MACHINE LEARNING (TO IDENTIFY IF THE PERSON HAS PNEUMONIA)

Summer Internship Report Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for undergraduate degree of

Bachelor of Technology

In

Computer Science Engineering

By

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DECLARATION

I submit this industrial training work entitled "TO IDENTIFY IF THE PERSON HAS PNEUMONIA" to GITAM (Deemed To Be University), Hyderabad in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of "Bachelor of Technology" in "Computer Science Engineering". I declare that it was carried out independently by me under the guidance of Mr. M.Venkateswarlu, Asst. Professor, GITAM (Deemed To Be University), Hyderabad, India.

The results embodied in this report have not been submitted to any other University or Institute for the award of any degree or diploma.

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Date: 20-07-2020 221710301019

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the Industrial Training Report entitled "TO IDENTIFY IF THE PERSON HAS PNEUMONIA" is being submitted by GADDAM PRASAD REDDY(221710301019) in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of Bachelor of Technology in Computer Science Engineering at GITAM (Deemed To Be University), Hyderabad during the academic year 2019- 20.

It is faithful record work carried out by him at the Computer Science Engineering Department, GITAM University Hyderabad Campus under my guidance and supervision.

Dr. Phani Kumar

Professor and HOD

Department of CSE

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ABSTRACT

Pneumonia is an infection that inflames the air sacs in one or both lungs. The air sacs may fill with fluid or pus (purulent material), causing cough with phlegm or pus, fever, chills, and difficulty breathing. A variety of organisms, including bacteria, viruses and fungi, can cause pneumonia.

Lungs image pre-processing and compilation of dataset for deep learning - The project is about diagnosing pneumonia from X Ray images of lungs of a person using self laid convolutional neural network. The images were of size greater than 1000 pixels per dimension and the total dataset was tagged large and had a space of 800 Mb.

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1.MACHINE LEARNING

1.1 INTRODUCTION:

Machine Learning (ML) is the scientific study of algorithms and statistical models that computer systems use in order to perform a specific task effectively without using explicit instructions, relying on patterns and inference instead. It is seen as a subset of Artificial Intelligence (AI).

1.2 IMPORTANCE OF MACHINE LEARNING:

Machine learning has several very practical applications that drive the kind of real business results such as time and money savings that have the potential to dramatically impact the future of your organization. At Interactions in particular, we see tremendous impact occurring within the customer care industry, whereby machine learning is allowing people to get things done more quickly and efficiently. Through Virtual Assistant solutions, machine learning automates tasks that would otherwise need to be performed by a live agent such as changing a password or checking an account balance. This frees up valuable agent time that can be used to focus on the kind of customer care that humans perform best: high touch, complicated decision-making that is not as easily handled by a machine. At Interactions, we further improve the process by eliminating the decision of whether a request should be sent to a human or a machine unique Adaptive Understanding technology, the machine learns to be aware of its limitations, and bail out to humans when it has a low confidence in providing the correct solution.

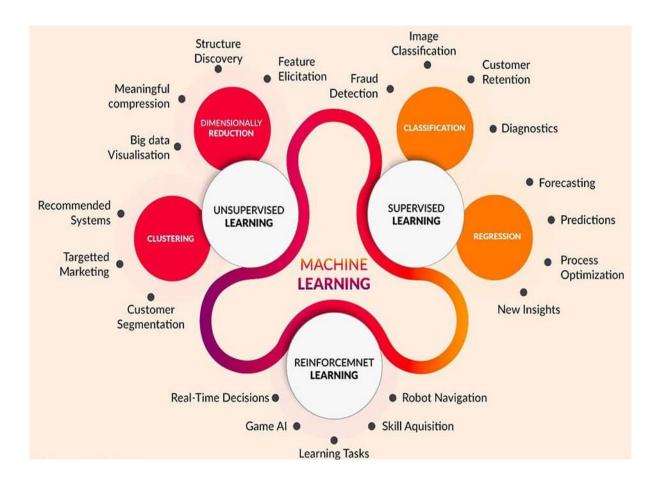


Figure 1.2.1: Machine Learning

1.3 APPLICATIONS OF MACHINE LEARNING:

The value of machine learning technology has been recognized by companies across several industries that deal with huge volumes of data. By leveraging insights obtained from this data, companies are able work in an efficient manner to control costs as well as get an edge over their competitors. This is how some sectors / domains are implementing machine learning

 Financial Services Companies in the financial sector are able to identify key insights in financial data as well as prevent any occurrences of financial fraud, with the help of machine learning technology. The technology is also used to identify opportunities for

investments and trade. Usage of cyber surveillance helps in identifying those individuals or institutions which are prone to financial risk, and take necessary actions in time to prevent fraud.

Marketing and Sales Companies are using machine learning technology to analyze the
purchase history of their customers and make personalized product recommendations for
their next purchase. This ability to capture, analyze, and use customer data to provide a
personalized shopping experience is the future of sales and marketing.

Government

Government agencies like utilities and public safety have a specific need for Ml, as they have multiple data sources, which can be mined for identifying useful patterns and insights. For example sensor data can be analysed to identify ways to minimize costs and increase efficiency. Furthermore, ML can also be used to minimize identity thefts and detect fraud.

Healthcare

With the advent of wearable sensors and devices that use data to access health of a patient in real time, ML is becoming a fast-growing trend in healthcare. Sensors in wearable provide real-time patient information, such as overall health condition, heartbeat, blood pressure and other vital parameters. Doctors and medical experts can use this information to analyze the health condition of an individual, draw a pattern from the patient history, and predict the occurrence of any ailments in the future. The technology also empowers medical experts to analyze data to identify trends that facilitate better diagnoses and treatment.

• Transportation

Based on the travel history and pattern of traveling across various routes, machine learning can help transportation companies predict potential problems that could arise on certain routes, and accordingly advise their customers to opt for a different route. Transportation firms and delivery organizations are increasingly using machine learning technology to carry out data analysis and data modelling to make informed decisions and help their customers make smart decisions when they travel.

• Oil and Gas, this is perhaps the industry that needs the application of machine learning the most. Right from analysing underground minerals and finding new energy sources to streaming oil distribution, ML applications for this industry are vast and are still expanding.

1.4 TYPES OF MACHINE LEARNING ALGORITHMS:

There some variations of how to define the types of Machine Learning Algorithms but commonly they can be divided into categories according to their purpose and the main categories are the following:

1.4.1 SUPERVISED LEARNING:

- I like to think of supervised learning with the concept of function approximation, where basically we train an algorithm and in the end of the process we pick the function that best describes the input data, the one that for a given X makes the best estimation of y (X->y). Most of the time we are not able to figure out the true function that always make the correct predictions and other reason is that the algorithm rely upon an assumption made by humans about how the computer should learn and this assumptions introduce a bias, Bias is topic I'll explain in another post.
- Here the human experts acts as the teacher where we feed the computer with training
 data containing the input/predictors and we show it the correct answers (output) and
 from the data the computer should be able to learn the patterns.
- Supervised learning algorithms try to model relationships and dependencies between
 the target prediction output and the input features such that we can predict the output
 values for new data based on those relationships which it learned from the previous data
 sets

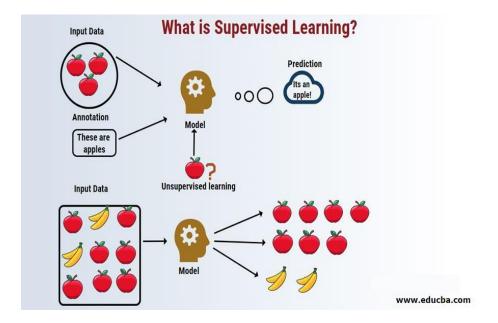


Figure 1.4.1: Supervised Learning

1.4.2 UNSUPERVISED LEARNING:

- The computer is trained with unlabelled data.
- Here there's no teacher at all, actually the computer might be able to teach you new things after it learns patterns in data, these algorithms a particularly useful in cases where the human expert doesn't know what to look for in the data.
- are the family of machine learning algorithms which are mainly used in pattern detection
 and descriptive modelling. However, there are no output categories or labels here based on
 which the algorithm can try to model relationships. These algorithms try to use techniques
 on the input data to mine for rules, detect patterns, and summarize and group the data points
 which help in deriving meaningful insights and describe the data better to the users.

1.4.3 SEMI SUPERVISED LEARNING:

In the previous two types, either there are no labels for all the observation in the dataset or labels are present for all the observations. Semi-supervised learning falls in between these two. In many practical situations, the cost to label is quite high, since it requires skilled human experts to do that. So, in the absence of labels in the majority of the observations but present in few, semi-supervised algorithms are the best candidates for the model building. These methods exploit the idea that even though the group memberships of the unlabelled data are unknown, this data carries important information about the group parameters.

1.4.4 REINFORCEMENT LEARNING:

The method aims at using observations gathered from the interaction with the environment to take actions that would maximize the reward or minimize the risk. Reinforcement learning algorithm (called the agent) continuously learns from the environment in an iterative fashion. In the process, the agent learns from its experiences of the environment until it explores the full range of possible states. Reinforcement Learning is a type of Machine Learning, and thereby also a branch of Artificial Intelligence. It allows machines and software agents to automatically determine the ideal behaviour within a specific context, in order to maximize its performance.

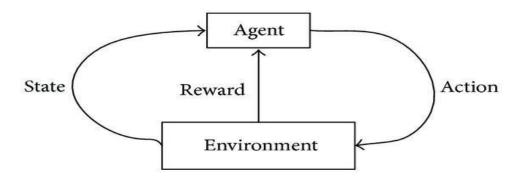


Figure 1.4.4: Reinforcement Leaning

2.PYTHON

2.1 INTRODUCTION TO PYTHON:

Python is an interpreted, high-level, general-purpose programming language. Created by Guido van Rossum and first released in 1991, Python's design philosophy emphasizes code readability with its notable use of significant whitespace. Its language constructs and object-oriented approach aim to help programmers write clear, logical code for small and large-scale projects

Python is dynamically typed and garbage-collected. It supports multiple programming paradigms, including structured (particularly, procedural), object-oriented, and functional programming. Python is often described as a "batteries included" language due to its comprehensive standard library

2.2 HISTORY OF PYTHON:

Python was conceived in the late 1980s by Guido van Rossum at Centrum Wiskunde & Informatica (CWI) in the Netherlands as a successor to the ABC language (itself inspired by SETL), capable of exception handling and interfacing with the Amoeba operating system. Python 2.0 was released on 16 October 2000 with many major new features, including a cycle-detecting garbage collector and support for Unicode. Python 3.0 was released on 3 December 2008. It was a major revision of the language that is not completely backward-compatible. Many of its major features were backported to Python 2.6.x and 2.7.x version series. Releases of Python 3 include the 2to3 utility, which automates (at least partially) the translation of Python 2 code to Python 3.Python 2.7's end-of-life date was initially set 2015 then postponed to 2020 out of concern that a large body of existing code could not easily be forward-ported to Python 3.

2.3 FEATURES OF PYTHON:

Python provides many useful features which make it popular and valuable from the other programming languages. It supports object-oriented programming, procedural programming approaches and provides dynamic memory allocation. We have listed below a few essential features.

Easy to Learn and Use

Python is easy to learn as compared to other programming languages. Its syntax is straightforward and much the same as the English language. There is no use of the semicolon or curly-bracket, the indentation defines the code block. It is the recommended programming language for beginners.

Expressive Language

Python can perform complex tasks using a few lines of code. A simple example, the hello world program you simply type print("Hello World"). It will take only one line to execute, while Java or C takes multiple lines. The open-source means, "Anyone can download its source code without paying any penny."

Object-Oriented Language

Python supports object-oriented language and concepts of classes and objects come into existence. It supports inheritance, polymorphism, and encapsulation, etc. The object-oriented procedure helps to programmer to write reusable code and develop applications in less code.

Extensible

It implies that other languages such as C/C++ can be used to compile the code and thus it can be used further in our Python code. It converts the program into byte code, and any platform can use that byte code.

Large Standard Library

It provides a vast range of libraries for the various fields such as machine learning, web developer, and also for the scripting. There are various machine learning libraries, such as Tensor

flow, Pandas, NumPy, Keras, and Pytorch, etc. Django, flask, pyramids are the popular framework for Python web development.

GUI Programming Support

Graphical User Interface is used for the developing Desktop application. PyQT5, Tkinter, Kivy are the libraries which are used for developing the web application.

Integrated

It can be easily integrated with languages like C, C++, and JAVA, etc. Python runs code line by line like C, C++ Java. It makes easy to debug the code.

Embeddable

The code of the other programming language can use in the Python source code. We can use Python source code in another programming language as well. It can embed other language into our code.

Dynamic Memory Allocation

In Python, we don't need to specify the data-type of the variable. When we assign some value to the variable, it automatically allocates the memory to the variable at runtime. Suppose we are assigned integer value 15 to \mathbf{x} , then we don't need to write $\mathbf{int} \ \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{15}$. Just write $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{15}$.

Interpreted Language

Python is an interpreted language; it means the Python program is executed one line at a time. The advantage of being interpreted language, it makes debugging easy and portable.

Cross-platform Language

Python can run equally on different platforms such as Windows, Linux, UNIX, and Macintosh, etc. So, we can say that Python is a portable language. It enables programmers to develop the software for several competing platforms by writing a program only once.

Free and Open Source

Python is freely available for everyone. It is freely available on its official website www.python.org. It has a large community across the world that is dedicatedly working towards make new python modules and functions. Anyone can contribute to the Python community. The open-source means, "Anyone can download its source code without paying any penny."

2.4 HOW TO SETUP PYTHON:

- Python is available on a wide variety of platforms including Linux and Mac OS X.
 Let's understand how to set up our Python environment.
- The most up-to-date and current source code, binaries, documentation, news, etc., is available on the official website of Python.

2.4.1 Installation(using python IDLE):

- Installing python is generally easy, and nowadays many Linux and Mac OS distributions include a recent python.
- Download python from www.python.org
- When the download is completed, double click the file and follow the instructions to install it.
- When python is installed, a program called IDLE is also installed along with it. It provides a graphical user interface to work with python

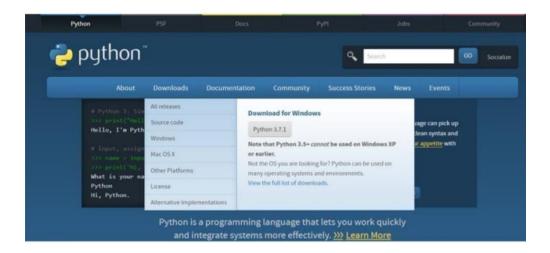


Figure 2.4.1: Python download

2.4.2 Installation (using Anaconda):

- Python programs are also executed using Anaconda.
- Anaconda is a free open source distribution of python for large scale data processing, predictive analytics and scientific computing.
- Conda is a package manager quickly installs and manages packages.
- In WINDOWS:
- Step 1: Open Anaconda.com/downloads in a web browser.
- Step 2: Download python 3.4 version for (32-bitgraphic installer/64 -bit graphic installer)
- Step 3: select installation type (all users)
- Step 4: Select path (i.e. add anaconda to path & register anaconda as default python 3.4) next click install and next click finish
- Step 5: Open jupyter notebook (it opens in default browser)

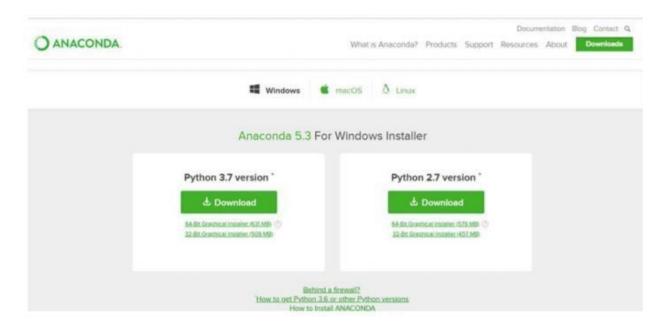


Figure 2.4.2.1: Anaconda download



Figure 2.4.2.2: Jupyter notebook

2.5 PYTHON VARIABLE TYPES:

- Variables are nothing but reserved memory locations to store values. This means that when you create a variable you reserve some space in memory.
- Variables are nothing but reserved memory locations to store values.
- Based on the data type of a variable, the interpreter allocates memory and decides what can be stored in the reserved memory.
- Python variables do not need explicit declaration to reserve memory space. The declaration happens automatically when you assign a value to a variable.
- Python has various standard data types that are used to define the operations possible on them and the storage method for each of them.
- Python has five standard data types
 - Numbers
 - Strings
 - Lists
 - Tuples
 - Dictionary

2.5.1 Python Numbers:

- Number data types store numeric values. Number objects are created when you assign a value to them.
- Python supports four different numerical types int (signed integers) long (long integers, they can also be represented in octal and hexadecimal) float (floating point real values) complex (complex numbers).

2.5.2 Python Strings:

- Strings in Python are identified as a contiguous set of characters represented in the quotation marks.
- Python allows for either pairs of single or double quotes.
- Subsets of strings can be taken using the slice operator ([] and [:]) with indexes starting at 0 in the beginning of the string and working their way from
 - -1 at the end.
- The plus (+) sign is the string concatenation operator and the asterisk (*) is the repetition operator.

2.5.3 Python Lists:

- Lists are the most versatile of Python's compound data types.
- A list contains items separated by commas and enclosed within square brackets ([]).
- To some extent, lists are similar to arrays in C. One difference between them is that all the items belonging to a list can be of different data type.
- The values stored in a list can be accessed using the slice operator ([] and [:]) with indexes starting at 0 in the beginning of the list and working their way to end -1.
- The plus (+) sign is the list concatenation operator, and the asterisk (*) is the repetition operator.

2.5.4 Python Tuples:

- A tuple is another sequence data type that is similar to the list.
- A tuple consists of a number of values separated by commas. Unlike lists, however,
 tuples are enclosed within parentheses.
- The main differences between lists and tuples are: Lists are enclosed in brackets ([]) and their elements and size can be changed, while tuples are enclosed in parentheses (()) and cannot be updated.
- Tuples can be thought of as read-only lists.
 - For example Tuples are fixed size in nature whereas lists are dynamic. In other words, a tuple is immutable whereas a list is mutable. You can't add elements to a tuple. Tuples

have no append or extend method. You can't remove elements from a tuple. Tuples have no remove or pop method.

2.5.5 Python Dictionary:

- Python's dictionaries are kind of hash table type. They work like associative arrays or
 hashes found in Perl and consist of key-value pairs. A dictionary key can be almost any
 Python type, but are usually numbers or strings. Values, on the other hand, can be any
 arbitrary Python object.
- Dictionaries are enclosed by curly braces ({}) and values can be assigned and accessed using square braces ([]).
- You can use numbers to "index" into a list, meaning you can use numbers to find out what's in lists. You should know this about lists by now, but make sure you understand that you can only use numbers to get items out of a list.
- What a dict does is let you use anything, not just numbers. Yes, a dict associates one thing to another, no matter what it is.

2.6 PYTHON FUNCTION:

2.6.1 Defining a Function:

You can define functions to provide the required functionality. Here are simple rules to define a function in Python. Function blocks begin with the keyword def followed by the function name and parentheses (i.e. ()).

Any input parameters or arguments should be placed within these parentheses. You can also define parameters inside these parentheses. The code block within every function starts with a colon (:) and is indented. The statement returns [expression] exits a function, optionally passing back an expression to the caller. A return statement with no arguments is the same as return None.

2.6.2 Calling a Function:

Defining a function only gives it a name, specifies the parameters that are to be included in the function and structures the blocks of code. Once the basic structure of a function is finalized, you can execute it by calling it from another function or directly from the Python prompt.

2.7 PYTHON USING OOP'S CONCEPTS:

2.7.1 Class:

- Class: A user-defined prototype for an object that defines a set of attributes that characterize any object of the class. The attributes are data members (class variables and instance variables) and methods, accessed via dot notation.
- Class variable: A variable that is shared by all instances of a class. Class variables are defined within a class but outside any of the class's methods. Class variables are not used as frequently as instance variables are.
- Data member: A class variable or instance variable that holds data associated with a class and its objects.

- Instance variable: A variable that is defined inside a method and belongs only to the current instance of a class.
- Defining a Class: o We define a class in a very similar way how we define a function. o Just like a function, we use parentheses and a colon after the class name(i.e. () :) when we define a class. Similarly, the body of our class is indented like a function body is.

```
def my_function():
    # the details of the
    # function go here
class MyClass():
    # the details of the
    # class go here
```

Figure 2.7.1: Defining a Class

2.7.2 init method in Class:

- The init method also called a constructor is a special method that runs when an instance is created so we can perform any tasks to set up the instance.
- The init method has a special name that starts and ends with two underscores: init ()

3. CASE STUDY

3.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT:

For several years, Pneumonia detection in medical field has been an area of great interest. Detection of infected lungs in humans from Xray images of lungs is necessary to know whether the person has Pneumonia or not.

Identify that the person has Pneumonia or not?

3.2 DATA SET:

This dataset contains 3556 XRay images of lungs. The data collection is based on the data from Guangzhou Women and Children's Medical Center. You can use this datasets to recognize Infected lungs from the Xray Images.

The pictures are divided into two classes: PNEUMONIA, NORMAL. For Pneumonia class there are about 1965 images and for Normal class there are 1591 images. Photos are of high resolution, about 1000*1000 pixels. Photos are reduced to a single size, since they have different proportions!

Chest X-ray images (anterior-posterior) were selected from retrospective cohorts of pediatric patients of one to five years old from Guangzhou Women and Children's Medical Center, Guangzhou. All chest X-ray imaging was performed as part of patients' routine clinical care.

3.3 OBJECTIVE OF THE CASE STUDY:

- The primary object of the project is to say whether the person has pneumonia or not.
- The data is in two categories: Pneumonia, Normal
- All the images in the data should be of same size i.e. is 64*64
- Improving the accuracy of validation and training Accuracy

4 MODEL BUILDING

4.1 PREPROCESSING OF THE DATA:

Preprocessing the data actually involves the following steps.

4.1.1 GETTING THE DATASET:

We can get the data set from the Kaggle database or we can download the data and upload to our google drive. So that by mounting google drive in google colab we can we the data set

https://www.kaggle.com/paultimothymooney/chest-xray-pneumonia

4.1.2 IMPORTING THE LIBRARIES:

We have imported the following libraries as per the requirement of the algorithm.

- NUMPY Package for images to arrays, manipulating image dimensions
- PANDAS Package for creating dataframes to visualize the categories
- OS Package for extracting data from google drive
- MATPLOTLIB. SEABORN for visualization of data
- TENSORFLOW and KERAS for image data manipulation and augumentation

```
In [1]: import numpy as np
   import pandas as pd
   import os
   import tensorflow as tf
   from keras.preprocessing.image import ImageDataGenerator
   import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
   import seaborn as sns

Using TensorFlow backend.
   /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/statsmodels/tools/_testing.py:1
   9: FutureWarning: pandas.util.testing is deprecated. Use the functions
   in the public API at pandas.testing instead.
      import pandas.util.testing as tm
```

Figure 4.1.2.1: Importing Libraries

```
[ ] # Checking the versions of the packages used
   import matplotlib,keras
   print(np.__version__)
   print(pd.__version__)
   print(tf.__version__)
   print(keras.__version__)
   print(matplotlib.__version__)
   print(sns.__version__)

C> 1.18.5
   1.0.5
   2.2.0
   2.3.1
   3.2.2
   0.10.1
```

Figure 4.1.2.2: Package Versions

4.1.3 IMPORTING THE DATA-SET:

- Here we imported a package called PATHLIB to decrease the size of path for data extraction
- Base directory is named as data_dir
- Path for train data is stored in train dir
- Path for test data is stored in test dir
- Path for val data is stored in val_dir

```
In [2]: # Importing Path from pathlib
from pathlib import Path

# Define path to the data directory
data_dir = Path('/content/drive/My Drive/Pneumoniadata/chest_xray/chest_xray')

# Path to train directory
train_dir = data_dir/'train'

# Path to validation directory
val_dir = data_dir/'val'

# Path to test directory
test_dir = data_dir/'test'
```

 By using pathlib instances we can reduce the code length ,everytime we need not give wholepath to extract a file/folder

Figure 4.1.3: Reading the dataset

4.1.4 LISTING THE CATEGORIES IN THE DATASET:

• Checking for folders in base folder (Chest Xray)

```
In [3]: # Checking for folders in chest_xray folder
    os.listdir(data_dir)
Out[3]: ['test', 'train', 'val']
```

Figure 4.1.4.1: Folders in Base folder

• Checking for categories in each folder of base folder

```
In [4]: # Checking for categories in traindata folder
    print(os.listdir(train_dir))
    # Checking for categories in valdata folder
    print(os.listdir(val_dir))
    # Checking for categories in testdata folder
    print(os.listdir(train_dir))

['PNEUMONIA', 'NORMAL']
    ['PNEUMONIA', 'NORMAL']
    ['PNEUMONIA', 'NORMAL']
```

Figure 4.1.4.2: Categories in each folder

- Following snippet is for predicting the class label after building the model
- Here we are creating a list with 2 categories and an empty dictionary(mapping)
- So (0) NORMAL
- (1) -- PNEUMONIA

```
In [5]: # categories in the data set
    categories = ['NORMAL','PNEUMONIA']

In [6]: mapping = {}
    count = 0
    for i in categories:
        mapping[count] = i
        count+=1
```

Figure 4.1.4.3: Class labels creation

4.1.5 LISTING THE LENGTH OF CATEGORIES IN THE DATASET:

• Checking for length of each category in all folders

```
In [7]: #Checking the no:of images in each subfolder of ['train', 'val', 'test']
    print(len(os.listdir(train_dir/'PNEUMONIA')))
    print(len(os.listdir(train_dir/"NORMAL")))
    print(len(os.listdir(test_dir/"PNEUMONIA")))
    print(len(os.listdir(val_dir/"PNEUMONIA")))
    print(len(os.listdir(val_dir/"NORMAL")))

1567
1349
390
234
8
8
```

Figure 4.1.5: Length of categories

4.2 PREPROCESSING THE IMAGE:

4.2.1 DATA AUGUMENTATION:

- The Keras deep learning neural network library provides the capability to fit models using image data augmentation via the ImageDataGenerator class.
- Image data augmentation is used to expand the training dataset in order to improve the performance and ability of the model to generalize.
- Data augumentation is applied only for training data

Found 2916 images belonging to 2 classes.

Found 624 images belonging to 2 classes.

Found 16 images belonging to 2 classes.

Figure 4.2.1: Image pre-processing

4.2.2 IMAGE DATA VIZUALIZATION:

- PIL stands for PILLOW
- PIL package is mainly used for image visualization
- To display an image OPEN function is used
- To get the height and width of the image GETPALETTE is used

- Firstly, displaying Xray image from Normal category
- We can observe that the image is of size ()

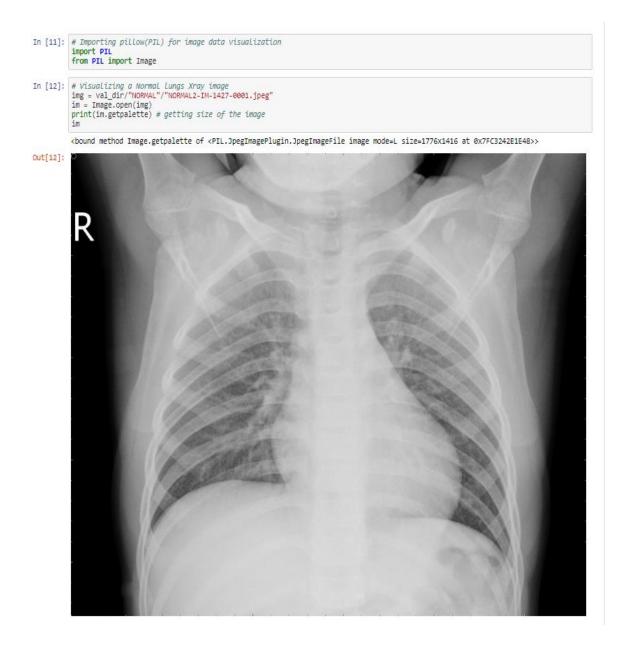


Figure 4.2.2.1: Normal lungs

- Displaying an image from Pneumonia category
- We can observe that the image is of size (968*592)

```
In [13]: # Visualizing a Pneumonia affected Lung xray image
   img = val_dir/"PNEUMONIA"/"person1946_bacteria_4874.jpeg"
   im = Image.open(img)
   print(im.getpalette) # getting size of the image
   im
```

<bound method Image.getpalette of <PIL.JpegImagePlugin.JpegImageFile image mode=L size=968x592 at 0x7FC3239F1278>>

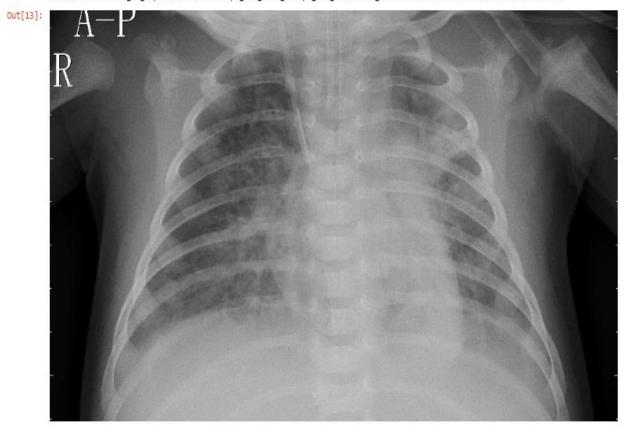


Figure 4.2.2.2:Pneumonia lungs

- In order to visualize categories in train set we need to create a dataframe out of train data to be passed as input for a bar graph
- Glob function is used to extract data matching the given pattern Eg: .jpeg
- We are going to iterate throughout the train data and mark label as 0 for normal category image and 1 for Pneumonia category images
- Now it is passed into a DataFrame named train_data with columns image,label

```
In [14]: # Get the path to the normal and pneumonia sub-directories
          train normal dir = train dir/'NORMAL'
         train_pneumonia_dir = train_dir/'PNEUMONIA'
          # Get the list of all the images
          # glob function get the pathnames matching a specified pattern(.jpeg,etc..)
          normal_cases = train_normal_dir.glob('*.jpeg')
          pneumonia_cases = train_pneumonia_dir.glob('*.jpeg')
          # An empty list. We will insert the data into this list in (ima path, label) format
          train_data = []
          # Go through all the normal cases. The label for these cases will be 	heta
          for img in normal cases:
             train_data.append((img,0))
          # Go through all the pneumonia cases. The label for these cases will be 1
          for img in pneumonia_cases:
             train_data.append((img, 1))
          # Get a pandas dataframe from the data we have in our list
          train_data = pd.DataFrame(train_data, columns=['image', 'label'],index=None)
          # How the dataframe looks like?
          train data.shape
Out[14]: (2916, 2)
```

Figure 4.2.2.3: Training DataFrame creation

VISUALIZING WITH BARPLOT:

- Getting count for each class
- 0-1567, 1-1349
- Visualizing counts using seaborn bar plot

```
In [15]: # Get the counts for each class
    cases_count = train_data['label'].value_counts()
    print(cases_count)

# Plot the results
    plt.figure(figsize=(10,8))
    sns.barplot(x=cases_count.index, y= cases_count.values)
    plt.title('Number of cases', fontsize=14)
    plt.xlabel('Case type', fontsize=12)
    plt.ylabel('Count', fontsize=12)
    plt.xticks(range(len(cases_count.index)), ['Normal(0)', 'Pneumonia(1)'])
    plt.show()

1    1567
    0    1349
    Name: label, dtype: int64
```

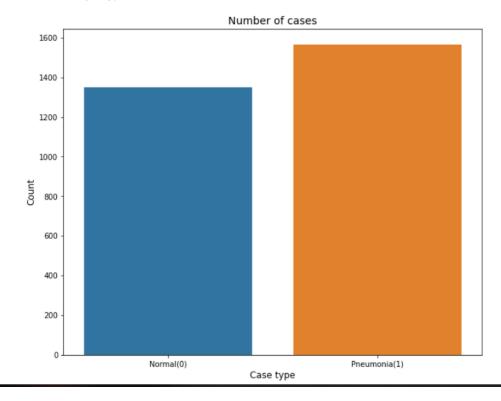


Figure 4.2.2.4: Bar plot for train set

 Since data is unbalanced there is a chance of model overfitting, so we need to use dropouts in model building

4.3 GENERATING THE LABELS OF IMAGES:

- Here we need to split train_set into images and lables using next() function
- Image has 4 dimensions
- Labels have 1 dimension
- Using IMSHOW of matplotlib displaying an image

```
In [16]: # Visualizing images with labels
    imgs,labels=training_set.next()
    print(imgs.shape)
    print(labels.shape)
    plt.imshow(imgs[0,:,:,:])
    #plt.imshow(imgs[0])

    (32, 64, 64, 3)
    (32,)
Out[16]: 

Out[16]: 

    # Visualizing images with labels
    imgs,labels=training_set.next()
    print(imgs.shape)
    print(labels.shape)
    print(labels.sh
```

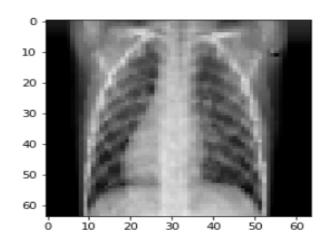


Figure 4.3.1: Label generator

VISUALIZING A SET OF 20 IMAGES WITH SUBPLOT:

- Along with images, labels are also displayed
- We can observe that each image is resized to 64*64, since we applied target size as 64*64 in data argumentation

```
In [17]: plt.figure(figsize=(16,16))
    pos=1
    for i in range(20):
        plt.subplot(4,5,pos)
        plt.imshow(imgs[i,:,:,:])
        plt.title(labels[i])
        pos +=1
```

Figure 4.3.2: Subplot for 20 images

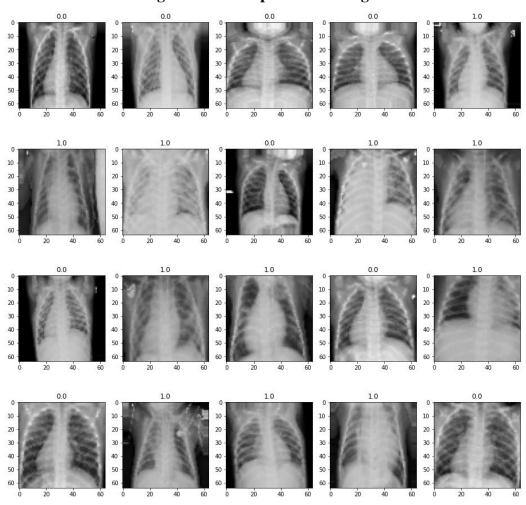


Figure 4.3.3: Set of 20 images

VISUALIZING PIXEL INTENSITIES OF 20 IMAGES WITH HISTOGRAM:

- Here we are using histograms from MATPOLOTLIB to visualize the pixel intensities of images
- We can observe that intensities are in range of 0 1, since we have applied rescaling 1/255 to train set in data augmentations

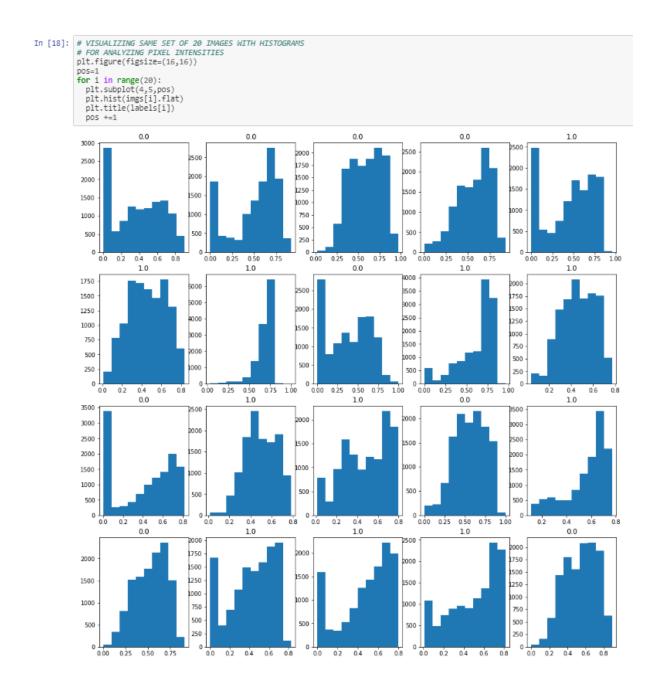


Figure 4.3.4: Pixels Visualization using histogram

4.4 IMPLEMENTING THE CNN MODEL:

1.Convolution:

A convolution extracts tiles of the input feature map, and applies filters to them to compute new features, producing an output feature map, or convolved feature (which may have a different size and depth than the input feature map).

2.ReLU:

Following each convolution operation, the CNN applies a Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU) transformation to the convolved feature, in order to introduce nonlinearity into the model. The ReLU function,

F(x)=max(0,x)

returns x for all values of x > 0, and returns 0 for all values of $x \le 0$.

3.Pooling:

After ReLU comes a pooling step, in which the CNN down samples the convolved feature (to save on processing time), reducing the number of dimensions of the feature map, while still preserving the most critical feature information. A common algorithm used for this process is called max pooling.

4.Sigmoid:

The sigmoid activation function, also called the logistic function, is traditionally a very popular activation function for neural networks. The input to the function is transformed into a value between 0.0 and 1.0.

BUILDING THE MODEL:

- Here we are using sequential model from keras models
- Only for the first layer we providing with the input shapes thereafter next layers will initialize weights given by previous layers as output
- There are 4 hidden layers in the model

- Activation function RELU is used in all the layers except the final output layer
- In output layer activation function is sigmoid since we need output as probability i.e. (0-1)
- Formula for calculating params is ((n*m*k)+1)*f where n,m are kernelsizes k is the no of filters in present layer and f is the no of layers in previous layer
- Dense layers are fully connected layers and flatten layer is used for converting in 1 dimensional array
- Dropouts are used to overcome the problem of overfitting
- Since we have only two categories to be classified we use a single neuron in the output layer
- We need to import some packages to build the model

```
In [19]: # IMPORTING REQUIRED PACKAGES FOR BUILDING THE MODEL
from tensorflow.keras.models import Sequential
from tensorflow.keras.layers import Conv2D,Dense,Dropout,Flatten,MaxPooling2D
```

```
In [20]: # Creating an instance of sequential model(model)
         model = Sequential()
         # Adding a first convolutional layer
         # First convolution extracts 32 filters that are of size(5x5)
         model.add(Conv2D(32, (3, 3), input_shape = (64, 64, 3), activation = 'relu'))
         # Convolution is followed by max-pooling layer with a 2x2 window
         model.add(MaxPooling2D(pool_size = (2, 2)))
         # params = ((n*m*k)+1)*f = ((3*3*3)+1)*32=896
         # Adding a second convolutional layer
         # Second convolution extracts 32 filters that are 3x3
         model.add(Conv2D(32, (3, 3), activation = 'relu'))
         # Convolution is followed by max-pooling layer with a 2x2 window
         model.add(MaxPooling2D(pool_size = (2, 2)))
         # params = ((n*m*k)+1)*f = ((3*3*32)+1)*32=9248
         # Adding a third convolutional layer
         # Third convolution layer extracts 32 filters that are 3x3
         model.add(Conv2D(64, (3, 3), activation = 'relu'))
         # Convolution is followed by max-pooling layer with a 2x2 window
         model.add(MaxPooling2D(pool_size = (2, 2)))
         # params = ((n*m*k)+1)*f = ((3*3*32)+1)*64=18496
         # Flatten feature map to a 1-dim tensor so we can add fully connected layers
         model.add(Flatten())
         # Create a fully connected layer with ReLU activation and 128 hidden units
         model.add(Dense(units = 64, activation = 'relu'))
         \# params = ((n*m*k)+1)*f =
         model.add(Dropout(0.5))
         # Create output layer with a single neuron and sigmoid activation
         model.add(Dense(units = 1, activation = 'sigmoid'))
```

Figure 4.4.1: Building the model

GETTING THE MODEL SUMMARY:

- All the param in each layer are calculated using the formula: ((n*m*k)+1)*f
- On total there are **176225** params
- There are **176225** Trainable params
- There are no nontrainable params

```
#Get a summary of the model.
model.summary()
Model: "sequential"
Layer (type)
                           Output Shape
                                                   Param #
______
conv2d (Conv2D)
                           (None, 62, 62, 32)
                                                   896
max pooling2d (MaxPooling2D) (None, 31, 31, 32)
                                                   0
conv2d 1 (Conv2D)
                           (None, 29, 29, 32)
                                                   9248
max_pooling2d_1 (MaxPooling2 (None, 14, 14, 32)
                           (None, 12, 12, 64)
conv2d_2 (Conv2D)
                                                   18496
max pooling2d 2 (MaxPooling2 (None, 6, 6, 64)
                           (None, 2304)
flatten (Flatten)
dense (Dense)
                           (None, 64)
                                                   147520
dropout (Dropout)
                           (None, 64)
                                                   0
dense_1 (Dense)
                           (None, 1)
                                                   65
Total params: 176,225
Trainable params: 176,225
Non-trainable params: 0
```

Figure 4.4.2: Model Summary

4.4.1COMPILING THE MODEL:

- Optimizers are algorithms or methods used to change the attributes of your neural network such as weights and learning rate in order to reduce the losses.
- Adam optimization is an extension to Stochastic gradient decent and can be used in place of classical stochastic gradient descent to update network weights more efficiently.
- Adam is also the most efficient optimiser
- LOSS used is binary_crossentropy since it is a problem of binary classification
- And the METRIC used is accuracy, however we cannot completely trust accuracy to validate the model since there is unbalanced data

```
# Compiling the CNN
model.compile(optimizer = 'adam', loss = 'binary_crossentropy', metrics = ['accuracy'])
```

Figure 4.4.1.1: Compiling the model

4.4.2 FITTING THE MODEL:

- To fit the model we use fit_generator function
- Since the batch size is not specified it takes the default size as 32
- Given no of epochs is 25
- Input is train_set and validation data is test_set
- For every epoch it gives 4 outputs Loss, Accuracy, Val loss, Val accuracy
- These values may increase or decrease for the other epoch
- On an average every epoch took 55 seconds to execute
- Time taken to fit the model is 22 minutes
- All the epoch outputs are stored in a dictionary called history
- It has the keys Loss, Accuracy, Val_loss, Val_accuracy
- Val_accuracy is 0.85, which is a good score

```
In [21]: # Fitting the gen
           erated model on training data and validation data
   history = model.fit_generator(training_set,epochs=25,validation_data=test_set)
   WARNING:tensorflow:From <ipython-input-21-88fcbccf8c18>:2: Model.fit_generator (from tensorflow.python.keras.engine.training) i
    s deprecated and will be removed in a future version.
   Instructions for updating:
   Please use Model.fit, which supports generators.
   Epoch 1/25
   92/92 [====
         0.8397
    Epoch 2/25
   0.8446
   0.8413
   Epoch 4/25
   0.8013
    Epoch 5/25
   0.7869
   Epoch 6/25
    92/92 [====
          0.8702
   Epoch 7/25
   92/92 [====
          0.8542
   Epoch 8/25
   92/92 [====
           0.8478
   Epoch 9/25
    92/92 [==
           0.8654
    Epoch 10/25
   92/92 [====
         0.8237
   Epoch 11/25
    92/92 [========= - 56s 606ms/step - loss: 0.2114 - accuracy: 0.9211 - val loss: 48.2344 - val accuracy:
    0.8782
    Epoch 12/25
    92/92 [===
         0.8718
    Epoch 13/25
    92/92 [================] - 55s 599ms/step - loss: 0.1829 - accuracy: 0.9328 - val_loss: 53.0487 - val_accuracy:
    0.8862
    Epoch 14/25
    92/92 [============ - 555 595ms/step - loss: 0.1811 - accuracy: 0.9259 - val_loss: 68.0545 - val_accuracy:
    0.8766
    Epoch 15/25
    0.8990
    Epoch 16/25
    92/92 [================== ] - 56s 609ms/step - loss: 0.1958 - accuracy: 0.9287 - val_loss: 35.4434 - val_accuracy:
    0.8974
    Epoch 17/25
    92/92 [====
         0.8942
    Epoch 18/25
    92/92 [====
          0.8878
    Fnoch 19/25
          ========== 1 - 56s 605ms/step - loss: 0.1924 - accuracv: 0.9318 - val loss: 104.0328 - val accuracv:
    92/92 [====
    0.8670
    Epoch 20/25
    92/92 [====
         0.9071
    Epoch 21/25
    0.8718
    Epoch 22/25
    0.8942
    Epoch 23/25
    0.8846
    Epoch 24/25
    92/92 [====
         0.8702
    Epoch 25/25
    92/92 [================== ] - 56s 603ms/step - loss: 0.1517 - accuracy: 0.9403 - val_loss: 124.7078 - val_accuracy:
    0.8526
```

Figure 4.4.2.1: Fitting the model

4.4.3 VISUALIZATION OF LOSS AND ACCURACY OF MODEL:

- From history dictionary train_acc, val_acc, val_loss, val_acc are extracted
- Matplotlib plots are used to visualize accuracy, losses of train and test sets
- We use a subplot of 2*1 size, one for loss and the other for accuracies
- It is observed that the model obtained good acuuracy scores

```
In [22]: train_acc = history.history['accuracy']
    val_acc = history.history['val_accuracy']
    train_loss = history.history['loss']
    val_loss = history.history['val_loss']

epochs=list(range(1,26))

# Plot-1 for visualizing train_acc,val_acc
plt.figure(figsize=(10,10))
plt.subplot(2,1,1)
plt.plot(epochs,train_acc,label='train_acc',color="black")
plt.plot(epochs,val_acc,label='val_acc')
plt.title('accuracy')
plt.grid()
plt.legend()

# Plot-2 for visualizing train_loss,val_loss
plt.subplot(2,1,2)
plt.plot(epochs,train_loss,label='train_loss')
plt.plot(epochs,val_loss,label='val_loss')
plt.plot(epochs,val_loss,label='val_loss')
plt.title('loss')
plt.legend()
```

Out[22]: <matplotlib.legend.Legend at 0x7fc322991e48>

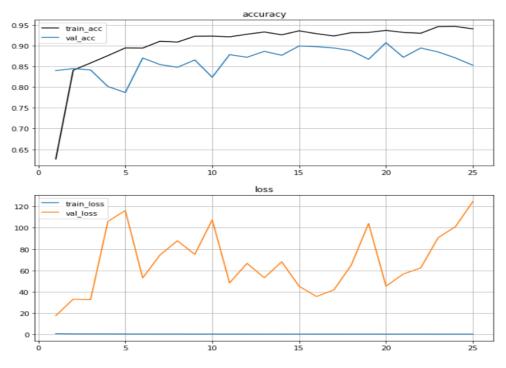


Figure 4.4.3.1: Visualizing Metrics of the model

4.4.4 PREDICTING IMAGE OF PNEUMONIA CLASS:

- Since data augmentation is performed on trainset, we need to apply preprocessing to the image to be passed into mode for prediction
- To extract the image from the path we use load_img() function of keras.preprocessing package
- Image to be converted to array using img_to_array () function
- Array to be resized to 64*64 size
- Array has only 3 dimensions
- But the model takes a 4-dimensional array as input
- So, using expand_dims () of NumPy array is converted to 4-dimensional array
- Finally, we display the image to be diagnosed for visualization

```
In [23]: from tensorflow.keras.preprocessing import image
         import numpy as np
         img = image.load_img(val_dir/"PNEUMONIA"/"person1946_bacteria_4874.jpeg")
         print(type(img))
         plt.imshow(img)
         #print(img.shape)
         img = tf.keras.preprocessing.image.img to array(img)
         print(img.shape)
         print(type(img))
          img = tf.image.resize(img,(64,64))
         #scaling
          img = img/255
         print(img.shape)
          img = np.expand_dims(img,axis=0)
         print(img.shape)
         <class 'PIL.Image.Image'>
         (592, 968, 3)
         <class 'numpy.ndarray'>
         (64, 64, 3)
          (1, 64, 64, 3)
```

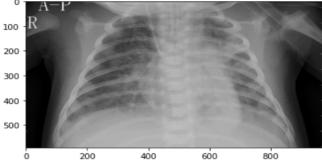


Figure 4.4.4.1: Preprocessing Pneumonia image

- Predict function gives the probability of the image belonging to particular category
- Predict_classes give the name of the class it belongs to
- Pneumonia image is classified correctly

```
In [24]: # Predicting image using predict function
    model.predict(img)

Out[24]: array([[0.9983327]], dtype=float32)

In [25]: # Predicting class using predict_classes function
    print(model.predict_classes(img)[0][0])
    print(f"The Photo is in the category of {mapping[model.predict_classes(img)[0][0]]}")

WARNING:tensorflow:From <ipython-input-25-17fe7f7a8757>:2: Sequential.predict_classes (from tensorflow.python.keras.engine.sequ
    ential) is deprecated and will be removed after 2021-01-01.
    Instructions for updating:
    Please use instead:* `np.argmax(model.predict(x), axis=-1)`, if your model does multi-class classification (e.g. if it uses
    a `softmax` last-layer activation).* `(model.predict(x) > 0.5).astype("int32")`, if your model does binary classification
    (e.g. if it uses a `sigmoid` last-layer activation).

The Photo is in the category of PNEUMONIA
```

Figure 4.4.4.2: Predicting Pneumonia image

4.4.5 PREDICTING IMAGE OF NORMAL CLASS:

- Same pre-processing steps are performed for the following image similar to Pneumonia image
- Converting image to array, resizing, reshaping is performed
- Displaying the image to be diagnosed for visualization

```
In [27]: img = image.load_img( val_dir/"NORMAL"/"NORMAL2-IM-1440-0001.jpeg")
    print(type(img))
    plt.imshow(img)
    #print(img.shape)
    img = tf.keras.preprocessing.image.img_to_array(img)
    print(type(img))
    img = tf.image.resize(img,(64,64))

#scaling
    img = img/255
    print(img.shape)
    img = np.expand_dims(img,axis=0)
    print(img.shape)

<class 'PIL.Image.Image'>
    (1225, 1632, 3)
    <class 'numpy.ndarray'>
    (64, 64, 3)
    (1, 64, 64, 3)
```

Figure 4.4.5.1: Preprocessing Pneumonia image

- Predict function gives the probability of the image belonging to particular category
- Predict_classes give the name of the class it belongs to
- We got score as 0.02 which is less than 0.5 so it belongs to 0 category i.e. Normal class
- Normal image is classified correctly

Figure 4.4.5.2: Predicting Pneumonia image

4.4.6 ANLYZING THE METRICS:

CONFUSION MATRIX:

- Since the data is unbalanced, we cannot take accuracy alone as metric for validating the model.
- So, we need to choose another metric to validate the model
- Let us plot a confusion matrix to visualize the true positives, true negatives, False positives and False negatives
- We need to import confusionmatrix, classification report and f1_score from sklear.metrics
- Store all the test data prediction in Y_pred
- Plotting the confusion matrix with test_set.classes and y_pred as inputs
- Out of 234 normal class images 154 images are correctly classified,80 are incorrectly classified
- Out of 390 Pneumonia images 378 images are correctly classified, 12 are incorrectly classified
- It is observed that Pneumonia class images are more accurately classified than the images of normal class

```
In [30]: # Import metrics
          from sklearn.metrics import classification_report, confusion_matrix,f1_score
          Y_pred = model.predict(test_set)
          y_pred = np.where(Y_pred > 0.50, 1, 0)
          print(confusion_matrix(test_set.classes,y_pred))
          sns.heatmap(confusion_matrix(test_set.classes,y_pred),annot=True,fmt="d",cmap="Blues")
          [[154 80]
          [ 12 378]]
Out[30]: <matplotlib.axes._subplots.AxesSubplot at 0x7fc2c405c4a8>
                                                      300
                    154
                                       80
                                                     - 250
                                                     200
                                                     150
                                                     - 100
                                                     - 50
```

Figure 4.4.6.1: Confusion matrix

CLASSIFICATION REPORT:

- From classification report we can observe that the accuracy is 0.85
- Precision = tp/(tp+fp)
- Obtained Precision is 0.93 and 0.83 for Normal and Pneumonia classes respectively
- Recall = tp/(tp+fn)
- Obtained Recall is 0.66 and 0.97 for Normal and Pneumonia classes respectively
- Obtained F1_score is 0.77 and 0.89 for Normal and Pneumonia classes respectively

```
In [31]: # Classification report
         target_names = ['NORMAL', 'PNEUMONIA']
         print(classification_report(test_set.classes,y_pred, target_names=target_names))
                                  recall f1-score support
                      precision
                           0.93
                                              0.77
              NORMAL
                                    0.66
                                                        234
           PNEUMONIA
                           0.83
                                    0.97
                                                        390
                                              0.89
            accuracy
                                              0.85
                                                        624
           macro avg
                           0.88
                                    0.81
                                              0.83
                                                        624
                                                        624
         weighted avg
                           0.86
                                    0.85
                                              0.85
```

Figure 4.4.6.2: Classification report

- F1_score is the best metric to validate the model since it is obtained from 2 metrics recall and precision
- F1_score = 2*((precision*recall)/(precision+recall))
- On Calculating f1_score of the model for test data, it is observed that F1_score is 0.891 i.e. approximately 90% which is good sign that the model is valid

```
In [32]: f1_score(test_set.classes,y_pred)
Out[32]: 0.8915094339622641
```

Figure 4.4.6.3: f1_score

5. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE SCOPE

Throughout the process of developing the CNN model for Pneumonia prediction, I have built a model from scratch which consists of 4 layers and follows with 2 fully connected neural network. Then the trained model is evaluated using separate unseen data to avoid bias prediction. As the result, the accuracy of the test dataset reached 85% which indicates a decent model. This project allows a beginner to obtain an overview of how to build a model to solve a real-world problem.

It is no doubt that the predictive model can be improved even better by performing data augmentation or implementing a transfer learning concept which facilitates the model a room for improvement. Therefore, this will be added as further enhancement in the upcoming stories.

6. REFERENCES

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- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Convolutional neural network
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- https://www.kaggle.com
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TO IDENTIFY IF THE PERSON HAS PNEUMONIA			
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TO IDENTIFY IF THE PERSON HAS PNEUMONIA				
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TO IDENTIFY IF THE PERSON HAS PNEUMONIA			
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