density categories from the external test dataset (external screening sites 1 and 2) is shown in the bar chart below:

eMethods 2. Threshold setting and selection of operating points on the validation dataset

Here we present the results on the validation dataset (Figure 2), which were used to set all thresholds. For the decision referral approach, the exemplary operating point was determined such that sensitivity is improved maximally without decreasing specificity.

We determined sets of two thresholds which allowed for the categorization of studies going through the decision referral process: i.e., normal triaging, safety net, and referral to the radiologist. Thresholds were represented as sets of two operating points. The nomenclature used in the table below and in Table 1 can be understood as: NT@<*algorithm sensitivity on validation dataset*>+SN@<*algorithm specificity on validation dataset*>.

The stand-alone AI approach required a single threshold to classify studies as positive and negative and was set such that the radiologist's sensitivity was maintained on validation data.

Triaging performance was defined as the rate of studies correctly tagged as normal, i.e., the fraction that could be automated.

CI: confidence interval, NT: normal triaging, SN: safety net, Δ: difference in sensitivity and specificity when AI is introduced

To further describe the threshold setting, the figures below are presented for illustrative purposes. The model exhibits a score between 0 and 1.0 indicating the malignancy of a study. Scores below the threshold for negative predictions (normal triaging) or above the threshold for positive predictions (safety net) are considered confident; all others, that is, those between the two thresholds are considered unconfident and deferred to the radiologist.

For the stand-alone AI approach, only a single threshold is needed as predictions are performed on all studies. Scores below/above the threshold are considered negative/positive, respectively.

Overall screening diagnostic accuracy for radiologists, stand-alone AI, and decision referral on validation data. Sensitivity and specificity are given for radiologists (black), stand-alone AI (yellow) and decision referral (green for the exemplary configuration NT@97%+SN@98%, blue for alternative configurations from eMethods 2 table). In addition, we present ROC curves and their area under the ROC (AUROC) to evaluate the AI system performance over its entire operating range on the internal validation test dataset $(N=21,366)$ (Figure A) and on the subset of data for which it is able to produce its most confident predictions for the exemplary configuration NT@97%+SN@98% (Figure B). Error bars denote 95% confidence intervals. The decision referral approach outperforms the independent radiologist in either or both sensitivity and specificity depending on the configuration (A) by surpassing the radiologist throughout on the confident set of predictions (B). Resulting sensitivity and specificity values for all studies are comparable to or greater than the radiologist alone, while 38·6%–68·5% of studies are able to be safely triaged (Table 1). AI: artificial intelligence system, AUC: area under the curve, AUROC: area under the receiver operating characteristic curve, CI: confidence interval

eMethods 3. Sample weights

Studies leading to consensus conference, or which were subjected to additional diagnostic imaging and biopsy, make up a small proportion of cases in a real screening population (table below). These are typically oversampled for AI evaluation to accurately estimate the true positive and false positive rate with low variance. To correct for this enrichment in the evaluation and to produce generalizable measures of diagnostic accuracy representative of the actual screening population, inverse probability weighting was used to derive sample weights which reflect the actual distribution of studies in the German breast screening population.^{1,3,4} For example, if a certain subset represents 1% of the data, but in the evaluation dataset actually makes up 10%, then each of the individual samples will get a weight of 0·1. Studies assigned to consensus conference and recalled studies are considered ambiguous findings; the percentage of these cases seen in practice likely differ largely by screening sites, and as such, weights must be derived according to screening-specific settings. For the study at hand, we used reference values from the German screening setting. If not stated otherwise, all metrics (ROC curves, specificities, etc.) reported in the main manuscript were computed with inverse probability weighting. To illustrate the impact of reweighting on the performance of the standalone AI system as well as the average radiologist performance, the figure below shows unweighted results in comparison to the internal and external test dataset data shown in Figure 3 and Figure 4 in the main text.

Derivation of sample weights for the external test dataset

Unweighted performance results on the external test dataset

Derivation of sample weights for the internal test dataset

Unweighted performance results on internal test dataset

eMethods 4. Model architecture and training procedure (network training)

The main component of the model is a deep CNN with 34 layers. An ensemble of multiple such models was used to mitigate overconfident predictions under dataset shift.² The strength of CNNs to learn hierarchical feature representations was also considered for the design of the three-step training strategy: (1) a smaller network was pretrained to classify patches in order to capture the fine-grained, texture like information of different lesion types and their malignancy. (2) The pre-trained network from (1) served as initialization of a larger network that was trained to perform cancer classification on an image level. This requires the network to learn how to aggregate local lesion into global image information. (3) A logistic regression model was trained to perform study-level cancer classification, aggregating information from the different image classifications in the study. Separate study models were used for the safety net feature and triaging in order to optimize both specificity and sensitivity.

The outputs of the study-level models are real values $[0.0 \text{ to } 1.0]$. These are converted to binary decisions by applying a threshold. For the triaging model, a threshold is determined based on the desired sensitivity. All predictions below that threshold are considered negative. For the safety net model, a threshold is determined based on the desired specificity. All predictions above that threshold are considered positive. Predictions that are considered neither positive nor negative are referred to the radiologist. An illustration of this threshold setting is given in eMethods 2.

Patches centered around malignant and benign lesion annotations were used for pre-training a CNN with 28 layers, whose weights were subsequently used to initialize a deeper network with 34 layers to learn the aggregation of patch level to image level features. At the patch level, a multi-task loss minimized the cross-entropy between output units and lesion malignancy (ground truth label from histopathology) as well as the associated radiological findings (using annotations according to BI-RADS as described in the main manuscript). Optimization was performed via stochastic gradient descent (learning rate=1e-4, momentum=0·9) for 60k steps and a batch size of 100. Early stopping based on the validation loss was applied to select the set of weights to be used for initializing the image model. Image-level malignancy labels were derived from associated radiology and histopathology reports. Image-level labels were learned via cross-entropy minimization running SGD for 60k steps with a batch size of 36 (maximized to fit into the memory of 4 GPUs) and a cosine-decayed learning rate of 2e-3. Early stopping based on the image level validation loss was used to determine the final set of weights. This set of weights was used to extract features for the study level logistic regression model. Besides early stopping, overfitting was prevented via L2 regularization and data augmentation applied to both patches and images (translation, rotation, flipping, and fractional rescaling). Class balancing was applied during both patch- as well as image-level training. Four different study-level models were trained using slightly different hyperparameter settings in order to encourage prediction diversity. The ensemble member scores were averaged in order to get a single prediction per study.

eTable 1. Accompanying values for Figure 5 (Subgroup sensitivity on external test data for the exemplary operating point NT@97%+SN@98%)

eFigure 1. Subgroup sensitivity on internal test data for the exemplary operating point NT@97%+SN@98%

eTable 2. Accompanying values for eFigure 1 (Subgroup sensitivity on the internal test data for the exemplary operating point NT@97%+SN@98%)

Method	Stratification	Stratum	No. studies	Specificity (95% CI)	Δ Specificity (P value)
Rad.			19997	93.4% (93.1%, 93.7%)	
AI			19997	89.5% (89.0%, 89.9%)	-3.9% (p=0)
DR			19997	93.8% (93.6%, 94.1%)	0.5% (p=0.0002)
Rad.	Manufacturer	Fuji	1379	93.3% (92.1%, 94.3%)	
AI	Manufacturer	Fuji	1379	95.7% (94.7%, 96.8%)	2.4% (p=0.0004)
DR	Manufacturer	Fuji	1379	95.9% (94.9%, 96.7%)	2.6% (p=0)
Rad.	Manufacturer	Hologic	10643	93.5% (93.1%, 93.8%)	
AI	Manufacturer	Hologic	10643	88.7% (88.1%, 89.3%)	-4.7% (p=0)
DR	Manufacturer	Hologic	10643	93.6% (93.2%, 94.1%)	0.2% (p=0.28)
Rad.	Manufacturer	Siemens	7975	93.3% (92.8%, 93.8%)	
AI	Manufacturer	Siemens	7975	89.4% (88.6%, 90.0%)	-3.9% (p=0)
DR	Manufacturer	Siemens	7975	93.8% (93.3%, 94.2%)	0.5% (p=0.009)

eTable 3. Specificities by manufacturer for stand-alone AI and decision referral (NT@97%+SN@98%) vs. radiologists on the internal test dataset

Method	Stratification	Stratum	No. studies	Specificity (95% CI)	Δ Specificity (P value)
Rad.			80058	93.4% (93.2%, 93.6%)	
AI			80058	91.3% (91.1%, 91.5%)	-2.0% (p=0)
DR			80058	94.3% (94.2%, 94.5%)	1.0% (p=0)
Rad.	Manufacturer	Fuji	15653	95.0% (94.6%, 95.4%)	
AI	Manufacturer	Fuji	15653	93.1% (92.6%, 93.4%)	-2.0% (p=0)
DR	Manufacturer	Fuji	15653	95.8% (95.4%, 96.1%)	0.8% (p=0)
Rad.	Manufacturer	Hologic	19121	93.4% (92.9%, 93.8%)	
AI	Manufacturer	Hologic	19121	88.9% (88.4%, 89.3%)	-4.5% (p=0)
DR	Manufacturer	Hologic	19121	93.3% (92.9%, 93.7%)	-0.1% (p=0.49)
Rad.	Manufacturer	Siemens	45284	92.8% (92.5%, 93.1%)	
AI	Manufacturer	Siemens	45284	91.8% (91.5%, 92.0%)	-1.0% (p=0)
DR	Manufacturer	Siemens	45284	94.3% (94.0%, 94.5%)	1.5% (p=0)

eTable 4. Specificities by manufacturer for stand-alone AI and decision referral (NT@97%+SN@98%) vs. radiologists on the external test dataset

eMethods 5. Localization analysis of the safety net

The safety net's predictions would in practice be shown to the user. In order to localize the lesion deemed most suspicious by the safety net, we explained those images that would trigger the safety net by computing approximate SHAP values for the network layer that corresponds to the patch level classifications (training stage 1).⁵ This gives us x-y coordinates pointing to lesions in images.

In the following, we analyzed how well the safety net's marker positions (x, y coordinates in the image) can localize biopsy-proven, malignant lesions by checking whether the x,y coordinates would fall inside the rectangular bounding box surrounding polygon annotations. Each image can individually cause the safety net to be triggered and we display the marker position on each of those images. For that, we filter the dataset to images that contain at least one malignant annotation. This allows us to analyze the localization performance on an image level: if the marker position resides inside any malignant annotation, we count this as a hit. The figure displays the localization performance as a fraction over all images vs. specificity (x-axis, i.e. different operating points). There is an important trend: the more confident (higher specificity) the model predictions, the better the localization performance. Exemplarily, for a specificity of 98·0%, we could correctly localize ~95% of the findings. We believe that this will support the radiologist in detecting the most suspicious lesions flagged by the safety net.

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