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Elastic Deformation of Optical Coherence Tomography Images of Diabetic Macular Edema for Deep-Learning Models Training: How Far to Go?

DANIEL BAR-DAVID¹, LAURA BAR-DAVID², YINON SHAPIRA³, RINA LEIBU², DALIA DORI², ASEEL GEBARA², RONIT SCHNEOR¹, ANATH FISCHER¹, AND SHIRI SOUDRY^{2,4,5}

¹Faculty of Mechanical Engineering, Technion Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa 3200003, Israel

²Department of Ophthalmology, Rambam Health Care Campus, Haifa 3109601, Israel

³Department of Ophthalmology, Carmel Medical Center, Haifa 3436212, Israel

⁴Clinical Research Institute at Rambam, Rambam Health Care Campus, Haifa 3109601, Israel

⁵The Ruth and Bruce Rappaport Faculty of Medicine, Technion Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa 3525433, Israel

(Daniel Bar-David and Laura Bar-David contributed equally to this work.) CORRESPONDING AUTHOR: D. BAR-DAVID (danielba@technion.ac.il)

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ABSTRACT – Objective: To explore the clinical validity of elastic deformation of optical coherence tomography (OCT) images for data augmentation in the development of deep-learning model for detection of diabetic macular edema (DME). Methods: Prospective evaluation of OCT images of DME ($n = 320$) subject to elastic transformation, with the deformation intensity represented by (σ). Three sets of images, each comprising 100 pairs of scans (100 original & 100 modified), were grouped according to the range of (σ), including low-, medium- and high-degree of augmentation; ($\sigma = 1-6$), ($\sigma = 7-12$), and ($\sigma = 13-18$), respectively. Three retina specialists evaluated all datasets in a blinded manner and designated each image as 'original' versus 'modified'. The rate of assignment of 'original' value to modified images (false-negative) was determined for each grader in each dataset. Results: The false-negative rates ranged between 71-77% for the low-, 63-76% for the medium-, and 50-75% for the high-augmentation categories. The corresponding rates of correct identification of original images ranged between 75-85% ($p > 0.05$) in the low-, 73-85% ($p > 0.05$ for graders 1 & 2, $p = 0.01$ for grader 3) in the medium-, and 81-91% ($p < 0.005$) in the high-augmentation categories. In the subcategory ($\sigma = 7-9$) the false-negative rates were 93-83%, whereas the rates of correctly identifying original images ranged between 89-99% ($p > 0.05$ for all graders). Conclusions: Deformation of low-medium intensity ($\sigma = 1-9$) may be applied without compromising OCT image representativeness in DME.

INDEX TERMS Data augmentation, OCT, deep learning, DME, elastic deformation.

Clinical and Translational Impact Statement—Elastic deformation may efficiently augment the size, robustness, and diversity of training datasets without altering their clinical value, enhancing the development of high-accuracy algorithms for automated interpretation of OCT images.

I. INTRODUCTION

In the developed world, diabetic retinopathy is a leading cause of preventable blindness among the working age population [1]. Of an estimated 425 million people with diabetes worldwide, nearly 10% are afflicted with a

vision-threatening disease, with diabetic macular edema (DME) being the leading etiology [2]. Left untreated, DME is associated with an increased risk for irreversible central visual loss [3], hence the importance of early detection and treatment [4]. This condition is characterized by abnormal

retinal thickening, a cystic pattern of intraretinal fluid accumulation, and intraretinal lipid or protein deposition which can be detected on ophthalmoscopic examination of the macula. Optical coherence tomography (OCT)-derived measures are the standard of care in the diagnosis of DME and in monitoring of therapeutic effects [5]. The multitude of morphological information provided by OCT in eyes with DME has advanced our understanding of this medical condition, because it enabled better detection and quantification of the macular thickening [6]. More importantly, it demonstrated that macular edema extends to additional features beyond mere retinal fluid [7]. Indeed, DME is a complex clinical entity with various morphological characteristics that should be considered to choose the appropriate therapeutic approach and understand its potential benefits. The analysis of OCT and identification of its related pathological features is complex and requires highly trained retina experts. Manual interpretations are extremely time consuming, with variable repeatability and interobserver agreement.

Computer-Aided Diagnosis (CAD) systems can facilitate interpretation of medical images, with rising global interest. In recent years, deep-learning models have been applied in CAD, leading to meaningfully improved results and higher ability to automatically detect abnormalities on medical images [8]. Deep-learning, a class of machine-learning inspired by the neuronal layers that constitute the human brain, has generated a revitalization in the fields of artificial intelligence and computer-aided vision. It utilizes multiple layers of neural networks to receive, process and extract features with various levels of abstraction from the data input without the need of manual feature engineering. Convolutional neural networks (CNN) is a special type of neural networks which is typically applied for image analysis tasks because it preserves the spatial relationship between pixels. In the field of retinal imaging, several studies based on CNN have already shown good performance on OCT images to classify retinal diseases such as diabetic retinopathy [9], [10] and age-related macular degeneration [11], [12], and to identify their features [13], [14]. It is expected that deep-learning methods will continue to be applied for the development of computational OCT-based diagnostic tools for DME and additional macular conditions.

One of the major challenges to the development of any deep-learning based image analysis is the need of large training datasets, which are sets of example images used to construct and fit the algorithm. In the case of supervised learning, annotated images are needed for the algorithm training. To date, only few large public OCT datasets from multiple imaging devices are widely available [15]. Moreover, the extraction of sufficiently-large dataset of macular images and human reading for their manual annotation is time-consuming and requires high-level expertise in retinal medicine and detailed interpretation of OCT imaging. Strategies have been developed to overcome this challenge and counter the effect of limited datasets comprising small numbers of annotated images, to enable effective training of CNN.

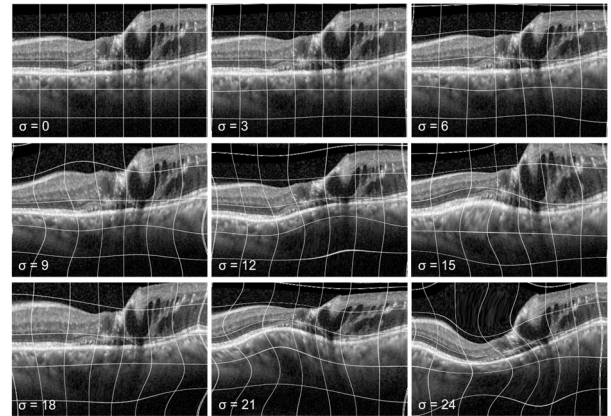


FIGURE 1. Elastic transformation of optical coherence tomography (OCT). An OCT image from an eye with diabetic macular edema (DME) was subjected to varying intensities of elastic deformation, ranging between $\sigma = 0$ (no deformation) to $\sigma = 24$. The grid is added to better visualize the configuration and magnitude of the applied transformation.

Among these, data augmentation is commonly employed. Data augmentation provides an effective approach to artificially expand and diversify an existing dataset without the need to acquire new images, by applying transformations on original ones. Some of the most popular data augmentation approaches include basic transformations such as random flipping, rotating, scaling, shifting, noising, and others. These elemental conversions are vastly used given their proved efficacy in improving performance [16].

A higher-level technique for data augmentation involves the introduction of random elastic deformations, in which the shape, geometry, and size of the object can be modified, often in a complex manner (Figure 1). Implementation of elastic deformations consists of several separate steps and therefore can be more variable than basic transformations. Elastic deformation has the characteristic of affecting the intrastructural information of an image. In medical imaging, living human objects are inherently subject to naturally-occurring transformations which can be extrapolated to elastic deformations for the purpose of data augmentation for training datasets. This allows the model to better generalize and accurately identify anatomical structures, even when they appear differently due to factors like patient movement or physiological changes. To date, however, the most appropriate application of elastic deformation on retinal images for training data has not been determined.

Here, we explored this approach in the development of deep-learning model for automated detection of DME in OCT images. Specifically, we set to determine the degree of elastic deformation which could be applied to OCT images from eyes with DME without compromising their realism or clinical aptness.

II. METHODS

A. DATASET

The study protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Rambam Health Care Campus, Haifa, Israel,

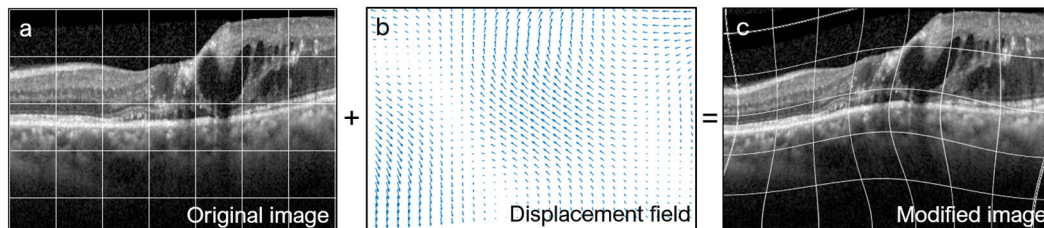


FIGURE 2. Applying realistic elastic deformation on OCT images. (a) an original OCT scan. (b) The displacement field consists of displacement vectors that define for each pixel in the original OCT image the distance and direction of displacement from the initial position to the final position. (c) The displacement vectors applied on the 2D OCT image result in the modified OCT image.

TABLE 1. Baseline characteristics of the study participants NPDR: Non proliferative diabetic retinopathy, PDR: Proliferative diabetic retinopathy, CRT: Central retinal thickness.

Characteristic	Rate among subjects (n=320)
Age, mean (SD), years	73±5.7
Male (%)	47.6%
Systemic comorbidities	
Hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, ischemic heart disease (%)	78.4%
Type II diabetes	88.7%
HbA1C, %	10.8±2.6
Ophthalmic data	
OD (%)	53.4%
OS (%)	46.6%
Retinopathy grade	NPDR- 43.2%, PDR- 28.3%
CRT in study eye, mean (SD), μm	361±102
Center-involving DME (%)	73%

and adhered to the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki. A database was gathered comprising macular spectral domain (SD)-OCT images from patients treated at the Retina Service of the Department of Ophthalmology, Rambam Health Care Campus, Haifa, Israel, between 2016 and 2019. Eligible participants for the study were patients affected by DME (Table 1) from whom the images were acquired as part of their routine clinical care. Images from 320 patients (320 eyes) manifesting either non-proliferative or proliferative diabetic retinopathy in all severity grades were randomly selected for the study.

All images were acquired with a HRA+OCT Spectralis OCT device (Heidelberg Engineering GmbH 69121 Heidelberg, Germany) using a 49-line raster macula scan. From each subject, a single cross-sectional macular (2D) image encompassing the foveal center was selected. A trained ophthalmologist reviewed the images at baseline to assure all indeed manifested features typical for DME, including retinal thickening with intraretinal cystic or non-cystic fluid, as well as subretinal fluid, hyperreflective foci, vitreomacular

interface abnormalities and ellipsoid zone and external limiting membrane disruption. The original images (1008×596 pixels, including the Scanning Laser Ophthalmoscope Infrared image and B-scan) were de-identified and cropped to a size of 496×352 pixels (containing only the B-scan) which is suitable for the computational model while preserving the original image resolution and avoiding loss of relevant information. The image dimensions remained at 496×352 pixels through the framework. The dataset utilized in this study has been released and is [publicly available](#).

B. ELASTIC DEFORMATION

Previously reported distortion approaches [17], [18] seem improper for retinal imaging since they involve local displacement which can introduce overlap and discontinuity of the retinal layers. We therefore applied a more global elastic deformation which affects a relatively large area of the image, leaving the image overall smooth and continuous.

The elastic deformation process of a 2D OCT scan consists of three main steps.

First, a 2D grid composed of n by m discrete cells is generated to set the value and position of the control points that determine the surface shape. Each cell is assigned with arbitrary values (\hat{u}_j, \hat{v}_j) which express the horizontal and vertical magnitude of deformation applied onto this region. The grid size is set empirically ($m = n = 3$) in order to create a relatively global transformation such that the deformation of each cell affects a significant part of the image. The values of each cell (\hat{u}_j, \hat{v}_j) are randomly sampled from a normal distribution of mean $\mu = 0$ and a standard deviation σ experimentally set:

$$\chi \sim \mathbf{N}(\mu = \mathbf{0}, \sigma^2) \quad (1)$$

This 3×3 grid fully covers the area of the 2D OCT scan.

The second step is to generate the horizontal and vertical displacement fields $u(x, y)$ and $v(x, y)$ (Figure 2) which lies on the control points value (\hat{u}_j, \hat{v}_j) . The components of the displacement vector (u_i, v_i) are determined by the application of a bicubic spline interpolation between the values (\hat{u}_j, \hat{v}_j) of the 3×3 grid. As a result, a continuous displacement field is formed consisting of displacement vectors indicating the distance and direction from the initial to the final position of

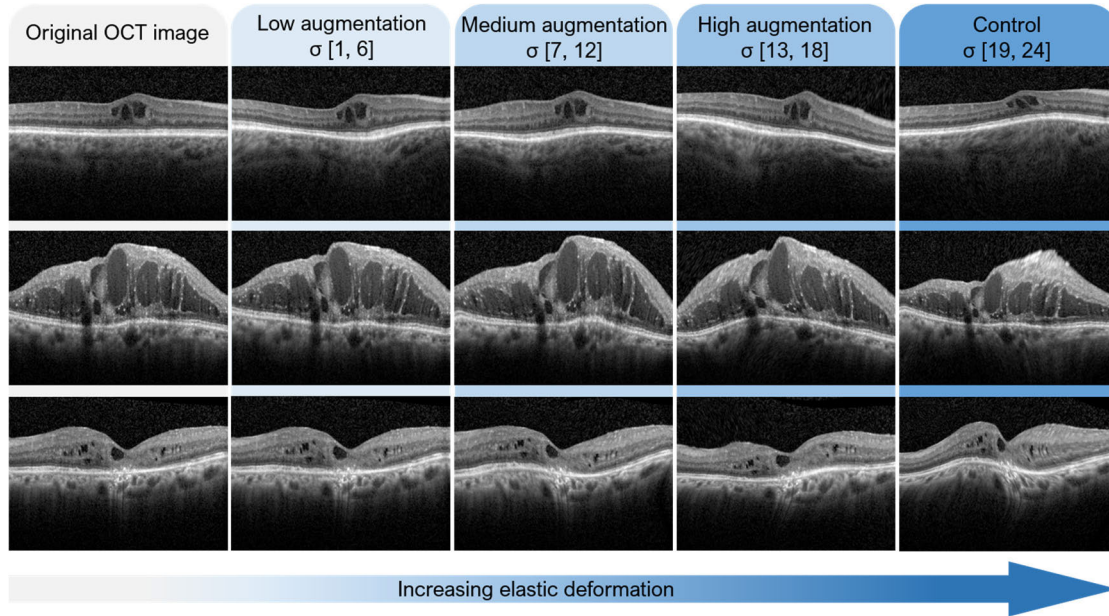


FIGURE 3. Categories of elastic transformation of optical coherence tomography (OCT) images of diabetic macular edema (DME). Four ranges of deformation intensity: low-, medium-, high-, and extreme-level of deformation, indicated by increasing σ values, were applied on original OCT images. The higher σ value is, the greater distortion in the image becomes more apparent.

each pixel of the 2D OCT image. Finally, the displacement field is applied on the 2D OCT image by shifting each pixel intensity to its new position using bilinear interpolation.

$$(\mathbf{x}'_i, \mathbf{y}'_i) = (\mathbf{x}_i + \mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{y}_i + \mathbf{v}_i) \quad (2)$$

where (u_i, v_i) are the components of the displacement vector, and (x', y') and (x, y) are the pixels positions in the modified and original image, respectively.

The σ value indicates the intensity of the deformation. As shown in Figure 1, when the standard deviation σ is low, the randomly generated grid values are close to zero and consequently the displacement field is small resulting with low deformation. For increasing σ values, the randomly generated grid values are larger and consequently the displacement field is significant resulting with more readily apparent deformation. The code implementation for this study has been released and is [publicly available](#).

C. EVALUATION OF THE DEFORMATION

Three sets of images, each comprising 100 pairs of scans, i.e. 100 original and 100 modified, were grouped according to the intensity of the elastic deformation applied. The range of the deformation (σ) selected for each category was 1-6, 7-12, and 13-18, for the low-, medium- and high-degree of augmentation, respectively (Figure 3). A fourth set of images, including 20 pairs of images subject to extremely high augmentation σ range 19-24, served as control. Three retina specialists with an extensive clinical experience (more than 10 years) in the management of macular diseases and analysis of clinical OCT images were recruited as graders for an evaluation study.

In the first step of the study, each grader independently evaluated the 640 OCT images and was asked to determine whether they were original images or potentially deformed ones. To facilitate the process, a graphical user interface was implemented, where the image is displayed on the screen and the user can select one of two possible choices: *Original* or *Modified*. The 640 images from the four categories of deformation level were shuffled and displayed in a random order. The reviewers were able to go forward or backward without time limit to evaluate each image. To get the most objective answers, the reviewers were not provided with any information on the percentage of original scans in the dataset, nor were they informed on the degrees of elastic deformation employed.

Next, following examination of the results obtained at the first grading step, to refine the maximal deformation level which was deemed realistic by the clinical graders, a second study step was undertaken. A new range of data augmentation level (σ) was selected based on smaller bins of the intermediate range of deformations, namely ($\sigma = 7-9$) and ($\sigma = 10-11$), and a different set of OCT images, including 100 pairs of images (100 original and 100 modified counterparts) was designed for each new subcategory. The 3 clinical readers independently graded the new datasets and were asked to determine whether each of the images could be acceptable as a representative image of DME, in their opinion.

D. SAMPLE SIZE CALCULATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Data were analyzed by the StatSoft Statistica software, version 10 (StatSoft, OK, USA).

The following assumptions and criteria defined a “realistic” intensity of deformation:

1) A minimum of 60% rate of designation of augmented (modified) images as ‘original’ (false-negatives) served as a criterion to define a “realistic” intensity of deformation. This criterion corresponds to a delta of 10% from chance designation (50%) by the graders. That is, this rate corresponds to a higher chance of designating an augmented image as ‘original’ than labeling it as ‘modified’.

2) The original (non-modified) images served as the ‘standard’ comparison group representing “real-life” non-modified images recognition. We assumed that at least 85% of the ‘standard’ images will be correctly assigned as ‘original’ (true-negatives), accounting for anticipated confusion error during the rating of the random images presented in the sets.

3) For each grader (and each set/category of deformation), a non-significant difference in true-negatives and false-negatives rates was mandatory in order to define a “realistic” intensity of deformation.

4) For each grader and each set, both criteria 1 and 3 had to be met. To this end a non-inferiority sample size calculation was performed yielding the following null hypothesis: If there is a true difference in favor of an ‘original’ image recognition [standard group] of 5%, then 192 images (96 images per group) are required to be 80% confident ($\beta = 0.8$) that the upper limit of a one-sided 95% confidence interval ($\alpha = 0.05$) will exclude a difference in favor of the standard group of more than 20%. Based on this assumption, 200 images were included in each set of deformation category (100 non-modified and 100 modified counterparts). Proportions of true-negatives and false-negatives were compared by chi-square test. A two-sided p value of less than 0.05 was considered significant.

E. DEEP LEARNING EXPERIMENT

To critically examine the value of data augmentation for the performance of the deep-learning model, we performed a validation study on a segmentation task. Our deep learning experiment was run on a segmentation task rather than a classification one, because manual annotation of medical images required for segmentation training is a time-consuming and costly process, and such available datasets are even more scarce. A total of 70 macular OCT volume scans were randomly collected from 70 DME patients manifesting a broad range of disease features and severity levels who were not included in the previous experiment. From each volume scan, a single cross-sectional image of the macula was manually segmented by a trained ophthalmologist. The dataset was split as follows: 50 manually-segmented images for training of the model for the segmentation task, and 20 for validation. For the segmentation architecture, we implemented the U-net [19] convolutional neural network. The network receives an OCT image and generates a segmentation map in which every pixel is assigned with a label indicating whether it is part of an intraretinal fluid cyst. A common metric, the dice score, was

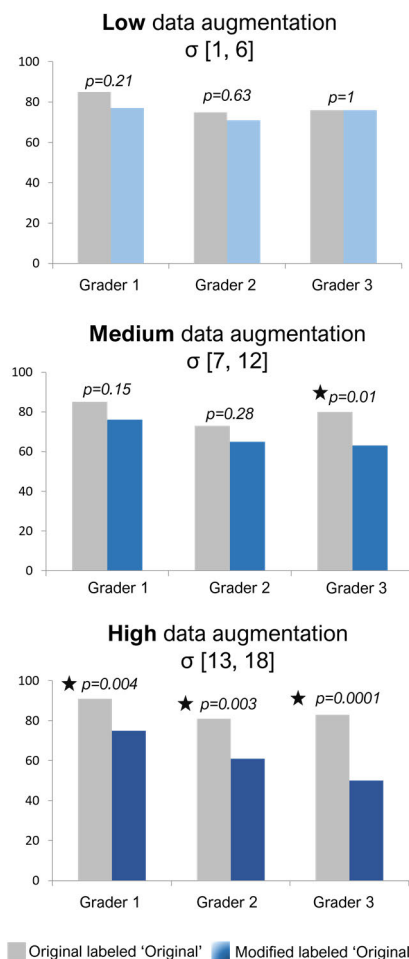


FIGURE 4. Pairwise comparison of the number of modified images labeled ‘original’ (blue columns) and the original images labeled ‘original’ (grey columns) by the three graders for the Low-, Medium-, and High-levels of image data augmentation.

used to compare the model output against a reference mask to evaluate the accuracy of the segmentation.

Next, we evaluated the performance of the deep-learning segmentation network while applying elastic deformation on the training data. We employed four training strategies: the baseline, in which the original images were used without transformation, and three groups in which elastic deformation was applied, with the range of intensity devised based on our results, meaning ($\sigma = [1-9], [10-18], [19-24]$). This approach enabled to determine the training dataset parameters which provided the optimal outcome from the deep-learning segmentation model.

III. RESULTS

A. DEFORMATION INTENSITY EVALUATION

To evaluate the realistic value of the images displaying varying intensities of deformity, we compared the rate of labelling original images as ‘original’ and modified images as ‘original’ (false-negative) by the graders in each category of augmentation level. The readings obtained from the three experts in each category are summarized in Figure 4.

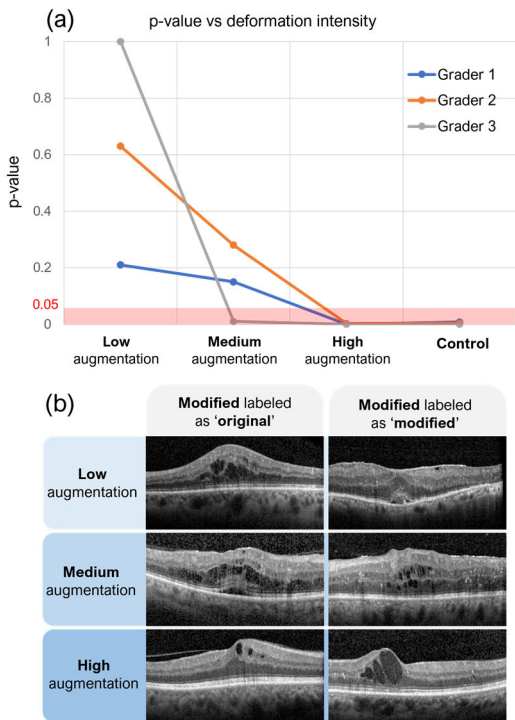


FIGURE 5. (a) Probability of detection of modified OCT images in the different categories of deformation intensity. For each grader, the calculated p-value for proper designation of original images as ‘original’ (true-negative) versus designation of modified images as ‘original’ (false-negative) is shown. When p-value = 1, the grader labeled an equal number of original and modified images as ‘original’. Smaller p-values indicate lower rates of designation of modified images as ‘original’. P-values smaller than 0.05 (red line) denote a statistical significance that the grader identified a difference between original and modified images. (b) examples for images uniformly designated by all 3 graders in each category of augmentation.

Among the 3 graders, the rates of labelling modified images as ‘original’ (false-negative) (Supplementary Table 1) ranged between (71-77%) for the category of low augmentation, (63-76%) for the medium augmentation, and (50-75%) for the high-augmentation category, indicating overall decreasing alleged realism of the modified images with higher level of distortion. In comparison, the corresponding rates of correctly identifying original images as ‘original’ (true-negative) ranged between (75-85%, $p > 0.05$ for all graders) for low augmentation category, (73-85%, $p > 0.05$ for graders 1 & 2, $p = 0.01$ for grader 3) for the medium augmentation category, and (81-91%, $p < 0.005$ for all graders) for high augmentation category. Thus, the frequency of proper identification of original images as ‘original’ remained similarly high for all categories of image distortion, whereas the realistic value of the modified images decreased with increasing deformation. Specifically, for the low augmentation category, there was no significant difference between the ‘original’ images true-negative and the ‘modified images’ false-negative rates for all graders (Figure 5), indicating that low levels of distortion did not compromise the apparent realism of the modified images. For the medium category, only one grader (grader 3)

Medium data augmentation

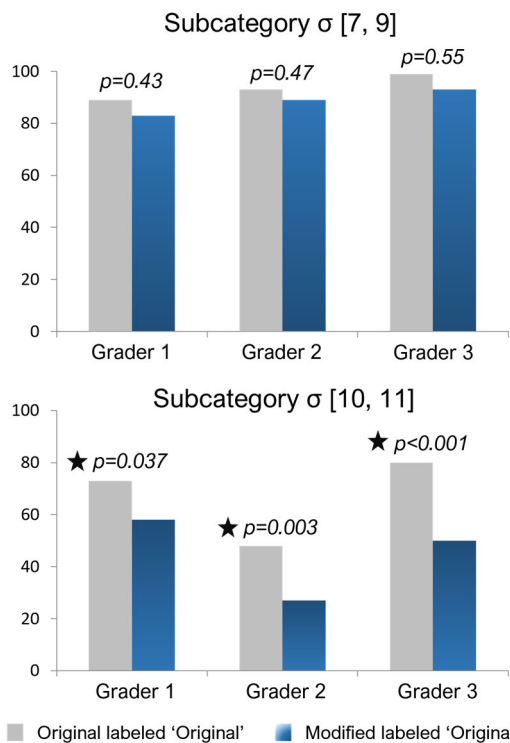


FIGURE 6. Pairwise comparison of the number of modified images labeled ‘original’ (blue columns) and the original images labeled ‘original’ (grey columns) by the three graders for the two new subcategories of the medium augmentation range ($\sigma = 7-9$ and $\sigma = 10-11$).

was significantly less likely to designate modified images as ‘original’, whereas for the other 2 graders the frequency of labeling modified images as ‘original’ was comparable to the frequency of designating original images as ‘original’. In contrast, for the high augmentation category, all graders showed a higher frequency of appropriately identifying original images as ‘original’ (true-negatives) than modified images as ‘original’ (false-negative). In the control set (extremely high augmentation, σ range 19-24), the rates of labelling modified images as ‘original’ (false-negative) by the 3 graders were 20-65% compared to 75-100% (true-negative) rate for the ‘original’ counterparts ($p \leq 0.008$ for all graders).

Thus, application of low levels of elastic deformation ($\sigma = 1-6$) did not compromise the OCT image representativeness in the case of DME. Higher levels of deformation ($\sigma \geq 13$) resulted in unrealistic images which were more readily interpreted as modified by the clinical graders.

B. REFINING DEFORMATION INTENSITY RANGE

For the category of medium intensities of deformation ($\sigma = 7-12$), the frequency of detection of distortion varied among the graders, indicating inconclusive realism of the modified images. Therefore, we refined the maximal deformation level which could be interpreted as realistic within this range. Two new datasets consisting of smaller bins of the deformation values of the of medium range ($\sigma = 7-9$ and

$\sigma = 10-11$) were selected. The experiment was reiterated using the same methodology outlined above (i.e., a set of 100 modified and 100 ‘original’/unmodified images for each new category). The results are presented in Figure 6.

For the lower subcategory ($\sigma = 7-9$), the rates of labelling modified images as ‘original’ (Supplementary Table 2) among the 3 graders ranged between (83-93%). In comparison, the corresponding rates of correctly identifying original images as ‘original’ ranged between (89-99%, $p > 0.05$ for all graders). Hence, the frequency of correct identification of original images as ‘original’ (true-negative) was comparable to the rate of classification of modified images as ‘original’ (false-negative) for each grader ($p = 0.43-0.55$ for all graders). In contrast, in the higher augmentation subcategory ($\sigma = 10-11$), all 3 graders were significantly more likely to correctly identify modified images, indicating unrealistic clinical suitability of these images.

Overall, the graders did not significantly detect modified images manifesting deformation in the range ($\sigma = 0-9$).

C. DEEP LEARNING EXPERIMENT

As shown in **Supplementary Figure 1**, in comparison with the baseline, all magnitudes of elastic deformation improved the dice score. However, the low medium intensity ($\sigma = 1-9$) enabled better segmentation than ($\sigma = 10-18$) or ($\sigma = 19-24$). Thus, the generalization capacity is compromised when the intensity of the elastic deformation is too high.

IV. DISCUSSION

The primary importance of data augmentation for the development of deep-learning models is to provide the algorithm with richer training datasets. In addition, data augmentation can enhance our ability to meet one of the main methodological challenges currently restricting the development of deep-learning models for OCT data by addressing the lack of large image datasets required for training [20]. The availability of numerous and diversified examples was shown to be vital for optimizing the training process of deep-learning models and reducing overfitting. Previous studies applied data augmentation mainly through basic transformations to increase the training dataset up to several times the original one without acquiring new images, and reported better performance [18], [21], [22], [23]. The deformation approach is a key method of image data augmentation which can facilitate the learning process and improve its performance. In this paper, we aimed to determine the maximal degree of elastic deformation which could be employed while maintaining the clinical realistic value of OCT images in the case of DME. To our knowledge, this is the first report exploring the quantitative parameters of elastic deformations of OCT macular images and validating the clinical representativeness of such transformations by retina specialists.

In practical application of data augmentation, it is important to utilize a method which potentially represents a clinical equivalent and maintains the realistic value of the

medical images, because this approach can directly affect the algorithm output. The retina is a biological membrane with biomechanical properties allowing it to stretch and deform in response to various forces. Processes such as accumulation of intraretinal or subretinal fluid, traction exerted by the adjacent vitreous or epiretinal fibrocellular proliferation, can all lead to abnormalities in the shape and configuration of the retina. Moreover, the elastic qualities of the retina permit reversibility of such resulting deformations, allowing the affected tissue to regain its contour upon resolution of the adverse mechanism. DME often manifests with a spectrum of clinically observable changes in the geometry and structure of the macula which are pliable in nature. Thus, application of elastic transformation was inferred as a valid approach for data augmentation in the case of macular images from eyes with DME. To this end, it was interesting to note that although infrequently so, some of the original OCT images in our study were designated as ‘modified’ by all 3 graders. We postulate that naturally occurring DME-related deformations in the macular contour were interpreted in some cases as displaying “distortion” in the readers opinion and have accounted for such discrepancies.

We found that for low levels of deformation ($\sigma = 1-6$), 3 clinical graders were unable to significantly distinguish between original and modified OCT images showing various morphological manifestations of DME. Therefore, this range of deformation can be applied without meaningfully compromising OCT image representativeness in the case of DME. Higher levels of deformation ($\sigma \geq 13$) resulted in unrealistic images which were frequently recognized as modified by the graders. For the range of medium intensities of deformation ($\sigma = 7-12$), the rate of proper detection of artificial distortion varied among the graders, indicating inconclusive realistic value of the modified images. To refine the range of deformation intensity according to clinical adequacy in the medium category, we adopted an approach comparable to the bisection method. The interval was bisected into two subintervals, i.e. ($\sigma = 7-9$) and ($\sigma = 10-11$). In the lower range of deformation intensities ($\sigma = 7-9$), modified images were interpreted as original at a similar rate to that of original images, suggesting that this range of deformation indeed did not interfere with the representativeness of OCT images. In contrast, in the higher subgroup of deformations ($\sigma = 10-11$) modified images were significantly detected by all 3 graders. We therefore concluded that the overall range of elastic deformation which could be applied to OCT images from eyes with DME without compromising their representativeness is ($\sigma = 0-9$). To support our conclusion, we performed a deep learning validation experiment which showed that the low medium intensity ($\sigma = 1-9$) enabled better segmentation than ($\sigma = 10-18$) or ($\sigma = 19-24$). While our primary focus in this study was to propose a data centric approach for data augmentation in OCT datasets and explore its clinical validity, the deep learning experiment corroborated the conclusion. Future studies could consider conducting additional deep learning experiments using different datasets, investigating alternative

model architectures, and addressing other tasks to further analyze the effect and effectiveness of elastic deformation on OCT.

V. CONCLUSION

Medical imaging entails a visual representation of a unique anatomy or function of organs and tissues. Each artificial transformation of the image can alter its realism and impede its clinical representativeness, thus potentially leading to non-realistic or erroneous diagnosis. Such considerations become particularly relevant while employing elastic deformations as data augmentation techniques for training of deep-learning based algorithms. Our study involved three retina specialists with extensive experience in the interpretation of clinical OCT scans and their implementation in daily management of a wide-ranging population of patients with various macular disorders, including DME. Moreover, for the present study each grader evaluated over 640 images from a diverse group of patients manifesting a broad spectrum of disease characteristics and severity levels (Table 1). Thus, the comprehensive dataset employed in our study supports good generalizability of our results, suggesting that elastic deformation in the range ($\sigma = 0-9$) could be applied to OCT images from the general population of DME patients. Beyond this range of deformation, artificially modified images may fail to reliably represent the morphological variability naturally evident in such eyes and consequently can adversely affect the learning process.

Our results confirmed that application of elastic deformations on OCT images of DME is a valid strategy for data augmentation which did not affect their realistic value. We identified a range of intensity of elastic deformations which we suggest could be extrapolated for use in deep-learning based detection of additional retinal pathologies manifesting similar features and shared phenotypes. Future studies will further validate this assumption.

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