

Considerable effects of imaging sequences, feature extraction, feature selection, and classifiers on radiomics-based prediction of microvascular invasion in hepatocellular carcinoma using magnetic resonance imaging

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Background: Microvascular invasion (MVI) has a significant effect on the prognosis of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), but its preoperative identification is challenging. Radiomics features extracted from medical images, such as magnetic resonance (MR) images, can be used to predict MVI. In this study, we explored the effects of different imaging sequences, feature extraction and selection methods, and classifiers on the performance of HCC MVI predictive models.

Methods: After screening against the inclusion criteria, 69 patients with HCC and preoperative gadoxetic acid-enhanced MR images were enrolled. In total, 167 features were extracted from the MR images of each sequence for each patient. Experiments were designed to investigate the effects of imaging sequence, number of gray levels (*Ng*), quantization algorithm, feature selection method, and classifiers on the performance of radiomics biomarkers in the prediction of HCC MVI. We trained and tested these models using leave-one-out cross-validation (LOOCV).

Results: The radiomics model based on the images of the hepatobiliary phase (HBP) had better predictive performance than those based on the arterial phase (AP), portal venous phase (PVP), and preenhanced T1-weighted images [area under the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve (AUC) =0.792 vs. 0.641/0.634/0.620, P=0.041/0.021/0.010, respectively]. Compared with the equal-probability and Lloyd-Max algorithms, the radiomics features obtained using the Uniform quantization algorithm had a better performance (AUC =0.643/0.666 vs. 0.792, P=0.002/0.003, respectively). Among the values of 8, 16, 32, 64, and 128, the best predictive performance was achieved when the Ng was 64 (AUC =0.792 vs. 0.584/0.697/0.677/0.734, P<0.001/P=0.039/0.001/0.137, respectively). We used a two-stage feature selection method which combined the least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) and recursive feature elimination (RFE) gradient boosting decision tree (GBDT), which achieved better stability than and outperformed LASSO, minimum redundancy maximum relevance (mRMR), and support vector machine (SVM)-RFE (stability =0.967 vs. 0.837/0.623/0.390, respectively; AUC =0.850 vs. 0.792/0.713/0.699, P=0.142/0.007/0.003, respectively). The model based on the radiomics features of HBP images using the GBDT classifier showed a better performance for the preoperative prediction of MVI compared with logistic regression (LR), SVM, and random forest (RF) classifiers (AUC =0.895 *vs.* 0.850/0.834/0.884, P=0.558/0.229/0.058, respectively). With the optimal combination of these factors, we established the best model, which had an AUC of 0.895, accuracy of 87.0%, specificity of 82.5%, and sensitivity of 93.1%.

Conclusions: Imaging sequences, feature extraction and selection methods, and classifiers can have a considerable effect on the predictive performance of radiomics models for HCC MVI.

Keywords: Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC); magnetic resonance imaging (MRI); microvascular invasion (MVI); radiomics

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Introduction

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) has high incidence and mortality rates. It is ranked fifth among all malignancies in terms of incidence and is the third most common cause of cancer-related death (1). Partial hepatectomy and liver transplantation are the most effective treatments for HCC (2); however, the respective 5-year recurrence rates are as high as 70% and 35% (3-5). Occult metastatic lesions produced by hepatoma cells that invade microvessels are a major cause of postoperative recurrence of HCC. Numerous studies have shown that microvascular invasion (MVI) is one of the independent risk factors for the prognosis of primary HCC (5-9).

Accurate identification of MVI in patients with HCC is key to formulating treatment strategies and predicting prognosis. However, MVI cannot be reliably diagnosed by biopsy, which makes its preoperative diagnosis challenging. Although several radiologic features of magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and computed tomography (CT) images, such as tumor margin, internal arteries, and hypodense halos, are known to be predictors of MVI status, a consensus on the best predictive features of MVI in HCC has not been reached (10-12).

The rapid development of medical imaging technology has allowed for more information to be obtained for HCC evaluation. Radiomics, a method that involves the highthroughput extraction of high-dimensional quantitative features from medical images, has received widespread attention in recent years (13-15), due to the additional information it provides for disease analysis. The key steps of radiomics analysis methods include image acquisition, tumor segmentation, feature extraction, and classifier modeling (13,14); all of these steps may have an effect on the final performances of radiomics models for HCC MVI. Studies have investigated the variability of radiomics features with respect to different imaging scanners (16,17), image acquisition parameters (18), tumor delineation methods (19), reconstruction methods (20-22), feature selection methods (23,24), and discretization (25), as well as the variability of model performance using different classifiers (23,24).

To date, several studies have shown that radiomics features based on CT (26-31) or MRI (32-34) perform well for the prediction of HCC MVI, outperforming radiographic features (26,27,30,32). It is worth noting that those studies mainly explored the predictive performance of different radiomics features; although, as mentioned previously, each step of the radiomics analysis can affect the final predictive performance. Ni et al. (31) showed that different feature selection methods and different classifiers had a significant effect on the prediction of HCC MVI based on CT radiomics features. Yang et al. (33) reported that radiomics features performed differently in the prediction of HCC MVI with different MRI sequences. However, almost all studies have neglected the effect of different radiomics feature extraction parameters on the performances of radiomics models for HCC MVI. In addition, some studies have failed to mention the detailed parameters of radiomics feature extraction. Therefore, we aimed to explore the effects of imaging sequences, feature extraction, feature selection and classifiers on the predictive performance of a radiomics biomarker for HCC MVI, and to provide standardized recommendations for subsequent radiomics research related to the prediction of HCC MVI.

Methods

Patients

The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board



Figure 1 Flowchart of the patients' enrollment. HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; MRI, magnetic resonance images.

and Ethical Committee of The First Affiliated Hospital, Sun Yat-sen University, and conformed to the provisions of the Helsinki Declaration. The requirement for informed consent was waived. Between August 2016 and March 2019, we reviewed the medical records and imaging data of all HCC patients diagnosed at the First Affiliated Hospital, Sun Yat-sen University. The inclusion criteria were: (I) a solitary lesion; (II) hepatectomy; (III) no prior surgical or medical anticancer treatment before the MRI scan; (IV) MRI acquired within the 1 month prior to treatment; (V) HCC and MVI confirmed by pathologic examination; (VI) no known distant metastasis; and (VII) images with the same spatial resolution for all sequences. Patients with mixed cell tumors (HCC and cholangiocarcinoma) or with extensive tumor invasion were excluded. Details of the patient recruitment process are shown in Figure 1. Sixty-nine HCC patients (66 males, 3 females; mean age: 52.7 years, range: 18-75 years) met the inclusion criteria; of them, 29 were confirmed with MVI by postoperative histopathology.

MRI acquisition

Gadoxetic acid-enhanced MRI examinations were performed for all patients (body coil, supine position), using a 3.0T MR system (Siemens Veiro, Germany). The MRI scan sequence included: T1-weighted imaging (T1WI) in/ out of phase sequence imaging, pre-enhanced T1-weighted imaging (pre-T1WI) sequence axial imaging, and T2weighted imaging (T2WI). Following the injection of gadoxetic acid (Primovist[®], 0.1 mL/kg body weight) into the cubital vein at a flow rate of 1 mL/s, post-contrast dynamic three-dimensional (3D) T1-weighted volumetricinterpolated breath-hold examination (VIBE) was conducted during the arterial phase (AP; 20–30 seconds), portal venous phase (PVP; 60–70 seconds), and hepatobiliary phase (HBP; 20 minutes). The detailed scanning parameters of the pre-T1WI, AP, PVP, and HBP are shown in *Table 1. Figure 2* shows examples of pre-T1WI, AP, PVP, and HBP images of a 55-year-old man.

Radiomics feature extraction

The tumor lesions on each axial slice were contoured carefully by a board-certified abdominal radiologist using ITK-SNAP software (www.itksnap.org) and then checked by an experienced radiologist (both with >10 years of experience in abdominal imaging). To increase the reliability of the MRI texture measurements, the voxels within the tumor region with intensities outside the range of $\mu \pm 3\sigma$ (μ and σ represent the mean and standard deviation of the image intensities within the tumor region, respectively) were rejected and not considered in subsequent texture

Table I wild sequ	Table 1 Will sequences and scalining parameters							
Sequences	TR (ms)	TE (ms)	Flip angle	Thickness (mm)	FOV (mm)	Matrix		
Pre-T1WI	3.92	1.39	9	2	285×380	320×240		
AP	3.92	1.39	9	2	285×380	320×240		
PVP	3.92	1.39	9	2	285×380	320×240		
HBP	4.44	1.55	35	2	285×380	320×240		

Table 1 MRI sequences and scanning parameters

AP, arterial phase; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; FOV, field of view; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; pre-T1WI, pre-enhanced T1-weighted imaging; PVP, portal venous phase; TE, echo time; TR, repeat time.



Figure 2 Examples of pre-enhanced T1WI, HBP, AP, and PVP images of a 55-year-old man. T1WI, T1-weighted imaging; AP, arterial phase; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; PVP, portal venous phase.

computations, as suggested by Collewet *et al.* (35). Next, all images were resampled to an isotropic voxel size using an interpolation method. Except that by Zhang *et al.* (34), all previous radiomics studies on the prediction of HCC MVI resampled the images to a voxel size of $1.00 \times 1.00 \times 1.00$ mm³. Vallières *et al.* (36) suggested an isotropic voxel size that was equal to the initial in-plane resolution ($1.19 \times 1.19 \times 1.19$ mm³ in our study). Considering that the slice thickness was

2 mm, in our study we resampled the images to different sizes including $1.00 \times 1.00 \times 1.00$, $1.19 \times 1.19 \times 1.19$, $1.50 \times 1.50 \times 1.50$, and $2.00 \times 2.00 \times 2.00$ mm³. Because high interpolation accuracy can reduce the influence of image distortion, we chose the commonly used 3D cubic interpolation with the Matrix Laboratory (MATLAB, Version R2019a) software.

The quantitative image feature toolkit, which was

developed in-house using MATLAB, was used to calculate the radiomics features. Using an image of a single tumor lesion as input, we calculated 167 quantitative features, including shape, intensity, and texture features, with the toolkit. In total, 24 shape features described the 3D geometric properties of the tumor. A further 37 intensity features estimated the first-order statistics of the intensity histogram. Moreover, the intra-tumor heterogeneity was quantified by 106 textural features derived from the graylevel co-occurrence matrix (GLCM), gray-level runlength matrix (GLRLM), gray-level size zone matrix (GLSZM), spatial gray-level dependence matrix (NGTDM), and neighborhood gray-tone difference statistics (NGLDS).

Prior to the computation of the textural features, the full intensity range of the tumor region was quantified to a smaller number of gray levels (*Ng*). The pixel value in a gray-scale image is usually an integer between 0 and 255. If Ng = 8 is chosen, the pixel value is quantitatively mapped to an integer between 0 and 7, which can greatly reduce the burden of calculation in feature extraction. The Uniform, equal-probability, and Lloyd-Max quantization algorithms were tested using our quantitative image feature kit. The calculation formula of the Uniform quantization algorithm was:

$$y = round\left[\frac{(x - x_{min})(Ng - 1)}{x_{max} - x_{min}}\right] + 1$$
[1]

where 'round' represents the rounding function, 'x' refers to the original tumor region voxel value, x_{max} and x_{max} are the maximum and minimum voxel values of the original tumor region, respectively, and y is the result (1-Ng) after quantization. The equal-probability and Lloyd-Max quantization algorithms were calculated using the histeq and lloyds functions of MATLAB, respectively. Ng can theoretically be set to any integer value in all three quantization algorithms. All previous radiomics studies related to the prediction of HCC MVI, only Zhang et al. (34), reported the value of Ng is 64 and selected the Uniform quantization algorithm as the quantization algorithm, while other studies (26-33) failed to specify the value of Ng or the quantization algorithm. In our study, we tested the three quantization algorithms and commonly used Ng values, including 8, 16, 32, 64, and 128.

Radiomics feature selection

There are three main types of feature selection methods:

filter, wrapper, and embedded (37). Minimum redundancy maximum relevance (mRMR) (38), support vector machine (SVM) recursive feature elimination (RFE) (39), and least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) (40) algorithms are common filter, wrapper, and embedded methods for feature selection, respectively. Of the radiomics studies related to HCC MVI prediction, we found that only two used SVM-RFE or mRMR as the feature selection method (29,34), and the others used LASSO (26,28,30,32,33). Our study tested the performance of the feature selection methods, including SVM-RFE, mRMR, and LASSO, in HCC MVI prediction. In addition, we present a two-stage feature selection method combining LASSO and the gradient boosting decision tree RFE (GBDT-RFE) (LASSO-RFE). The workflow of the LASSO-RFE is shown in Figure 3. With a 10-fold crossvalidation strategy, LASSO was applied to obtain the feature subsets in the training set; next, the GBDT-RFE was used to sort the feature subsets. A backward search algorithm was used to verify the performance of different numbers of feature combinations in the validation set, from which the feature subset with the best performance was selected as the optimal feature subset. Finally, the maximal information coefficient (MIC) was used to calculate the correlation in the optimal feature subset for 10 folds and remove the redundant features that had a strong correlation (MIC >0.5) with the features with higher frequency.

Classifiers and radiomics model building

Almost all of the previous radiomics studies about HCC MVI prediction used logistic regression (LR) as a classifier (29-30,32-34). Moreover, as SVM, random forest (RF), and GBDT are machine-learning classifiers commonly used in similar radiomics research, we explored the differences in performance between these four classifiers for the prediction of HCC MVI. In our study, LR, SVM, RF, and GBDT were implemented in the scikit-learn Python (version 3.7) library.

To train and test the model, we used the leave-one-out cross-validation (LOOCV) strategy, with one subject for testing and the remaining subjects for training. The data were divided into a training cohort and a testing cohort using the LOOCV strategy. In the training cohort, the best feature subset was first obtained by feature selection, and then the feature values of the best feature subset were standardized:

$$y = \frac{x - \mu}{\delta}$$
[2]



Figure 3 Workflow of the LASSO-RFE. CV, cross-validation; GBDT, gradient boosting decision tree; GBDT-RFE, GBDT-recursive feature elimination; LASSO, least absolute shrinkage and selection operator.

where x is the original feature value, μ and σ are the mean and standard deviation values of the original eigenvectors, respectively, and y is the standardized feature value. In the testing cohort, the corresponding features were standardized in the same way; however, it should be noted that μ and σ referred to the mean and standard deviation values of the original eigenvectors in the training cohort. Finally, the model was trained and tested using the training and testing cohorts, respectively. The above steps were repeated until each sample had been tested once as the testing cohort.

Study design and performance evaluation

The workflow of the study is shown in *Figure 4*. We chose $1.19 \times 1.19 \times 1.19 \text{ mm}^3$, 64, Uniform, LASSO, and LR as the initial settings for the resampled voxel size, Ng, the quantization algorithm, feature selection method, and

classifier, respectively, because they have been the most commonly used in other radiomics studies. In experiment 1, we aimed to explore the prediction performance differences between the pre-T1WI, AP, PVP, and HBP sequences; the experiment was carried out with the initial settings. In subsequent experiments, we used the control variable strategy, and each experiment setting was based on the variables that obtained the best predictive performance from the previous experiment. Furthermore, we explored the effects of resampled voxel size, Ng, quantization algorithm, feature selection method, and classifiers on the performance of predictive models in experiments 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6, respectively.

The performance of the predictive models was evaluated using the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve. The area under the ROC curve (AUC) with 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) was calculated, because it denotes the classification performance across all decision



Figure 4 Workflow of the study. μ and σ represent the mean and standard deviation of the MRI voxel within the tumor region, respectively; AP, arterial phase; GBDT, gradient boosting decision tree; GLCM, gray-level co-occurrence matrix; GLRLM, gray-level run-length matrix; GLSZM, gray-level size zone matrix; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; PVP, portal venous phase; pre-T1WI, pre-enhanced T1-weighted imaging; LASSO, least absolute shrinkage and selection operator; LASSO-RFE, a method combining LASSO and gradient boosting decision tree recursive feature elimination; LOOCV, leave-one-out cross-validation; LR, logistic regression; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; mRMR, minimum redundancy maximum relevance; NGLDS, neighborhood gray-level difference statistics; NGTDM, neighborhood gray-tone difference matrix; RF, random forest; SGLDM, spatial gray-level dependence matrix; SVM, support vector machine; SVM-RFE, SVM-recursive feature elimination.

thresholds. From the ROC curve, the accuracy, sensitivity, and specificity were calculated according to the decision threshold with the highest accuracy. In our study, the stability of the feature selection method using the crossvalidation strategy was defined as:

stability =
$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{K} \sum_{j=1}^{K} \frac{F_i \cap F_j}{F_i \cup F_j}}{K \times (K-1)} (j \neq i)$$
[3]

where F_i and F_j are the feature selection results of the i-fold and j-fold, respectively, and K represents the total number

Table 2 Demographics and	d clinical characteri	istics of the 69 stu	dv patients
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Characteristics	MVI-present (n=29)	MVI-absent (n=40)	P value
Age (years), mean \pm SD [range]	49.7±11.8 [25–75]	55.2±11.6 [18-75]	0.034
Sex (male; female)	28; 1	37; 3	0.477
AFP (μ g/L), mean ± SD (range)	3,779.9±10,372.6 (0.7-45,020.8)	8,633.8±50,419.0 (1.4–319,159.4)	0.109
Tumor size (mm), mean \pm SD [range]	55.4±26.8 [23–113]	44.9±21.2 [14-92]	0.158
Liver disease, n (%)			
Hepatitis	29 (100.0)	40 (100.0)	>0.999
Etiology of hepatitis			0.329
Hepatitis C	0 (0.0)	1 (2.5)	
Hepatitis B	29 (100.0)	33 (82.5)	
Alcohol	2 (6.9)	4 (10.0)	
Metabolic	2 (6.9)	6 (15.0)	
Other	0 (0.0)	3 (7.5)	
Cirrhosis	8 (27.6)	20 (50.0)	0.061
ALBI grade of cirrhosis			0.589
Grade 1	17 (58.6)	26 (65.0)	
Grade 2	12 (41.4)	14 (35.0)	
Grade 3	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	

The ALBI score grading was: grade 1 (score \leq -2.6), grade 2 (-2.6< score \leq -1.39) and grade 3 (score >-1.39). ALBI, albumin-bilirubin; AFP, alpha-fetoprotein; MVI, microvascular invasion; SD, standard deviation.

of folds. The stability value ranged between 0 and 1. If the feature selection results of each fold were consistent, the stability value would be 1.

Statistical analysis

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare the clinical characteristics between MVI-present and MVI-absent cohorts for continuous variables, and the Chi-square test was used for categorical variables. To evaluate the differences in the predictive performance of the different models, the ROC curves of all models were compared using MedCalc software (version 12.7.0). Other statistical analyses were performed in the scipy-stats Python (version 3.7) library. Two-tailed P values <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Results

Demographic and clinical characteristics

The demographic and clinical characteristics of the patients

are listed in *Table 2*. All patients had hepatitis, and 28 had accompanying cirrhosis.

Prediction performance of the models

Experiment 1

With the settings of resampled voxel size, quantization algorithm, Ng, feature selection method, and classifier as $1.19 \times 1.19 \times 1.19 \text{ mm}^3$, Uniform, 64, LASSO, and LR, respectively, the performance of the predictive models built using the AP, PVP, pre-T1WI, and HBP images are listed in *Table 3*. The ROC curves are shown in *Figure 5*. The model based on the radiomics features of HBP images displayed a better predictive performance for HCC MVI than the radiomics features of AP, PVP, and pre-T1WI (AUC =0.792 vs. 0.641/0.634/0.620, respectively). The P values of the differences between the HBP ROC curve and the AP, PVP, and pre-T1WI curves were 0.041, 0.021, and 0.010, respectively.

Experiment 2

With the settings of Ng, quantization algorithm, feature

Dai et al. Radiomics-based prediction of HCC MVI

algorithm, feature selection method, and classifier were 1.19×1.19×1.19 mm ³ , 64, Uniform, LASSO, and LR, respectively						
Sequence	AUC	95% CI	Accuracy (%)	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)	
HBP	0.792	0.678–0.881	75.4	86.2	67.5	
AP	0.641 (P=0.041*)	0.517-0.753	63.8	58.6	67.5	
PVP	0.634 (P=0.021*)	0.510-0.747	63.8	62.1	65.0	
Pre-T1WI	0.620 (P=0.010*)	0.495–0.734	59.4	51.7	65.0	

Table 3 Performance of predictive models built using HBP, AP, PVP, and T1WI sequences when the resampled voxel size, Ng, quantization algorithm, feature selection method, and classifier were 1.19×1.19×1.19 mm³, 64, Uniform, LASSO, and LR, respectively

*, Statistically significant results from the ROC analysis, as compared with HBP. P values refer to the comparison between ROC curves and HBP. AP, arterial phase; AUC, area under the ROC curve; ROC, receiver operating characteristic; CI, confidence interval; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; LASSO, least absolute shrinkage and selection operator; LR, logistic regression; *Ng*, number of gray levels; pre-T1WI, pre-enhanced T1-weighted imaging; PVP, portal venous phase.



Figure 5 ROC curves of the predictive models built using different sequences when the Ng, quantization algorithm, feature selection method, and classifier were 64, Uniform, LASSO, and LR, respectively. AP, arterial phase; AUC, area under the ROC curve; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; LASSO, least absolute shrinkage and selection operator; LR, logistic regression; Ng, number of gray levels; pre-T1WI, pre-enhanced T1-weighted imaging; PVP, portal venous phase; ROC, receiver operating characteristic.

selection method, and classifier as 64, Uniform, LASSO, and LR, respectively, details of the performance of the predictive models built using the HBP radiomics features obtained with different resampled voxel sizes are listed in *Table 4.* The ROC curves are shown in *Figure 6.* Compared with the images of $1.50 \times 1.50 \times 1.50$ and $2.00 \times 2.00 \times 2.00$ mm³, the radiomics features obtained with images of $1.00 \times 1.00 \times 1.00$ or $1.19 \times 1.19 \times 1.19$ mm³ displayed a better performance (AUC =0.792/0.792 vs. 0.639/0.613, P=0.010 and 0.001, respectively). The radiomics features obtained using the 1.19^3 mm³ resampled voxel size had a higher sensitivity than those obtained using 1.00^3 mm³ (sensitivity =86.2% vs. 75.9%).

Experiment 3

With the settings of resampled voxel size, Ng, feature selection method, and classifier as $1.19 \times 1.19 \times 1.19$ mm³, 64, LASSO, and LR, respectively, details of the performance of the predictive models built using the HBP radiomics

Table 4 Performance of the predictive models built using HBP radiomics features obtained by different resampled voxel sizes when the Ng, quantization algorithm, feature selection method, and classifier were 64, Uniform, LASSO, and LR, respective

Resampled voxel size, mm ³	AUC	95% CI	Accuracy (%)	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)
1.19 ³	0.792	0.678–0.881	75.4	86.2	67.5
1.00 ³	0.792 (P>0.999)	0.678–0.881	75.4	75.9	75.0
1.50 ³	0.639 (P=0.010*)	0.514–0.751	60.9	62.1	60.0
2.00 ³	0.613 (P=0.001*)	0.488-0.728	65.2	62.1	67.5

*, Statistically significant results from the ROC analysis as compared with 1.19×1.19×1.19 mm³. P value indicates the significance in ROC curve comparison with 1.19×1.19×1.19 mm³. AUC, area under the ROC curve; ROC, receiver operating characteristic; CI, confidence interval; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; LASSO, least absolute shrinkage and selection operator; LR, logistic regression; *Ng*, number of gray levels.

features obtained with the Uniform, Lloyd-Max, and equalpro quantization algorithms are listed in *Table 5*. The ROC curves are shown in *Figure 7*. Compared with the equalprobability and Lloyd-Max algorithms, the radiomics features obtained using the Uniform quantization algorithm had a better performance (AUC =0.792 *vs.* 0.643/0.666, respectively). The P values for the differences between the Uniform ROC curves and the Lloyd-Max and equal-pro curves were 0.002 and 0.003, respectively.

Experiment 4

With the settings of resampled voxel size, quantization algorithm, feature selection method, and classifier



Figure 6 ROC curves of predictive models built based on HBP radiomics features obtained with different resampled voxel sizes, including 1.00^3 , 1.19^3 , 1.50^3 and 2.00^3 mm³ when the Ng, quantization algorithm, feature selection method, and classifier were 64, Uniform, LASSO, and LR, respectively. AUC, area under the ROC curve; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; LASSO, least absolute shrinkage and selection operator; LR, logistic regression; Ng, number of gray levels; ROC, receiver operating characteristic.

as $1.19 \times 1.19 \times 1.19$ mm³, Uniform, LASSO, and LR, respectively, details of the performance of the predictive models built using the HBP radiomics features obtained with different Ngs, including 8, 16, 32, 64, and 128, are listed in *Table 6*. The ROC curves are shown in *Figure 8*. Among the values of 8, 16, 32, 64, and 128, the best HCC MVI predictive performance was obtained when Ng was 64 (AUC =0.792 vs. 0.584/0.697/0.677/0.734, respectively). The P values of the differences between the ROC curves with a Ng of 64 and the curves with a Ng of 8, 16, 32, and 128 were <0.001, 0.039, 0.001, and 0.137, respectively.

Experiment 5

With the settings of resampled voxel size, Ng, quantization algorithm, and the classifier as 1.19×1.19×1.19 mm³, 64, Uniform, and LR, respectively, details of the performance of the predictive models built using the HBP radiomics features obtained by different feature selection methods, including LASSO-RFE, LASSO, mRMR, and SVM-RFE, are listed in *Table* 7. Among these feature selection methods, the radiomics features selected by LASSO-RFE showed better stability and predictive performance than LASSO, mRMR, and SVM-RFE (stability =0.967 *vs.* 0.837/0.623/0.390, respectively; AUC =0.850 *vs.* 0.792/0.713/0.699, respectively) (*Figure 9*). The P values of the differences between the LASSO-RFE ROC curves and the LASSO, mRMR, and SVM-RFE curves were 0.142, 0.007, and 0.003, respectively.

Experiment 6

With the settings of resampled voxel size, Ng, quantization algorithm, and feature selection method as 1.19×1.19×1.19 mm³, 64, Uniform, and LASSO-RFE, respectively, details of the performance of the predictive models established with SVM, LR, RF, and GBDT based on the HBP images are

Table 5 Performance of the predictive models built using HBP radiomics features obtained by Uniform, Lloyd-Max and equal-pro quantization algorithms when the resampled voxel size, Ng, feature selection method, and classifier were $1.19 \times 1.19 \times 1.19 \times 1.19$ mm³, 64, LASSO, and LR, respectively

Quant.algo.	AUC	95% CI	Accuracy (%)	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)
Uniform	0.792	0.678–0.881	75.4	86.2	67.5
Lloyd-max	0.666 (P=0.002*)	0.542-0.775	68.1	69.0	67.5
Equal-pro	0.643 (P=0.003*)	0.519–0.755	66.7	58.6	72.5

*, Statistically significant results from the ROC analysis as compared with Uniform. P value indicates the significance in ROC curve comparison with Uniform. AUC, area under the ROC curve; ROC, receiver operating characteristic; CI, confidence interval; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; LASSO, least absolute shrinkage and selection operator; LR, logistic regression; *Ng*, number of gray levels; Quant. algo., quantization algorithm.

1846

shown in *Figure 10*. The model based on the radiomics features of the HBP images using GBDT displayed a better performance than LR, SVM, and RF for the preoperative prediction of MVI (AUC =0.895 *vs.* 0.850/0.834/0.884, respectively). The P values of the differences between the GBDT ROC curves and the RF, LR, and SVM curves were 0.558, 0.229, and 0.058, respectively (*Table 8*).

Feature selection results

With the LOOCV strategy, LASSO-RFE was used to select features in the training cohort. The selected features of 68



Figure 7 ROC curves of predictive models built based on HBP radiomics features obtained by Uniform, Lloyd-Max, and equalpro quantization algorithms when the Ng, feature selection method, and classifier were 64, LASSO, and LR, respectively. AUC, area under the ROC curve; Equal-pro, equal-probability; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; LASSO, least absolute shrinkage and selection operator; LR, logistic regression; Ng, number of gray levels; ROC, receiver operating characteristic.

folds were solidity, range, high gray-level zone emphasis (HGLZE), and gray-level variance of GLSZM (GLSZM_GLV), while those of the remaining 1 fold were solidity, range, HGLZE, GLSZM_GLV, and maximum NGLDS (NGLDS_Max); the mean, standard deviation, and range (minimum-maximum) of each of these five features are listed in *Table 9*.

Discussion

In this study, the model based on the radiomics features of HBP images displayed a better predictive performance for HCC MVI than those based on the radiomics features of AP, PVP, and pre-T1WI images; moreover, the differences in performance were significant (P values =0.010-0.041). Our finding is in accordance with the conclusion of Yang et al. (33). Notably, the predictive model based on HBP had higher sensitivity than the other sequences. Gadoxetic acid is a liver-specific intracellular MRI contrast agent that provides enhanced hepatocellular parenchymal contrast. Other studies have reported that gadoxetic acid-enhanced MRI may aid in the diagnosis of HCC MVI (41,42), which has been confirmed by our research, and may occur because, in the presence of MVI, tumor thrombi obstruct the minute portal branches that supply the hepatocytes. Thus, the uptake of gadoxetic acid by hepatocytes will decrease, resulting in hemodynamic changes that are visible on imaging (43).

Our results showed that the feature extraction parameters (resampled voxel size, Ng, and discretization method) had a considerable effect on the predictive performance of models for HCC MVI. The best predictive performance was obtained when the resampled voxel size was $1.19 \times 1.19 \times 1.19 \text{ mm}^3$, equivalent to the transverse plane resolution. A possible

quantization arg	quantization algorithm, feature selection method, and classifier were 1.17x1.17x1.17 min, Chilorin, LASSO, and LK, respectively						
Ng	AUC	95% CI	Accuracy (%)	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)		
64	0.792	0.678–0.881	75.4	86.2	67.5		
8	0.584 (P<0.001*)	0.459-0.702	58.0	72.4	47.5		
16	0.697 (P=0.039*)	0.575-0.802	63.8	69.0	60.0		
32	0.677 (P=0.001*)	0.553–0.784	66.7	55.2	75.0		
128	0.734 (P=0.137)	0.614–0.834	69.6	82.8	60.0		

Table 6 Performance of the predictive models built using HBP radiomics features obtained with different *Ngs* when the resampled voxel size, quantization algorithm, feature selection method, and classifier were 1.19×1.19×1.19 mm³. Uniform, LASSO, and LR, respectively

*, Statistically significant results from ROC analysis as compared with Ng =64. P value indicates the significance in ROC curve comparison with Ng =64. AUC, area under the ROC curve; ROC, receiver operating characteristic; CI, confidence interval; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; LASSO, least absolute shrinkage and selection operator; LR, logistic regression; Ng, number of gray levels. explanation is that compared with $1.00 \times 1.00 \times 1.00$, $1.50 \times 1.50 \times 1.50$, and $2.00 \times 2.00 \times 2.00$, the resampled voxel size of $1.19 \times 1.19 \times 1.19$ mm³ does not require interpolation in the transverse plane of MR images, which can reduce the image distortion caused by interpolation and is thus conducive to extracting the features correlated with MVI. Moreover, the greater the difference between the resampled voxel size and $1.19 \times 1.19 \times 1.19$ mm³, the worse the performance. Compared with equal-probability and Lloyd-Max, the radiomics features obtained using the



Figure 8 ROC curves of prediction models built based on HBP radiomics features obtained with different *Ngs*, including 8, 16, 32, 64, and 128, when the quantization algorithm, feature selection method, and classifier were Uniform, LASSO, and LR, respectively. AUC, area under the ROC curve; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; LASSO, least absolute shrinkage and selection operator; LR, logistic regression; *Ng*, number of gray levels; ROC, receiver operating characteristic.

Uniform quantization algorithm had better performance. Furthermore, the performance differences were mainly reflected in sensitivity, which may be because the equalpro and Lloyd-Max quantization algorithms change the dimensionless range of intensity, thereby discarding the gadoxetic acid uptake information (i.e., metabolic activity) that plays an important role in the diagnosis of MVI, as discussed earlier. Among the values of 8, 16, 32, 64, and 128, the best HCC MVI predictive performance was obtained when Ng was 64. There were significant differences (P<0.001-0.039) in predictive performance compared with Ng =8 or 16. However, when Ng was 128 (>64), a better predictive performance was not achieved, even if the difference of predictive performance between 64 and 128 was not significant (P=0.137). PET (44), CT (45), and MRI (46) studies have reported that radiomics features are extremely sensitive to the specific choice of Ng, which is similar to the findings of our study. Compared with previous studies, we focused on the change in the final performance rather than the variability of the radiomics feature values. Ng values of 8, 16, and 32 are likely too small, especially a Ng of 8, which has previously been criticized as being inadequate for textural analysis (44). However, using a Ng of 128 will lead to large and empty matrices (including GLCM, GLRLM, GLSZM, NGTDM, and SGLDM) that may influence results. Thus, the most robust choice for Ngis 64; previous studies have also shown that this value is more suitable for the extraction of radiomics features than 8, 16, 32, and 128 (44).

High-throughput radiomics features can easily lead to over-fitting (47), especially in small datasets such as ours. In this case, what the classifier learns may be data-dependent

1.19×1.19×1.19 mm ³ , 64, Uniform, and LR, respectively
comprising LASSO-RFE, LASSO, mRMR, and SVM-RFE, when the resampled voxel size, Ng, quantization algorithm, and classifier were
Table 7 Performance of the predictive models built using HBP radiomics features obtained by different feature selection methods,

Fea.Select.algo.	Stability	AUC	95% CI	Accuracy (%)	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)
LASSO-RFE	0.967	0.850	0.744–0.925	79.7	82.8	77.5
LASSO	0.837	0.792 (P=0.142)	0.678–0.881	75.4	86.2	67.5
mRMR	0.623	0.713 (P=0.007)	0.591–0.815	66.7	79.3	57.5
SVM-RFE	0.390	0.699 (P=0.003)	0.577–0.804	69.6	75.9	65.0

*, Statistically significant results from ROC analysis as compared with LASSO-RFE. P value indicates the significance in ROC curve comparison with LASSO-RFE. AUC, area under the ROC curve; ROC, receiver operating characteristic; CI, confidence interval; Fea. Select.algo., feature selection methods; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; LASSO, least absolute shrinkage and selection operator; LASSO-RFE, a method combining LASSO and gradient boosting decision tree recursive feature elimination; LR, logistic regression; mRMR, minimum redundancy maximum relevance; *Ng*, number of gray levels; SVM-RFE, support vector machine recursive feature elimination.

1848



Figure 9 ROC curves of predictive models built based on HBP radiomics features obtained by different feature selection methods, comprising LASSO-RFE, LASSO, mRMR, and SVM-RFE, when the *Ng*, quantization algorithm, and classifier were 64, Uniform, and LR, respectively. AUC, area under the ROC curve; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; LASSO, least absolute shrinkage and selection operator; LASSO-RFE, a method combining LASSO and gradient boosting decision tree recursive feature elimination; LR, logistic regression; mRMR, minimum redundancy maximum relevance; *Ng*, number of gray levels; ROC, receiver operating characteristic; SVM-RFE, support vector machine recursive feature elimination.



Figure 10 ROC curves of predictive models established with SVM, LR, RF, and GBDT classifiers based on the HBP images when the *Ng*, quantization algorithm, and feature selection method were 64, Uniform and LASSO-RFE, respectively. AUC, area under the ROC curve; GBDT, gradient boosting decision tree; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; LR, logistic regression; *Ng*, number of gray levels; LASSO-RFE, a method combining LASSO and gradient boosting decision tree recursive feature elimination; RF, random forest; ROC, receiver operating characteristic; SVM, support vector machine.

Table 8 Performance of the predictive models established with SVM, LR, RF, and GBDT based on the HBP images when the resampled	l voxel
size, Ng, quantization algorithm, and feature selection method were 1.19×1.19×1.19 mm ³ , 64, Uniform, and LASSO-RFE, respectively	

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Classifiers	AUC	95% CI	Accuracy (%)	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)	
GBDT	0.895	0.797–0.956	87.0	93.1	82.5	
RF	0.884 (P=0.558)	0.784–0.949	84.1	86.2	82.5	
LR	0.850 (P=0.229)	0.744-0.925	79.7	82.8	77.5	
SVM	0.834 (P=0.058)	0.725-0.912	81.2	82.8	80.0	

P value indicates the significance in ROC curve comparison with GBDT. AUC, area under the ROC curve; ROC, receiver operating characteristic; CI, confidence interval; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; GBDT, gradient boosting decision tree; LASSO-RFE, a method combining LASSO and gradient boosting decision tree recursive feature elimination; LR, logistic regression; *Ng*, number of gray levels; RF, random forest; SVM, support vector machine.

noise rather than MVI biomarkers, which greatly reduces the generalizability of the HCC MVI predictive model. In our study, to avoid the disadvantages of dimensionality, feature selection was used, and we used the LOOCV strategy to determine if over-fitting had occurred. Among the three commonly used feature selection methods (mRMR, SVM-RFE, and LASSO), the radiomics features selected by LASSO displayed the best stability and predictive performance, which may be because LASSO retains the good features of both the subset selection and ridge regression. LASSO is suitable for analyzing large sets of radiomics features with a relatively small sample size and is designed to avoid over-fitting, which helps to reduce the interference of data noise (irrelevant features) (48,49). We also presented a two-stage feature selection LASSO-RFE, which achieved better stability and performance than LASSO. After using LASSO to select a feature subset, RFE used a verification set to perform a secondary selection of feature subsets, which further eliminated irrelevant features. Similar methods using two-stage feature selection have been

Table 9 Results of feature selections obtained by LASSO-RFE based on the HBP images when the resampled voxel size, Ng and quantization algorithm were $1.19 \times 1.19 \times 1.19 \text{ mm}^3$, 64 and Uniform, respectively

Feature	MVI-present (n=29)	MVI-absent (n=40)	P value
Solidity	0.79±0.12 (0.31–0.91)	0.85±0.04 (0.75–0.92)	0.007*
Range	274.18±78.48 (160.83-490.18)	339.78±115.31 (150.24–647.98)	0.008*
HGLZE	999.62±94.36 (825.33-1,144.09)	1,092.96±148.42 (815.40–1,387.84)	0.004*
GLSZM_GLV	3.88×10 ⁻⁴ ±4.92×10 ⁻⁴ (5.35×10 ⁻⁶ -2,043.18×10 ⁻⁶)	12.25×10 ⁻⁴ ±22.02×10 ⁻⁴ (21.49×10 ⁻⁶ -8,351.83×10 ⁻⁶)	0.152
NGLDS_Max	27.07±5.80 (20.67–44.75)	24.80±4.45 (16.82–35.70)	0.061

Data are expressed as the mean ± SD (range). *, Statistical significance. P values are based on the Mann-Whitney U test. HGLZE, high gray level zone emphasis; GLSZM_GLV, gray-level variance of gray-level size zone matrix; HBP, hepatobiliary phase; LASSO-RFE, a method combining LASSO and gradient boosting decision tree recursive feature elimination; MVI, microvascular invasion; *Ng*, number of gray levels; NGLDS_Max, maximum of neighborhood gray-level difference statistics; SD, standard deviation.

used to achieve better performance in previous radiomics studies (50,51).

In the preoperative prediction of MVI, the model based on the radiomics features of HBP images using GBDT displayed a better performance than those using LR, SVM, and RF; this is consistent with the findings of Ni *et al.* (31), who explored the best model for MVI prediction based on CT images (31). In fact, some radiomics studies have also reported that GBDT has a better performance than other classifiers, including LR, SVM, and RF (52,53). This may be because GBDT is an iterative algorithm based on a decision tree, which can improve performance by reducing model deviation in the iterative process. Nevertheless, no significant differences were found among the four classifiers (P values =0.058–0.558), which indicates that the predictive ability of the radiomics features found in our study for MVI does not depend largely on the classifier.

Using the LOOCV strategy, the solidity, range, HGLZE, and GLSZM_GLV were selected stably in all 69 folds, and achieved a good average predictive performance using classifiers including LR, SVM, RF, and GBDT (AUC =0.834-0.895). This may demonstrate the stability and robustness of the extracted radiomics features. Specifically, we found that the presence of HCC MVI resulted in lower values of solidity, range, HGLZE, and GLSZM_GLV. The possible reasons may be as follows. Solidity is derived by calculating the proportion of pixels of the tumor region to the largest possible convex hull polygon structure of the tumor region, and the convex hull is the best-fitting polygon that encloses all of the pixels in the tumor region. Solidity reflects the degree of irregularity of the tumor; the more irregular the tumor, the smaller the isolation value. Moreover, according to histologic examination, MVI-positive HCC has a tendency to aggressively invade the tumor capsule and protrude into the noncancerous parenchyma, thus often showing an irregular shape (54). HGLZE indicates the distribution of the high gray-level region; a smaller HGLZE value indicates that the high gray-level region occupies a lower proportion of the image. A previous study reported that lower signal intensities are more frequent in MVI-positive HCC than in MVI-negative HCC on HBP images using gadoxetic acid-enhanced MRI (55). Therefore, the lower values of HGLZE in MVI-positive patients are most likely caused by an uneven occurrence of MVI in the tumor region. GLSZM_GLV indicates the dispersion degree of gray levels in the tumor region, and the range indicates the difference between the maximum and minimum values of tumor signal intensity. The lower values of range and GLSZM_GLV in MVI-positive patients may be caused by intratumoral heterogeneity (e.g., micro-necrosis and inflammation), accompanying MVI (56).

To date, radiomics studies of MVI prediction have reported AUCs of 0.727–0.88 and 0.833–0.861 with CT (26-31) and MRI (32-34), respectively. By optimizing the combination of various impact factors that affect the radiomics process, the final MVI predictive model in our study achieved an AUC of 0.895, accuracy of 87.0%, sensitivity of 93.1%, and specificity of 82.5%. Despite our predictive model of HCC MVI showing a better performance than those in previous studies, it should be noted that because of the lack of standardization in radiomics and the diversity in research methods, it is difficult to compare the results of different studies. The majority of previous studies used a single method for their radiomics research; thus, their models may not achieve the

maximum prediction performance, because many aspects of the radiomics process, including imaging sequence, feature extraction parameters, feature selection method, and classifiers, have a great effect on MVI predictive performance. Moreover, previous studies have given only limited consideration to the effect of these factors on MVI predictive performance. When the quantization algorithm, Ng, feature selection method, and classifier were Uniform, 64, LASSO-RFE, and GBDT, respectively, the performance of the predictive models built on HBP images achieved the best performance in our study. This combination of factors is not quite the same as the method that has been commonly used in previous studies on MVI prediction. The lack of standardization and unification is also a major problem facing radiomics (57), which limits its large-scale application for the diagnosis of diseases. Therefore, we also hope that our work can provide standardized references for subsequent radiomics research related to MVI prediction.

This study may have several limitations. Firstly, with regard to accurate tumor segmentation, radiomics features might provide a more complete characterization of the tumor; however, there is no gold standard for tumor contouring. Thus, we failed to explore the effect of tumor segmentation on MVI prediction. However, in our study, tumor lesion contouring was verified by experienced radiologists, so we believe that any variation in tumor lesion contouring had limited effects in this study. Secondly, the exact value of the best Ng for MVI prediction is not given in our study. There are currently no specific guidelines for choosing the optimal Ng; however, we strongly recommend a Ng of 64. Thirdly, we only tested the most commonly used method of feature extraction, in which the Ng is a single value, but the optimal feature sets may consist of different features produced by multiple Ngs. Finally, because we used the LOOCV strategy on a small number of samples from a single center, further verification with a larger, external cohort is warranted to obtain reliable results.

In summary, we showed that imaging sequence, feature extraction parameters, feature selection method, and classifiers all affect the performance of radiomics models in predicting MVI. When the imaging sequence, quantization algorithm, Ng, feature selection method, and classifier were HBP, Uniform, 64, LASSO-RFE, and GBDT, respectively, the performance of the predictive models was better than those based on other combinations. The effect of different factors should be considered in future similar radiomics studies.

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Footnote

Conflicts of Interest: All authors have completed the ICMJE uniform disclosure form (available at http://dx.doi. org/10.21037/qims-20-218). The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

Ethical Statement: The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki (as revised in 2013). The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board and Ethical Committee of The First Affiliated Hospital, Sun Yat-sen University {no. [2017]258} and individual consent for this retrospective analysis was waived.

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