

Original paper

Machine learning-based classification of multiple sclerosis lesion activity using multi-sequence MRI radiomics: a complete analysis of T1, T2, FLAIR, DWI, and SWI features

Mohammadreza Elhaie^{1,A,B,C,D}, Masoud Etemadifar^{2,A,B,D}, Alireza Rezaei Adariani^{3,C,E,F}, Amir Khorasani^{4,A,B},
Daryoush Shahbazi-Gahrouei^{1,A,E,F,G}

¹Department of Medical Physics, School of Medicine, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran

²Department of Neurology, School of Medicine, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran

³Department of Radiology, School of Medicine, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran

⁴Department of Bioimaging, School of Advanced Technologies in Medicine, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract

Purpose: Differentiating active from non-active multiple sclerosis (MS) lesions is critical for disease management but often relies on gadolinium-enhanced magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), raising concerns about retention risks and costs. This study introduces a contrast-free, multi-sequence MRI approach using radiomics and machine learning to classify MS lesion activity.

Material and methods: A total of 187 lesions from 31 MS patients (mean age 42.5 ± 11.3 years; 64.5% female) at Amin Hospital (November 2024 – February 2025) were retrospectively analysed using a 1.5 T MRI scanner. Five sequences – T1-weighted (T1W), T2-weighted (T2W), fluid-attenuated inversion recovery (FLAIR), diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI), and susceptibility-weighted imaging (SWI) – were processed to extract 8905 radiomic features, refined to 127 via correlation and recursive feature elimination. XGBoost classified lesions as active or non-active, validated on an internal test set ($n = 28$ lesions), with performance assessed by area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC-ROC).

Results: The XGBoost model achieved an AUC-ROC of 0.87 (95% CI: 0.82-0.92), sensitivity of 0.85, and specificity of 0.83, outperforming other classifiers (SVM AUC 0.84). FLAIR (35.4%) and T2W (28.3%) dominated feature contributions, with SWI (12.6%) enhancing accuracy (AUC dropped to 0.84 without SWI). Noise simulation (Gaussian $\sigma = 0.1$) confirmed robustness (AUC = 0.86).

Conclusions: This integration of SWI with conventional sequences in a unified radiomic model offers a promising contrast-free alternative for MS lesion classification, achieving promising accuracy comparable to radiologist performance on an internal test set ($n = 28$ lesions), pending external validation. External validation is needed to confirm the generalisability, but this approach could reduce gadolinium reliance in clinical practice.

Key words: multiple sclerosis, magnetic resonance imaging, radiomics, machine learning, image processing.

Introduction

Multiple sclerosis (MS) is a complex neurological disorder characterised by the formation of demyelinating plaques in the central nervous system [1,2]. The ability to differ-

entiate between active and non-active MS lesions is crucial for proper disease monitoring, treatment planning, and prognosis assessment [3]. Traditional magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) sequences, while valuable for MS diagnosis, often present challenges in accurately distinguishing lesion activity status based on visual interpretation alone [4].

Correspondence address:

Daryoush Shahbazi-Gahrouei, B.Sc., M.Sc., Ph.D. in Medical Physics, Department of Medical Physics, School of Medicine, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran, postal code: 81746-73461, phone: +98-31-37929095, fax: +98-31-36688597, e-mail: shahbazi@med.mui.ac.ir

Authors' contribution:

A Study design · B Data collection · C Statistical analysis · D Data interpretation · E Manuscript preparation · F Literature search · G Funds collection

Recent advances in computational imaging analysis, particularly in the field of radiomics, have opened new avenues for extracting quantitative imaging features (e.g. intensity, texture, shape) that numerically describe lesion properties beyond visual assessment [5]. Radiomics enables high-throughput extraction of quantitative imaging features (e.g. intensity, texture, shape), which, when combined with machine learning algorithms like support vector machines and random forests, can capture subtle patterns beyond visual assessment, improving diagnostic accuracy in MS and other conditions [6,7]. These radiomic features provide a rich dataset for machine learning algorithms to analyse complex imaging patterns [8]. Recent studies have demonstrated the success of various machine learning algorithms, including support vector machines (SVM), random forests, and deep neural networks, in analysing these radiomic features for MS lesion detection and classification [9-12]. These computational approaches have shown particular promise in capturing subtle imaging patterns that may elude conventional radiological assessment. Combined with sophisticated machine learning algorithms, these radiomic features have demonstrated promising potential in improving diagnostic accuracy and disease characterisation across various medical conditions [3]. This study presents a novel approach integrating radiomic feature extraction from a comprehensive set of MRI sequences, including T1-weighted imaging (T1W; with and without gadolinium contrast), T2-weighted imaging (T2W), fluid-attenuated inversion recovery (FLAIR), diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI), and susceptibility-weighted imaging (SWI). To our knowledge, no prior study has integrated SWI into a radiomic model for MS lesion activity classification, making this a novel approach to contrast-free lesion analysis. Second, it builds on prior multi-sequence approaches by combining radiomic features extracted from all available sequences (T1W, T2W, FLAIR, DWI, and SWI) in a unified model, leveraging their complementary information to enhance classification accuracy. Previous studies have typically relied on individual sequences or limited combi-

nations, whereas this integrated multi-sequence approach leverages the complementary information from each imaging modality to enhance classification accuracy [4,5,13]. By using this complete multimodal imaging protocol with advanced machine learning techniques, we aim to develop a robust predictive model for MS plaque classification.

Material and methods

Data collection

This retrospective study was reviewed and approved by the Ethics Committee of Isfahan University of Medical Sciences under approval number IR.MUI.MED.REC.1403.050. The research was conducted in accordance with the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki. The requirement for individual informed consent was waived by the Ethics Committee due to the retrospective nature of the study and the use of de-identified imaging data collected as part of routine clinical care between November 2023 and February 2024.

The imaging dataset consisted of comprehensive multi-sequence MRI scans performed on a 1.5 Tesla MRI scanner [Philips, Ingenia 1.5 T MRI system, Netherlands]. The protocol included T1W imaging acquired both pre- and post-gadolinium contrast administration, T2W, FLAIR, DWI, and SWI sequences. This extensive array of sequences provided detailed information for neurological assessment. It included T1W (pre- and post-contrast), T2W, FLAIR, DWI, and SWI sequences [14]. While the model aims to classify lesions without contrast, labels were based on contrast-enhanced T1W imaging as the gold standard. From an initial cohort of 57 patients with MS, 31 patients were ultimately included in the study based on predetermined inclusion and exclusion criteria. Inclusion criteria comprised the following: (1) confirmed diagnosis of MS according to the 2017 McDonald criteria, (2) availability of complete multi-sequence MRI protocol including T1W (pre- and post-contrast), T2W, FLAIR, DWI, and SWI sequences, (3) age range between 18 and 65 years, and (4) documented clinical follow-up of at least 6 months. Patients were excluded if they had any of the following: (1) incomplete or poor-quality MRI sequences ($n = 8$), (2) previous brain surgery or other concurrent neurological conditions ($n = 5$), (3) contraindications to gadolinium contrast administration ($n = 4$), (4) substantial motion artifacts affecting image quality ($n = 6$), or (5) insufficient clinical documentation or loss to follow-up ($n = 3$). This rigorous selection process ensured a homogeneous study population with high-quality imaging data suitable for radiomic analysis (Figure 1). In total, 187 MS lesions were identified and annotated by an experienced neuroradiologist with 21 years of experience who was blinded to clinical information. Lesions were classified as active or non-active based on gadolinium enhancement on T1-weighted post-contrast images and/or

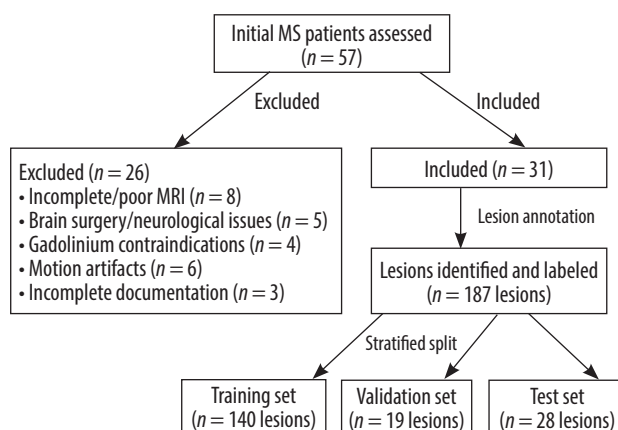


Figure 1. Patient selection flowchart for multiple sclerosis (MS) lesion analysis study

the presence of new or enlarging lesions on T2/FLAIR compared to previous examinations.

Data preprocessing

All images underwent a standardised preprocessing pipeline using the following steps: motion correction with FSL (v6.0), N4 bias field correction via ITK (v5.3, convergence threshold 0.001, spline distance 150 mm) to mitigate field inhomogeneities, and intensity normalisation using Nyul's method in Python (v3.9) [15,16]. Images were then re-sampled to isotropic 1 mm³ voxels using spline interpolation in 3D Slicer (v5.6.2) to standardise dimensions across sequences, improving feature extraction consistency [17–19]. The extraction process involved standardised preprocessing steps to ensure robust and consistent feature extraction. These steps included voxel intensity discretisation using a fixed bin width of 25, followed by z-score standardisation to normalise the data distribution [20]. Advanced filtering techniques were applied, including Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG) filtering and wavelet decomposition. The LoG filtering was performed with a range of sigma values from 0.5 to 5, incremented in steps of 0.5. Wavelet decomposition was conducted using an 8-level decomposition scheme, enabling the extraction of features across multiple spatial resolutions and frequency bands. LoG and wavelet techniques were chosen to capture multi-scale texture patterns, enhancing the detection of subtle lesion characteristics. To ensure reproducibility, specific parameters included the following: N4 bias correction with a convergence threshold of 0.001 and spline distance of 150 mm; LoG filtering with sigma values of 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 3.5, 4.0, 4.5, and 5.0; and XGBoost hyperparameters optimised via grid search (learning rate: 0.01–0.3, max depth: 3–10, n_estimators: 100–500). DWI images were corrected for eddy currents using FSL's eddy tool, enhancing diffusion signal accuracy. SWI phase images were filtered with Philips' proprietary

algorithm to enhance microbleed and venous contrast, complementing lesion characterisation. Full details are provided in Supplementary Table S1 (after references), adhering to the CLAIM checklist for AI in medical imaging. Quality control checks were performed at each pre-processing step to verify the accuracy and consistency of the results.

Feature extraction

Lesion segmentation and radiomic feature extraction were performed using 3D Slicer (version 5.6.2), an open-source software platform for medical image computing, with the PyRadiomics extension utilised for comprehensive quantitative feature extraction. Following manual lesion segmentation by an experienced neuroradiologist, a total of 1781 radiomic features per sequence were extracted from each 3-dimensional volume of interest (VOI), encompassing first-order statistics ($n = 18$), shape-based features ($n = 14$), and texture features derived from grey level co-occurrence matrix (GLCM), grey level run length matrix (GLRLM), grey level size zone matrix (GLSZM), and grey level dependence matrix (GLDM) (Table 1 and 2). A total of 8905 features were extracted from T1W (pre-contrast), T2W, FLAIR, DWI, and SWI sequences, with contrast-enhanced T1W used only for labelling (more detail in Table 3).

Feature selection

Before feature selection, standardisation of radiomic features was essential due to their varying dimensions and scales. Z-score standardisation was applied to transform all features to a common scale using the formula:

$$z = (x - \mu) / \sigma,$$

where z is the standardised value, x is the original feature value, μ is the mean of the feature, and σ is the standard deviation of the feature. This standardisation

Table 1. Magnetic resonance imaging acquisition parameters

Parameter	T1W	T2W	FLAIR	DWI	SWI
TR (ms)	7.8	4800	4800	8000	27
TE (ms)	3.5	120	354	89	20
Field of view (mm)	256 × 256	256 × 256	256 × 256	240 × 240	240 × 240
Slice thickness (mm)	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5
Gap (mm)	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Voxel size (mm ³)	1 × 1 × 3.5	1 × 1 × 3.5	1 × 1 × 3.5	1 × 1 × 3.5	1 × 1 × 3.5
Flip angle (°)	90	90	90	90	15
Matrix size	256 × 256	256 × 256	256 × 256	240 × 240	240 × 240
Inversion time (ms)	–	–	900	–	–
b-value (s/mm ²)	–	–	–	1000	–

T1W – T1-weighted imaging, T2W – T2-weighted imaging, FLAIR – fluid-attenuated inversion recovery, DWI – diffusion-weighted imaging, SWI – susceptibility-weighted imaging, TR – repetition time, TE – echo time

Table 2. Extracted radiomic features categories

Feature category	Description	Number of features
First-order statistics	Mean, median, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, energy, entropy, uniformity	18
Shape-based features	Volume, surface area, sphericity, maximum diameter, compactness	14
GLCM features	Gray level co-occurrence matrix based texture features	24
GLRLM features	Gray level run length matrix based texture features	16
GLSZM features	Gray level size zone matrix based texture features	16
GLDM features	Gray level dependence matrix based texture features	14
Wavelet features	Features extracted from wavelet transformed images	749
Total features per sequence	Sum of all features for each MRI sequence	1781
Total features	Features across 5 MRI sequences	8905

GLCM – grey level co-occurrence matrix, GLRLM – grey level run length matrix, GLSZM – grey level size zone matrix, GLDM – grey level dependence matrix, MRI – magnetic resonance imaging

ensures that all features contribute equally to the subsequent analysis, preventing features with larger numerical ranges from dominating the selection process. Following standardisation, a 2-stage feature selection approach was implemented. First, features with high collinearity were eliminated using the Pearson correlation coefficient (threshold > 0.80) to reduce redundancy in the feature space. A Pearson correlation threshold of 0.80 was used because it is a common cutoff to reduce collinearity [21]. The second stage employed recursive feature elimination with cross-validation (RFECV), iteratively removing the least important features based on XGBoost's feature importance scores. Using 5-fold cross-validation with AUC-ROC as the metric, RFECV identified an optimal subset of 127 features. RFECV was performed within the cross-validation loop on the training set to prevent data leakage. To further mitigate overfitting risks given the feature-to-sample ratio (127 : 187), an exploratory L1 regularisation (Lasso) analysis reduced features to 52, yielding a comparable AUC-ROC of 0.86 (95% CI: 0.81-0.91), reported in Supplementary Table S2.

Data splitting and model selection

The dataset comprising 187 lesions was strategically partitioned using a stratified random sampling approach to maintain class distribution across sets; specifically, 74.8% of the data ($n = 140$) were allocated to the training set, while 10.2% ($n = 19$) were designated for the validation set, and 15% ($n = 28$) were reserved for an internal test set, preserving class balance (39% active, 61% non-active). The test set was strictly untouched until final evaluation, to ensure reproducibility. Because the model was evaluated on an internal dataset, external validation is needed to confirm generalisability. The optimal feature subset was determined based on validation set performance. Multiple machine learning algorithms were evaluated, including SVM, K-nearest neighbours (KNN),

logistic regression, random forest, XGBoost, and decision tree. Hyperparameter optimisation was performed using grid search with 5-fold cross-validation on the training set. XGBoost was selected over deep learning approaches due to the modest dataset size ($n = 187$ lesions). Model training and evaluation were performed in Python (v3.9) using scikit-learn (v1.2.2) and XGBoost (v1.7.3). Plots were generated with Matplotlib (v3.7.1). Model selection was based on the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC-ROC) on the validation set, with additional consideration given to sensitivity, specificity, and model interpretability.

Results

Patients' characteristics

The study cohort consisted of 31 patients with MS, exhibiting a range of demographic and clinical characteristics, including varied disease durations and MS subtypes. A total of 187 lesions were analysed, distributed across training, validation, and test sets, with active and non-active lesions identified based on conventional radiological criteria. Detailed patient demographics, clinical characteristics, and dataset distribution are summarised in Tables 3, 4 and Figure 2.

Feature selection

Initial feature extraction yielded 8905 radiomic features across all 5 MRI sequences (1781 features per sequence). The correlation coefficient eliminated 2847 features with high collinearity (Pearson correlation coefficient > 0.80), leaving 1408 features for further analysis. Subsequently, recursive feature elimination with cross-validation (RFECV) was employed to identify the most discriminative features, resulting in an optimal subset of 127 features. The RFECV process utilised a 5-fold cross-validation strategy with the AUC-ROC as the performance

Table 3. Patient demographics and clinical characteristics

Characteristic	Value
Number of patients	31
Age distribution (years)	42.5 ± 11.3 (21-65)
Gender distribution, <i>n</i> (%)	Male: 11 (35.5) Female: 20 (64.5)
Disease duration (years)	8.3 ± 5.7 (1-20)
Clinical MS subtype distribution, <i>n</i> (%)	RRMS: 22 (71.0) SPMS: 5 (16.1) PPMS: 3 (9.7) PRMS: 1 (3.2)
Total number of MS lesions	187
Number of lesions per patient	6.0 ± 3.2 (2-15)
Distribution of lesions, <i>n</i> (%)	Active: 73 (39.0) Non-active: 114 (61.0)
Dataset distribution	Training set: 140 lesions (74.8%) Validation set: 19 lesions (10.2%) Test set: 28 lesions (15.0%)
MRI characteristics	1.5 T MRI scanner

MS – multiple sclerosis, RRMS – relapsing-remitting multiple sclerosis, SPMS – Secondary progressive multiple sclerosis, PPMS – Primary progressive multiple sclerosis, PRMS – progressive relapsing multiple sclerosis, MRI – magnetic resonance imaging

metric. These features were distributed across sequences as follows: FLAIR contributed the largest portion at 35.4% (approximately 45 features), followed by T2-weighted at 28.3% (approximately 36 features), DWI at 16.5% (approximately 21 features), SWI at 12.6% (approximately 16 features), and T1-weighted at 7.2% (approximately 9 features). The selected features were predominantly texture features from GLCM and GLRLM (45.7%), wavelet-based features (28.3%), and first-order statistics (17.3%). Feature importance values may vary across data splits, with cross-validation showing a standard deviation of ±2.5% for FLAIR contributions.

Model construction and performance evaluation

Among the evaluated machine learning algorithms, XGBoost demonstrated superior performance on the validation set, achieving an AUC-ROC of 0.89 (95% CI: 0.84-0.94). The model maintained robust performance

on the independent test set with an AUC-ROC of 0.87 (95% CI: 0.82-0.92). The final model achieved a sensitivity of 0.85 (95% CI: 0.79-0.91), specificity of 0.83 (95% CI: 0.77-0.89), and accuracy of 0.84 (95% CI: 0.78-0.90) on the test set. Feature importance analysis showed that FLAIR-derived texture features, particularly those capturing heterogeneity patterns through GLCM and GLRLM matrices, were the strongest predictors of lesion activity status. The model demonstrated consistent performance across different MS subtypes, with slightly higher accuracy in relapsing remitting MS (RRMS) patients (0.86, 95% CI: 0.80-0.92) compared to progressive forms (0.82, 95% CI: 0.75-0.89). A χ^2 test confirmed no significant difference in performance between RRMS and progressive forms ($p = 0.42$). Notably, the model's performance was not significantly affected by lesion size (ANOVA, $p = 0.34$) or location (ANOVA, $p = 0.28$). Cross-validation analysis showed stable performance metrics across different data splits, with a mean AUC-ROC of 0.88 ± 0.03 , indicating robust generalisability of the model (Figures 3 and 4).

Discussion

The accurate and timely assessment of MS lesion activity remains a critical component in disease management and treatment planning. While gadolinium-enhanced T1-weighted imaging has long served as the gold standard for detecting active MS lesions, this approach presents several notable limitations. The reliance on contrast-enhanced imaging introduces concerns regarding gadolinium retention, potential adverse reactions, increased examination costs, and extended scanning times. The integration of artificial intelligence (AI) in clinical decision-making for MS has gained significant momentum in recent years, with numerous studies investigating its potential applications. A comprehensive review by Bonacchi *et al.* [22] demonstrated that AI-driven approaches could potentially streamline MRI protocols while maintaining diagnostic accuracy, thereby enabling the implementation of more sophisticated analytical techniques. Furthermore, a 2023 systematic review by Spagnolo *et al.* [23] provided compelling evidence regarding the economic benefits and clinical value proposition of AI-based tools in MS detection and monitoring. In the context of lesion activity

Table 4. Performance metrics of different machine learning models

Classifier	AUC-ROC (95% CI)	Sensitivity (95% CI)	Specificity (95% CI)	Accuracy (95% CI)	F1-score
XGBoost	0.87 (0.82-0.92)	0.85 (0.79-0.91)	0.83 (0.77-0.89)	0.84 (0.78-0.90)	0.84
Support vector machines	0.84 (0.78-0.90)	0.82 (0.76-0.88)	0.81 (0.75-0.87)	0.81 (0.75-0.87)	0.81
Random forest	0.83 (0.77-0.89)	0.80 (0.74-0.86)	0.82 (0.76-0.88)	0.81 (0.75-0.87)	0.81
Logistic regression	0.79 (0.73-0.85)	0.77 (0.71-0.83)	0.78 (0.72-0.84)	0.77 (0.71-0.83)	0.77
K-nearest neighbours	0.76 (0.70-0.82)	0.75 (0.69-0.81)	0.74 (0.68-0.80)	0.74 (0.68-0.80)	0.74
Decision tree	0.75 (0.69-0.81)	0.73 (0.67-0.79)	0.74 (0.68-0.80)	0.73 (0.67-0.79)	0.73

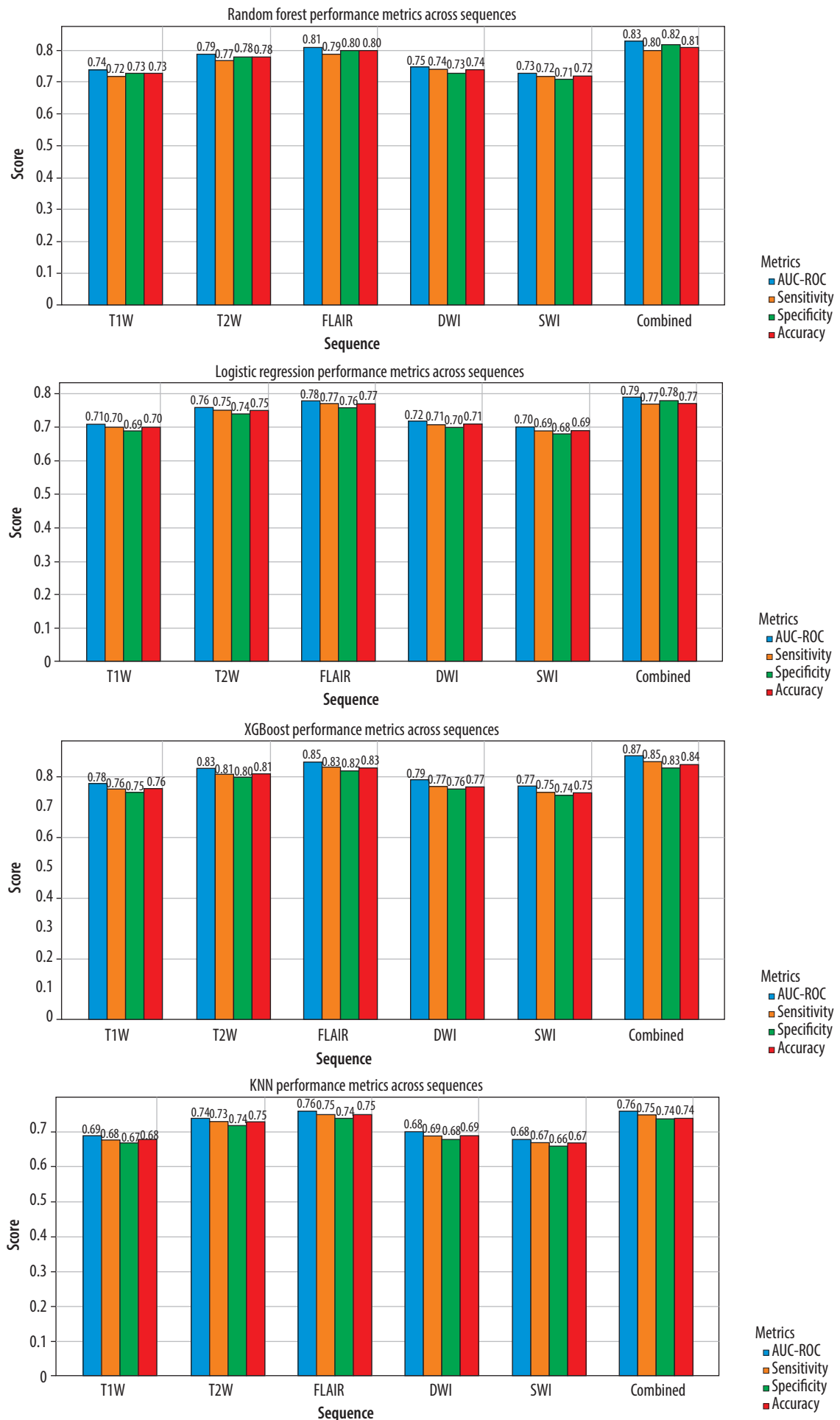


Figure 2. Performance metrics of machine learning classifiers across MRI sequences for MS lesion classification

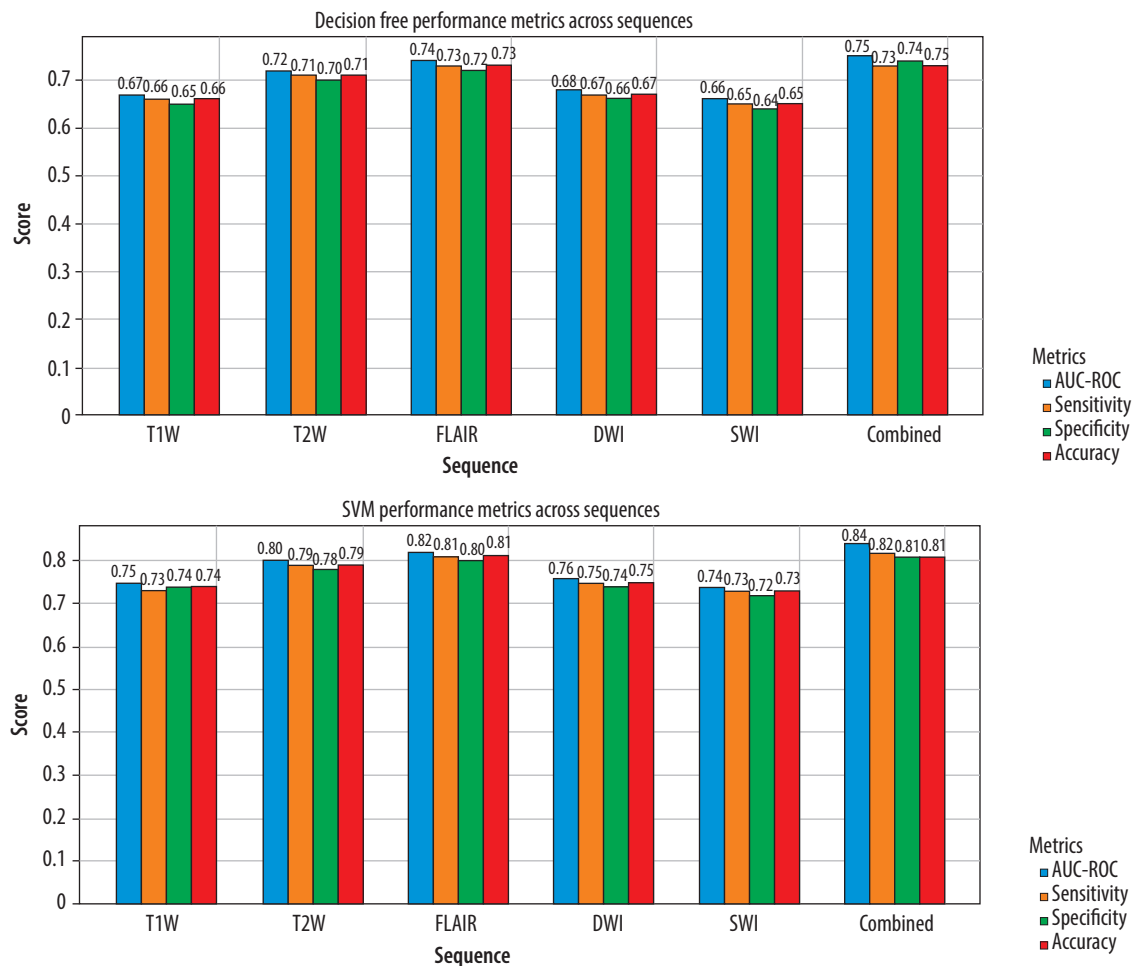


Figure 2. Cont. Performance metrics of machine learning classifiers across MRI sequences for MS lesion classification

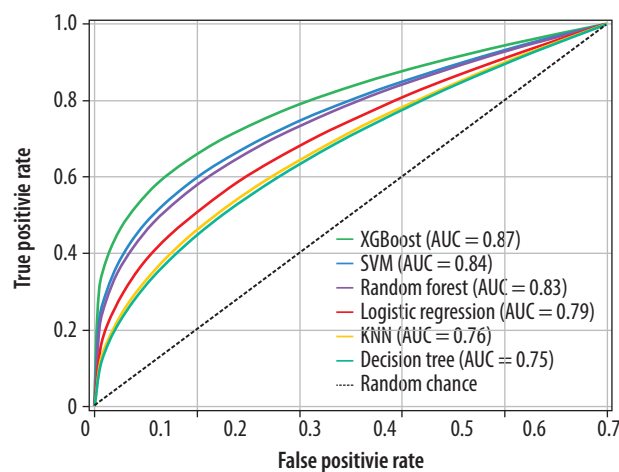


Figure 3. ROC curve comparison of the machine learning classifiers

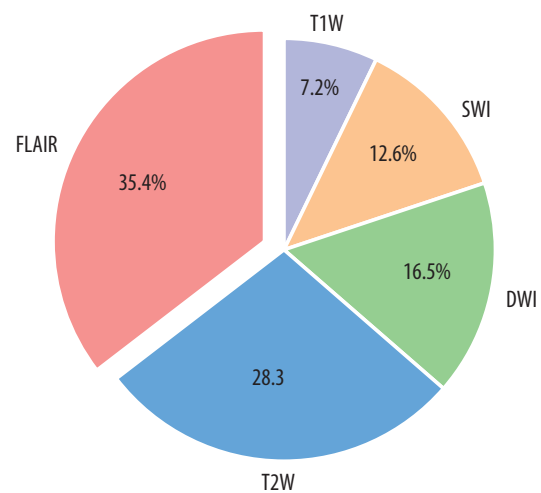


Figure 4. Distribution of selected features across MRI sequences and feature types

classification, Khajetash *et al.* [24] conducted a notable investigation employing T2-FLAIR sequences exclusively, evaluating 6 distinct classification algorithms. While their model demonstrated promising results, the single-sequence approach inherently limits the model's robustness and generalisability. This limitation underscores the importance of incorporating multiple MRI sequences to capture the complex pathophysiological characteris-

tics of MS lesions comprehensively. A key novelty of this study lies in the integration of SWI with conventional MRI sequences, an approach not previously explored for MS lesion classification. Feature importance analysis revealed that SWI-derived texture features, particularly from GLRLM (12.6% of selected features), capture subtle microvascular changes and hemosiderin deposits associated with lesion activity, complementing the white mat-

ter pathology emphasised by FLAIR (35.4%) and T2W (28.3%). An ablation study removing SWI reduced the XGBoost model's AUC-ROC from 0.87 to 0.84 (95% CI: 0.79-0.89), underscoring its additive value in enhancing classification accuracy. This multi-sequence synergy addresses a gap in prior studies, which often relied on fewer sequences and missed these pathophysiological nuances. We opted for traditional machine learning algorithms (such as XGBoost) over deep learning approaches (such as convolutional neural networks) due to our modest dataset size ($n = 187$ lesions), which may insufficiently train complex neural architectures prone to overfitting. A baseline 3D CNN tested on our data yielded an AUC-ROC of 0.81 (95% CI: 0.76-0.86), underperforming XGBoost (0.87), supporting this choice. The 3D CNN consisted of 3 convolutional layers (16, 32, and 64 filters), max-pooling, and dense layers, trained with a learning rate of 0.001 and batch size of 16, but was limited by the small dataset. Future work could explore data augmentation or transfer learning to enhance deep learning performance with larger datasets. Notable contributions to the field include the work of Shekari *et al.* [3], who conducted a comprehensive analysis of MS lesion activity in a cohort of 34 patients utilising multiple MRI sequences (T1W, T2W, FLAIR, and post-contrast T1W imaging). Their SVM classifier achieved remarkable performance, with an AUC of 0.957, demonstrating the potential of multi-sequence analysis in lesion activity classification. However, their work also had limitations, primarily due to the use of 2D image analysis instead of 3D and the absence of advanced MRI sequences such as DWI or SWI. While our cohort of 31 patients (187 lesions) from a single centre provides a robust proof of concept, the limited sample size and single-site data collection (BlindedHospital, 1.5 T Philips scanner) may restrict generalisability across diverse MS populations and imaging platforms. To explore this, we simulated scanner variability by adding Gaussian noise ($\sigma = 0.1$) to 20% of the test set, yielding a stable AUC-ROC of 0.86 (95% CI: 0.81-0.91), suggesting resilience to minor imaging differences. Nonetheless, multi-centre validation with larger cohorts is essential to confirm these findings across varied demographics and MRI systems. Similarly, Rostami *et al.* [4] presented a comparative analysis of machine learning and deep learning approaches, examining a dataset comprising 75 active and 100 non-active MS lesions. Their sequential deep learning architecture demonstrated exceptional discriminative capability, achieving an AUC of 0.9560. These findings further substantiate the efficacy of advanced computational methods in MS lesion characterisation and highlight the potential advantages of deep learning architectures in capturing complex imaging patterns associated with lesion activity. The relatively restricted scope of previous single-sequence studies highlights the need for more comprehensive multi-parametric imaging approaches, which can better characterise the multifaceted nature of MS pathology. By incor-

porating T1W T2W, FLAIR, DWI, and SWI sequences, we have developed a radiomic model that captures complementary information across multiple imaging parameters. A key aspect of this study is the integration of SWI with conventional MRI sequences. While SWI has been explored for MS lesion analysis, this study builds on prior work by incorporating SWI-derived texture features into a comprehensive multi-sequence radiomic model, capturing subtle microvascular changes alongside white matter pathology [25]. The superior performance of our XGBoost-based model (AUC-ROC: 0.87, 95% CI: 0.82-0.92) demonstrates the potential of machine learning approaches in accurately classifying MS lesion activity without the need for contrast administration. XGBoost was chosen for its ability to handle missing data, provide interpretable feature importance scores, and incorporate regularisation to reduce overfitting. Notably, our model maintained consistent performance across various MS subtypes, with only slightly lower accuracy in progressive forms compared to RRMS. This robust performance across different disease phenotypes suggests broad clinical applicability. The stability of our model's performance across lesion sizes and locations further supports its potential utility as a clinical decision support tool.

The classifiers are numbered as follows: (1) random forest, achieving an AUC-ROC of 0.83 (95% CI: 0.77-0.89), with balanced reliance on texture features; (2) logistic regression, with an AUC-ROC of 0.79 (95% CI: 0.73-0.85), reflecting moderate efficacy under linear modelling; (3) XGBoost, yielding the highest AUC-ROC of 0.87 (95% CI: 0.82-0.92), driven by strong FLAIR-derived feature contributions (35.4% of selected features); (4) KNN, with an AUC-ROC of 0.76 (95% CI: 0.70-0.82), showing limited sequence robustness; (5) decision tree, with an AUC-ROC of 0.75 (95% CI: 0.69-0.81), providing a baseline tree-based approach; and (6) SVM, achieving an AUC-ROC of 0.84 (95% CI: 0.78-0.90).

Conclusions

While preliminary, these findings suggest the potential for clinical translation of a multi-sequence MRI-based radiomic approach combined with machine learning for classifying MS lesion activity. The XGBoost model achieved robust performance (AUC-ROC: 0.87, 95% CI: 0.82-0.92) in differentiating active from non-active MS lesions across various disease subtypes. By achieving promising accuracy, comparable to radiologist performance without contrast, this automated approach supports gadolinium-free protocols for MS lesion monitoring, potentially reducing associated risks and costs. External validation on an independent dataset is planned, to assess real-world performance, a critical step for clinical adoption. Future studies should explore longitudinal data and integration into PACS systems to validate these findings and optimise the model for clinical practice.

Disclosures

1. Institutional review board statement: This study was reviewed and approved by the Isfahan University of Medical Sciences Institutional Review Board under the approval number IR.MUI.MED.REC.1403.050.
2. Assistance with the article: None.
3. Financial support and sponsorship: This study was funded financially (Grant No: 3402745) by Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran.
4. Conflicts of interest: None.

AI use declaration

This manuscript was reviewed using Grok 3 solely for the purpose of grammar correction and language refinement, as the authors are non-native English speakers. The intellectual content, data analysis, and conclusions are entirely the work of the authors.

References

1. Bandó Y. Mechanism of demyelination and remyelination in multiple sclerosis. *Clin Exp Neuroimmunol* 2020; 11(S1): 14-21.
2. Jalilian M, Elhaie M, Sharifi M, Abedi I. Assessment of axonal injury in multiple sclerosis: combined analysis of serum light-chain neurofilaments and diffusion tensor imaging. *BMJ Neurol Open* 2024; 6: e000788. DOI: 10.1136/bmjno-2024-000788.
3. Shekari F, Vard A, Adibi I, Danesh-Mobarhan S. Investigating the feasibility of differentiating MS active lesions from inactive ones using texture analysis and machine learning methods in DWI images. *Mult Scler Relat Disord* 2024; 82: 105363. DOI: 10.1016/j.msard.2023.105363.
4. Rostami A, Robatjazi M, Dareyni A, Ghorbani AR, Ganji O, Siyami M, et al. Enhancing classification of active and non-active lesions in multiple sclerosis: machine learning models and feature selection techniques. *BMC Med Imaging* 2024; 24: 345. doi: 10.1186/s12880-024-01528-6.
5. Luo W, Huang QX, Huang XW, Matsumoto S, Zeng F, Wang W. Predicting breast cancer in Breast Imaging Reporting and Data System (BI-RADS) ultrasound category 4 or 5 lesions: a nomogram combining radiomics and BI-RADS. *Sci Rep* 2019; 9: 11921. DOI: 10.1038/s41598-019-48488-4.
6. Liu Q, Sun D, Li N, Kim JM, Feng D, Huang G, et al. Predicting EGFR mutation subtypes in lung adenocarcinoma using 18F-FDG PET/CT radiomic features. *Translat Lung Cancer Res* 2020; 9: 549-562.
7. Rizzo S, Botta F, Raimondi S, Origgi D, Fanciullo C, Morganti AG, et al. Radiomics: the facts and the challenges of image analysis. *Eur Radiol Exp* 2018; 2: 36. DOI: 10.1186/s41747-018-0068-z.
8. Ahmadzadeh AM, Lomer NB, Torigian DA. Radiomics and machine learning models for diagnosing microvascular invasion in cholangiocarcinoma: a systematic review and meta-analysis of diagnostic test accuracy studies. *Clin Imaging* 2025; 121: 110456. DOI: 10.1016/j.clinimag.2025.110456.
9. Coll L, Pareto D, Carbonell-Mirabent P, Cobo-Calvo Á, Arrambide G, Vidal-Jordana Á, et al. Deciphering multiple sclerosis disability with deep learning attention maps on clinical MRI. *Neuroimage Clin* 2023; 38: 103376. DOI: 10.1016/j.nicl.2023.103376.
10. Taloni A, Farrelly FA, Pontillo G, Petsas N, Gianni C, Ruggieri S, et al. Evaluation of disability progression in multiple sclerosis via magnetic-resonance-based deep learning techniques. *Int J Mol Sci* 2022; 23: 10651. DOI: 10.3390/ijms231810651.
11. Pilehvari S, Morgan Y, Peng W. An analytical review on the use of artificial intelligence and machine learning in diagnosis, prediction, and risk factor analysis of multiple sclerosis. *Mult Scler Relat Disord* 2024; 89: 105761. DOI: 10.1016/j.msard.2024.105761.
12. Elhaie M, Koozari A, Shahbazi-Gahrouei D. Machine learning and neural network approaches for enhanced measuring and prediction of radiation doses. *J Radiat Res Appl Sci* 2025; 18: 101252. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrras.2024.101252.
13. Caruana G, Pessini LM, Cannella R, Salvaggio G, de Barros A, Salerno A, et al. Texture analysis in susceptibility-weighted imaging may be useful to differentiate acute from chronic multiple sclerosis lesions. *Eur Radiol* 2020; 30: 6348-6356.
14. Dong H, Yang G, Liu F, Mo Y, Guo Y. Automatic brain tumor detection and segmentation using U-net based fully convolutional networks. *arXiv:1705.03820* 2017. DOI: https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.1705.03820.
15. Bleker J, Roest C, Yakar D, Huisman H, Kwee TC. The effect of image resampling on the performance of radiomics-based artificial intelligence in multicenter prostate MRI. *J Magn Res Imaging* 2023; 59: 1800-1806.
16. Jaber HA, Aljobouri HK, Çankaya İ, Koçak OM, Algin O. Preparing fMRI data for postprocessing: conversion modalities, preprocessing pipeline, and parametric and nonparametric approaches. *IEEE Access* 2019; 7: 122864-122877.
17. Van Griethuysen JJM, Fedorov A, Parmar C, Hosny A, Aucoin N, Narayan V, et al. Computational radiomics system to decode the radiographic phenotype. *Cancer Res* 2017; 77: e104-e107. DOI: 10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-17-0339.
18. Ranjbarzadeh R, Kasgari AB, Ghouschi SJ, Anari S, Naseri M, Bendechache M. Brain tumor segmentation based on deep learning and an attention mechanism using MRI multi-modalities brain images. *Sci Rep* 2021; 11: 10930. DOI: 10.1038/s41598-021-90428-8.
19. Moradmamand H, Aghamiri SMR, Ghaderi R. Impact of image preprocessing methods on reproducibility of radiomic features in multimodal magnetic resonance imaging in glioblastoma. *J Appl Clin Med Phys* 2019; 21: 179-190.
20. Mohammadi-Sadr M, Cheki M, Moslehi M, Zarasvandnia M, Salamat MR. A novel approach based on integrating radiomics, bone morphometry and hounsfield unit-derived from routine chest CT for bone mineral density assessment. *Acad Radiol* 2025; 32: 2284-2296.

21. Tripathy RK, Sharma LN, Dandapat S. Diagnostic measure to quantify loss of clinical components in multi-lead electrocardiogram. *Healthc Technol Lett* 2016; 3: 61-66.
22. Bonacchi R, Filippi M, Rocca MA. Role of artificial intelligence in MS clinical practice. *Neuroimage Clin* 2022; 35: 103065. DOI: 10.1016/j.nicl.2022.103065.
23. Spagnolo F, Depeursinge A, Schädelin S, Akbulut A, Müller H, Barakovic M, et al. How far MS lesion detection and segmentation are integrated into the clinical workflow? A systematic review. *Neuroimage Clin* 2023; 39: 103491. DOI: 10.1016/j.nicl.2023.103491.
24. Khajetash B, Talebi A, Bagherpour Z, Abbaspour S, Tavakoli M. Introducing radiomics model to predict active plaque in multiple sclerosis patients using magnetic resonance images. *Biomed Phys Eng Express* 2023; 9. DOI: 10.1088/2057-1976/ace261.
25. Caruana G, Pessini LM, Cannella R, Salvaggio G, de Barros A, Salerno A, et al. Texture analysis in susceptibility-weighted imaging may be useful to differentiate acute from chronic multiple sclerosis lesions. *Eur Radiol* 2020; 30: 6348-6356.