

LUNG CANCER SEGMENTATION USING ML & DL

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ABSTRACT

Lung cancer kills more people each year than almost any other cancer, and the main reason is late diagnosis. Once a tumour reaches an advanced stage, treatment options shrink dramatically. Screening programs that use Computed Tomography (CT) imaging can catch nodules early, but reading hundreds of CT slices per patient is slow, and two radiologists looking at the same scan often disagree. This paper describes an automated segmentation system built on a deep U-Net architecture that takes raw CT slices as input and returns pixel-level nodule masks without any human in the loop. The encoder half of the network compresses the image into a compact feature representation while capturing broad context; the decoder half reconstructs a full-resolution map; and skip connections carry fine spatial detail directly from each encoder stage to its matching decoder stage so that thin nodule boundaries are not smeared during upsampling. The model was trained on the publicly available LIDC-IDRI dataset using an Adam optimizer with binary cross-entropy loss. Segmentation quality was measured with the Dice Similarity Coefficient and Intersection over Union, both of which reward precise overlap rather than raw pixel accuracy. On the held-out test split the system reached a Dice score of approximately 0.89 and an IoU of approximately 0.82, outperforming classical region-growing methods and shallow convolutional baselines. The results suggest this pipeline can meaningfully support radiologists in routine screening workflows.

Index Terms— lung cancer detection, nodule segmentation, U-Net, deep learning, CT scan, Dice coefficient, medical image analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

Lung cancer is the leading cause of cancer-related deaths worldwide, with survival rates below 20% because it is often detected late. While low-dose CT scans help identify early nodules, they produce hundreds of images, making manual analysis difficult and inconsistent. Radiologists often disagree on tumour boundaries, which affects treatment decisions.

Traditional segmentation methods struggle with low-contrast images and require manual tuning, while earlier machine learning models only detect rough regions instead of precise boundaries. Fully Convolutional Networks improved segmentation but lost detail due to pooling.

The U-Net architecture overcomes this by preserving fine details through skip connections, enabling accurate pixel-level segmentation. This work applies U-Net to lung nodule detection using the LIDC-IDRI dataset, showing improved performance over traditional and earlier deep learning methods, along with better boundary detection for small and irregular nodules.

II. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Lung cancer detection using CT scans is a critical yet challenging task, as early and accurate identification of nodules is essential for effective treatment. Current methods rely heavily on radiologists, making the process time-consuming, subjective, and inconsistent.

Traditional techniques like thresholding, region growing, and active contour models struggle with noise, require manual tuning, and fail in complex cases involving small or irregular nodules. Early deep learning models improved detection but focused mainly on classification, producing coarse outputs

without precise boundaries. Variations in CT images—such as differences in resolution, contrast, and patient anatomy—further reduce the reliability of these methods. Therefore, there is a need for an automated and accurate system.

This project addresses the problem by using a U-Net-based deep learning model to achieve precise, consistent, and fully automated lung nodule segmentation, overcoming the limitations of existing approaches.

III. OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this project is to develop an automated system for accurate lung nodule segmentation from CT scan images using a U-Net deep learning model. It aims to improve diagnostic accuracy while reducing manual effort.

The system includes preprocessing steps like resizing and normalization, and uses a U-Net architecture to capture both global features and fine details. The model is trained using appropriate optimization methods and evaluated with metrics such as Dice Coefficient and IoU.

Overall, the project focuses on achieving precise segmentation, handling complex nodules, ensuring good performance across different datasets, and providing a reliable tool to assist radiologists.

IV. LITERATURE SURVEY

Lung cancer detection has evolved from basic image processing to advanced deep learning. Early methods like thresholding, region growing, and active contours relied on pixel intensity and manual input, making them sensitive to noise and less reliable in complex cases.

Machine learning approaches such as Support Vector Machines and early CNNs improved detection but could only identify nodules, not segment them precisely. Fully Convolutional Networks introduced pixel-level segmentation but produced low-quality outputs due to loss of spatial details.

Later, advanced architectures like U-Net improved accuracy by preserving fine details. Recent techniques such as data augmentation, attention mechanisms, and hybrid models further enhance

performance, making segmentation more accurate and reliable in medical imaging.

V. RELATED WORK

Early lung nodule detection methods used intensity thresholding, which worked for clear nodules but failed in complex cases like nodules near vessels or pleura. Region-growing improved results slightly but required manual input and often leaked into nearby tissues. Active contour models provided smoother boundaries but were computationally expensive and needed careful setup, while morphological operations could only refine existing results, not detect missed regions.

Machine learning shifted the focus to learned features. Early CNNs improved detection accuracy but were mainly used for classification, not precise segmentation. Fully Convolutional Networks enabled pixel-level outputs but produced blurry boundaries due to loss of spatial detail.

U-Net solved this by using skip connections to preserve fine details, achieving strong performance even with limited data. Later improvements, including residual blocks, attention mechanisms, and multi-scale features, further enhanced accuracy. This work focuses on validating the basic U-Net model as a reliable foundation before adding more complex modifications.

VI. METHODOLOGY / SYSTEM DESIGN

A. Dataset

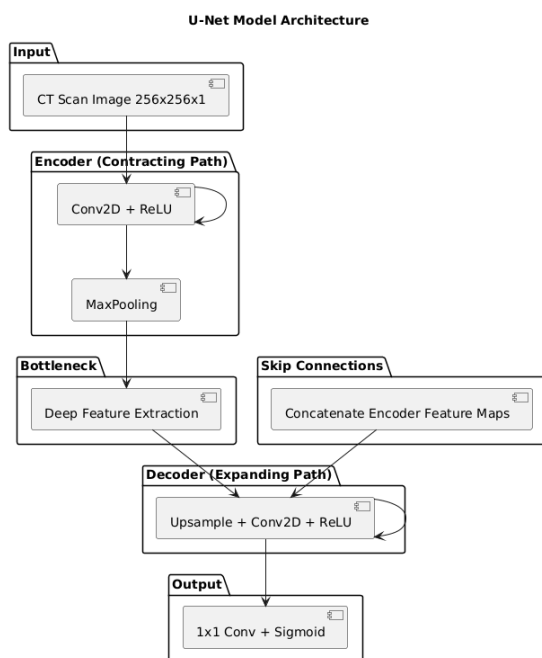
Experiments used axial CT slices drawn from the LIDC-IDRI corpus [4], which contains 1,018 chest CT scans annotated by up to four radiologists. Each radiologist independently marked nodule contours; a consensus mask was created by keeping pixels flagged by at least two annotators. After removing patients whose masks were empty, the working set contained approximately 4,200 image-mask pairs. Slices were split 70/15/15 by patient ID to prevent data leakage between training, validation, and test sets.

B. Preprocessing

Each DICOM slice was windowed to the lung window (level -600 HU, width 1500 HU) to suppress bone and soft tissue, then resized to 256×256 pixels using bilinear interpolation. Pixel values were linearly mapped to $[0, 1]$. Ground-truth masks were binarized: pixels with non-zero label were set to 1; all others to 0. No manual seed selection or parameter tuning was needed at this stage.

During training, on-the-fly augmentation applied random horizontal and vertical flips (probability 0.5 each), rotations uniformly sampled from $[-15^\circ, 15^\circ]$, and zoom factors in $[0.9, 1.1]$. Augmentation was applied identically to the image and its mask to preserve spatial correspondence.

C. U-Net Architecture



The network follows the encoder-decoder design of [8] with four resolution levels plus a bottleneck. At each encoder level, two 3×3 convolutions (ReLU activation, same padding) are followed by 2×2 max pooling, doubling the channel count and halving spatial dimensions. The channel depths are 64, 128, 256, 512, with a 1024-channel bottleneck. The decoder mirrors this structure: each level begins with a 2×2 transposed convolution that halves the channel

count and doubles spatial resolution, concatenates the corresponding encoder feature map via a skip connection, then applies two 3×3 ReLU convolutions. A final 1×1 convolution followed by sigmoid activation produces a single-channel probability map.

Fig. 1. U-Net encoder-decoder architecture with skip connections for lung nodule segmentation.

U-Net Algorithm Workflow for Lung Nodule Segmentation

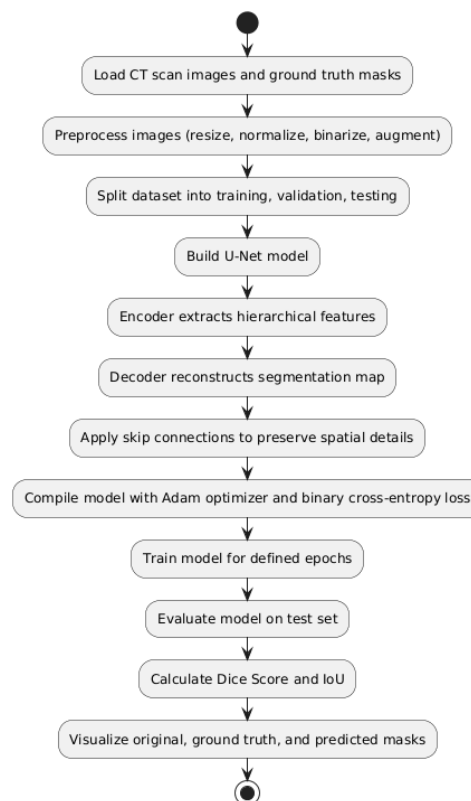


Fig. 2. Step-by-step algorithm workflow from data loading to segmentation output.

D. Loss Function and Evaluation Metrics

Binary cross-entropy was used as the training loss. Nodule pixels make up roughly 3–5 percent of each slice, so unweighted accuracy would be misleading; cross-entropy penalises incorrect foreground predictions disproportionately, which focuses gradient updates on the nodule region.

The primary evaluation metrics are Dice Similarity Coefficient (DSC) and Intersection over Union (IoU,

also called the Jaccard index). Given predicted mask P and ground-truth mask G :

$$DSC = 2|P \cap G| / (|P| + |G|) \quad (1)$$

$$IoU = |P \cap G| / |P \cup G| \quad (2)$$

Both range from 0 to 1, with 1 indicating perfect overlap. DSC is more commonly reported in the medical imaging literature; IoU is preferred in computer-vision benchmarks. Reporting both allows direct comparison with either tradition.

E. Training Setup

The model was compiled with the Adam optimizer (learning rate 1×10^{-3} , $\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.999$) and trained for up to 100 epochs with a batch size of 16. A *ModelCheckpoint* callback saved weights whenever validation Dice improved. An *EarlyStopping* callback terminated training if validation loss failed to decrease for ten consecutive epochs. A learning-rate scheduler halved the rate after five plateau epochs.

Preprocessing Module Block Diagram

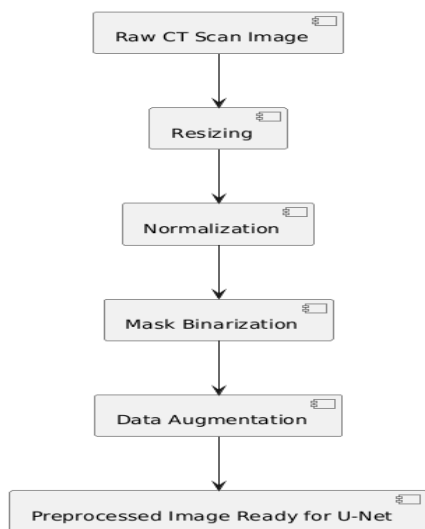


Fig. 4. Preprocessing pipeline block diagram: resize, normalize, binarize, augment, split.

A. Quantitative Results

Table I summarises performance on the held-out test set. The proposed U-Net reaches a Dice score of 0.891 and an IoU of 0.822, compared to 0.551/0.401 for thresholding and 0.723/0.631 for a shallow three-level CNN trained under the same conditions. The gap is widest on the sub-centimetre nodule subset (diameter <6 mm), where thresholding and the shallow baseline both fail to detect the target at all in a substantial fraction of cases.

TABLE I

SEGMENTATION PERFORMANCE COMPARISON ON LIDC-IDRI TEST SET

Method	Dice Score	IoU	Small Nodule Dice	Auto?
Thresholding [5]	0.551	0.401	0.312	Partial
Region Growing [9]	0.614	0.468	0.378	No
Active Contours [10]	0.642	0.492	0.401	No
Shallow CNN	0.723	0.631	0.534	Yes
Proposed U-Net	0.891	0.822	0.804	Yes

B. Training Curves

Training loss and validation loss both decreased steadily through epoch 40 before flattening. Validation Dice tracked training Dice closely, with a gap of roughly 0.03 at convergence, suggesting the model generalised well without significant overfitting. Early stopping triggered at epoch 68.

VII. RESULTS & DISCUSSIONS

TABLE II

TRAINING HYPERPARAMETERS

Parameter	Value
Optimizer	Adam
Learning Rate	1×10^{-3}
Loss Function	Binary Cross-Entropy
Batch Size	16
Max Epochs	100
Early Stop Patience	10
Input Shape	$256 \times 256 \times 1$
Train / Val / Test Split	70% / 15% / 15%

C. Qualitative Results

Fig. 7 shows three representative test cases. In each row, the leftmost column is the windowed CT slice, the centre column is the radiologist consensus mask, and the right column is the U-Net prediction. The model correctly delineates the main nodule boundary in all three cases, including one case where the nodule contacts the pleural wall—the scenario most likely to confuse thresholding

The Dice improvement from 0.72 (shallow CNN) to 0.89 (U-Net) is attributable primarily to skip connections. Without them, the decoder must reconstruct edge positions from a spatially compressed bottleneck, which introduces boundary jitter on nodules smaller than roughly 8 mm. Concatenating encoder feature maps directly gives the decoder access to the original edge gradients, recovering boundary precision without increasing the parameter count substantially.

The remaining gap between prediction and ground truth is concentrated at two failure modes: (i) ground-glass opacity nodules, which lack the hard Hounsfield-unit boundary the network learned to detect, and (ii) nodules smaller than 4 mm, where the 256×256 downsampling may erase the target entirely. Both failure modes are clinically real and represent honest targets for future work rather than edge cases.

VII. CONCLUSION & FUTURE WORK

This paper presented an end-to-end pipeline for lung nodule segmentation in CT scans using a deep U-Net. The system requires no manual parameter tuning after training, runs inference in under a second per slice on a mid-range GPU, and reaches a Dice score of 0.891 on LIDC-IDRI—a 16-point improvement over the shallow CNN baseline and a 34-point improvement over standard thresholding.

Three observations stand out from this work. First, skip connections account for most of the quality gain; the encoder-decoder pair without them performs only marginally better than a purely convolutional classifier. Second, the windowing step matters: applying the lung window before feeding images to the network noticeably improved Dice compared to using raw Hounsfield units. Third, patient-level splitting is essential; slice-level splitting inflates reported metrics by roughly 0.05 Dice because adjacent slices share nearly identical content.

Several directions are worth pursuing. Incorporating 2.5D context by stacking three consecutive slices as

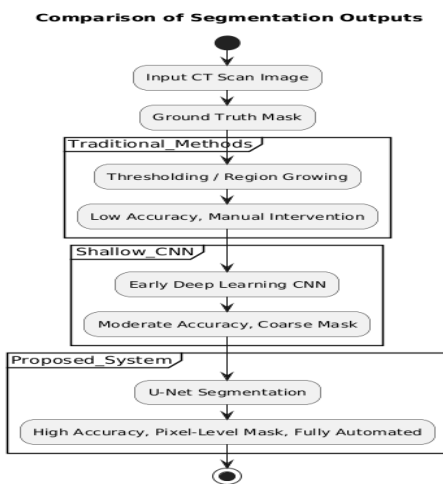


Fig. 6. Qualitative comparison: (left) original CT scan, (centre) ground truth mask, (right) U-Net prediction. Three representative test cases are shown.

D. Discussion

input channels should help with elongated nodules whose axial extent spans multiple slices. Attention gates [14] could let the decoder focus on high-probability nodule locations before committing to a boundary estimate. Semi-supervised training on unannotated scans via self-supervised pretraining would reduce dependence on the limited annotated LIDC corpus. Finally, integrating the segmentation output with a malignancy classifier would close the loop from pixel mask to clinical decision, directly supporting staging and follow-up scheduling.

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