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Abstract: Purpose/objective: Precise delineation of organs at risk (OARs) in head and neck cancer (HNC) is necessary for accurate radiotherapy. Although guidelines exist, significant interobserver variability (IOV) remains. The aim was to validate a 3D convolutional neural network (CNN) for semi-automated delineation of OARs with respect to delineation accuracy, efficiency and consistency compared to manual delineation.

Material/Methods: 16 OARs were manually delineated in 15 new HNC patients by two trained radiation oncologists (RO) independently, using international consensus guidelines. OARs were also automatically delineated by applying the CNN and corrected as needed by both ROs separately. Both delineations were performed two weeks apart and blinded to each other. IOV between both ROs was quantified using Dice similarity coefficient (DSC) and average symmetric surface distance (ASSD). To objectify network accuracy, differences between automated and corrected delineations were calculated using the same similarity measures.

Results: Average correction time of the automated delineation was 33% shorter than manual delineation (23 vs 34 minutes) ($p < 10^{-6}$). IOV improved significantly with network initialisation for nearly all OARs ($p < 0.05$), resulting in decreased ASSD averaged over all OARs from 1.9 to 1.2 mm. The network achieved an accuracy of 90% and 84% DSC averaged over all OARs for RO1 and RO2 respectively, with an ASSD of 0.7 and 1.5 mm, which was in 93% and 73% of the cases lower than the IOV.

Conclusion: The CNN developed for automated OAR delineation in HNC was shown to be more efficient and consistent compared to manual delineation, which justify its implementation in clinical practice.

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February 14, 2019

Dear Editor-in-Chief,

We are pleased to submit our original research paper entitled “Benefits of deep learning for delineation of organs at risk in head and neck cancer” by Julie van der Veen, Siri Willems, Sarah Deschuymer, David Robben, Wouter Crijs, Frederik Maes, and Sandra Nuyts for consideration for publication in *Radiotherapy and Oncology*.

In this manuscript, we validated the use of a convolutional neural network for delineation of organs at risk in head and neck cancer. This network was based on manual delineation of 16 organs at risk in 70 patients, using international consensus guidelines of Brouwer et al. (2015) and Christianen et al. (2011). We showed that this network performs well, creating delineations that only need small corrections before they can be used for treatment planning. In addition to this, delineation of organs at risk is more time efficient and results in less interobserver variability between experienced radiation oncologists.

We believe that this manuscript is appropriate for publication by *Radiotherapy and Oncology* because the guidelines used for creating the network were also published in the Green Journal. Artificial intelligence is a hot topic and here we show its clinical implications. We anticipate that this manuscript is not only timely, but will also appeal to a wide readership.

This manuscript has not been published and is not under consideration for publication elsewhere and we declare that it comprises original unpublished work. All authors have agreed with submission in its present form. All authors declare that they have no competing interests.

If you feel that the manuscript is appropriate for your journal, we suggest professor dr. Jesper Eriksen (Aarhus University Hospital) because of his expertise in radiotherapy and head and neck cancer and his interest in automated delineation.

Thank you for your consideration. We look forward to your response. Please do not hesitate to contact us with any further questions.

On behalf of all authors,

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1 Benefits of deep learning for delineation 2 of organs at risk in head and neck cancer

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Abstract

Purpose/objective: Precise delineation of organs at risk (OARs) in head and neck cancer (HNC) is necessary for accurate radiotherapy. Although guidelines exist, significant interobserver variability (IOV) remains. The aim was to validate a 3D convolutional neural network (CNN) for semi-automated delineation of OARs with respect to delineation accuracy, efficiency and consistency compared to manual delineation.

Material/Methods: 16 OARs were manually delineated in 15 new HNC patients by two trained radiation oncologists (RO) independently, using international consensus guidelines. OARs were also automatically delineated by applying the CNN and corrected as needed by both ROs separately. Both delineations were performed two weeks apart and blinded to each other. IOV between both ROs was quantified using Dice similarity coefficient (DSC) and average symmetric surface distance (ASSD). To objectify network accuracy, differences between automated and corrected delineations were calculated using the same similarity measures.

Results: Average correction time of the automated delineation was 33% shorter than manual delineation (23 vs 34 minutes)($p < 10^{-6}$). IOV improved significantly with network initialisation for nearly all OARs ($p < 0.05$), resulting in decreased ASSD averaged over all OARs from 1.9 to 1.2 mm. The network achieved an accuracy of 90% and 84% DSC averaged over all OARs for RO1 and RO2 respectively, with an ASSD of 0.7 and 1.5 mm, which was in 93% and 73% of the cases lower than the IOV.

Conclusion: The CNN developed for automated OAR delineation in HNC was shown to be more efficient and consistent compared to manual delineation, which justify its implementation in clinical practice.

37 Introduction

38
39 Ranked as the seventh most common cancer and cause of cancer death worldwide, the burden of
40 head and neck cancer (HNC) on society and the health sector should not be underestimated [1].
41 Radiotherapy (RT) plays an important role in the curative treatment of HNC and allows organ
42 preservation and improved function preservation in selected cases, compared to surgery.
43 Intensification of RT regimens by means of altered fractionation and concomitant chemotherapy
44 have been beneficial for overall survival and loco-regional control [2,3], although disease recurrence
45 remains an issue [4,5]. At the same time, intensification of RT regimens has induced an increase in
46 acute and late toxicity, limiting further treatment intensification [6]. To compensate for this,
47 implementation of intensity modulated radiotherapy (IMRT) and volumetric modulated arc therapy
48 (VMAT) have allowed the dose delivered to the tumour to be shaped, resulting in better sparing of
49 normal and critical tissue, decreasing toxicity [7]. Proton therapy has the potential to spare organs at
50 risk (OARs) even more due to its more favourable dose-depth characteristics, including a sharp
51 localized high dose delivery at the Bragg peak, with a low exit dose [8]. Adaptive radiotherapy, with
52 the intention of sparing normal tissue even better and still provide sufficient coverage of target
53 volumes (TVs) is also finding its way to RT centres worldwide.

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55 The drawback of these newer techniques however, is that delineation is time consuming due to the
56 complex head and neck anatomy. Delineation of OARs alone can take up to one hour, and of TVs up
57 to two hours [9], which will be more for unexperienced radiation oncologists (ROs). On top of that,
58 correct delineation is essential for optimal treatment planning and is one of the weakest links in the
59 chain of actions needed to treat a patient with RT. Firstly, it is mainly performed manually and
60 therefore susceptible to intra- and inter-observer variability (IOV) [10]. Secondly, variations in OAR
61 delineation may influence the treatment plan, including the dose to OARs, which can also impact
62 results of multicentre trials [11–13]. Thirdly, delineation errors remain present during the entire RT
63 course so their impact can be larger than expected. IOV in TV and OAR delineation affect quality of
64 RT, treatment outcomes and evaluation of clinical research [14,15]. The introduction of delineation
65 guidelines for OARs has improved IOV [16], although Brouwer et al. [10] showed that there was still
66 room for improvement.

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68 In previous research, automated segmentation using machine learning approaches has been widely
69 investigated to overcome drawbacks of manual segmentation procedures in medical imaging [17].
70 Available algorithms in current RT software are mainly atlas-based methods, which incorporate prior
71 knowledge in the form of atlases and are registered to the daily images using deformable image
72 registration (DIR). In particular for HNC patients, atlas-based models achieved acceptable results for
73 segmentation of OARs [18,19]. Recently, deep learning approaches based on convolutional neural
74 networks are gaining popularity thanks to their successes in many segmentation tasks in medical
75 imaging [20,21], including RT [22–25].

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77 Precise delineation of OARs in HNC is necessary for accurate radiotherapy treatment planning,
78 correct interpretation of dose volume histograms (DVH) and reduction of therapeutic variability. The
79 aim of this study was to evaluate the potential of a 3D convolutional neural network (CNN) for
80 automated delineation of OARs most commonly delineated in HNC patients, which could
81 significantly reduce delineation time and the burden of human intervention and IOV. The clinical
82 implementation of the validated automated delineation tools could eventually result in a shorter
83 interval between simulation and start of RT, affect treatment capacity and facilitate paradigm shifts
84 such as online adaptive planning.

86 Methods

87 Data acquisition

88 Patients were recruited between August and November 2018 and included consecutive patients
89 with a newly diagnosed HNC, scheduled for RT and without total laryngectomy. In total, 15 patients
90 were included in the study (see Table 1 for patient characteristics). Each patient underwent a
91 contrast-enhanced planning CT scan in the supine position with custom thermoplastic mask
92 for immobilization, according to the conventional clinical protocol. The CT images were made on a
93 multidetector-row spiral CT scanner (Somatom Sensation Open, 40 slice configuration; Siemens
94 Medical Solutions, Erlangen, Germany). The acquisition parameters were: 120 kVp / 230 mAs (quality
95 reference mAs with CARE Dose4D), no gantry tilt, spiral mode, rotation time 1s, 40 detector rows at
96 0.6mm intervals, table speed 21.6mm/rotation (pitch=0.9), reconstruction interval 3mm using
97 Kernel B30s medium smooth, matrix size 512×512, pixel spacing 0.97×0.97mm.

99 3D convolutional neural network

100 A 3D CNN was previously developed and trained for automated delineation of 16 OARs in planning
101 CT images of HNC patients based on a training set of 70 cases delineated according to international
102 consensus guidelines [26,27] (see appendix A for more details). This CNN was applied to all 15
103 images in this study. The computation time needed by the CNN to automatically delineate all 16
104 OARs was about 3 minutes per image [28]. We refer to the original, unmodified delineations
105 generated by the CNN as “automated delineations” further on.

107 Study design

108 Two ROs (JV and SD), well trained in delineation of OARs for HNC RT and familiar with the
109 delineation guidelines [26,27], each delineated the 16 OARs on all 15 CT scans twice using Eclipse
110 (Varian Medical Systems, Palo Alto, CA) in 2 separate, uninterrupted sessions for each patient: once
111 manually (“manual delineations”) and once by modifying and correcting the presented automated
112 delineations generated by the CNN (“corrected delineations”) (Figure 1). The 2 delineation sessions
113 by the same RO for the same patient were performed with an average interval of 15.5 days, with
114 manual delineations being performed in the 1st session for about half of the cases and in the 2nd
115 session for the other half, and blinded for any other delineation result to avoid observer bias. All
116 delineations were verified and approved without modification by a third expert in HNC RT (SN) to
117 ensure their clinical validity.

119 Validation

120 The benefits of the use of a CNN based automated delineation tool in clinical practice were assessed
121 in terms of its accuracy, impact on IOV and time efficiency.

123 Accuracy

124 The accuracy of the automated delineation tool was assessed for each 3D OAR separately by
125 comparing it to the corrected delineations using the Dice Similarity Coefficient (DSC) and the
126 Average Symmetric Surface Distance (ASSD). DSC is a measure for the overlap between two
127 delineations A and B , yielding a value of 1 in case of perfect overlap and a value of 0 if no overlap:

$$DSC = 2 * \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A| + |B|}$$

128 with $|A|$ and $|B|$ the volumes of each delineation and $|A \cap B|$ the volume of their intersection. ASSD
129 represents the mean distance between two delineations A and B in mm:

$$ASSD(A, B) = \frac{h(A, B) + h(B, A)}{2}$$

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$$h(A, B) = \text{mean} \left\{ \min_{a \in A, b \in B} \{d(a, b)\} \right\}$$

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with $d(a, b)$ the 3D distance between point a on delineation A and point b on delineation B . Both DSC and ASSD provide an indication for the amount of corrections necessary for clinical approval.

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Variability

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The impact of the use of the automated delineation tool on IOV between different observers was assessed for each 3D OAR separately by computing DSC and ASSD between the manual delineations and between the corrected delineations made by both ROs (with larger DSC and smaller ASSD indicating less IOV). In addition, IOV for the same observer was assessed by comparing manual delineations and corrected delineations made by the same RO.

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Efficiency

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The efficiency of the automated delineation tool was quantified by comparing the time needed for manual delineation to the time needed for correction of the automated delineations. Both ROs recorded the total delineation time per patient for each of the 2 delineation sessions. This included the time for adjusting window settings, navigating between slices and creating or correcting all delineations for all 16 OARs.

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Statistical Analysis

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Statistically significant differences for DSC and ASSD were assessed with a two-sided, paired Wilcoxon signed rank test, using significance level $\alpha=0.05$. To assess reduction in delineation time, a one-sided, Wilcoxon signed rank test was used, using significance level $\alpha=0.05$.

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Results

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Accuracy

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Examples of manual and automated delineations are shown in Figure 2. Mean DSC and ASSD for automated versus corrected delineations for each OAR are summarised in Table 2. Based on DSC, the network performed best for brainstem, left cochlea, mandible, parotid glands, submandibular glands and spinal cord (DSC>90%). The average corrections necessary for clinical acceptance were below 1 mm for cochleae, glottic larynx, mandible, right parotid gland, middle pharyngeal constrictor muscle (PCM) and right submandibular gland (ASSD<1mm). Average corrections for all other structures were below 2 mm.

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Figure 3 plots for each 3D OAR separately the extent of the corrections made to the automated delineations versus IOV of the manual delineations, both quantified by ASSD, which shows that the accuracy of the automated delineation tool was better than the manual delineation variability for most OAR (grey shaded area; RO1: 93% of OARs; RO2: 72%).

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Observer variability

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Table 3 represents IOV (intra and inter) as assessed by DSC and ASSD. IOV for the corrected delineations is significantly lower than IOV for the manual delineations for almost all OARs. The left cochlea did not show a significant reduction in IOV with DSC and both cochleae showed no improvement with ASSD. The oral cavity and brainstem showed no significant improvement in DSC but ASSD reduced significantly. For most OARs, IOV for the corrected delineations is smaller than intra-observer variability.

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178 Time

179 The time needed to correct the automated delineations was for both ROs significantly shorter than
180 the time needed for manual delineation (RO1: 17 vs 30 minutes; RO2: 27 vs 38 minutes; mean: 23 vs
181 34 minutes, $p < 10^{-6}$). Manual delineation time per patient ranged from 22 to 44 minutes, correction
182 time ranged from 13 to 33 minutes, and time gain ranged from 6 to 19 minutes (33% on average).

183 Discussion

184
185 The aim of this study was to evaluate the benefits for clinical practice of the use of an automated
186 delineation tool with respect to delineation accuracy, efficiency and reduction of IOV. Automated
187 delineation was performed by a 3D CNN, which was trained using manual expert delineations of 16
188 OARS of HNC patients in agreement with international consensus guidelines of Brouwer et al. [26]
189 and Christianen et al. [27].

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191 Increased delineation efficiency by the use of the tool was demonstrated by the reduction in the
192 time needed to correct the automated delineations versus the time needed for manual delineation.
193 Even though one of the ROs was faster in both manual delineation and correction of automated
194 delineations, both ROs delineated faster using the automated delineations. The average time
195 needed per patient to verify and correct the complete 3D delineations for all 16 OARs together was
196 23 minutes, but could be as short as 13 minutes, i.e. less than 1 minute per 3D structure.

197
198 The accuracy of the CNN was examined by comparing the automated delineations to the corrected
199 delineations. Table 2 shows that overall only small corrections needed to be made for the
200 delineations to be clinically acceptable (ASSD < 1.1 mm on average). Figure 3 shows that for most
201 OARs, the differences between the automated and the corrected delineations were smaller than
202 interobserver variability obtained with manual delineation, i.e. the delineation variability as typically
203 observed in clinical practice. Two sets of outliers can be observed in Figure 3. A first set of outliers, in
204 the top left corner, involves few automated delineations that needed relatively large corrections
205 (between 4 and 6 mm on average) for some individual OARs, namely one left-sided submandibular
206 gland (1), one left parotid gland (2), one inferior PCM (3) and one supraglottic larynx (4). For outliers
207 (1) and (2), this was due to nearby enlarged lymph nodes, which were mistakenly delineated in the
208 same volume as the OARs. For outlier (3), this patient had a low supraglottic larynx tumour
209 originating in the left ary-epiglottic fold. Outlier (4) was a patient with an oropharyngeal tumour,
210 invading the base of tongue, which made delineation of the cranial part of the supraglottic larynx
211 challenging. The CNN thus sporadically showed some difficulty with adenopathies or primary
212 tumours near OARs. Scatter due to dental fillings did not impact the accuracy as illustrated in Figure
213 2, likely because such artefacts were also present in some of the images in the training set.

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215 A second set of outliers, in the bottom right corner of Figure 3, involves the spinal cord, which shows
216 a large IOV between the manual delineations and large differences in the corrections made by RO2.
217 Upon inspection of the contours, it was found that different cranial and caudal borders were used by
218 the ROs. According to the guidelines, the cranial border of the spinal cord should be the tip of the
219 dens of C2, but the ROs differed on the tip location from 1-3 CT slices (3-6 mm difference). The
220 caudal border of the spinal cord showed even more variation between ROs, from the bottom of the
221 CT scan to the cranial border of T3 (30-93 mm difference). According to the guidelines, the caudal
222 border of the spinal cord should reach to the upper edge of T3, although for caudal tumours it
223 should reach 5 cm under the planning target volume (PTV). To accommodate for these different
224 cases, the CNN was trained to delineate the spinal cord to the most caudal slice of the planning CT
225 scan. One of the ROs systematically corrected the automated delineations with respect to the caudal
226 border of the spinal cord, while the other did not. On axial planes, however, no differences in spinal
227 cord delineations were observed, as illustrated in Figure 2.

228

1 229 As shown in Table 3, IOV as quantified by DSC and ASSD reduced significantly for most OARs by using
2 230 automated delineations. ASSD decreased significantly for all OARs, except for both cochlea, which
3 231 are very small structures (~ 1 ml) for which DSC and ASSD are very susceptible to small delineation
4 232 differences. DSC did not improve significantly for brainstem and oral cavity, while ASSD did. This is
5 233 because DSC is volume dependent and for these large OARs only large delineation differences will
6 234 impact DSC. Moreover, IOV between manual delineations was already small for oral cavity when
7 235 measured with DSC (94% on average) and an improvement in DSC to 96% using the automated
8 236 delineations was therefore not significant. The spinal cord unexpectedly showed one of the worst
9 237 DSC and ASSD results compared to the other OARs. This is mainly due to the difference in caudal
10 238 border chosen by one of the ROs as already explained above, resulting in an underestimation of the
11 239 benefit of automated delineation on IOV for this structure. However, this difference is not clinically
12 240 relevant: even though it has an influence on DVH, it has no impact on plan creation, evaluation and
13 241 acceptance because the maximum (D_{max}) and not the average dose (D_{mean}) to the spinal cord is taken
14 242 into account. In a serial OAR, like the spinal cord, loss of function in one part will cause the entire
15 243 organ to stop functioning. A high dose to a small volume can cause serious toxicity and therefore the
16 244 risk of damage is dominated by D_{max} . In a parallel OAR like the salivary glands, loss of function in one
17 245 part of the OAR can be compensated by an unaffected part. Therefore, there is a threshold
18 246 volume effect and the risk of injury, in this case resulting in xerostomia, is dominated by
19 247 the D_{mean} over the whole OAR. Mucosa, like that of the oral cavity, is neither serial nor parallel, but
20 248 behaves clinically like a parallel OAR, as desquamation of a large area of mucosa is more problematic
21 249 than a small area [29]. The requirements and importance of correct OAR delineation and its impact
22 250 on treatment planning thus depends on the type of OAR.

23 251
24 252 Automated delineation of OARs on HNC planning CT scans using a CNN was previously investigated
25 253 by Ibragimov et al. [21]. They concluded that their method performed better or comparable to state-
26 254 of-the-art algorithms and commercial software for spinal cord, mandible, larynx and pharynx, and
27 255 inferior for parotid- and submandibular glands. The average DSCs they found ranged between 69%
28 256 and 90%, for pharynx and mandible respectively. Our CNN outperformed their results for all OARs,
29 257 except for spinal cord (DSC 87% vs 76%). However, Ibragimov et al. did not delineate the spinal cord
30 258 itself but the spinal canal, which is the bony structure through which the spinal cord runs and which
31 259 is easier to detect and delineate than the spinal cord. Moreover, their DSC values were only
32 260 calculated on the length of the spinal cord that could be affected during treatment, whereas in our
33 261 study the entire delineated structure was considered.

34 262
35 263 The main strength of our study is the use of international consensus guidelines [26,27] to train the
36 264 CNN to delineate a large number of OARs (16), including the different PCMs and laryngeal sub-
37 265 volumes. In case delineation guidelines were to be modified in the future, the CNN could be easily
38 266 retrained to adapt to these changes. A possible limitation is that the contours used to train the CNN
39 267 in this study were delineated by only one RO, possibly introducing some observer bias despite
40 268 following consensus guidelines. Nevertheless, the use of the automated delineation tool was shown
41 269 to result in a shorter delineation time for both ROs in this study and in less IOV between them.

42 270
43 271 The implementation of this tool in clinical practice could be especially beneficial to ROs in training to
44 272 reduce delineation time, and facilitate the recognition of OARs, thus benefitting training and
45 273 resulting in a steeper learning curve. Moreover, with more efficient OAR delineation, more time
46 274 could be spent on other aspects of RT, such as delineation of TVs and clinical follow-up of patients.
47 275 Automated delineation is also very relevant for adaptive RT regimens. When patient anatomy or
48 276 tumour volume change during treatment, re-contouring is very labour-intensive and automated
49 277 delineation could make this process significantly more efficient. Although with photon therapy not

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278 all HNC patients are eligible for adaptive RT, the need for adaptive RT will presumably be higher for
279 proton therapy [30,31].

281 Conclusion

282 Validation in clinical setting of a CNN trained for automated delineation of OARs in HNC patients
283 based on international consensus guidelines showed that automated delineation is not only
284 significantly more efficient than manual delineation, but also reduces IOV. The automated
285 delineations mainly require only minor corrections to be approved for treatment planning.

286 Conflicts of interest

287 None

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Conflicts of interest statement

All authors certify that they have no affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; participation in speakers' bureaus; membership, employment, consultancies, stock ownership, or other equity interest; and expert testimony or patent-licensing arrangements), or non-financial interest (such as personal or professional relationships, affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in this manuscript.

Table 1: Tumour site and TNM staging for the 15 HNC patients in the study.

Patient	Site	T	N	p16
1	oropharynx	4a	3b	NS
2	parotid left (postoperative)	4a	2b	
3	supraglottic	2	3b	
4	oropharynx	1	1	+
5	oropharynx + hypopharynx	2 / 4	0 / 2b	-
6	oral cavity	1	2b	
7	oropharynx	2	1	-
8	oropharynx	3	2	+
9	oral cavity (postoperative)	2	N2c	
10	oropharynx (postoperative)	2	1	+
11	hypopharynx	2	1	
12	oropharynx	1	1	+
13	oropharynx	4	2	+
14	larynx	4a	0	
15	larynx	3	0	

Abbreviations: TNM: tumour staging according to the TNM-8 staging system (2017); T: clinical tumour stage; N: clinical nodal stage; p16: p16 protein expression, correlated with human papilloma virus status; NS: not specified

Table 2: Evaluation of accuracy of CNN based automated OAR delineation as perceived by each observer (Acc1, Acc2). The automated delineation is compared to the corrected delineation made by each observer (RO1, RO2) for each 3D OAR separately by computing their DSC and ASSD. Volumes for manual, automated and corrected OAR delineations are reported as well. All values are reported as mean \pm STD for all patients (n=15) and for both observers for manual and corrected volumes.

OARs	Acc1 (RO1)		Acc2 (RO2)		Manual	Volume (ml)	
	DSC (%)	ASSD (mm)	DSC (%)	ASSD (mm)		Automated	Corrected
Brainstem	94.9 \pm 2.1	0.7 \pm 0.2	98.1 \pm 1.6	1.7 \pm 0.6	228.8 \pm 44.4	263.1 \pm 32.4	231.1 \pm 41.7
Cochlea left	98.7 \pm 1.1	0.1 \pm 0.1	95.1 \pm 7.2	1.1 \pm 0.5	0.8 \pm 0.2	1.6 \pm 0.6	1.2 \pm 0.4
Cochlea right	96.4 \pm 8.4	0.2 \pm 0.2	80.0 \pm 25.8	1.1 \pm 0.4	1.0 \pm 0.3	1.4 \pm 0.7	1.2 \pm 0.4
U Esophagus	83.1 \pm 17.2	1.3 \pm 0.9	79.3 \pm 17.9	2.0 \pm 1.3	49.4 \pm 17.8	49.8 \pm 17.5	49.4 \pm 14.7
Glottic larynx	76.8 \pm 16.1	0.7 \pm 0.6	64.4 \pm 14.7	1.3 \pm 0.6	38.0 \pm 15.9	26.6 \pm 11.4	35.8 \pm 15.7
Mandible	98.8 \pm 0.6	0.2 \pm 0.1	91.2 \pm 2.2	0.7 \pm 0.2	620.2 \pm 106.2	596.5 \pm 116.7	619.3 \pm 117.2
Oral cavity	93.1 \pm 7.3	1.3 \pm 0.8	85.4 \pm 10.1	2.1 \pm 1.0	1040.0 \pm 196.3	1025.3 \pm 234.0	1087.8 \pm 223.6
S Glottic larynx	74.2 \pm 23.7	1.5 \pm 1.1	67.1 \pm 23.5	2.1 \pm 1.3	160.6 \pm 49.5	124.2 \pm 47.9	156.8 \pm 45.0
PG left	96.1 \pm 2.9	0.9 \pm 1.1	93.4 \pm 5.3	1.3 \pm 1.3	276.9 \pm 86.1	275.5 \pm 81.1	276.5 \pm 86.5
PG right	96.1 \pm 3.3	0.5 \pm 0.3	92.9 \pm 5.2	0.9 \pm 0.5	303.1 \pm 104.0	281.7 \pm 88.4	290.3 \pm 95.7
PCM inferior	80.1 \pm 23.7	1.3 \pm 1.3	71.3 \pm 21.0	1.7 \pm 1.1	43.8 \pm 9.7	41.7 \pm 15.9	44.4 \pm 13.3
PCM middle	84.1 \pm 1.0	0.6 \pm 0.3	76.4 \pm 10.0	1.1 \pm 0.4	50.3 \pm 17.9	43.2 \pm 13.8	48.2 \pm 16.7
PCM superior	82.9 \pm 15.4	0.8 \pm 0.5	75.5 \pm 13.0	1.2 \pm 0.4	84.4 \pm 25.2	73.5 \pm 26.4	80.3 \pm 21.0
SG left	96.5 \pm 4.9	1.0 \pm 1.2	91.4 \pm 8.3	1.4 \pm 1.2	91.1 \pm 28.5	90.3 \pm 41.0	87.7 \pm 27.9
SG right	98.2 \pm 2.7	0.3 \pm 0.2	95.1 \pm 7.0	0.6 \pm 0.6	92.7 \pm 31.5	77.2 \pm 31.3	85.4 \pm 28.4
Spinal cord	97.8 \pm 3.1	0.2 \pm 0.2	92.8 \pm 3.6	3.6 \pm 2.3	136.3 \pm 23.7	166.8 \pm 32.8	152.2 \pm 28.5

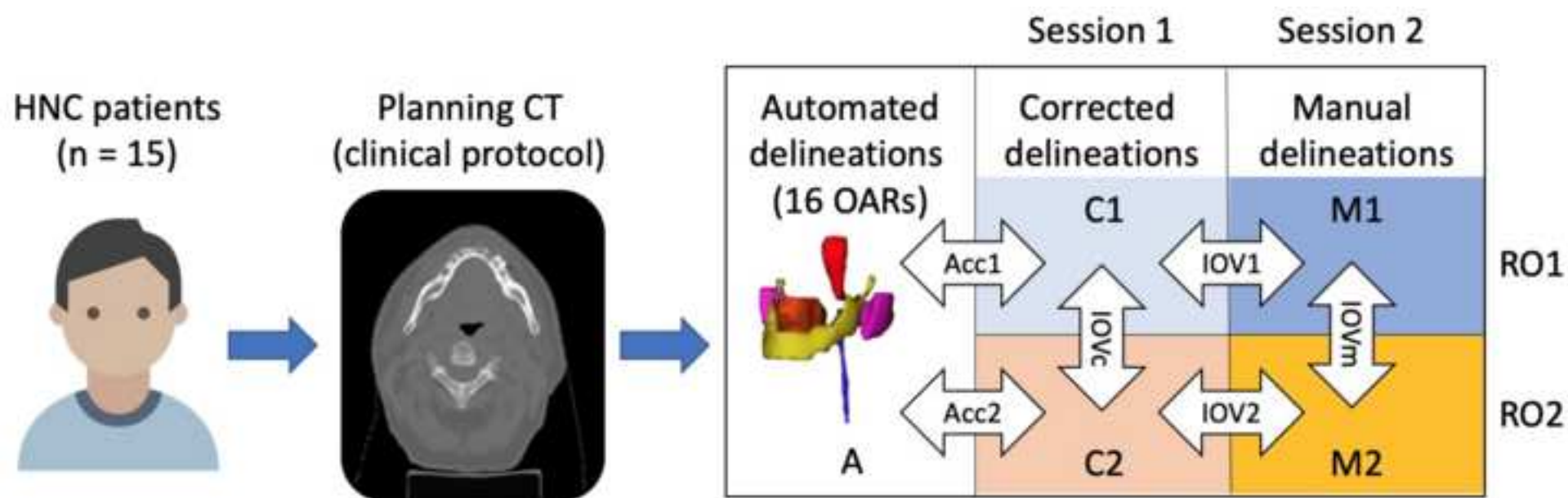
Abbreviations: OARs: organs at risk; DSC: Dice similarity coefficient; ASSD: average symmetric surface distance; STD: standard deviation; RO: radiation oncologist; PCM: pharyngeal constrictor muscles; PG: parotid gland; SG: submandibular gland; U: upper; S: supra.

Table 3: Evaluation of intra- and inter-observer variability between the manual and the corrected automated OAR delineations. Intra-observer variability (IOV1, IOV2) is assessed by comparing the manual to the corrected delineations for each 3D OAR for either observer separately (RO1, RO2) using DSC and ASSD. Inter-observer variability (IOVm, IOVc) is assessed by comparing the delineations of RO1 to those of RO2 for each 3D OAR for the manual and corrected delineations separately. All values are reported as mean \pm STD for all patients (n=15). Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) in inter-observer variability for the corrected versus the manual delineations (IOVc vs IOVm) are indicated in bold.

	Intra (manual vs corrected)				Inter (RO1 vs RO2)			
	IOV1 (RO1)		IOV2 (RO2)		IOVm (manual)		IOVc (corrected)	
	DSC (%)	ASSD (mm)	DSC (%)	ASSD (mm)	DSC (%)	ASSD (mm)	DSC (%)	ASSD (mm)
Brainstem	90.0 \pm 4.1	1.6 \pm 0.2	90.4 \pm 3.8	1.4 \pm 0.4	68.1 \pm 11.7	2.2 \pm 0.5	70.8 \pm 11.9	1.6\pm0.6
Cochlea left	57.5 \pm 20.0	1.2 \pm 0.4	71.1 \pm 17.9	0.7 \pm 0.3	48.7 \pm 13.4	1.1 \pm 0.3	53.9 \pm 17.7	1.1 \pm 0.5
Cochlea right	72.2 \pm 19.3	1.1 \pm 0.3	69.0 \pm 17.8	0.8 \pm 0.3	51.4 \pm 12.0	1.1 \pm 0.4	63.3\pm19.8	1.0 \pm 0.4
U Esophagus	81.1 \pm 11.3	1.6 \pm 0.3	77.4 \pm 18.1	1.5 \pm 0.6	64.3 \pm 15.3	2.0 \pm 0.6	79.3\pm16.5	1.1\pm0.7
Glottic larynx	88.2 \pm 4.8	1.1 \pm 0.2	81.8 \pm 15.6	1.0 \pm 0.3	73.1 \pm 17.8	1.4 \pm 0.4	89.8\pm9.0	0.9\pm0.3
Mandible	91.9 \pm 4.3	1.2 \pm 0.2	95.4 \pm 3.1	0.7 \pm 0.2	93.7 \pm 2.9	1.2 \pm 0.2	98.8\pm1.4	0.7\pm0.2
Oral cavity	84.7 \pm 7.5	2.5 \pm 0.4	91.5 \pm 6.0	2.0 \pm 0.7	94.0 \pm 4.7	2.9 \pm 0.6	96.2 \pm 3.2	1.6\pm0.7
S Glottic larynx	87.7 \pm 5.4	1.5 \pm 0.2	87.1 \pm 10.0	1.4 \pm 0.5	86.3 \pm 10.9	1.8 \pm 0.4	93.9\pm3.2	1.3\pm0.4
PG left	81.3 \pm 22.2	1.8 \pm 0.5	83.8 \pm 22.8	1.5 \pm 0.4	88.8 \pm 3.4	1.7 \pm 0.1	93.7\pm5.2	0.8\pm0.6
PG right	88.0 \pm 5.9	1.9 \pm 0.4	91.2 \pm 3.9	1.5 \pm 0.5	89.1 \pm 3.3	1.8 \pm 0.3	95.1\pm3.8	0.7\pm0.4
PCM inferior	79.2 \pm 7.3	1.8 \pm 0.3	82.0 \pm 7.9	1.5 \pm 0.4	76.0 \pm 8.2	1.7 \pm 0.3	87.7\pm7.8	1.2\pm0.5
PCM middle	75.8 \pm 8.8	1.5 \pm 0.2	78.3 \pm 7.9	1.2 \pm 0.4	71.5 \pm 7.2	1.5 \pm 0.2	86.4\pm8.2	0.8\pm0.3
PCM superior	70.0 \pm 10.4	1.8 \pm 0.3	69.8 \pm 13.0	1.5 \pm 0.5	53.5 \pm 8.0	2.1 \pm 0.3	77.6\pm12.7	1.2\pm0.5
SG left	77.5 \pm 30.5	1.6 \pm 0.3	78.9 \pm 31.2	1.3 \pm 0.4	86.5 \pm 6.5	1.5 \pm 0.2	92.7\pm7.9	0.8\pm0.6
SG right	79.0 \pm 31.3	1.5 \pm 0.2	80.2 \pm 32.0	1.3 \pm 0.4	88.4 \pm 3.9	1.4 \pm 0.2	96.0\pm5.3	0.4\pm0.6
Spinal cord	77.6 \pm 6.7	1.2 \pm 0.2	84.9 \pm 6.5	1.1 \pm 0.4	70.8 \pm 6.8	4.4 \pm 1.9	75.7\pm6.5	3.7\pm2.3

Abbreviations: OARs: organs at risk; DSC: dice similarity coefficient; ASSD: average symmetric surface distance; STD: standard deviation; RO: radiation oncologist; PCM: pharyngeal constrictor muscles; PG: parotid gland; SG: submandibular gland; U: upper; S: supra.

Figure 1
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Caption figure 1

Figure 1: Overview of study design. Automated delineations (A) of 16 OARs in conventional planning CT images of 15 HNC patients were corrected by 2 different ROs (RO1: C1, RO2: C2) and were also manually delineated by the same ROs (RO1: M1, RO2: M2) in different delineation sessions. Accuracy of automated delineation was assessed by comparing automated and corrected contours for each RO (Acc1: C1 vs A, Acc2: C2 vs A). Intra-observer variability was assessed by comparing corrected and manual delineations by the same RO (IOV1: C1 vs M1, IOV2: C2 vs M2). Inter-observer variability was assessed by comparing corrected and manual delineations by different ROs (IOVc: C1 vs C2, IOVm: M1 vs M2).

Figure 2Am
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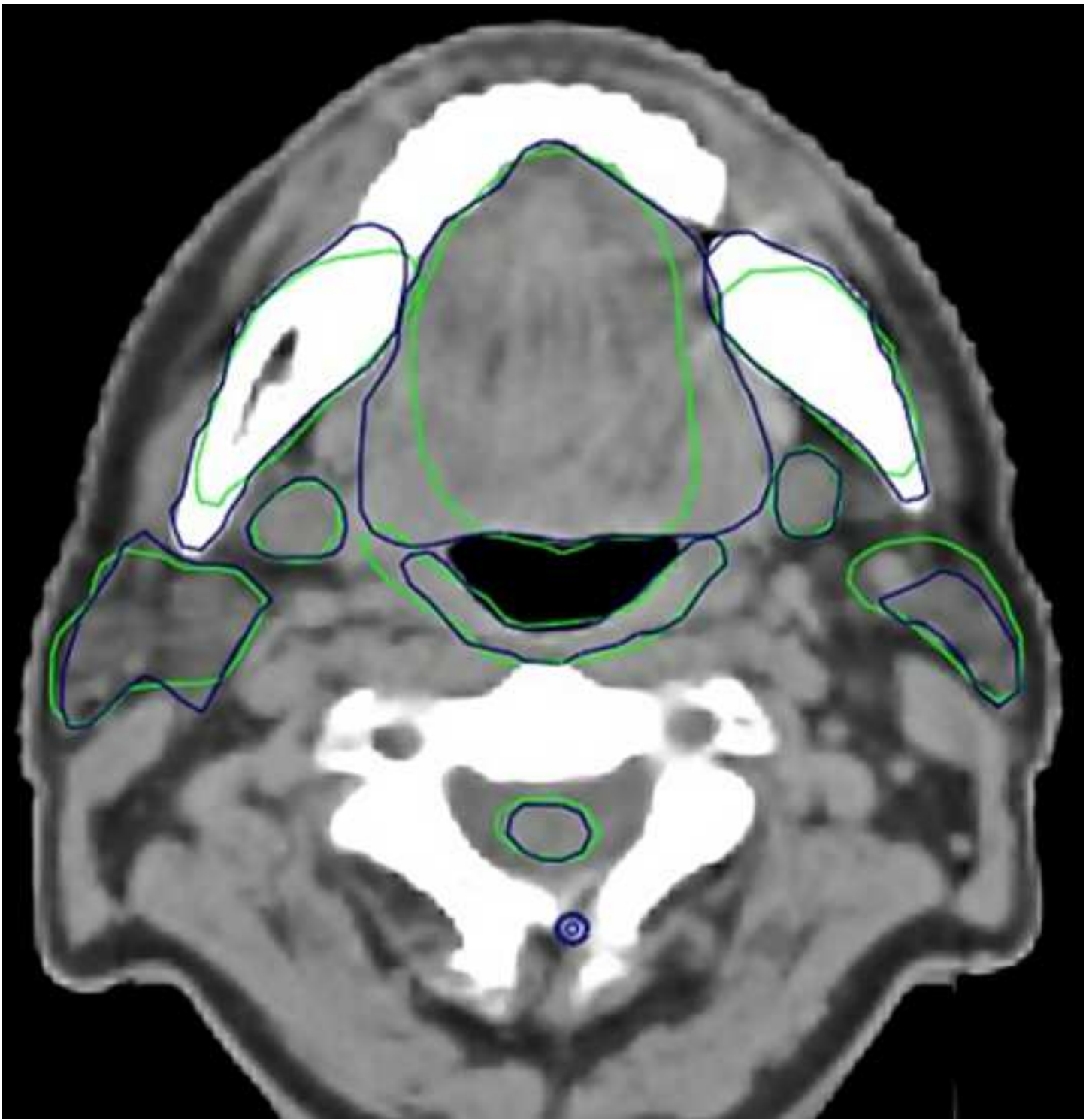


Figure 2Ac
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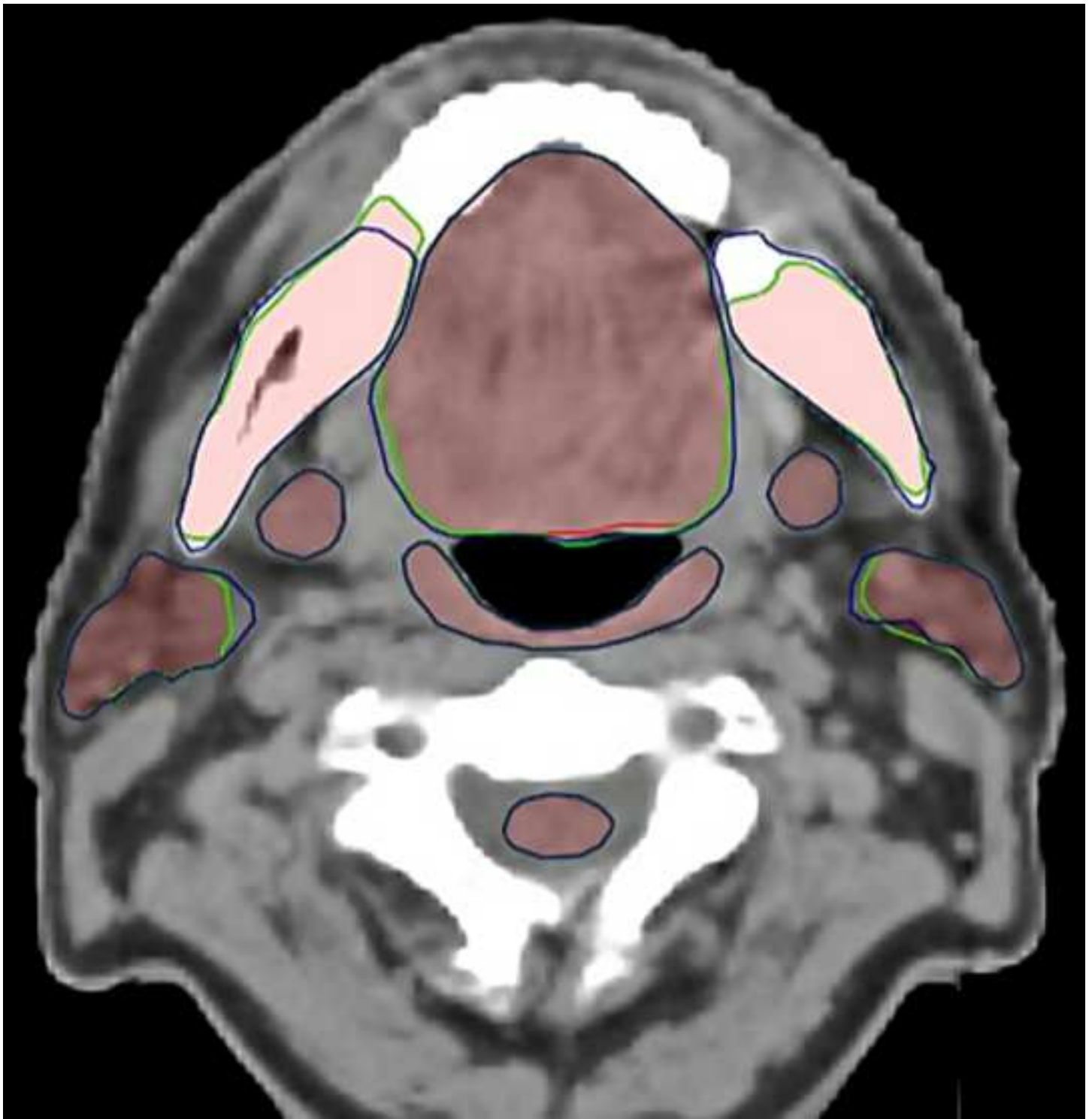


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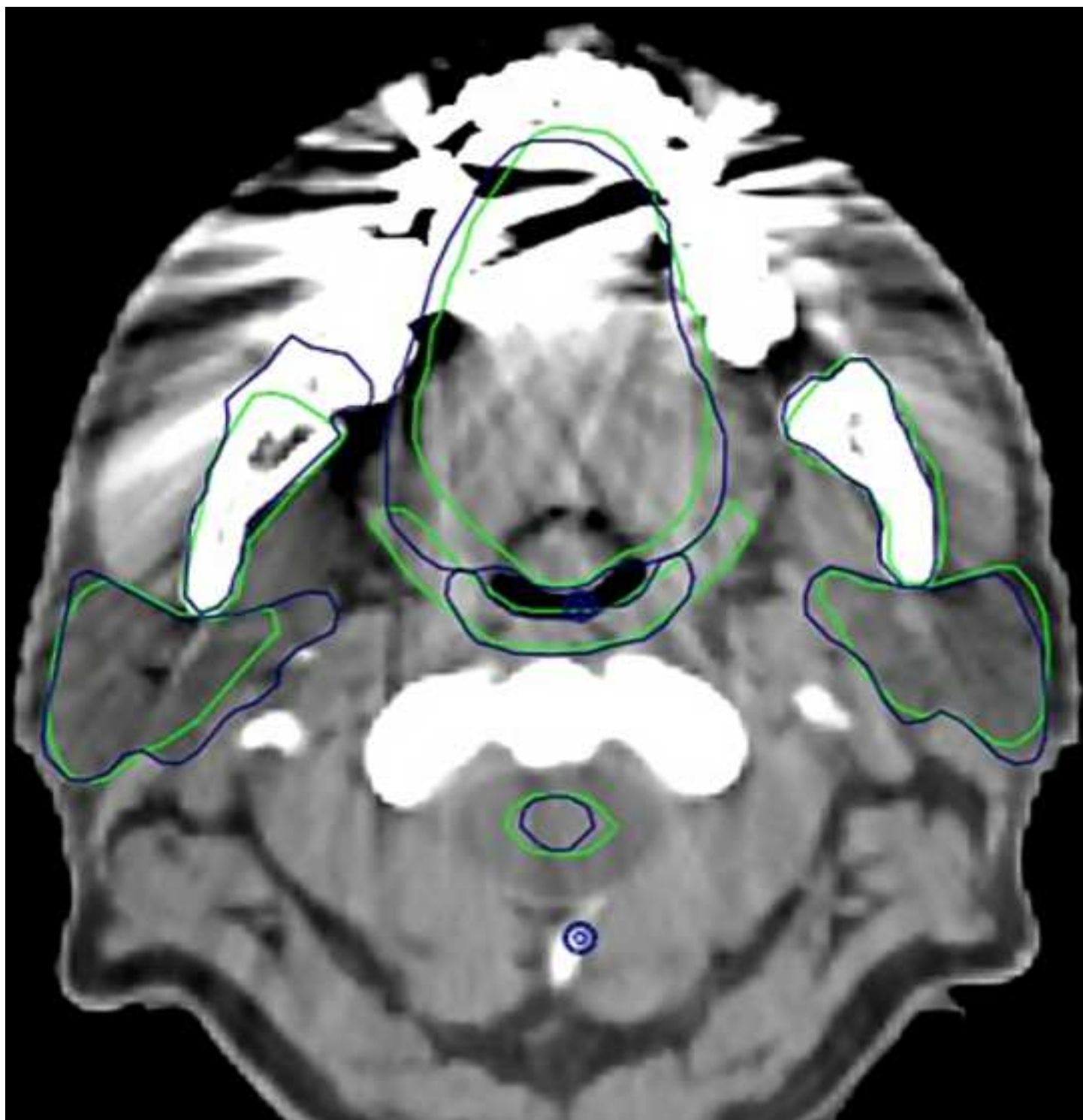


Figure 2Bc
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Figure 2Cm
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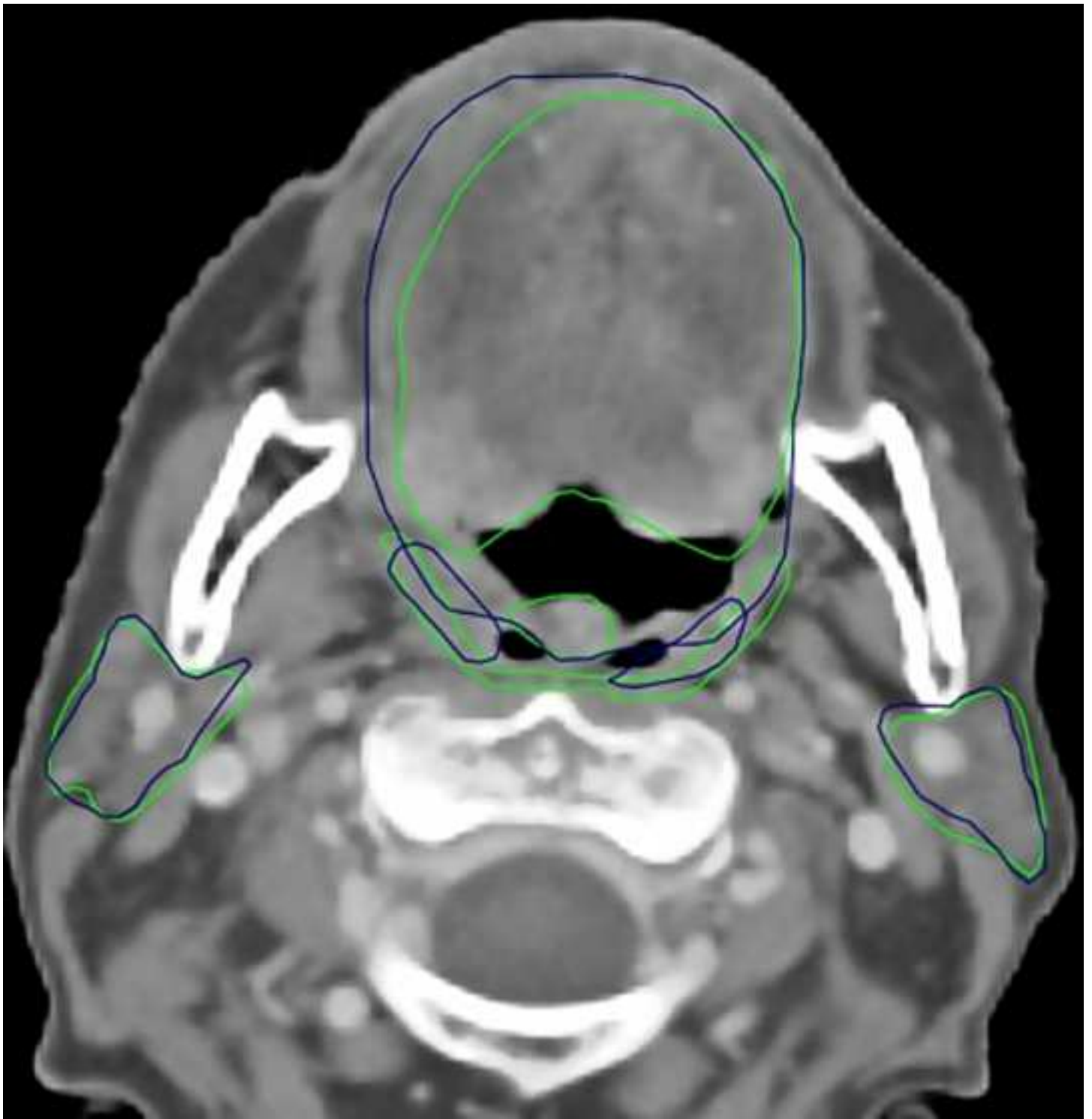


Figure 2Cc
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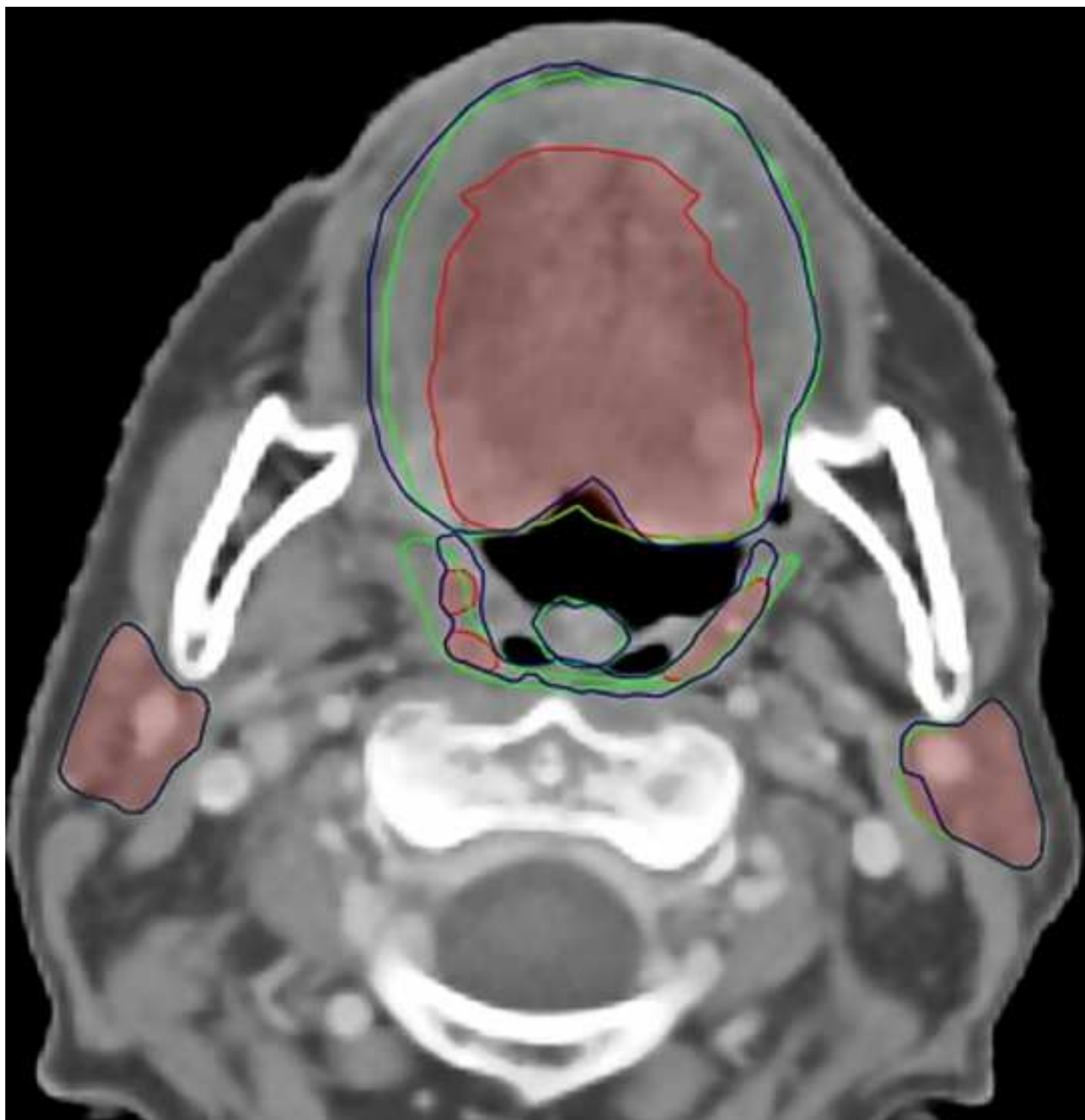


Figure 2D1
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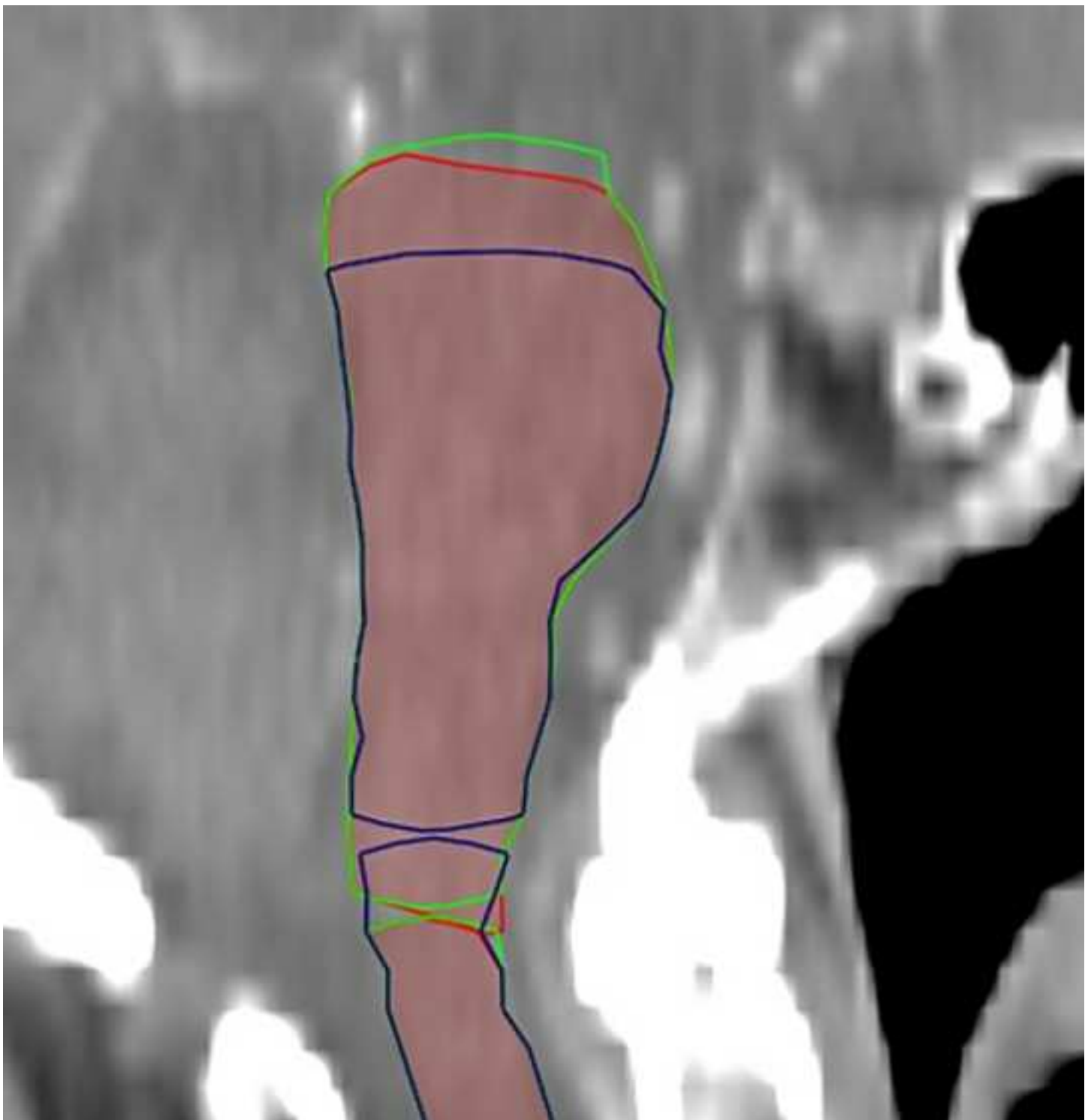
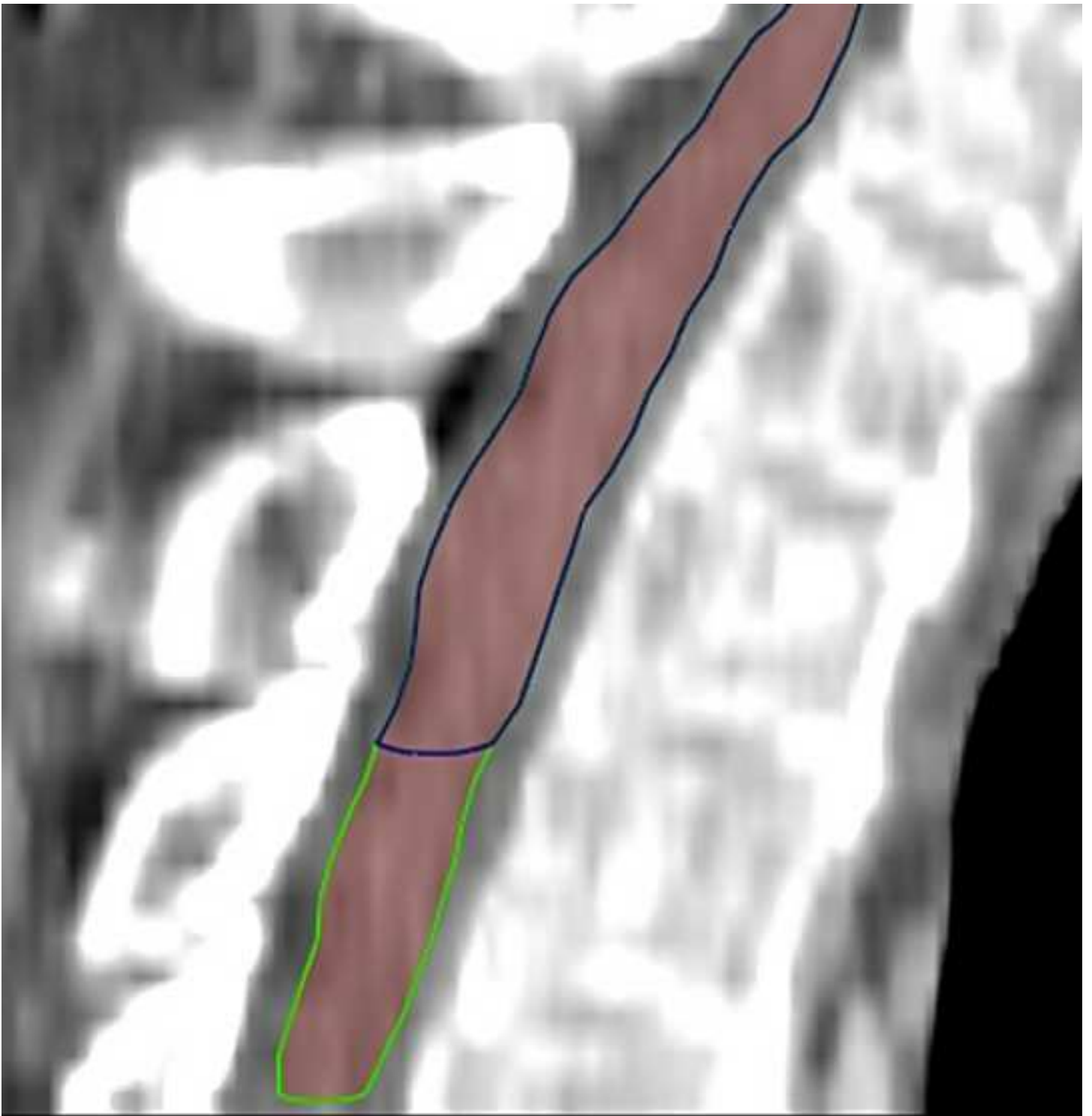


Figure 2D2
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Caption figure 2

Figure 1: Illustration of intra- and inter-observer variability between manual delineations ($A_m - C_m$) and corrected delineations ($A_c - C_c$), for both observers (RO1, RO2). Notice a decrease in IOV in A_c compared to A_m , and B_c compared to B_m , even with scatter artefacts. The decrease in IOV observed in C_c compared to C_m is due to a difference in delineation by RO2, independent of the network. Figures D_1 and D_2 show the difference in cranial and caudal border selection by the two ROs for brainstem and spinal cord.

$(A-C)_m$: manual

$(A-C)_c$, D_{1-2} : corrected

RO1 RO2 Automated

Figure 3A
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RO1

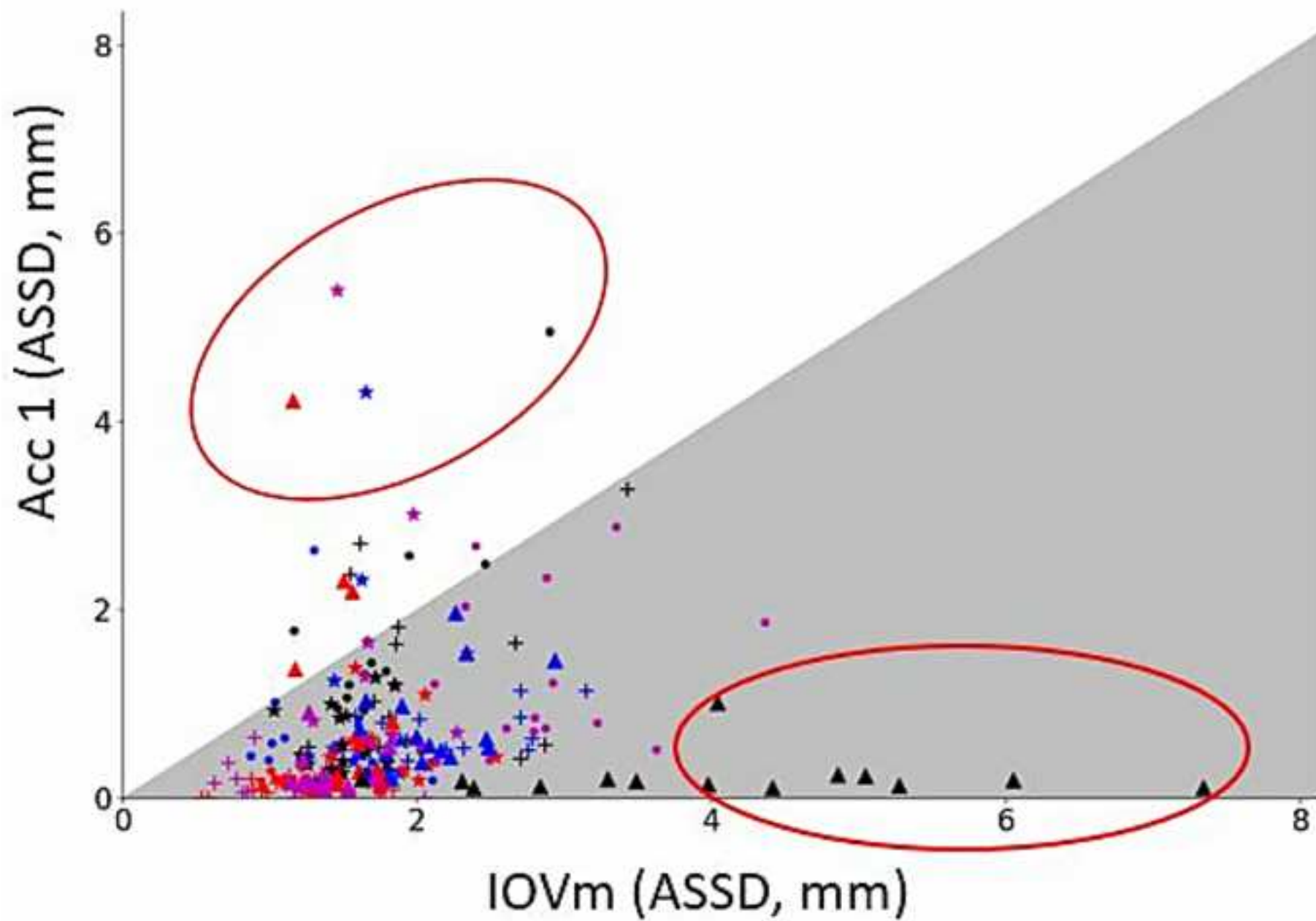


Figure 3B
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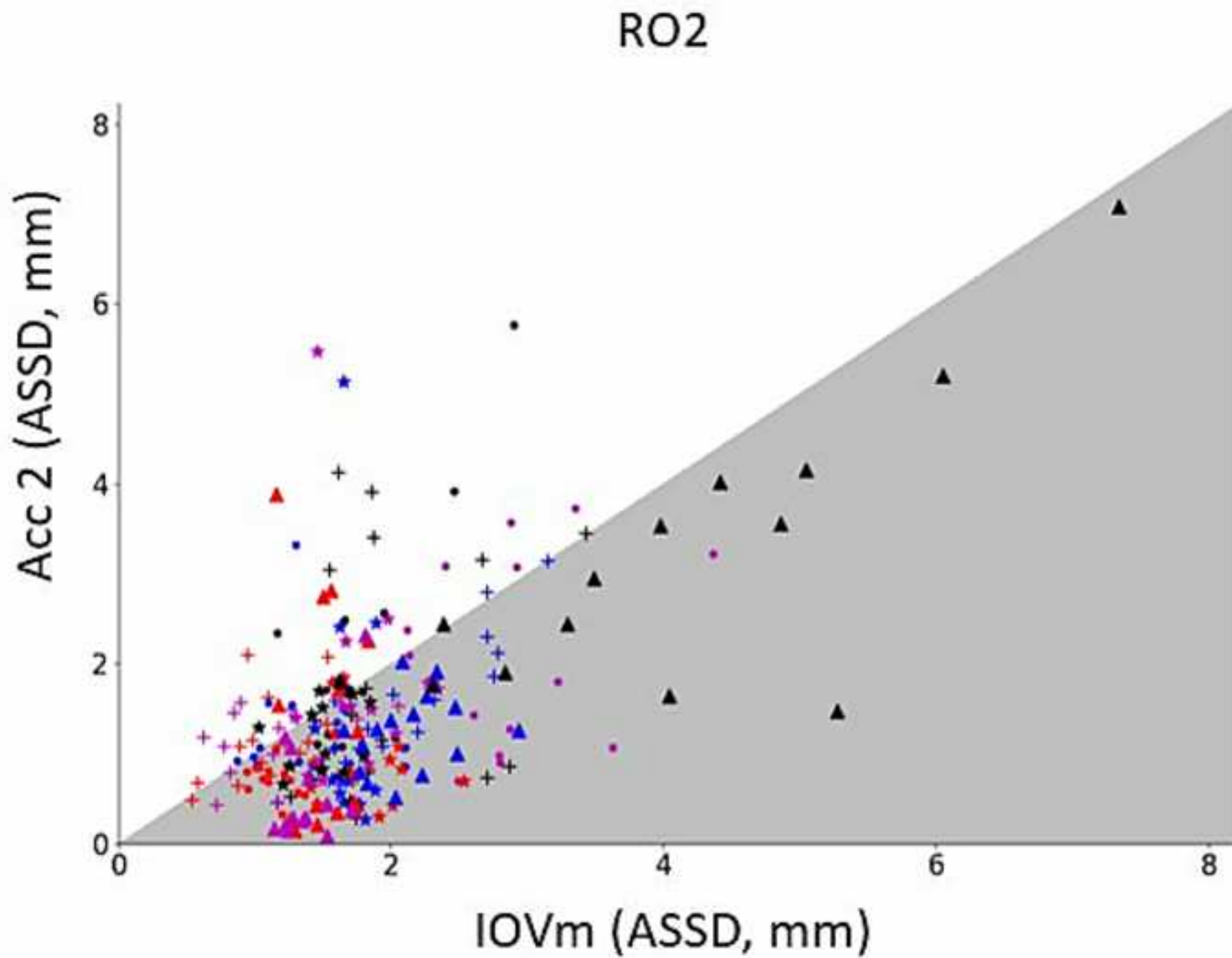


Figure 1: Network accuracy, corrections needed by radiation oncologist 1 (A) and 2 (B) vs manual interobserver variability. Network accuracy quantified by average corrections needed before the automated delineations were clinically acceptable. This was compared to interobserver variability between manual delineations. Each data point represents an organ at risk from one patient. For all structures in the grey zone, the corrections are smaller than variability in clinical practice. Abbreviations: ASSD: average symmetric surface distance; mm: millimetres; Acc: accuracy of network; RO: radiation oncologist; PCM: pharyngeal constrictor muscles; PG: parotid gland; SG: submandibular gland; U: upper; S: supra; IOVm: manual interobserver variability.

- + Brainstem
- + Cochlea left
- + Cochlea right
- + U Esophagus
- Glottic larynx
- Mandible
- Oral cavity
- S Glottic larynx
- ★ PG left
- ★ PG right
- ★ PCM inferior
- ★ PCM middle
- ★ PCM superior
- ▲ SG left
- ▲ SG right
- ▲ Spinal cord

Supplementary Files

[Click here to download Supplementary Files: Appendix A.docx](#)

Highlights

- Validation of automated delineation of organs at risk in head and neck cancer
- Automated delineation is more time efficient
- Automated delineation reduces interobserver variability