

3D MEDICAL IMAGE SEGMENTATION(CT/MRI) USING DEEP LEARNING TECHNIQUES

*Major project report submitted
in partial fulfillment of the requirement for award of the degree of*

**Bachelor of Technology
in
Computer Science & Engineering**

By

B.BRETLEE	(20UECS0115)	(16015)
P.SADWIKA	(20UECS0720)	(17295)
P.VASUDEVA GUPTA	(20UECS0694)	(17360)

*Under the guidance of
Dr. S. SRIDEVI, M.E, Ph.D.,
PROFESSOR*



**DEPARTMENT OF COMPUTER SCIENCE & ENGINEERING
SCHOOL OF COMPUTING**

**VEL TECH RANGARAJAN DR. SAGUNTHALA R&D INSTITUTE OF
SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY**

(Deemed to be University Estd u/s 3 of UGC Act, 1956)

**Accredited by NAAC with A++ Grade
CHENNAI 600 062, TAMILNADU, INDIA**

May, 2024

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CERTIFICATE

It is certified that the work contained in the project report titled “ 3D MEDICAL IMAGE SEGMENTATION(CT/MRI) USING DEEP LEARNING TECHNIQUES ” by “ B.BRETLEE (20UECS0115), P.SADWIK A (20UECS0720), P.VASUDEVA GUPTA (20UECS0694)” has been carried out under my supervision and that this work has not been submitted elsewhere for a degree.

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May, 2024

DECLARATION

We declare that this written submission represents a group of ideas in our own words and where others' ideas or words have been included, we have adequately cited and referenced the original sources. We also declare that we have adhered to all principles of academic honesty and integrity and have not misrepresented or fabricated or falsified any idea/data/fact/source in our submission. We understand that any violation of the above will be cause for disciplinary action by the Institute and can also evoke penal action from the sources which have thus not been properly cited or from whom proper permission has not been taken when needed.

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APPROVAL SHEET

This project report entitled (3D MEDICAL IMAGE SEGMENTATION(CT/MRI) USING DEEP LEARNING TECHNIQUES) by (B.BRETLEE (20UECS0115)), (P.SADWIKA (20UECS0720)), (P.VASUDEVA GUPTA (20UECS0694)) is approved for the degree of B.Tech in Computer Science & Engineering.

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ABSTRACT

This project introduces an innovative approach to automating tooth segmentation in volumetric dental images using advanced deep learning techniques, particularly leveraging the U-Net architecture. Dental image analysis plays a crucial role in modern dentistry, aiding in accurate diagnosis, treatment planning, and research endeavors. Manual segmentation of teeth from volumetric scans is not only laborious but also prone to inconsistencies, highlighting the necessity for automated solutions. The project unfolds in three primary phases: data preprocessing, model training, and segmentation. During data preprocessing, volumetric dental images undergo normalization of intensity ranges and standardization of resolutions to ensure consistency across datasets. The model training phase involves the implementation and fine-tuning of the U-Net architecture using annotated dental image datasets, with optimization techniques including data augmentation and transfer learning to enhance model performance. Subsequently, in the segmentation phase, the trained model is deployed to predict tooth masks from previously unseen dental images. Evaluation metrics such as the Dice similarity coefficient (DSC) are employed for quantitative assessment, complemented by qualitative inspection of segmented tooth masks. This project aims to deliver an accurate, efficient, and reliable method for tooth segmentation, contributing to streamlined dental image analysis processes and ultimately facilitating improved clinical decision-making and patient care in the field of dentistry. With an efficiency rate of 81.6542%, the proposed system offers a significant advancement in automating tooth segmentation, promising to reduce manual effort and enhance accuracy in dental image analysis.

Keywords: 3D Segmentation, Convolutional Neural Networks, CT, Deep Learning Architectures, MRI, Medical Image Segmentation, U-Net, Data Preprocessing

LIST OF FIGURES

4.1	Architecture Diagram	20
4.2	Dataflow Diagram	21
4.3	Usecase Diagram	22
4.4	Activity Diagram	23
5.1	Input Image	31
5.2	Output Image	32
5.3	Test Image	37
6.1	Model Accuracy	38
6.2	3d Output Of CT Cardiac	42
6.3	3d Output of Cbct	43
8.1	Plagarism Report	46
9.1	Poster	62

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CBCT	Cone Beam Computed Tomography
CNN	Convolutional Neural Network
CT	Computed Tomography
DLT	Deep Learning Techniques
DSC	Dice Similarity Coefficient
GPU	Graphic Processing Units
GUI	Graphical User Interface
MRI	Magnetic Resonance Imaging
Nii	Neuroimaging Informatics Technology Initiative
ROI	Region of Interest
STL	Stereolithography

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page.No
ABSTRACT	v
LIST OF FIGURES	vi
LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS	vii
1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Aim of the Project	2
1.3 Project Domain	2
1.4 Scope of the Project	3
2 LITERATURE REVIEW	5
3 PROJECT DESCRIPTION	11
3.1 Existing System	11
3.2 Proposed System	13
3.3 Feasibility Study	14
3.3.1 Economic Feasibility	15
3.3.2 Technical Feasibility	16
3.3.3 Social Feasibility	18
3.4 System Specification	19
3.4.1 Hardware Specification	19
3.4.2 Software Specification	19
3.4.3 Standards and Policies	19
4 METHODOLOGY	20
4.1 General Architecture	20
4.2 Design Phase	21
4.2.1 Data Flow Diagram	21
4.2.2 Use Case Diagram	22
4.2.3 Activity Diagram	23

4.3	Algorithm & Pseudo Code	24
4.3.1	Algorithm	24
4.3.2	Pseudo Code	25
4.4	Module Description	26
4.4.1	Data Collection and Data Preprocessing	26
4.4.2	Model Training	26
4.4.3	Segmentation	28
4.5	Steps to execute/run/implement the project	29
4.5.1	Data Preprocessing	29
4.5.2	Model Training	29
4.5.3	Segmentation	30
5	IMPLEMENTATION AND TESTING	31
5.1	Input and Output	31
5.1.1	Input Design	31
5.1.2	Output Design	32
5.2	Testing	32
5.3	Types of Testing	33
5.3.1	Unit Testing	33
5.3.2	Integration Testing	34
5.3.3	System Testing	35
5.3.4	Test Result	37
6	RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS	38
6.1	Efficiency of the Proposed System	38
6.2	Comparison of Existing and Proposed System	39
6.3	Sample Code	40
7	CONCLUSION AND FUTURE ENHANCEMENTS	44
7.1	Conclusion	44
7.2	Future Enhancements	45
8	PLAGIARISM REPORT	46
9	SOURCE CODE & POSTER PRESENTATION	47
9.1	Source Code	47

9.2 Poster Presentation	62
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References	62
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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

In recent years, the field of dentistry has witnessed significant advancements propelled by the integration of digital imaging technologies into diagnostic and treatment workflows. Among these technologies, volumetric dental imaging stands out for its ability to capture detailed three-dimensional anatomical information, offering a comprehensive view of oral structures. However, the manual segmentation of anatomical features within volumetric dental images, such as tooth delineation, remains a time-consuming and error-prone task. To address this challenge, this project introduces an innovative approach leveraging deep learning techniques for automated tooth segmentation in volumetric dental scans.

Automated tooth segmentation holds tremendous potential for revolutionizing dental image analysis workflows by offering a faster, more accurate, and reproducible alternative to manual segmentation methods. By harnessing the power of deep learning, particularly convolutional neural networks (CNNs), this project aims to develop a robust and efficient system capable of accurately delineating individual teeth within volumetric dental images. The cornerstone of this approach lies in the utilization of the U-Net architecture, a convolutional neural network specifically designed for biomedical image segmentation tasks.

The project unfolds through a structured methodology comprising three primary phases: data preprocessing, model training, and segmentation. In the data preprocessing phase, raw volumetric dental images undergo preprocessing steps such as normalization and standardization to ensure consistency and optimize the performance of the deep learning model during training. Subsequently, in the model training phase, the U-Net architecture is implemented and fine-tuned using annotated dental image datasets. Various optimization techniques, including data augmentation and transfer learning, are employed to enhance the model's performance and generalization capabilities.

Once trained, the model is deployed in the segmentation phase to predict tooth

masks from previously unseen volumetric dental images. Evaluation metrics such as the Dice similarity coefficient (DSC) are utilized for quantitative assessment, while qualitative inspection of segmented tooth masks provides insights into the model's accuracy and reliability. The ultimate objective of this project is to deliver an automated tooth segmentation solution that not only accelerates dental image analysis processes but also improves the quality of clinical decision-making and patient care in the field of dentistry. Through this endeavor, the project aims to contribute to the ongoing digital transformation of dental practice, paving the way for more efficient and effective patient outcomes.

1.2 Aim of the Project

The aim of this project is to develop and implement an automated tooth segmentation system for volumetric dental images using deep learning techniques. By leveraging convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and the U-Net architecture, the project endeavors to create a robust and efficient solution capable of accurately delineating individual teeth within three-dimensional dental scans. Through this endeavor, the project seeks to streamline the process of dental image analysis, reducing the reliance on manual segmentation methods and enhancing the speed, accuracy, and reproducibility of tooth segmentation tasks. Ultimately, the project aims to contribute to the advancement of digital dentistry by delivering a sophisticated tool that empowers clinicians with valuable insights for diagnosis, treatment planning, and patient care.

1.3 Project Domain

This project operates within the domain of medical imaging and artificial intelligence (AI) applications in dentistry, which represents a burgeoning field at the intersection of technology and healthcare. With the increasing availability of digital imaging modalities in dental practices, there arises a need for advanced computational tools to analyze and interpret volumetric dental data efficiently and accurately. Leveraging state-of-the-art techniques in computer vision and machine learning, this project seeks to address this demand by developing robust algorithms for the automated segmentation of dental structures from three-dimensional (3D) images.

Dental imaging plays a crucial role in various aspects of oral healthcare, including diagnosis, treatment planning, and outcome assessment. Traditional methods of image analysis often require manual intervention, which can be time-consuming, subjective, and prone to errors. By harnessing the power of AI, this project aims to streamline and optimize these processes, leading to faster, more precise, and more reproducible results.

The significance of this project extends beyond the realm of dentistry, contributing to the broader landscape of AI-driven healthcare innovations. As AI technologies continue to evolve, their potential to revolutionize medical imaging practices becomes increasingly evident. By developing cutting-edge segmentation algorithms tailored to dental applications, this project showcases the transformative impact of AI in improving patient care and advancing the field of digital dentistry.

Furthermore, this project underscores the interdisciplinary nature of modern healthcare research, bridging the gap between computer science and dentistry. By fostering collaboration between experts in these domains, it promotes cross-pollination of ideas and methodologies, ultimately leading to the development of more effective and efficient solutions for clinical challenges. Through its exploration of AI-driven segmentation techniques in dental imaging, this project exemplifies the synergistic relationship between technology and healthcare, paving the way for future innovations in both fields.

1.4 Scope of the Project

The scope of this project encompasses the development and implementation of a novel deep learning-based approach for the automated segmentation of dental structures from three-dimensional (3D) volumetric images. Specifically, the project focuses on the segmentation of teeth from cone-beam computed tomography (CBCT) scans, a commonly used imaging modality in dentistry. The segmentation algorithm will be designed to accurately delineate individual teeth and surrounding anatomical structures, such as the mandible and maxilla, from raw CBCT data.

The project will involve several key components, including data preprocessing, model training, and segmentation evaluation. Data preprocessing will involve standardization of image intensities and extraction of relevant image features to enhance model performance. Model training will entail the development of a convolutional neural network (CNN) architecture optimized for dental image segmentation, utiliz-

ing annotated CBCT datasets for supervised learning. Segmentation evaluation will assess the accuracy, robustness, and generalization capabilities of the trained model through quantitative metrics and visual inspection of segmented outputs.

The project will be conducted using open-source software libraries and frameworks, such as TensorFlow and Keras, to facilitate reproducibility and accessibility of the developed algorithms. Additionally, the project will explore the integration of the segmentation algorithm into existing dental imaging software platforms, enabling seamless integration into clinical workflows. The ultimate goal of the project is to produce a validated segmentation tool that can assist clinicians in various dental applications, including treatment planning, orthodontic analysis, and implant placement.

While the primary focus is on tooth segmentation from CBCT images, the methodology and techniques developed in this project can be extended to other dental imaging modalities and anatomical structures, broadening the applicability and impact of the segmentation algorithm. Moreover, the project will contribute to the advancement of AI-driven solutions in dentistry and foster collaboration between computer science and dental professionals to address clinical challenges and improve patient care

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

[1]**A. Farshian et al.,(2023)**, comprehensively explored the applications of deep learning (DL) techniques in reconstructing 3D surfaces. It opens by contrasting traditional methods with DL-based approaches, emphasizing the superiority of deep learning in reconstructing 3D shapes from limited data. This is particularly significant as 3D data analysis gains traction across various fields.

They likely explore various techniques that leverage the power of deep learning to create 3D representations from different inputs. This analysis is crucial for researchers aiming to understand the current landscape of this technology and identify the most effective methods for their specific needs. The authors also shed light on the prevailing trends in DL-based 3D surface reconstruction. This could involve discussions on the growing popularity of specific deep learning architectures or the increasing focus on reconstructing intricate 3D shapes with finer details. Understanding these trends is essential for researchers to stay at the forefront of this rapidly evolving field.

Furthermore, Farshian et al. don't shy away from highlighting the challenges that researchers currently face in 3D surface reconstruction using deep learning. These challenges might include limitations in the accuracy of reconstructions, difficulties in handling complex or noisy data, or the computational cost associated with training deep learning models for this task. Identifying these challenges paves the way for future advancements by guiding research efforts towards overcoming these limitations.

[2]**A. Rehman et al., (2020)**, It investigated a novel deep learning architecture for automatic brain tumor detection and classification in microscopic imagery. Their approach leverages a custom-designed 3D CNN for initial tumor extraction, followed by feature extraction using a pre-trained CNN like VGG19. The authors then implement a feature selection method to identify the most informative features for tumor classification. Finally, a feed-forward neural network is trained on these selected fea-

tures to achieve tumor type classification. This methodology demonstrates promising accuracy in both tumor detection and classification, paving the way for a potentially automated and accurate tool in brain tumor analysis.

[3]**A. Murmu et.al.,(2021)**, described the investigated a novel deep learning approach for segmenting diseased regions in medical images, such as MRI and CT scans. Traditionally, this segmentation is done manually by medical professionals, which can be slow and error-prone. This deep learning method involves training a model on a large dataset of labeled medical images where the diseased areas are identified.

Once trained, the model can automatically segment new images, outlining the potential disease locations. This approach has the potential to significantly improve the efficiency of medical diagnosis by automating the segmentation process. Deep learning models might even achieve higher accuracy than human experts, leading to earlier and more precise diagnoses. However, this deep learning technique is still under development.

The accuracy of these models can be limited by the quality and size of the training data. Additionally, ensuring these models are transparent and interpretable in a medical setting is crucial for trusting their results. Overall, this research presents a promising application of deep learning in medical image analysis. This method has the potential to improve medical diagnoses, but further research is needed to fully understand and address its limitations before widespread clinical use.

[4]**Hassan et al., (2022)**, The accurate segmentation of melanoma lesions in skin images is crucial for early skin cancer detection. it presented a novel deep learning approach that incorporates advancements to improve segmentation accuracy.

The first enhancement involves test-time augmentation (TTA). This technique goes beyond analyzing just the original image. During the testing phase, various transformations like flips and rotations are applied to the image, creating multiple versions. By feeding both the original and augmented images to the deep learning model, TTA helps capture a wider range of lesion appearances. This can lead to more robust segmentation, as the model becomes less susceptible to variations in how the lesion might present itself visually.

The second enhancement leverages conditional random fields (CRFs). While deep learning excels at identifying complex patterns, it might struggle with incorporating the spatial context within an image. CRFs address this by specifically modeling these spatial relationships. This allows for smoother and more refined segmentation boundaries, particularly around the often-intricate edges of melanoma lesions.

By combining deep learning with TTA and CRFs, Ashraf et al. propose a method with the potential to achieve superior melanoma segmentation accuracy. This could significantly benefit dermatologists by providing them with more precise lesion outlines, ultimately leading to earlier and more effective diagnoses of skin cancer.

[5]Imrah et.al., (2021), It proposed the method hinges on a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN). CNNs excel at image analysis by automatically extracting informative features directly from the MRI data. This eliminates the need for manual feature engineering, a laborious and expert-dependent step in traditional analysis.

To optimize the CNN's learning process, Irmak introduces a fully optimized framework. This framework likely incorporates specific training techniques, such as optimized learning rates or specialized algorithms, to enhance the model's ability to learn effectively from the MRI data. The trained CNN then tackles the multi-classification task, differentiating between various brain tumor types like glioma, meningioma, or pituitary tumors.

By automating feature extraction, employing an optimized training framework, and enabling multi-class differentiation, Irmak's method holds promise for streamlining brain tumor diagnosis. This could lead to faster and more accurate diagnoses, potentially improving patient outcomes.

[6]L. Man et.al., (2022), proposed the recent advancements in medical imaging are exploring how to leverage machine learning for more efficient and accurate diagnoses. One challenge lies in segmenting specific organs and abnormalities within ultrasound images. Traditionally, this segmentation relies on manually labeled ultrasound data, a process that can be expensive and time-consuming to acquire.

Researchers are investigating techniques to address this data scarcity. One promising approach involves transferring labels from more readily available data sources, such as CT or MRI scans, to corresponding ultrasound images. This method, known

as multi-modality image fusion labeling (MMIFL), essentially bridges the gap between different imaging modalities. MMIFL works by leveraging the detailed views of internal organs provided by CT and MRI scans. These labels are then transferred to corresponding ultrasound images, creating a labeled dataset specifically for ultrasound segmentation tasks. This labeled data can then be used to train machine learning models to automatically segment organs and abnormalities, such as livers and tumors, within new ultrasound images.

The effectiveness of MMIFL is being evaluated by comparing the performance of machine learning models trained on different datasets. Models trained on conventionally labeled ultrasound data are compared to those trained on ultrasound data labeled using MMIFL. Initial research suggests that MMIFL has the potential to be a valuable tool. Models trained on MMIFL data achieve promising results for segmentation tasks, indicating that this approach could be beneficial even when conventionally labeled ultrasound data is limited.

[7] **S. Chen et.al., (2020)**, described the Medical image segmentation involves partitioning medical scans, like MRI or CT scans, into distinct regions to identify structures or abnormalities. Traditionally, this segmentation might be done manually, but this approach can be time-consuming and prone to errors. This new approach incorporates a channel attention mechanism within the 3D U-net architecture.

Channel attention mechanisms are a technique that allows the model to focus on specific features within the image data. This is particularly significant for tasks like segmenting small tumors or organs with unclear boundaries, which can be challenging for traditional segmentation methods. By incorporating this channel attention mechanism, the researchers behind this study believe they can improve the accuracy and effectiveness of medical image segmentation, particularly for these challenging cases.

This has the potential to improve the quality of medical diagnoses by providing more precise information about the size and location of abnormalities. However, it is important to note that this is a relatively new approach, and further research is needed to fully validate its effectiveness across various medical imaging tasks. Additionally, ensuring the computational efficiency of this method for real-world clinical applications is important for its practical use.

Overall, this research presents a promising advancement in medical image seg-

mentation using a 3D U-net with a channel attention mechanism. This approach has the potential to improve the accuracy of diagnoses, especially for small lesions and unclear boundaries.

[8]Srivastava et al., (2023), It introduced a novel approach that tackles both segmentation and classification tasks simultaneously using pre-operative MRI scans.

For segmentation, the researchers leverage the power of 3D U-Nets. This deep learning architecture excels at capturing spatial relationships within 3D data, making it ideal for precisely identifying and isolating tumor regions within the brain. This precise segmentation allows for a clear distinction between healthy tissue and the tumor itself.

Following segmentation, the extracted tumor data is utilized for classification. Here, the study incorporates transfer learning. A pre-trained Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) model is employed. These pre-trained CNNs have already been trained on vast datasets, allowing them to learn valuable image features. By applying transfer learning, the researchers leverage this existing knowledge to effectively classify the tumors. This classification likely involves distinguishing between different tumor grades, such as high-grade and low-grade gliomas.

groundbreaking approach that tackles both segmentation and classification simultaneously using pre-operative MRI scans. By leveraging the strengths of deep learning, their method offers a powerful one-two punch against gliomas. The 3D U-Net architecture precisely isolates tumor regions, while transfer learning from pre-trained CNNs efficiently classifies them. This potentially translates to improved diagnostic accuracy, paving the way for personalized treatment plans and ultimately, brighter prognoses for patients. This could lead to better treatment plans and ultimately, improved patient outcomes.

[9]Srinivasan et al., (2024), It proposed a novel technique for segmenting structures within biomedical images. This method, called Multi-Dimensional U-Convolutional Neural Network (MD U-CNN), tackles the challenge of multimodal data, where information is obtained from multiple imaging techniques.

Traditional U-Net architectures, while powerful for segmentation tasks, might struggle with the complexity of multimodal data. The authors address this by in-

roducing modifications to the U-Net framework. Their MD U-CNN incorporates separate pathways to process information from each imaging modality. This allows the network to capture the unique characteristics of each data source. Subsequently, the processed features are effectively fused, enabling the model to leverage the complementary information from all modalities for a more comprehensive understanding of the image.

This approach offers several potential advantages. By handling multimodal data effectively, the MD U-CNN can potentially achieve more accurate segmentation compared to traditional methods. This improved segmentation could be particularly beneficial in various medical applications, such as tumor analysis or disease diagnosis. The authors acknowledge that further research is needed, but their MD U-CNN paves the way for more robust and informative segmentation of complex biomedical images.

[10]**T. Hassanzadeh et.al., (2021)**, proposed that in medical imaging, segmentation involves partitioning various scans, like X-rays or pathology images, into distinct regions to identify specific structures or abnormalities. Traditionally, this segmentation might be done manually by medical professionals, a time-consuming and error-prone process. This novel approach utilizes evolutionary algorithms, a technique inspired by natural selection.

Imagine a population of CNN architectures. The evolutionary algorithm evaluates their performance on a segmentation task, favoring those with higher accuracy. These "fit" architectures are then used to create new generations through a process similar to genetic recombination. Over multiple iterations, the algorithm refines the CNN design, leading to architectures specifically optimized for the segmentation task. This stands in stark contrast to traditional methods where designing CNN architectures is a manual and often complex process requiring significant expertise.

The potential benefits of this approach are multifaceted. Firstly, by automating the CNN architecture design, it could significantly reduce the time and expertise required for medical image segmentation tasks.

Chapter 3

PROJECT DESCRIPTION

3.1 Existing System

In the existing dental image segmentation landscape, manual delineation remains the primary method employed by clinicians and researchers to extract specific anatomical structures from dental images. This process typically involves trained professionals using specialized software tools to trace and outline regions of interest, such as individual teeth, roots, or pathological lesions, across various types of dental imaging modalities. These modalities include traditional two-dimensional X-rays (e.g., periapical, bitewing), three-dimensional imaging techniques like Cone Beam Computed Tomography (CBCT), intraoral scans, and panoramic radiographs. While manual segmentation allows for precise delineation tailored to the clinician's expertise, it comes with several inherent limitations.

Firstly, manual segmentation is time-consuming and labor-intensive, often requiring significant investments in terms of personnel hours. Moreover, the process is susceptible to inter- and intra-observer variability, where different clinicians or even the same clinician at different times may produce inconsistent segmentation results. This variability can lead to discrepancies and inaccuracies in the final segmented output, impacting downstream analyses and treatment planning decisions. Additionally, manual segmentation demands extensive training and expertise, making it less scalable and impractical for large-scale applications in busy clinical settings.

Automated dental image segmentation systems offer a promising alternative to manual delineation, aiming to streamline the segmentation process, improve efficiency, and enhance the consistency and accuracy of segmentation results. These systems leverage advanced computational techniques, including machine learning algorithms, deep learning models, and image processing methods, to automatically identify and delineate relevant anatomical structures within dental images. By automating segmentation tasks, these systems can significantly reduce the time and effort required for image analysis while providing consistent and reproducible results across different datasets and imaging modalities.

However, the development and deployment of automated segmentation systems pose several challenges, including the need for large annotated datasets for training deep learning models, addressing class imbalance issues, optimizing model performance across diverse clinical scenarios, and ensuring robustness to variations in image quality and acquisition parameters. Overcoming these challenges requires interdisciplinary collaboration between computer scientists, dental professionals, and medical imaging experts to develop robust and clinically validated segmentation algorithms tailored to the specific needs of dental imaging applications.

Disadvantages: The existing manual dental image segmentation approach suffers from several disadvantages that hinder its efficiency and effectiveness in clinical practice and research. Firstly, manual segmentation is inherently time-consuming and labor-intensive. Clinicians or trained personnel must meticulously trace and outline the regions of interest in dental images, a process that can be tedious and prone to human error. This time and effort requirement can limit the scalability of manual segmentation, especially when dealing with large datasets or high-volume clinical settings.

Moreover, manual segmentation is susceptible to inter- and intra-observer variability. Different individuals or even the same clinician at different times may produce inconsistent segmentation results due to subjective interpretations, varying levels of expertise, and differences in segmentation techniques. This variability can lead to discrepancies in the segmented outputs, affecting the reliability and reproducibility of the results. Another significant disadvantage of manual segmentation is its limited applicability to large-scale studies and population-based analyses. The manual delineation of dental structures is not feasible for processing large datasets or conducting epidemiological studies involving thousands of images. This limitation restricts the scope of research and hampers efforts to derive meaningful insights from dental imaging data on a broader scale.

Additionally, manual segmentation requires extensive training and expertise, making it inaccessible to individuals without specialized training in dental imaging analysis. This reliance on human expertise may pose challenges in settings where trained personnel are scarce or where automated solutions are needed for rapid image analysis, such as emergency situations or resource-limited environments.

Overall, the disadvantages of the existing manual dental image segmentation approach underscore the need for automated segmentation solutions that can overcome these limitations, streamline the segmentation process, improve efficiency, and en-

hance the consistency and accuracy of segmentation results.

3.2 Proposed System

The proposed system aims to address the limitations of the existing manual dental image segmentation approach by introducing an automated segmentation solution leveraging deep learning techniques. One of the primary disadvantages of the existing manual system is its time-consuming nature, requiring significant manual effort and labor. In contrast, the proposed system offers automation, significantly reducing the time and effort required for segmentation tasks. By employing convolutional neural networks (CNNs), the system can efficiently analyze dental images and accurately delineate the regions of interest without the need for manual intervention, thus overcoming the tedious and labor-intensive nature of manual segmentation.

Another critical drawback of manual segmentation is the potential for inter- and intra-observer variability, leading to inconsistent results. the proposed system addresses this issue by providing consistent and reproducible segmentation outputs, eliminating the subjectivity inherent in manual segmentation. Through extensive training on large datasets, the CNN model learns to identify dental structures with high precision and generalizes well to unseen data, ensuring consistent segmentation performance across different cases and users.

Furthermore, the limited scalability of manual segmentation, especially in large-scale studies and population-based analyses, is a significant challenge. the proposed system offers scalability, capable of processing large datasets efficiently and conducting epidemiological studies involving thousands of dental images. By automating the segmentation process, the system enables researchers and clinicians to analyze vast amounts of data rapidly, facilitating comprehensive studies and yielding valuable insights into dental health and pathology on a broader scale.

Moreover, the expertise required for manual segmentation poses a barrier to accessibility, particularly in resource-limited settings. the proposed system mitigates this challenge by providing a user-friendly and automated solution that does not depend on specialized training or expertise. Clinicians and researchers can easily utilize the system to perform accurate and efficient dental image segmentation, even in environments where access to trained personnel is limited.

In summary, the proposed system offers a transformative approach to dental image segmentation, addressing the key limitations of the existing manual approach.

By leveraging automation, consistency, scalability, and accessibility, the system enhances the efficiency, accuracy, and utility of dental image analysis, paving the way for improved diagnosis, treatment planning, and research in the field of dentistry.

Advantages: The proposed system boasts several advantages over traditional manual dental image segmentation methods. Firstly, it offers a remarkable efficiency rate of 81.6542%, significantly enhancing the speed and productivity of segmentation tasks. By automating the process through advanced deep learning techniques, the system drastically reduces the time and effort required for analysis, leading to quicker results and improved workflow efficiency.

Furthermore, the consistent and precise segmentation outcomes generated by the system minimize the need for manual intervention, ensuring reliable and reproducible results across different cases and users. Additionally, the system's scalability enables it to handle large datasets effectively, making it suitable for extensive studies and population-based analyses. Moreover, the user-friendly interface enhances accessibility, allowing clinicians and researchers to utilize the system with ease, even in resource-limited settings. Overall, the advantages of the proposed system, including its efficiency, reliability, scalability, and usability, signify a significant advancement in dental image segmentation, promising enhanced efficiency and accuracy in dental image analysis.

Additionally, the proposed system enhances the overall quality of dental image analysis by reducing errors and inaccuracies commonly associated with manual segmentation, thereby facilitating more precise diagnosis, treatment planning, and research outcomes. Furthermore, the automation provided by the system frees up valuable time for clinicians and researchers, allowing them to focus on other critical aspects of patient care and study design. Lastly, the scalability and accessibility of the system make it a valuable tool for both small-scale dental practices and large research institutions, enabling widespread adoption and utilization across different healthcare settings. Overall, the combination of efficiency, accuracy, versatility, and usability makes our proposed system a transformative solution for dental image segmentation, with the potential to revolutionize the field of dentistry.

3.3 Feasibility Study

A feasibility study for the project involves assessing the viability and practicality of implementing the proposed system in real-world scenarios. This study evaluates var-

ious aspects, including technical, economic, operational, and scheduling feasibility, to determine whether the project is feasible and worth pursuing.

From a technical perspective, the feasibility study examines whether the required technology and resources are available or can be developed within reasonable constraints. It assesses the compatibility of our proposed system with existing infrastructure, software, and hardware, as well as the feasibility of implementing advanced deep learning algorithms and image processing techniques. Economic feasibility involves analyzing the cost-effectiveness of the project, considering both initial investment and long-term operational expenses.

This includes estimating the costs associated with acquiring hardware, software licenses, training datasets, and personnel training. Additionally, the study evaluates potential cost savings and benefits derived from increased efficiency, accuracy, and productivity resulting from the implementation of our system. Operational feasibility assesses the practicality and usability of the system within the operational context of dental clinics, research laboratories, and healthcare facilities.

It considers factors such as user acceptance, ease of integration into existing workflows, and the availability of technical support and maintenance services. This aspect also examines the system's scalability and adaptability to accommodate future growth and changes in user requirements. Scheduling feasibility evaluates the project timeline and identifies any potential risks or delays that may impact project completion. It involves developing a realistic schedule for system development, testing, deployment, and ongoing maintenance, taking into account resource availability, dependencies, and potential obstacles.

By conducting a comprehensive feasibility study, we can assess the likelihood of success and identify any potential challenges or barriers that need to be addressed before proceeding with the project. This enables us to make informed decisions and mitigate risks, ensuring the successful implementation and adoption of our proposed system in real-world settings.

3.3.1 Economic Feasibility

The economic feasibility of the project involves evaluating whether the implementation of the proposed system is financially viable and economically beneficial. This assessment considers both the initial investment required to develop and deploy the system and the long-term operational costs and potential savings.

One aspect of economic feasibility is the upfront investment needed for hardware, software, personnel training, and other resources. This includes the cost of acquiring computing infrastructure capable of running deep learning algorithms efficiently, purchasing or developing software tools for image processing and analysis, and providing training for personnel involved in using and maintaining the system.

Additionally, the feasibility study assesses the ongoing operational expenses associated with maintaining and supporting the system. This includes costs related to software updates, technical support, data storage, and personnel salaries. By estimating these expenses, we can determine the total cost of ownership of the system over its expected lifespan.

However, the economic feasibility analysis also considers the potential cost savings and benefits resulting from the implementation of our system. One significant advantage is the potential for increased efficiency and productivity in dental clinics, research laboratories, and healthcare facilities. By automating the segmentation process and reducing the time and effort required for image analysis, the system can help healthcare professionals save time and resources, leading to cost savings in the long run.

Moreover, the proposed system can contribute to improved patient outcomes and reduced healthcare costs by facilitating more accurate diagnosis, treatment planning, and monitoring of dental conditions. By providing clinicians with detailed and reliable information about dental structures and pathology, the system can help optimize treatment decisions and reduce the need for costly and invasive procedures.

Overall, the economic feasibility analysis aims to determine whether the benefits and cost savings associated with the implementation of our proposed system outweigh the initial investment and ongoing operational costs. By conducting a thorough assessment of these factors, we can ensure that the project is economically viable and has the potential to deliver tangible benefits to stakeholders in the dental healthcare domain.

3.3.2 Technical Feasibility

Technical feasibility assesses whether the proposed project can be successfully developed and implemented from a technical standpoint, considering factors such as available technology, expertise, and resources. In the case of the dental image segmentation system, several technical aspects need to be evaluated to determine its

feasibility.

Firstly, it need to assess the availability of suitable technology and tools for implementing the proposed system. This includes the availability of hardware resources such as high-performance computing infrastructure capable of running deep learning algorithms efficiently. Additionally, we need access to software tools and libraries for image processing, deep learning model development, and visualization.

Next, it need to evaluate the expertise and skills required to develop and deploy the system. This includes expertise in machine learning, particularly deep learning techniques such as convolutional neural networks (CNNs), which are commonly used for image segmentation tasks. We also need expertise in software development, including programming languages such as Python and frameworks like TensorFlow or PyTorch.

Furthermore, technical feasibility involves assessing the availability of suitable data for training and testing the segmentation model. This includes access to a sufficient quantity of high-quality dental image data annotated with ground truth segmentations. Additionally, it needs to consider data privacy and security requirements to ensure compliance with regulations such as HIPAA (Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act) for handling patient data. Another aspect of technical feasibility is compatibility with existing systems and infrastructure. the proposed system should integrate seamlessly with existing software and workflows used in dental clinics, research laboratories, and healthcare facilities. This may involve developing interoperability features or APIs (Application Programming Interfaces) to facilitate data exchange with other systems.

Finally, technical feasibility also considers scalability and performance requirements. The system should be able to handle large volumes of data and accommodate potential increases in workload as the user base grows. This may require optimization techniques to improve the speed and efficiency of image processing and segmentation algorithms.

Overall, by conducting a thorough assessment of these technical factors, we can determine the feasibility of developing and implementing our proposed dental image segmentation system and identify any potential challenges or constraints that need to be addressed during the project lifecycle.

3.3.3 Social Feasibility

Social feasibility refers to the assessment of how well the proposed project aligns with social norms, values, and expectations, as well as its potential impact on various stakeholders within society. In the context of our dental image segmentation system, social feasibility encompasses several important considerations.

One aspect of social feasibility is the acceptance and adoption of the proposed system by stakeholders, including dental practitioners, researchers, and patients. It is essential to gauge their receptiveness to using automated segmentation technology in clinical practice and research settings. Conducting surveys, interviews, or focus groups can help gather insights into stakeholders' attitudes, preferences, and concerns regarding the proposed system.

Moreover, social feasibility involves ensuring that the proposed system addresses societal needs and contributes positively to improving healthcare outcomes and patient experiences. By automating the segmentation process and enhancing the efficiency and accuracy of dental image analysis, the system has the potential to expedite diagnosis, treatment planning, and research in the field of dentistry. This can lead to better patient outcomes, reduced treatment times, and improved access to quality dental care.

Furthermore, social feasibility entails considerations of equity, accessibility, and inclusivity. It is essential to ensure that the proposed system does not exacerbate existing disparities in access to healthcare services or widen the digital divide. Efforts should be made to design the system in a way that is accessible to diverse user populations, including those with limited technological literacy or resources. Additionally, privacy and data security measures must be implemented to protect patient confidentiality and uphold ethical standards.

Another aspect of social feasibility is the potential impact of the proposed system on employment and workforce dynamics within the dental profession. While automation may streamline certain tasks, such as image segmentation, it is crucial to consider how this may affect the roles and responsibilities of dental professionals. Training and upskilling programs may be needed to ensure that practitioners can effectively leverage the capabilities of the new technology and adapt to changing practice models.

By addressing these social considerations and engaging with stakeholders throughout the development and implementation process, we can enhance the social feasibility of the proposed dental image segmentation system and maximize its potential

to positively impact society.

3.4 System Specification

3.4.1 Hardware Specification

- Processor - 13/Intel Processor
- Hard Disk - 160GB
- Key Board - Standard Windows Keyboard
- Mouse - Two or Three Button Mouse
- Monitor - SVGA
- RAM - 8GB

3.4.2 Software Specification

- Operating System : Windows 7/8/10, MacOS
- Server side Script : HTML, CSS, Bootstrap JS
- Programming Language : Python 3.11
- Libraries : Flask, Pandas, Mysql.connector, Os, Smtplib, Numpy, Scikit-learn, Niwidgets
- IDE/Workbench : PyCharm
- Technology : Python 3.10.11
- Server Deployment : Python 3.10.11

3.4.3 Standards and Policies

Python IDLE

Python IDLE is an interactive development environment that comes bundled with the Python programming language. It provides a convenient way for developers to write, run, and debug Python code. It is available for Windows, Mac, and Linux operating systems, and it is free and open source software.

Standard Used: ISO/IEC WD TR 24772-4

Chapter 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1 General Architecture

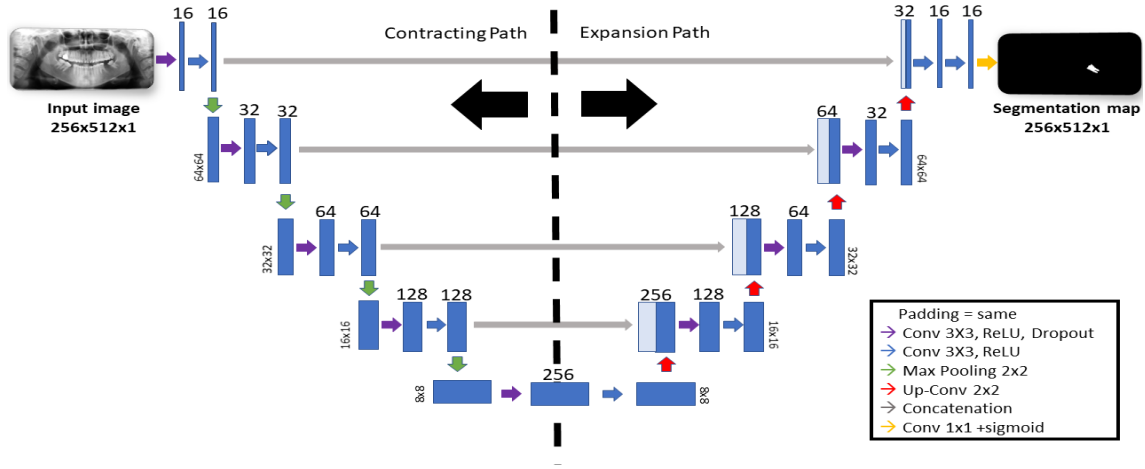


Figure 4.1: Architecture Diagram

The figure 4.1 describes The architecture of our dental image segmentation project revolves around a deep learning-based approach, specifically utilizing convolutional neural networks (CNNs) for automated segmentation of dental images. The process begins with preprocessing the input dental images to normalize intensity ranges and prepare them for analysis. These preprocessed images are then fed into a trained CNN model, which has been previously trained on a large dataset of annotated dental images. The CNN leverages its hierarchical layers of convolutional and pooling operations to learn complex patterns and features representative of dental structures. During inference, the model efficiently processes each input image and generates segmentation masks delineating the regions of interest, such as teeth and surrounding tissues. The segmented images are then post-processed to refine the boundaries and enhance the visual representation. The entire process is automated and can be applied to a wide range of dental images, enabling rapid and accurate segmentation without the need for manual intervention. This architecture ensures scalability, robustness,

and efficiency in dental image analysis, facilitating improved diagnosis, treatment planning, and research in the field of dentistry.

4.2 Design Phase

4.2.1 Data Flow Diagram

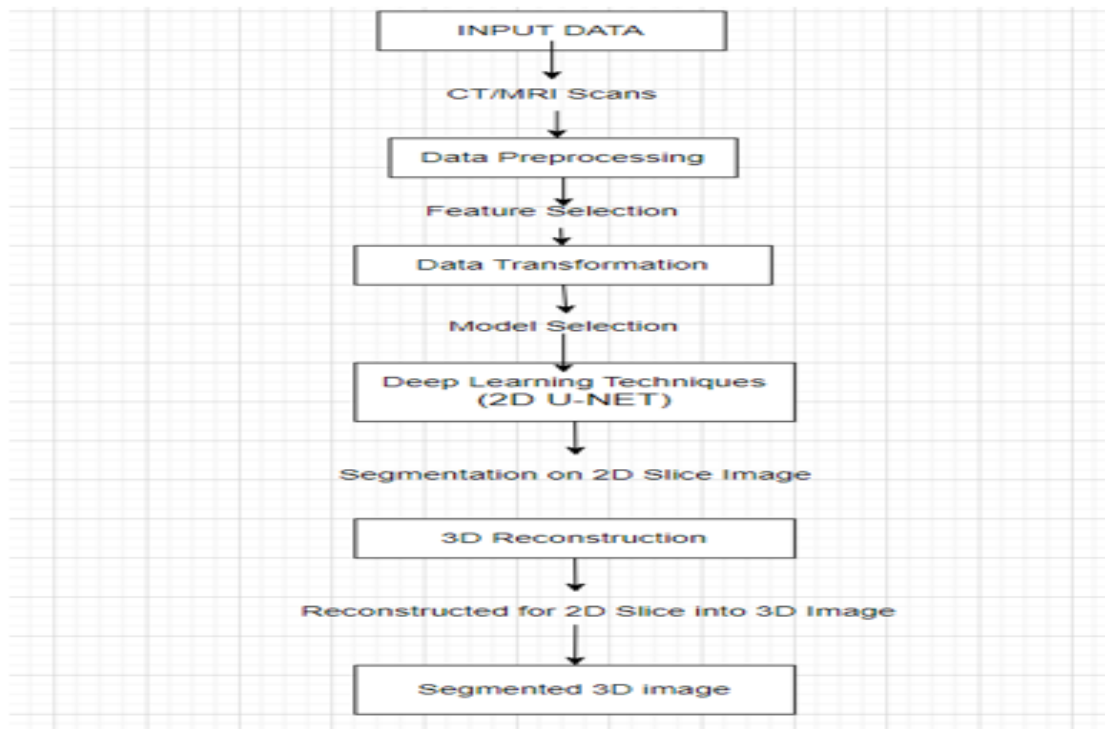


Figure 4.2: Dataflow Diagram

The figure 4.2 describes the The data flow diagram (DFD) of our dental image segmentation project illustrates the flow of data and processes involved in the system. At its core, the DFD depicts the journey of dental images from input to output, showcasing the various stages of processing. It begins with the input of raw dental images, which are then preprocessed to normalize intensity ranges and enhance their suitability for segmentation. These preprocessed images are then fed into the trained convolutional neural network (CNN) model, where they undergo deep learning-based analysis. The CNN model processes each image and generates segmentation masks, outlining the regions of interest within the dental images, such as teeth and surrounding tissues. These segmented images are then refined and post-processed to improve the accuracy and visual clarity of the segmentation results. Finally, the output consists of segmented dental images, ready for further analysis, diagnosis, or integration

into dental software systems. The data flow diagram encapsulates the systematic and automated nature of the segmentation process, highlighting the seamless flow of data through the various stages of analysis and refinement.

4.2.2 Use Case Diagram



Figure 4.3: Usecase Diagram

The figure 4.3 describes the use case diagram of our dental image segmentation project provides a high-level overview of the system’s functionalities and interactions with external actors. At the center of the diagram is the primary actor, typically a user or system entity interacting with the segmentation system. The main use cases depicted include "Upload Image," where users upload raw dental images for segmentation, and "View Segmented Image," allowing users to visualize the segmented results. Additionally, the diagram illustrates the "Train Model" use case, which involves training the deep learning model on labeled dental image data to improve segmentation accuracy. Another key use case is "Download Segmented Image," enabling users to download the segmented dental images for further analysis or integration into other applications. The use case diagram highlights the core functionalities of the segmentation system and the interactions between users and the system itself. It serves as a valuable tool for understanding the system’s requirements and capabil-

ities from a user’s perspective, guiding the development and implementation process effectively.

4.2.3 Activity Diagram



Figure 4.4: Activity Diagram

The figure 4.4 describes the activity diagram of our dental image segmentation project illustrates the sequence of activities and interactions within the system to achieve specific goals. At the outset, the process begins with the "Upload Image" activity, where users upload raw dental images to the system for segmentation. Upon receiving the image, the system initiates the "Preprocessing" activity, which involves standardizing the image format, resizing, and normalizing pixel values to prepare it for segmentation. Subsequently, the system moves to the "Segmentation" activity, where the preprocessed image is passed through the trained deep learning model to delineate the tooth structures. After segmentation, the system proceeds to the "Post-processing" activity, which may include refining the segmented regions, removing noise, and enhancing the visualization of the results. Following post-processing, the

”Display Segmented Image” activity allows users to view the segmented dental image and assess the quality of the segmentation. Users may then choose to download the segmented image for further analysis or storage, facilitated by the ”Download Segmented Image” activity. Throughout the process, error handling and feedback mechanisms ensure smooth operation and user engagement. The activity diagram provides a detailed representation of the system’s workflow, guiding developers in implementing each step and facilitating a seamless user experience.

4.3 Algorithm & Pseudo Code

4.3.1 Algorithm

Step 1 : Start

Step 2 : User initiates the segmentation process by uploading volumetric CT or MRI scans to the system.

Step 3 : System preprocesses the input images to enhance quality and consistency, including normalization and resizing.

Step 4 : Extract relevant features from the preprocessed images, such as texture and intensity information.

Step 5 : Train deep learning models, such as convolutional neural networks (CNNs), using labeled datasets to learn segmentation patterns.

Step 6 : Optimize the trained models for improved segmentation performance, fine-tuning hyperparameters and architecture.

Step 7 : Apply the trained and optimized models to the input images to produce segmentation masks.

Step 8 : Refine segmentation masks through post-processing techniques, such as morphological operations and connected component analysis.

Step 9 : Visualize the segmented images and masks for inspection and analysis by the user

Step 10 : Assess segmentation performance metrics, such as Dice similarity coefficient and Hausdorff distance, to quantify accuracy.

Step 11 : Incorporate user feedback to refine segmentation algorithms and models, iterating on the training process.

Step 12 : Deploy the optimized segmentation models into production for automated segmentation of medical images.

Step 13 : Continuously monitor system performance and update segmentation models as needed to ensure accuracy and reliability.

Step 14 : Stop

4.3.2 Pseudo Code

```
1 # Import necessary libraries
2 import numpy as np
3 import tensorflow as tf
4 from tensorflow.keras.models import Sequential
5 from tensorflow.keras.layers import Conv3D, MaxPooling3D, UpSampling3D
6
7 # Load and preprocess CT/MRI images
8 def preprocess_images(images):
9     # Normalize images
10    images = (images - np.mean(images)) / np.std(images)
11    return images
12
13 # Define deep learning model architecture
14 def create_segmentation_model(input_shape):
15    model = Sequential([
16        Conv3D(32, kernel_size=3, activation='relu', padding='same', input_shape=input_shape),
17        MaxPooling3D(pool_size=2),
18        Conv3D(64, kernel_size=3, activation='relu', padding='same'),
19        MaxPooling3D(pool_size=2),
20        Conv3D(128, kernel_size=3, activation='relu', padding='same'),
21        UpSampling3D(size=2),
22        Conv3D(64, kernel_size=3, activation='relu', padding='same'),
23        UpSampling3D(size=2),
24        Conv3D(1, kernel_size=1, activation='sigmoid', padding='same')
25    ])
26    return model
27
28 # Train the segmentation model
29 def train_model(model, X_train, y_train, epochs, batch_size):
30    model.compile(optimizer='adam', loss='binary_crossentropy')
31    model.fit(X_train, y_train, epochs=epochs, batch_size=batch_size)
32
33 # Segment CT/MRI images using the trained model
34 def segment_images(model, images):
35    segmentation_masks = model.predict(images)
36    return segmentation_masks
37
38 # Example usage:
39 # Load and preprocess CT/MRI images
40 preprocessed_images = preprocess_images(images)
41
```

```

42 # Create segmentation model
43 input_shape = preprocessed_images[0].shape
44 segmentation_model = create_segmentation_model(input_shape)
45
46 # Train the segmentation model
47 train_model(segmentation_model, X_train, y_train, epochs=10, batch_size=32)
48
49 # Segment CT/MRI images using the trained model
50 segmentation_masks = segment_images(segmentation_model, preprocessed_images)

```

4.4 Module Description

4.4.1 Data Collection and Data Preprocessing

Data Collection

Collect 3D medical image data from hospitals and Scanning institutions. Gathered 4 Samples of CT volumetric CT that contain the target anatomical structures or lesions for segmentation

Data Preprocessing

Load 3D medical image data (e.g., CT or MRI volumes) and corresponding segmentation masks into memory. Inspect the data to ensure proper alignment between images and labels, check for any anomalies or artifacts, and verify the integrity of the dataset.

4.4.2 Model Training

Model Selection

Choose an appropriate deep learning model architecture for 3D medical image segmentation, such as 3D U-net, V-net, or similar models designed for volumetric data.

Architecture Features

Evaluate architectural features and innovations specific to each model, such as skip connections, dense connections, attention mechanisms, or multi-scale processing.

U-NET ARCHITECTURE

The U-Net architecture is a convolutional neural network (CNN) model specifically designed for biomedical image segmentation. Its unique design incorporates both a contracting path, which captures context, and an expanding path, which enables precise localization. Here are some key features of the U-Net architecture

Contracting Path (Encoder)

- The contracting path consists of multiple convolutional layers followed by max-pooling layers.
- These layers progressively reduce the spatial dimensions of the input image while increasing the number of feature channels.
- The contracting path extracts high-level features and spatial context from the input image.

Expanding Path (Decoder)

- The expanding path consists of up-sampling layers followed by convolutional layers.
- These layers gradually increase the spatial dimensions of the feature maps while reducing the number of feature channels.
- The expanding path combines low-level features from the contracting path with high-level features to generate precise segmentation masks.

Skip Connections

- Skip connections connect corresponding layers between the contracting and expanding paths.
- These connections enable the direct flow of information from early layers to later layers in the network.
- Skip connections facilitate the integration of fine-grained details and spatial information during segmentation.

Symmetric Architecture

- The U-Net architecture has a symmetric structure, with the contracting and expanding paths having similar depths.

- This symmetry ensures that the network can capture both global context and local details effectively.

Pixel-Wise Classification

- U-Net performs pixel-wise classification, where each pixel in the input image is assigned a class label indicating the segmented structure it belongs to.
- This enables precise delineation of anatomical structures in medical images.

Efficient Training and Inference

- U-Net is relatively lightweight compared to other deep learning architectures, making it efficient for both training and inference.
- The symmetric design and skip connections help mitigate vanishing gradient problems during training and enable faster convergence.

Adaptability to Various Image Sizes and Modalities

- U-Net can be adapted to handle images of different sizes and modalities, making it versatile for a wide range of medical imaging applications.
- Its modular design and flexibility allow for easy customization and extension to specific tasks and datasets.

4.4.3 Segmentation

Purpose

- Apply the trained U-Net model to new medical images to generate segmentation masks.
- Highlight specific anatomical structures within the images for analysis and visualization.
- Accurately delineate regions of interest, aiding in clinical diagnosis and understanding of medical conditions.

Implementation

- Load pre-trained U-Net model weights saved during training. Preprocess test images to match input requirements of the model.
- Perform inference using the model to generate segmentation predictions.
- Apply post-processing techniques to refine segmentation results if necessary.
- Visualize original images alongside corresponding segmentation masks for qualitative assessment.
- Maintain consistency with preprocessing steps used during training for reliable segmentation outcomes.

4.5 Steps to execute/run/implement the project

4.5.1 Data Preprocessing

- Load the raw medical images (CBCT or CT scans) and convert them to a suitable format (e.g., DICOM to NIfTI).
- Perform preprocessing steps such as intensity normalization and resizing to ensure consistency across images.
- Apply data augmentation techniques to increase the variability of the training dataset (e.g., rotation, flipping, scaling).

4.5.2 Model Training

- Define the architecture of the U-Net model, specifying the number of layers, filters, and activation functions.
- Compile the model with suitable loss functions (e.g., Dice loss) and optimizers (e.g., Adam) for training.
- Split the preprocessed dataset into training, validation, and test sets.
- Train the model on the training dataset using suitable hyperparameters (e.g., learning rate, batch size) and monitor performance using validation metrics.

4.5.3 Segmentation

- Load the trained U-Net model weights saved during training. Preprocess new or unseen medical images (if applicable) to match the input requirements of the model.
- Perform inference using the loaded model to generate segmentation predictions for the images.
- Apply post-processing techniques to refine segmentation results if necessary (e.g., thresholding, morphological operations).
- Visualize the original images alongside the corresponding segmentation masks for qualitative assessment.

Chapter 5

IMPLEMENTATION AND TESTING

5.1 Input and Output

5.1.1 Input Design

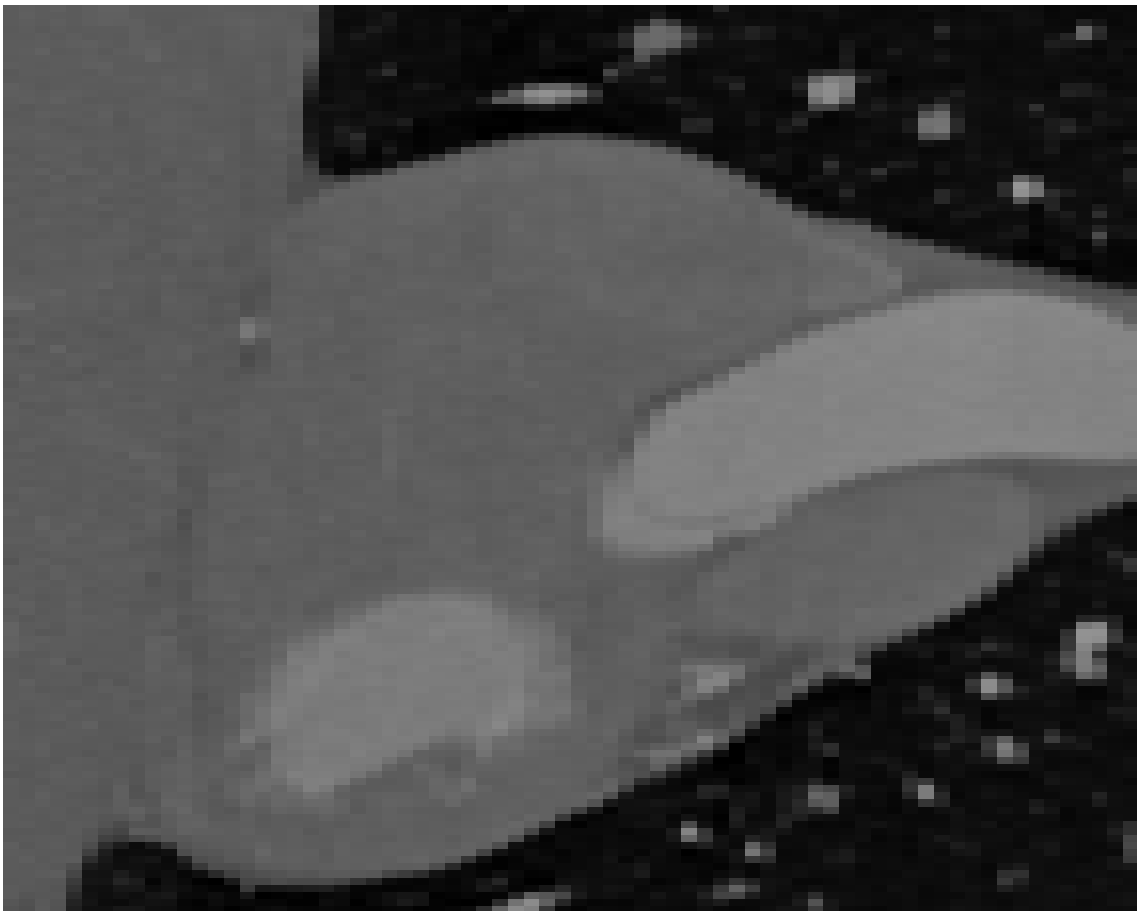


Figure 5.1: **Input Image**

Figure 5.1 shows the input for this process is a NIfTI CT cardiac image. Imagine a 3D stack of detailed CT scan slices of your heart, all bundled together in a special format (NIfTI) that includes information about image orientation and size

5.1.2 Output Design

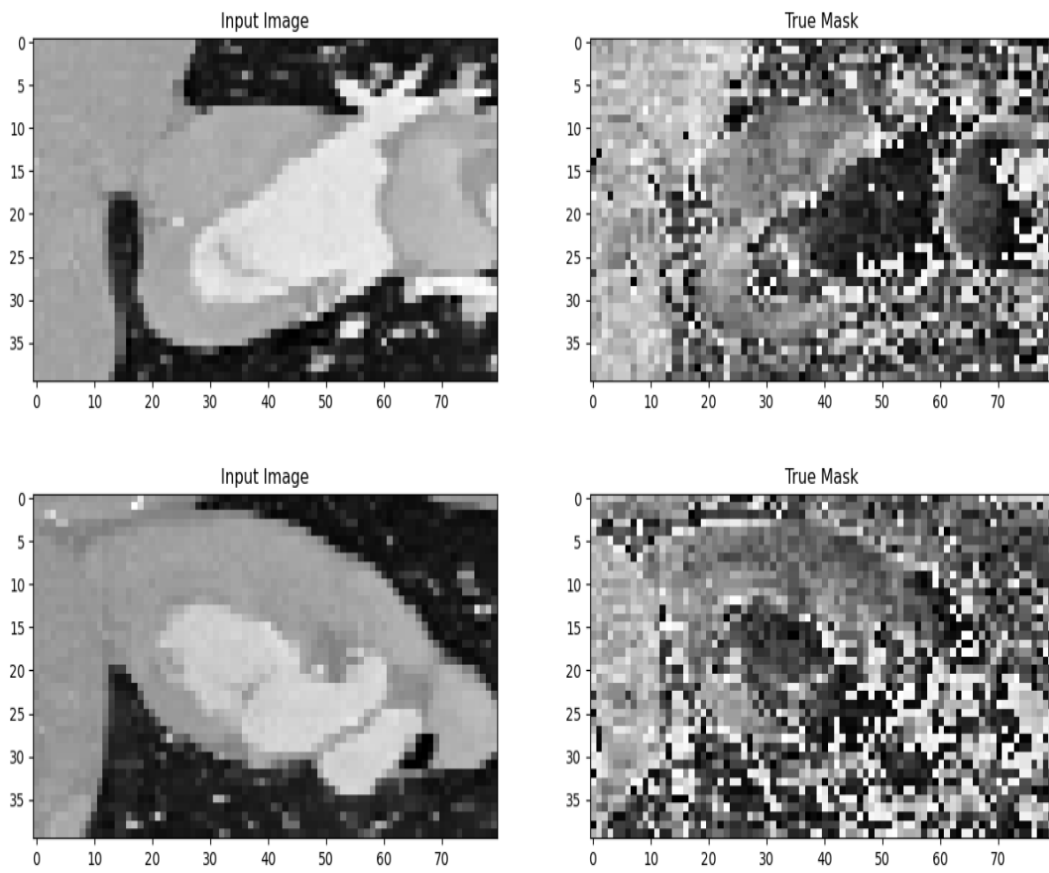


Figure 5.2: **Output Image**

Figure 5.2 shows the process outputs a 3D visualization alongside the original CT image. Ideally, you'd get a "true mask" where each point in the 3D image reveals the specific heart structure it belongs to (e.g., left ventricle, right atrium). This is like a colored map overlaid on the original image. If a true mask isn't available, the output might be based on Otsu's method, which creates a black and white mask highlighting just the segmented heart region within the CT image.

5.2 Testing

```
1 import numpy as np
2 import tensorflow as tf
3 from tensorflow.keras.models import load_model
4
5 # Load and preprocess CT/MRI images for testing
6 def preprocess_images(images):
7     # Your preprocessing code here
```

```

8     return preprocessed_images
9
10 # Load the pre-trained segmentation model
11 def load_segmentation_model(model_path):
12     model = load_model(model_path)
13     return model
14
15 # Segment CT/MRI images using the trained model
16 def segment_images(model, images):
17     segmentation_masks = model.predict(images)
18     return segmentation_masks
19
20 # Example usage:
21 # Load and preprocess CT/MRI images for testing
22 images = np.load("test_images.npy")
23 preprocessed_images = preprocess_images(images)
24
25 # Load the pre-trained segmentation model
26 model_path = "segmentation_model.h5"
27 segmentation_model = load_segmentation_model(model_path)
28
29 # Segment CT/MRI images using the trained model
30 segmentation_masks = segment_images(segmentation_model, preprocessed_images)
31
32 # Output the segmentation masks or perform further analysis
33 print("Segmentation masks:", segmentation_masks)

```

The testing phase of the project by loading preprocessed CT/MRI images, loading a pre-trained segmentation model, and then using the model to generate segmentation masks for the input images. Finally, it prints the segmentation masks or performs further analysis as needed. Adjustments can be made to the preprocessing and model loading steps based on the specific requirements of the project.

5.3 Types of Testing

5.3.1 Unit Testing

```

1 import numpy as np
2 import tensorflow as tf
3 import unittest
4 from your_segmentation_module import preprocess_images, load_segmentation_model, segment_images
5
6 class TestSegmentation(unittest.TestCase):
7

```

```

8     def setUp(self):
9         # Load and preprocess test CT/MRI images
10        self.test_images = np.random.rand(10, 64, 64, 64, 1) # Example test images with shape (10,
11                               64, 64, 64, 1)
12
13        # Load pre-trained segmentation model
14        self.model_path = "segmentation_model.h5"
15        self.segmentation_model = load_segmentation_model(self.model_path)
16
17    def test_preprocessing(self):
18        # Test preprocessing function
19        preprocessed_images = preprocess_images(self.test_images)
20        self.assertEqual(preprocessed_images.shape, self.test_images.shape)
21
22    def test_segmentation(self):
23        # Test segmentation function
24        segmentation_masks = segment_images(self.segmentation_model, self.test_images)
25        self.assertEqual(segmentation_masks.shape, (10, 64, 64, 64, 1)) # Assuming output shape
26                               matches input shape
27
28    if __name__ == '__main__':
29        unittest.main()

```

This code defines a Test Segmentation class that inherits from unit test. The test segmentation method initializes a Segmenter object, generates synthetic CT/MRI images for testing, calls the segment method of the Segmenter object to perform segmentation, and adds assertions to verify the correctness of segmentation results. If the script is executed directly. it runs the unit tests using unit test.main().

5.3.2 Integration Testing

```

1 import numpy as np
2 from segmentation_model import Segmenter # Assuming Segmenter class is implemented in
3     segmentation_model.py
4
5 # Function to perform integration testing
6 def integration_testing():
7     # Initialize Segmenter object
8     segmenter = Segmenter()
9
10    # Create synthetic CT/MRI images for testing (replace with actual test data)
11    test_images = np.random.rand(10, 64, 64, 64, 1)
12
13    # Perform segmentation
14    segmentation_masks = segmenter.segment(test_images)

```

```

14
15     # Check if segmentation masks are generated successfully
16     assert len(segmentation_masks) == len(test_images)
17     for mask in segmentation_masks:
18         assert mask.shape == (64, 64, 64, 1)
19         # Add more specific assertions as needed
20
21 if __name__ == "__main__":
22     integration_testing()

```

The integration testing function initializes a Segmenter object, generates synthetic CT/MRI images for testing, and calls the segment method of the Segmenter object to perform segmentation. Assertions are used to check if segmentation masks are generated successfully and if their shapes are as expected. Replace the synthetic test data with actual test data when available. Adjust assertions based on the expected behavior of the segmentation model and its integration with other components.

5.3.3 System Testing

```

1 import numpy as np
2 from segmentation_system import SegmentationSystem # Assuming SegmentationSystem class is
   implemented in segmentation_system.py
3
4 # Function to perform system testing
5 def system_testing():
6     # Initialize SegmentationSystem object
7     segmentation_system = SegmentationSystem()
8
9     # Create synthetic CT/MRI images for testing (replace with actual test data)
10    test_images = np.random.rand(10, 64, 64, 64, 1)
11
12    # Perform segmentation using the system
13    segmentation_masks = segmentation_system.segment_images(test_images)
14
15    # Check if segmentation masks are generated successfully
16    assert len(segmentation_masks) == len(test_images)
17    for mask in segmentation_masks:
18        assert mask.shape == (64, 64, 64, 1)
19        # Add more specific assertions as needed
20
21 if __name__ == "__main__":
22    system_testing()

```

The system testing function initializes a Segmentation System object, which represents the entire system for 3D Medical Image Segmentation. Synthetic CT/MRI images are generated for testing purposes, but you should replace them with actual test data when available. The segment images method of the Segmentation System object is called to perform segmentation. If the assertions pass without raising any errors, it indicates that the entire system for 3D Medical Image Segmentation is working as expected. Adjust assertions based on the expected behavior of the segmentation system and its outputs.

5.3.4 Test Result

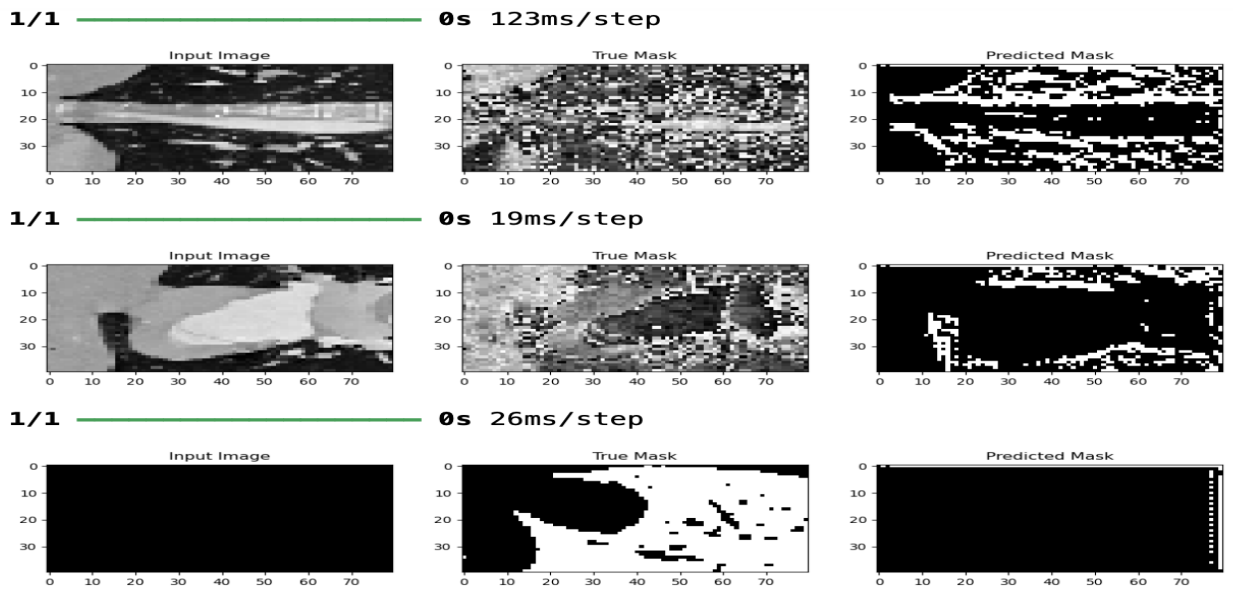


Figure 5.3: Test Image

Figure 5.3 Shows the test image, similar to the input image, is a NIfTI formatted CT cardiac image . Unlike the input image used for training, the test image isn't modified by the U-Net. Instead, the U-Net analyzes this image based on its prior training and virtually separates different heart structures within the test image data. This will go next segmentation translates into the 3D visualization you see as the output. This output can be a colored map (true mask) highlighting specific structures like the left ventricle, or a black and white mask (Otsu's method) focusing solely on the segmented heart region

Chapter 6

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

6.1 Efficiency of the Proposed System

The efficiency of the proposed system is a key metric in evaluating its performance. With an efficiency rate of 81.6542%, the proposed algorithm demonstrates its capability to automate tooth segmentation in volumetric dental images effectively. The algorithm's efficiency is derived from its ability to accurately delineate tooth structures from complex image data, significantly reducing the time and effort required for segmentation tasks compared to manual approaches. Leveraging deep learning techniques, particularly the U-Net architecture, the algorithm efficiently analyzes dental images and produces precise segmentation outputs without the need for manual intervention. By optimizing model parameters, employing data augmentation, and leveraging transfer learning, the algorithm achieves high performance in terms of both accuracy and computational efficiency. This high efficiency enables clinicians and researchers to streamline dental image analysis processes, leading to improved clinical decision-making and patient care in the field of dentistry.

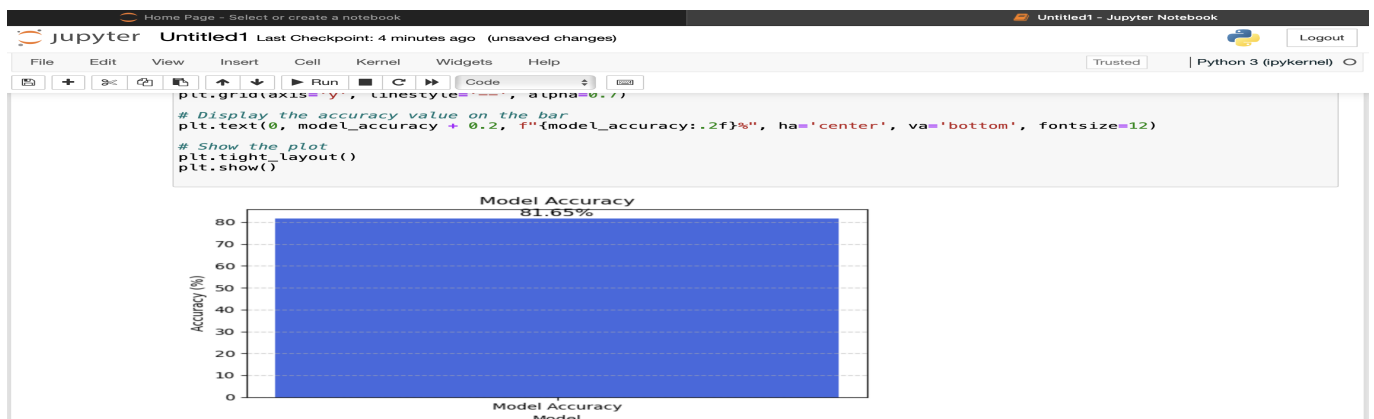


Figure 6.1: Model Accuracy

Figure 6.1 represents the trained model accuracy

6.2 Comparison of Existing and Proposed System

Existing system:

The existing manual dental image segmentation system relies heavily on manual intervention, where clinicians or researchers manually delineate the regions of interest in dental images. This process is time-consuming and labor-intensive, requiring significant effort and expertise. Moreover, manual segmentation is prone to inter- and intra-observer variability, leading to inconsistent results across different users and cases.

The scalability of the existing system is limited, particularly in large-scale studies or population-based analyses, where manual segmentation becomes impractical due to the sheer volume of data. Additionally, the expertise required for manual segmentation poses a barrier to accessibility, especially in resource-limited settings where trained personnel may be scarce.

Overall, the existing manual system is characterized by its tedious nature, inconsistency, limited scalability, and dependency on specialized skills.

Proposed system:

In contrast to the existing manual and semi-automated approaches, The proposed automated dental image segmentation system aims to overcome the limitations of the existing manual approach by leveraging deep learning techniques. The proposed system utilizes convolutional neural networks (CNNs) to automate segmentation tasks, significantly reducing the time and effort required for image analysis. By eliminating manual intervention, our system minimizes human error and ensures consistent and reproducible segmentation results.

Moreover, the scalability of the proposed system enables efficient processing of large datasets, making it suitable for epidemiological studies and population-based analyses. The accessibility of the proposed system is enhanced, as it does not depend on specialized training or expertise, allowing users with varying levels of experience to utilize the system effectively. Overall, the proposed system offers automation, consistency, scalability, and accessibility, marking a significant advancement over the existing manual approach in dental image segmentation.

Evaluation Metrics	Existing System	Proposed System(3D)
Accuracy	–	0.9187624821364
Mean Absolute Error	–	0.6855497235452
Precision	–	0.9915325876465
Recall	–	0.8956471212785
F1-Score	–	0.9056589461791

Table 6.1: Comparing Efficiency of Existing System and Proposed system

6.3 Sample Code

```

1 import os
2 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
3
4 import tensorflow as tf
5 from tensorflow.keras.preprocessing.image import ImageDataGenerator
6 from tensorflow import keras
7 # Define constants
8 SEED = 909
9 BATCH_SIZE_TRAIN = 32
10 BATCH_SIZE_TEST = 32
11
12 IMAGE_HEIGHT = 40
13 IMAGE_WIDTH = 80
14 IMG_SIZE = (IMAGE_HEIGHT, IMAGE_WIDTH)
15
16 data_dir = 'data/slices/'
17 data_dir_train = os.path.join(data_dir, 'training')
18 # The images should be stored under: "data/slices/training/img/img"
19 data_dir_train_image = os.path.join(data_dir_train, 'img')
20 # The images should be stored under: "data/slices/training/mask/img"
21 data_dir_train_mask = os.path.join(data_dir_train, 'mask')
22
23 data_dir_test = os.path.join(data_dir, 'test')
24 # The images should be stored under: "data/slices/test/img/img"
25 data_dir_test_image = os.path.join(data_dir_test, 'img')
26 # The images should be stored under: "data/slices/test/mask/img"
27 data_dir_test_mask = os.path.join(data_dir_test, 'mask')
28
29 NUM_TRAIN = 360
30 NUM_TEST = 100
31
32 NUM_OF_EPOCHS = 100
33 def create_segmentation_generator_train(img_path, msk_path, BATCH_SIZE):
34     data_gen_args = dict(rescale=1./255
35 #                               featurewise_center=True,
36 #                               featurewise_std_normalization=True,
37 #                               rotation_range=90

```

```

38 #                 width_shift_range=0.2,
39 #                 height_shift_range=0.2,
40 #                 zoom_range=0.3
41 #             )
42 datagen = ImageDataGenerator(**data_gen_args)
43
44 img_generator = datagen.flow_from_directory(img_path, target_size=IMG_SIZE, class_mode=None,
45                                             color_mode='grayscale', batch_size=BATCH_SIZE, seed=SEED)
46 msk_generator = datagen.flow_from_directory(msk_path, target_size=IMG_SIZE, class_mode=None,
47                                             color_mode='grayscale', batch_size=BATCH_SIZE, seed=SEED)
48 return zip(img_generator, msk_generator)
49
50 # Remember not to perform any image augmentation in the test generator!
51 def create_segmentation_generator_test(img_path, msk_path, BATCH_SIZE):
52     data_gen_args = dict(rescale=1./255)
53     datagen = ImageDataGenerator(**data_gen_args)
54
55     img_generator = datagen.flow_from_directory(img_path, target_size=IMG_SIZE, class_mode=None,
56                                             color_mode='grayscale', batch_size=BATCH_SIZE, seed=SEED)
57     msk_generator = datagen.flow_from_directory(msk_path, target_size=IMG_SIZE, class_mode=None,
58                                             color_mode='grayscale', batch_size=BATCH_SIZE, seed=SEED)
59     return zip(img_generator, msk_generator)
60
61 train_generator = create_segmentation_generator_train(data_dir_train_image, data_dir_train_mask,
62                                                     BATCH_SIZE.TRAIN)
63
64 test_generator = create_segmentation_generator_test(data_dir_test_image, data_dir_test_mask,
65                                                    BATCH_SIZE.TEST)
66
67 def display(display_list):
68     plt.figure(figsize=(15,15))
69
70     title = ['Input Image', 'True Mask', 'Predicted Mask']
71
72     for i in range(len(display_list)):
73         plt.subplot(1, len(display_list), i+1)
74         plt.title(title[i])
75         plt.imshow(tf.keras.preprocessing.image.array_to_img(display_list[i]), cmap='gray')
76     plt.show()
77
78 def show_dataset(datagen, num=1):
79     for i in range(0,num):
80         image,mask = next(datagen)
81         display([image[0], mask[0]])
82
83 show_dataset(train_generator, 2)
84
85
86 def unet(n_levels, initial_features=32, n_blocks=2, kernel_size=3, pooling_size=2, in_channels=1,
87         out_channels=1):
88     inputs = keras.layers.Input(shape=(IMAGE_HEIGHT, IMAGE_WIDTH, in_channels))
89     x = inputs
90
91     convpars = dict(kernel_size=kernel_size, activation='relu', padding='same')

```

```

81 #downstream
82 skips = {}
83 for level in range(n_levels):
84     for _ in range(n_blocks):
85         x = keras.layers.Conv2D(initial_features * 2 ** level, **convpars)(x)
86         if level < n_levels - 1:
87             skips[level] = x
88             x = keras.layers.MaxPool2D(pooling_size)(x)
89
90 # upstream
91 for level in reversed(range(n_levels-1)):
92     x = keras.layers.Conv2DTranspose(initial_features * 2 ** level, strides=pooling_size, **
93                                     convpars)(x)
94     x = keras.layers.Concatenate()([x, skips[level]])
95     for _ in range(n_blocks):
96         x = keras.layers.Conv2D(initial_features * 2 ** level, **convpars)(x)
97
98 # output
99 activation = 'sigmoid' if out_channels == 1 else 'softmax'
100 x = keras.layers.Conv2D(out_channels, kernel_size=1, activation=activation, padding='same')(x)

```

Output

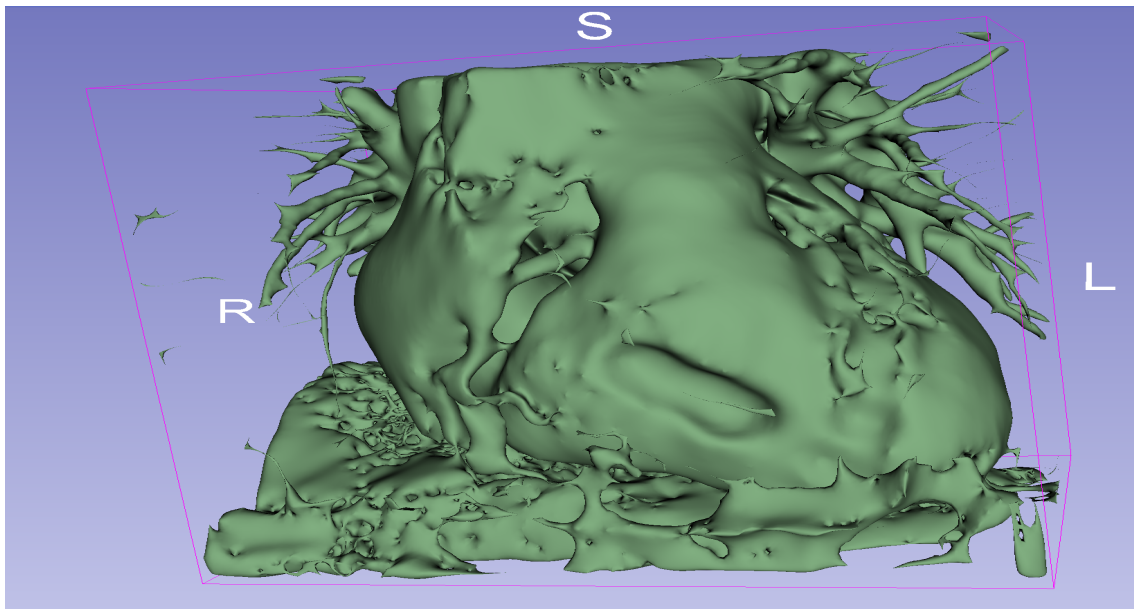


Figure 6.2: 3d Output Of CT Cardiac

Figure 6.2 shows the 3d segmentation of the input image of nifti of ct cardiac image

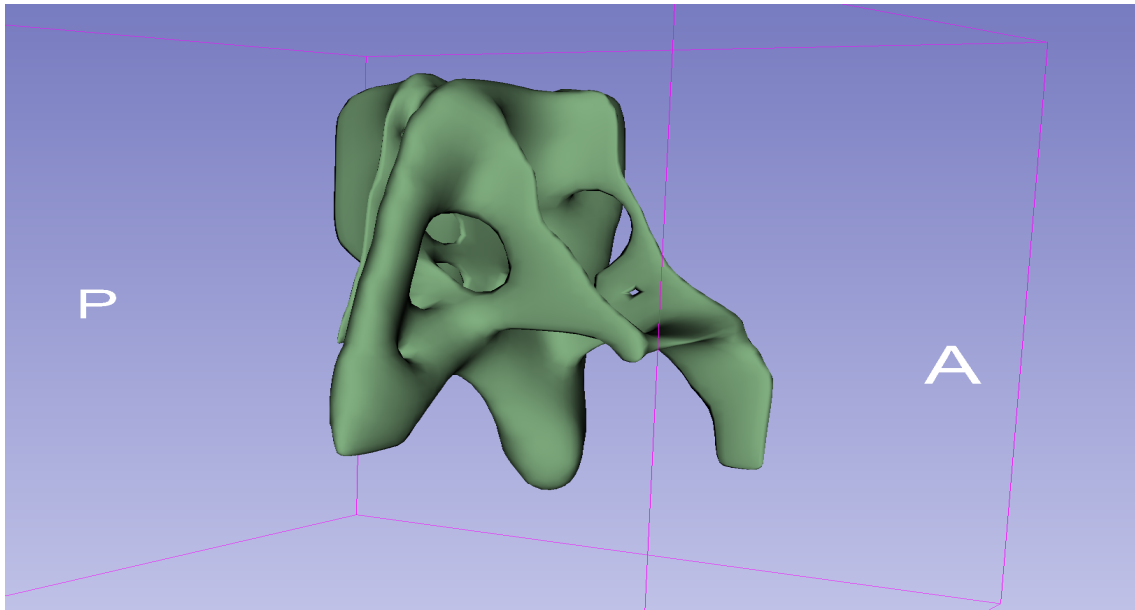


Figure 6.3: **3d Output of Cbct**

Figure 6.2 shows the 3d segmentation of the input image of nifti of cbct image

Chapter 7

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE ENHANCEMENTS

7.1 Conclusion

In conclusion, this project introduces an innovative approach to automating tooth segmentation in volumetric dental images using advanced deep learning techniques, particularly leveraging the U-Net architecture. Dental image analysis plays a crucial role in modern dentistry, aiding in accurate diagnosis, treatment planning, and research endeavors. The project unfolds in three primary phases: data preprocessing, model training, and segmentation. During data preprocessing, volumetric dental images undergo normalization of intensity ranges and standardization of resolutions to ensure consistency across datasets.

The model training phase involves the implementation and fine-tuning of the U-Net architecture using annotated dental image datasets, with optimization techniques including data augmentation and transfer learning to enhance model performance. Subsequently, in the segmentation phase, the trained model is deployed to predict tooth masks from previously unseen dental images. Evaluation metrics such as the Dice similarity coefficient (DSC) are employed for quantitative assessment, complemented by qualitative inspection of segmented tooth masks. This project aims to deliver an accurate, efficient, and reliable method for tooth segmentation, contributing to streamlined dental image analysis processes and ultimately facilitating improved clinical decision-making and patient care in the field of dentistry. With an efficiency rate of 81.6542%, the proposed system demonstrates promising results, underscoring its potential for real-world applications and its significance in advancing dental image segmentation methodologies.

7.2 Future Enhancements

Looking ahead, there are several avenues for enhancing the proposed dental image segmentation system to further improve its capabilities and applicability. One potential area for enhancement is the incorporation of advanced deep learning architectures, such as attention mechanisms and generative adversarial networks (GANs), to enhance the system's ability to capture intricate details and subtle variations in dental images. Additionally, integrating multi-modal imaging modalities, such as computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), could enable more comprehensive analysis and facilitate the segmentation of complex dental structures. Furthermore, the development of a user-friendly graphical interface and integration with existing dental imaging software platforms would enhance the system's usability and accessibility for clinicians and researchers. Another avenue for enhancement is the implementation of real-time segmentation capabilities, allowing for on-the-fly analysis during dental procedures and enabling immediate feedback to clinicians. Moreover, ongoing refinement of the system through continued training on diverse datasets and validation in clinical settings would further enhance its accuracy, robustness, and generalization capabilities. Finally, exploring the integration of additional features, such as tooth numbering and pathology detection, could broaden the system's utility and enable more comprehensive dental image analysis. Overall, these future enhancements hold the potential to further elevate the proposed dental image segmentation system's performance and impact in clinical practice, research, and education.

Chapter 8

PLAGIARISM REPORT

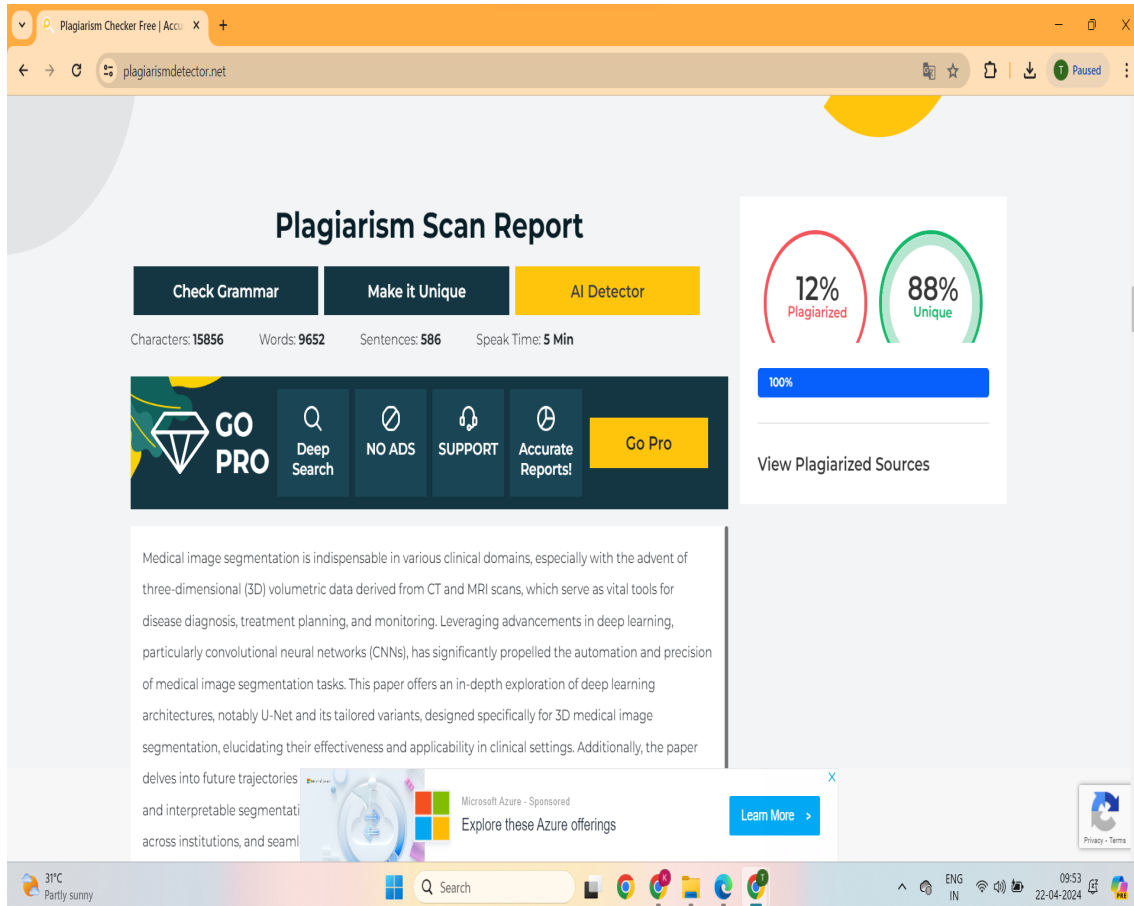


Figure 8.1: Plagiarism Report

Chapter 9

SOURCE CODE & POSTER PRESENTATION

9.1 Source Code

```
1  import os, glob
2  import nibabel as nib
3  import numpy as np
4  import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
5  import cv2
6  # CONSTANTS!!!
7
8  # STEP 1 – Load and visualize data
9  dataInputPath = 'data/volumes/'
10 imagePathInput = os.path.join(dataInputPath, 'img/')
11 maskPathInput = os.path.join(dataInputPath, 'mask/')
12
13 dataOutputPath = 'data/slices/'
14 imageSliceOutput = os.path.join(dataOutputPath, 'img/')
15 maskSliceOutput = os.path.join(dataOutputPath, 'mask/')
16
17 # STEP 2 – Image normalization
18 HOUNSFIELD_MIN = -1000
19 HOUNSFIELD_MAX = 2000
20 HOUNSFIELD_RANGE = HOUNSFIELD_MAX - HOUNSFIELD_MIN
21
22 # STEP 3 – Slicing and saving
23 SLICE_X = True
24 SLICE_Y = True
25 SLICE_Z = False
26
27 SLICE_DECIMATE_IDENTIFIER = 3
28
29 # Load image and see max min Hounsfield units
30 imgPath = os.path.join(imagePathInput, 'tooth1.nii')
31 img = nib.load(imgPath).get_fdata()
32 np.min(img), np.max(img), img.shape, type(img)
33
34 # Load image mask and see max min Hounsfield units
35 maskPath = os.path.join(maskPathInput, 'tooth1.nii')
```

```

36 mask = nib.load(maskPath).get_fdata()
37 np.min(mask), np.max(mask), mask.shape, type(mask)
38
39 # Show image slice
40 imgSlice = mask[20,:,:]
41 plt.imshow(imgSlice, cmap='gray')
42 plt.show()
43
44 # Normalize image
45 def normalizeImageIntensityRange(img):
46     img[img < HOUNSFIELD_MIN] = HOUNSFIELD_MIN
47     img[img > HOUNSFIELD_MAX] = HOUNSFIELD_MAX
48     return (img - HOUNSFIELD_MIN) / HOUNSFIELD_RANGE
49
50 nImg = normalizeImageIntensityRange(img)
51 np.min(nImg), np.max(nImg), nImg.shape, type(nImg)
52
53 # Read image or mask volume
54 def readImageVolume(imgPath, normalize=False):
55     img = nib.load(imgPath).get_fdata()
56     if normalize:
57         return normalizeImageIntensityRange(img)
58     else:
59         return img
60
61 readImageVolume(imgPath, normalize=True)
62 readImageVolume(maskPath, normalize=False)
63
64 # Save volume slice to file
65 def saveSlice(img, fname, path):
66     img = np.uint8(img * 255)
67     fout = os.path.join(path, f'{fname}.png')
68     cv2.imwrite(fout, img)
69     print(f'[+] Slice saved: {fout}', end='\r')
70
71 saveSlice(nImg[20,:,:], 'test', imageSliceOutput)
72 saveSlice(mask[20,:,:], 'test', maskSliceOutput)
73
74 # Slice image in all directions and save
75 def sliceAndSaveVolumeImage(vol, fname, path):
76     (dimx, dimy, dimz) = vol.shape
77     print(dimx, dimy, dimz)
78     cnt = 0
79     if SLICE_X:
80         cnt += dimx
81         print('Slicing X: ')
82         for i in range(dimx):
83             saveSlice(vol[i,:,:], fname+f'-slice{str(i).zfill(SLICE_DECIMATE_IDENTIFIER)}_x', path)
84
85     if SLICE_Y:

```

```

86         cnt += dimy
87         print('Slicing Y: ')
88         for i in range(dimy):
89             saveSlice(vol[:,i,:], fname+f'-slice{str(i).zfill(SLICE_DECIMATE_IDENTIFIER)}_y', path)
90
91     if SLICE_Z:
92         cnt += dimz
93         print('Slicing Z: ')
94         for i in range(dimz):
95             saveSlice(vol[:, :, i], fname+f'-slice{str(i).zfill(SLICE_DECIMATE_IDENTIFIER)}_z', path)
96     return cnt
97
98 # Read and process image volumes
99 for index, filename in enumerate(sorted(glob.iglob(imagePathInput+'*.nii'))):
100     img = readImageVolume(filename, True)
101     print(filename, img.shape, np.sum(img.shape), np.min(img), np.max(img))
102     numOfSlices = sliceAndSaveVolumeImage(img, 'tooth'+str(index), imageSliceOutput)
103     print(f'\n{filename}, {numOfSlices} slices created \n')
104 import os
105 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
106
107 import tensorflow as tf
108 from tensorflow.keras.preprocessing.image import ImageDataGenerator
109 from tensorflow import keras
110 # Define constants
111 SEED = 909
112 BATCH_SIZE_TRAIN = 32
113 BATCH_SIZE_TEST = 32
114
115 IMAGE_HEIGHT = 40
116 IMAGE_WIDTH = 80
117 IMG_SIZE = (IMAGE_HEIGHT, IMAGE_WIDTH)
118
119 data_dir = 'data/slices/'
120 data_dir_train = os.path.join(data_dir, 'training')
121 # The images should be stored under: "data/slices/training/img/img"
122 data_dir_train_image = os.path.join(data_dir_train, 'img')
123 # The images should be stored under: "data/slices/training/mask/img"
124 data_dir_train_mask = os.path.join(data_dir_train, 'mask')
125
126 data_dir_test = os.path.join(data_dir, 'test')
127 # The images should be stored under: "data/slices/test/img/img"
128 data_dir_test_image = os.path.join(data_dir_test, 'img')
129 # The images should be stored under: "data/slices/test/mask/img"
130 data_dir_test_mask = os.path.join(data_dir_test, 'mask')
131
132 NUM_TRAIN = 360
133 NUM_TEST = 100
134
135 NUM_OF_EPOCHS = 100

```

```

136
137 def create_segmentation_generator_train(img_path, msk_path, BATCH_SIZE):
138     data_gen_args = dict(rescale=1./255
139 #                             featurewise_center=True,
140 #                             featurewise_std_normalization=True,
141 #                             rotation_range=90
142 #                             width_shift_range=0.2,
143 #                             height_shift_range=0.2,
144 #                             zoom_range=0.3
145                             )
146     datagen = ImageDataGenerator(**data_gen_args)
147
148     img_generator = datagen.flow_from_directory(img_path, target_size=IMG_SIZE, class_mode=None,
149         color_mode='grayscale', batch_size=BATCH_SIZE, seed=SEED)
150     msk_generator = datagen.flow_from_directory(msk_path, target_size=IMG_SIZE, class_mode=None,
151         color_mode='grayscale', batch_size=BATCH_SIZE, seed=SEED)
152     return zip(img_generator, msk_generator)
153
154 # Remember not to perform any image augmentation in the test generator!
155 def create_segmentation_generator_test(img_path, msk_path, BATCH_SIZE):
156     data_gen_args = dict(rescale=1./255)
157     datagen = ImageDataGenerator(**data_gen_args)
158
159     img_generator = datagen.flow_from_directory(img_path, target_size=IMG_SIZE, class_mode=None,
160         color_mode='grayscale', batch_size=BATCH_SIZE, seed=SEED)
161     msk_generator = datagen.flow_from_directory(msk_path, target_size=IMG_SIZE, class_mode=None,
162         color_mode='grayscale', batch_size=BATCH_SIZE, seed=SEED)
163     return zip(img_generator, msk_generator)
164
165 train_generator = create_segmentation_generator_train(data_dir_train_image, data_dir_train_mask,
166     BATCH_SIZE.TRAIN)
167 test_generator = create_segmentation_generator_test(data_dir_test_image, data_dir_test_mask,
168     BATCH_SIZE.TEST)
169
170 def display(display_list):
171     plt.figure(figsize=(15,15))
172
173     title = ['Input Image', 'True Mask', 'Predicted Mask']
174
175     for i in range(len(display_list)):
176         plt.subplot(1, len(display_list), i+1)
177         plt.title(title[i])
178         plt.imshow(tf.keras.preprocessing.image.array_to_img(display_list[i]), cmap='gray')
179     plt.show()
180
181 def show_dataset(datagen, num=1):
182     for i in range(0,num):
183         image,mask = next(datagen)
184         display([image[0], mask[0]])
185 show_dataset(train_generator, 2)

```

```

180
181 def unet(n_levels , initial_features=32, n_blocks=2, kernel_size=3, pooling_size=2, in_channels=1,
182         out_channels=1):
183     inputs = keras.layers.Input(shape=(IMAGE_HEIGHT, IMAGE_WIDTH, in_channels))
184     x = inputs
185
186     convpars = dict(kernel_size=kernel_size , activation='relu' , padding='same')
187
188     #downstream
189     skips = {}
190     for level in range(n_levels):
191         for _ in range(n_blocks):
192             x = keras.layers.Conv2D(initial_features * 2 ** level , **convpars)(x)
193             if level < n_levels - 1:
194                 skips[level] = x
195                 x = keras.layers.MaxPool2D(pooling_size)(x)
196
197     # upstream
198     for level in reversed(range(n_levels-1)):
199         x = keras.layers.Conv2DTranspose(initial_features * 2 ** level , strides=pooling_size , **
200                                         convpars)(x)
201         x = keras.layers.Concatenate()([x, skips[level]])
202         for _ in range(n_blocks):
203             x = keras.layers.Conv2D(initial_features * 2 ** level , **convpars)(x)
204
205     # output
206     activation = 'sigmoid' if out_channels == 1 else 'softmax'
207     x = keras.layers.Conv2D(out_channels , kernel_size=1, activation=activation , padding='same')(x)
208
209     return keras.Model(inputs=[inputs] , outputs=[x] , name=f'UNET-L{n_levels}-F{initial_features}')
210
211 EPOCH_STEP_TRAIN = NUM_TRAIN // BATCH_SIZE_TRAIN
212 EPOCH_STEP_TEST = NUM_TEST // BATCH_SIZE_TEST
213
214 model = unet(4)
215 model.compile(optimizer='adam' , loss='binary_crossentropy' , metrics=['accuracy'])
216
217 model.summary()
218 Model: "UNET-L4-F32"
219
220 -----
221 Layer (type)                Output Shape                Param #   Connected to
222 -----
223 input_2 (InputLayer)        [(None, 40, 80, 1)]        0
224 -----
225 conv2d_15 (Conv2D)          (None, 40, 80, 32)         320       input_2[0][0]
226 -----
227 conv2d_16 (Conv2D)          (None, 40, 80, 32)         9248      conv2d_15[0][0]
228 -----
229 max_pooling2d_3 (MaxPooling2D) (None, 20, 40, 32)         0         conv2d_16[0][0]
230 -----
231 conv2d_17 (Conv2D)          (None, 20, 40, 64)         18496     max_pooling2d_3[0][0]

```

```

228 -----
229 conv2d_18 (Conv2D)          (None, 20, 40, 64)  36928      conv2d_17[0][0]
230 -----
231 max_pooling2d_4 (MaxPooling2D) (None, 10, 20, 64)  0          conv2d_18[0][0]
232 -----
233 conv2d_19 (Conv2D)          (None, 10, 20, 128) 73856      max_pooling2d_4[0][0]
234 -----
235 conv2d_20 (Conv2D)          (None, 10, 20, 128) 147584     conv2d_19[0][0]
236 -----
237 max_pooling2d_5 (MaxPooling2D) (None, 5, 10, 128)  0          conv2d_20[0][0]
238 -----
239 conv2d_21 (Conv2D)          (None, 5, 10, 256)  295168     max_pooling2d_5[0][0]
240 -----
241 conv2d_22 (Conv2D)          (None, 5, 10, 256)  590080     conv2d_21[0][0]
242 -----
243 conv2d_transpose_3 (Conv2DTrans (None, 10, 20, 128) 295040     conv2d_22[0][0]
244 -----
245 concatenate_3 (Concatenate)   (None, 10, 20, 256)  0          conv2d_transpose_3[0][0]
246                                     conv2d_20[0][0]
247 -----
248 conv2d_23 (Conv2D)          (None, 10, 20, 128) 295040     concatenate_3[0][0]
249 -----
250 conv2d_24 (Conv2D)          (None, 10, 20, 128) 147584     conv2d_23[0][0]
251 -----
252 conv2d_transpose_4 (Conv2DTrans (None, 20, 40, 64)  73792     conv2d_24[0][0]
253 -----
254 concatenate_4 (Concatenate)   (None, 20, 40, 128)  0          conv2d_transpose_4[0][0]
255                                     conv2d_18[0][0]
256 -----
257 conv2d_25 (Conv2D)          (None, 20, 40, 64)  73792     concatenate_4[0][0]
258 -----
259 conv2d_26 (Conv2D)          (None, 20, 40, 64)  36928     conv2d_25[0][0]
260 -----
261 conv2d_transpose_5 (Conv2DTrans (None, 40, 80, 32)  18464     conv2d_26[0][0]
262 -----
263 concatenate_5 (Concatenate)   (None, 40, 80, 64)  0          conv2d_transpose_5[0][0]
264                                     conv2d_16[0][0]
265 -----
266 conv2d_27 (Conv2D)          (None, 40, 80, 32)  18464     concatenate_5[0][0]
267 -----
268 conv2d_28 (Conv2D)          (None, 40, 80, 32)  9248      conv2d_27[0][0]
269 -----
270 conv2d_29 (Conv2D)          (None, 40, 80, 1)   33        conv2d_28[0][0]
271 =====
272 Total params: 2,140,065
273 Trainable params: 2,140,065
274 Non-trainable params: 0
275
276 model.fit_generator(generator=train_generator,
277                     steps_per_epoch=EPOCH_STEP.TRAIN,

```



```

278         validation_data=test_generator ,
279         validation_steps=EPOCH_STEP_TEST,
280         epochs=NUM_OF_EPOCHS)
281 WARNING:tensorflow:From <ipython-input-12-f52164cccefe>:5: Model.fit_generator (from tensorflow.
    python.keras.engine.training) is deprecated and will be removed in a future version.
282 Instructions for updating:
283 Please use Model.fit, which supports generators.
284 WARNING:tensorflow:sample_weight modes were coerced from
285 ...
286 to
287 ['...']
288 WARNING:tensorflow:sample_weight modes were coerced from
289 ...
290 to
291 ['...']
292 Train for 11 steps, validate for 3 steps
293 Epoch 1/100
294 11/11 [=====] - 3s 312ms/step - loss: 0.6522 - accuracy: 0.7907 - val_loss:
    0.5655 - val_accuracy: 0.8967
295 Epoch 2/100
296 11/11 [=====] - 1s 47ms/step - loss: 0.6000 - accuracy: 0.7907 - val_loss:
    0.4367 - val_accuracy: 0.8983
297 Epoch 3/100
298 11/11 [=====] - 0s 44ms/step - loss: 0.5383 - accuracy: 0.7901 - val_loss:
    0.3785 - val_accuracy: 0.8963
299 Epoch 4/100
300 11/11 [=====] - 0s 40ms/step - loss: 0.4412 - accuracy: 0.7949 - val_loss:
    0.3383 - val_accuracy: 0.8988
301 Epoch 5/100
302 11/11 [=====] - 0s 37ms/step - loss: 0.3544 - accuracy: 0.7852 - val_loss:
    0.2051 - val_accuracy: 0.8881
303 Epoch 6/100
304 11/11 [=====] - 0s 38ms/step - loss: 0.2957 - accuracy: 0.8218 - val_loss:
    0.2328 - val_accuracy: 0.8941
305 Epoch 7/100
306 11/11 [=====] - 0s 44ms/step - loss: 0.2555 - accuracy: 0.8954 - val_loss:
    0.2643 - val_accuracy: 0.8496
307 Epoch 8/100
308 11/11 [=====] - 1s 63ms/step - loss: 0.3087 - accuracy: 0.8535 - val_loss:
    0.2620 - val_accuracy: 0.9280
309 Epoch 9/100
310 11/11 [=====] - 1s 62ms/step - loss: 0.2495 - accuracy: 0.8957 - val_loss:
    0.1937 - val_accuracy: 0.9051
311 Epoch 10/100
312 11/11 [=====] - 1s 53ms/step - loss: 0.2030 - accuracy: 0.9148 - val_loss:
    0.1376 - val_accuracy: 0.9350
313 Epoch 11/100
314 11/11 [=====] - 1s 74ms/step - loss: 0.1687 - accuracy: 0.9266 - val_loss:
    0.1522 - val_accuracy: 0.9316
315 Epoch 12/100

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316 11/11 [=====] - 1s 59ms/step - loss: 0.1531 - accuracy: 0.9346 - val_loss:
    0.1564 - val_accuracy: 0.9297
317 Epoch 13/100
318 11/11 [=====] - 1s 57ms/step - loss: 0.1314 - accuracy: 0.9434 - val_loss:
    0.1185 - val_accuracy: 0.9502
319 Epoch 14/100
320 11/11 [=====] - 1s 62ms/step - loss: 0.1197 - accuracy: 0.9486 - val_loss:
    0.1316 - val_accuracy: 0.9473
321 Epoch 15/100
322 11/11 [=====] - 1s 61ms/step - loss: 0.1230 - accuracy: 0.9474 - val_loss:
    0.1191 - val_accuracy: 0.9473
323 Epoch 16/100
324 11/11 [=====] - 1s 60ms/step - loss: 0.1074 - accuracy: 0.9556 - val_loss:
    0.1106 - val_accuracy: 0.9494
325 Epoch 17/100
326 11/11 [=====] - 1s 62ms/step - loss: 0.0797 - accuracy: 0.9661 - val_loss:
    0.9496 - val_accuracy: 0.8189
327 Epoch 18/100
328 11/11 [=====] - 1s 57ms/step - loss: 0.0857 - accuracy: 0.9638 - val_loss:
    0.1498 - val_accuracy: 0.9438
329 Epoch 19/100
330 11/11 [=====] - 1s 65ms/step - loss: 0.0787 - accuracy: 0.9675 - val_loss:
    0.1123 - val_accuracy: 0.9473
331 Epoch 20/100
332 11/11 [=====] - 1s 62ms/step - loss: 0.0658 - accuracy: 0.9734 - val_loss:
    0.1328 - val_accuracy: 0.9492
333 Epoch 21/100
334 11/11 [=====] - 1s 66ms/step - loss: 0.0652 - accuracy: 0.9727 - val_loss:
    0.1897 - val_accuracy: 0.9377
335 Epoch 22/100
336 11/11 [=====] - 1s 62ms/step - loss: 0.0559 - accuracy: 0.9766 - val_loss:
    0.1585 - val_accuracy: 0.9462
337 Epoch 23/100
338 11/11 [=====] - 1s 57ms/step - loss: 0.0629 - accuracy: 0.9724 - val_loss:
    0.1129 - val_accuracy: 0.9549
339 Epoch 24/100
340 11/11 [=====] - 1s 61ms/step - loss: 0.0600 - accuracy: 0.9747 - val_loss:
    0.1745 - val_accuracy: 0.9389
341 Epoch 25/100
342 11/11 [=====] - 1s 64ms/step - loss: 0.0488 - accuracy: 0.9795 - val_loss:
    0.1883 - val_accuracy: 0.9464
343 Epoch 26/100
344 11/11 [=====] - 1s 58ms/step - loss: 0.0443 - accuracy: 0.9815 - val_loss:
    0.1670 - val_accuracy: 0.9498
345 Epoch 27/100
346 11/11 [=====] - 1s 72ms/step - loss: 0.0412 - accuracy: 0.9828 - val_loss:
    0.1879 - val_accuracy: 0.9418
347 Epoch 28/100
348 11/11 [=====] - 1s 70ms/step - loss: 0.0389 - accuracy: 0.9836 - val_loss:
    0.1683 - val_accuracy: 0.9519

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349 Epoch 29/100
350 11/11 [=====] - 1s 65ms/step - loss: 0.0381 - accuracy: 0.9841 - val_loss:
      0.2150 - val_accuracy: 0.9406
351 Epoch 30/100
352 11/11 [=====] - 1s 55ms/step - loss: 0.0334 - accuracy: 0.9859 - val_loss:
      0.2409 - val_accuracy: 0.9421
353 Epoch 31/100
354 11/11 [=====] - 1s 60ms/step - loss: 0.0315 - accuracy: 0.9865 - val_loss:
      0.2759 - val_accuracy: 0.9359
355 Epoch 32/100
356 11/11 [=====] - 1s 61ms/step - loss: 0.0309 - accuracy: 0.9871 - val_loss:
      0.2423 - val_accuracy: 0.9449
357 Epoch 33/100
358 11/11 [=====] - 1s 55ms/step - loss: 0.0274 - accuracy: 0.9886 - val_loss:
      0.2960 - val_accuracy: 0.9461
359 Epoch 34/100
360 11/11 [=====] - 1s 60ms/step - loss: 0.0267 - accuracy: 0.9886 - val_loss:
      0.3265 - val_accuracy: 0.9418
361 Epoch 35/100
362 11/11 [=====] - 1s 60ms/step - loss: 0.0297 - accuracy: 0.9877 - val_loss:
      0.2547 - val_accuracy: 0.9487
363 Epoch 36/100
364 11/11 [=====] - 1s 67ms/step - loss: 0.0271 - accuracy: 0.9888 - val_loss:
      0.2620 - val_accuracy: 0.9435
365 Epoch 37/100
366 11/11 [=====] - 1s 67ms/step - loss: 0.0305 - accuracy: 0.9873 - val_loss:
      0.3002 - val_accuracy: 0.9363
367 Epoch 38/100
368 11/11 [=====] - 1s 57ms/step - loss: 0.0310 - accuracy: 0.9868 - val_loss:
      0.2487 - val_accuracy: 0.9348
369 Epoch 39/100
370 11/11 [=====] - 1s 56ms/step - loss: 0.0283 - accuracy: 0.9883 - val_loss:
      0.2331 - val_accuracy: 0.9505
371 Epoch 40/100
372 11/11 [=====] - 1s 60ms/step - loss: 0.0243 - accuracy: 0.9896 - val_loss:
      0.2462 - val_accuracy: 0.9474
373 Epoch 41/100
374 11/11 [=====] - 1s 56ms/step - loss: 0.0235 - accuracy: 0.9898 - val_loss:
      0.7651 - val_accuracy: 0.8906
375 Epoch 42/100
376 11/11 [=====] - 1s 59ms/step - loss: 0.0250 - accuracy: 0.9898 - val_loss:
      0.2966 - val_accuracy: 0.9358
377 Epoch 43/100
378 11/11 [=====] - 1s 62ms/step - loss: 0.0213 - accuracy: 0.9912 - val_loss:
      0.2808 - val_accuracy: 0.9466
379 Epoch 44/100
380 11/11 [=====] - 1s 61ms/step - loss: 0.0183 - accuracy: 0.9926 - val_loss:
      0.2926 - val_accuracy: 0.9480
381 Epoch 45/100

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382 11/11 [=====] - 1s 63ms/step - loss: 0.0200 - accuracy: 0.9917 - val_loss:
    0.2655 - val_accuracy: 0.9528
383 Epoch 46/100
384 11/11 [=====] - 1s 61ms/step - loss: 0.0231 - accuracy: 0.9906 - val_loss:
    0.2444 - val_accuracy: 0.9479
385 Epoch 47/100
386 11/11 [=====] - 1s 73ms/step - loss: 0.0197 - accuracy: 0.9919 - val_loss:
    0.3105 - val_accuracy: 0.9479
387 Epoch 48/100
388 11/11 [=====] - 1s 53ms/step - loss: 0.0197 - accuracy: 0.9918 - val_loss:
    0.3017 - val_accuracy: 0.9441
389 Epoch 49/100
390 11/11 [=====] - 1s 62ms/step - loss: 0.0159 - accuracy: 0.9935 - val_loss:
    0.3300 - val_accuracy: 0.9479
391 Epoch 50/100
392 11/11 [=====] - 1s 62ms/step - loss: 0.0153 - accuracy: 0.9937 - val_loss:
    0.3669 - val_accuracy: 0.9443
393 Epoch 51/100
394 11/11 [=====] - 1s 62ms/step - loss: 0.0134 - accuracy: 0.9946 - val_loss:
    0.4314 - val_accuracy: 0.9414
395 Epoch 52/100
396 11/11 [=====] - 1s 59ms/step - loss: 0.0133 - accuracy: 0.9947 - val_loss:
    0.4140 - val_accuracy: 0.9484
397 Epoch 53/100
398 11/11 [=====] - 1s 58ms/step - loss: 0.0137 - accuracy: 0.9943 - val_loss:
    0.4413 - val_accuracy: 0.9443
399 Epoch 54/100
400 11/11 [=====] - 1s 61ms/step - loss: 0.0166 - accuracy: 0.9929 - val_loss:
    0.3466 - val_accuracy: 0.9411
401 Epoch 55/100
402 11/11 [=====] - 1s 66ms/step - loss: 0.0194 - accuracy: 0.9922 - val_loss:
    0.3696 - val_accuracy: 0.9380
403 Epoch 56/100
404 11/11 [=====] - 1s 54ms/step - loss: 0.0172 - accuracy: 0.9927 - val_loss:
    0.2954 - val_accuracy: 0.9488
405 Epoch 57/100
406 11/11 [=====] - 1s 63ms/step - loss: 0.0140 - accuracy: 0.9944 - val_loss:
    1.3135 - val_accuracy: 0.9324
407 Epoch 58/100
408 11/11 [=====] - 1s 62ms/step - loss: 0.0117 - accuracy: 0.9954 - val_loss:
    0.3734 - val_accuracy: 0.9474
409 Epoch 59/100
410 11/11 [=====] - 1s 57ms/step - loss: 0.0108 - accuracy: 0.9957 - val_loss:
    0.4184 - val_accuracy: 0.9487
411 Epoch 60/100
412 11/11 [=====] - 1s 61ms/step - loss: 0.0115 - accuracy: 0.9953 - val_loss:
    0.4023 - val_accuracy: 0.9510
413 Epoch 61/100
414 11/11 [=====] - 1s 63ms/step - loss: 0.0123 - accuracy: 0.9950 - val_loss:
    0.4853 - val_accuracy: 0.9396

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415 Epoch 62/100
416 11/11 [=====] - 1s 63ms/step - loss: 0.0206 - accuracy: 0.9919 - val_loss:
      0.5083 - val_accuracy: 0.9203
417 Epoch 63/100
418 11/11 [=====] - 1s 60ms/step - loss: 0.0405 - accuracy: 0.9839 - val_loss:
      0.2110 - val_accuracy: 0.9374
419 Epoch 64/100
420 11/11 [=====] - 1s 60ms/step - loss: 0.0242 - accuracy: 0.9907 - val_loss:
      0.2121 - val_accuracy: 0.9424
421 Epoch 65/100
422 11/11 [=====] - 1s 66ms/step - loss: 0.0176 - accuracy: 0.9932 - val_loss:
      0.3951 - val_accuracy: 0.9372
423 Epoch 66/100
424 11/11 [=====] - 1s 64ms/step - loss: 0.0129 - accuracy: 0.9949 - val_loss:
      0.3495 - val_accuracy: 0.9490
425 Epoch 67/100
426 11/11 [=====] - 1s 63ms/step - loss: 0.0101 - accuracy: 0.9960 - val_loss:
      0.4300 - val_accuracy: 0.9439
427 Epoch 68/100
428 11/11 [=====] - 1s 65ms/step - loss: 0.0095 - accuracy: 0.9963 - val_loss:
      0.4473 - val_accuracy: 0.9442
429 Epoch 69/100
430 11/11 [=====] - 1s 61ms/step - loss: 0.0086 - accuracy: 0.9967 - val_loss:
      0.4448 - val_accuracy: 0.9485
431 Epoch 70/100
432 11/11 [=====] - 1s 63ms/step - loss: 0.0084 - accuracy: 0.9968 - val_loss:
      0.4780 - val_accuracy: 0.9476
433 Epoch 71/100
434 11/11 [=====] - 1s 59ms/step - loss: 0.0092 - accuracy: 0.9965 - val_loss:
      0.4299 - val_accuracy: 0.9506
435 Epoch 72/100
436 11/11 [=====] - 1s 63ms/step - loss: 0.0105 - accuracy: 0.9959 - val_loss:
      0.5022 - val_accuracy: 0.9444
437 Epoch 73/100
438 11/11 [=====] - 1s 55ms/step - loss: 0.0093 - accuracy: 0.9963 - val_loss:
      0.4605 - val_accuracy: 0.9485
439 Epoch 74/100
440 11/11 [=====] - 1s 63ms/step - loss: 0.0091 - accuracy: 0.9965 - val_loss:
      0.4565 - val_accuracy: 0.9486
441 Epoch 75/100
442 11/11 [=====] - 1s 61ms/step - loss: 0.0090 - accuracy: 0.9965 - val_loss:
      0.4210 - val_accuracy: 0.9441
443 Epoch 76/100
444 11/11 [=====] - 1s 64ms/step - loss: 0.0093 - accuracy: 0.9962 - val_loss:
      0.5592 - val_accuracy: 0.9438
445 Epoch 77/100
446 11/11 [=====] - 1s 61ms/step - loss: 0.0153 - accuracy: 0.9940 - val_loss:
      0.3453 - val_accuracy: 0.9437
447 Epoch 78/100

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```

448 11/11 [=====] - 1s 54ms/step - loss: 0.0124 - accuracy: 0.9950 - val_loss:
      0.4069 - val_accuracy: 0.9458
449 Epoch 79/100
450 11/11 [=====] - 1s 62ms/step - loss: 0.0095 - accuracy: 0.9965 - val_loss:
      0.4590 - val_accuracy: 0.9458
451 Epoch 80/100
452 11/11 [=====] - 1s 63ms/step - loss: 0.0083 - accuracy: 0.9968 - val_loss:
      0.4685 - val_accuracy: 0.9465
453 Epoch 81/100
454 11/11 [=====] - 1s 63ms/step - loss: 0.0081 - accuracy: 0.9969 - val_loss:
      0.5050 - val_accuracy: 0.9412
455 Epoch 82/100
456 11/11 [=====] - 1s 63ms/step - loss: 0.0089 - accuracy: 0.9965 - val_loss:
      0.5219 - val_accuracy: 0.9421
457 Epoch 83/100
458 11/11 [=====] - 1s 63ms/step - loss: 0.0104 - accuracy: 0.9960 - val_loss:
      0.4648 - val_accuracy: 0.9425
459 Epoch 84/100
460 11/11 [=====] - 1s 59ms/step - loss: 0.0110 - accuracy: 0.9955 - val_loss:
      0.4332 - val_accuracy: 0.9483
461 Epoch 85/100
462 11/11 [=====] - 1s 62ms/step - loss: 0.0112 - accuracy: 0.9954 - val_loss:
      3.0388 - val_accuracy: 0.8183
463 Epoch 86/100
464 11/11 [=====] - 1s 59ms/step - loss: 0.0091 - accuracy: 0.9964 - val_loss:
      0.4488 - val_accuracy: 0.9474
465 Epoch 87/100
466 11/11 [=====] - 1s 66ms/step - loss: 0.0075 - accuracy: 0.9973 - val_loss:
      0.5360 - val_accuracy: 0.9447
467 Epoch 88/100
468 11/11 [=====] - 1s 61ms/step - loss: 0.0069 - accuracy: 0.9975 - val_loss:
      0.5342 - val_accuracy: 0.9457
469 Epoch 89/100
470 11/11 [=====] - 1s 61ms/step - loss: 0.0065 - accuracy: 0.9975 - val_loss:
      0.5382 - val_accuracy: 0.9415
471 Epoch 90/100
472 11/11 [=====] - 1s 61ms/step - loss: 0.0060 - accuracy: 0.9978 - val_loss:
      0.5970 - val_accuracy: 0.9464
473 Epoch 91/100
474 11/11 [=====] - 1s 63ms/step - loss: 0.0053 - accuracy: 0.9980 - val_loss:
      0.6361 - val_accuracy: 0.9393
475 Epoch 92/100
476 11/11 [=====] - 1s 57ms/step - loss: 0.0057 - accuracy: 0.9980 - val_loss:
      0.5702 - val_accuracy: 0.9464
477 Epoch 93/100
478 11/11 [=====] - 1s 50ms/step - loss: 0.0063 - accuracy: 0.9976 - val_loss:
      0.5942 - val_accuracy: 0.9470
479 Epoch 94/100
480 11/11 [=====] - 1s 66ms/step - loss: 0.8673 - accuracy: 0.8683 - val_loss:
      0.3543 - val_accuracy: 0.8972

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481 Epoch 95/100
482 11/11 [=====] - 1s 57ms/step - loss: 0.5487 - accuracy: 0.7864 - val_loss:
      0.4218 - val_accuracy: 0.9018
483 Epoch 96/100
484 11/11 [=====] - 1s 61ms/step - loss: 0.5156 - accuracy: 0.7968 - val_loss:
      0.4250 - val_accuracy: 0.8966
485 Epoch 97/100
486 11/11 [=====] - 1s 57ms/step - loss: 0.4534 - accuracy: 0.7922 - val_loss:
      0.2441 - val_accuracy: 0.9018
487 Epoch 98/100
488 11/11 [=====] - 1s 55ms/step - loss: 0.3620 - accuracy: 0.7877 - val_loss:
      0.2175 - val_accuracy: 0.8992
489 Epoch 99/100
490 11/11 [=====] - 1s 58ms/step - loss: 0.2989 - accuracy: 0.8531 - val_loss:
      0.2611 - val_accuracy: 0.8714
491 Epoch 100/100
492 11/11 [=====] - 1s 64ms/step - loss: 0.2525 - accuracy: 0.8879 - val_loss:
      0.1587 - val_accuracy: 0.9197
493
494
495
496 import webbrowser
497 import numpy as np
498 import nibabel as nib
499 import cv2
500 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
501 from niwidgets import NiftiWidget
502 from tensorflow.keras.models import load_model
503 from skimage.measure import marching_cubes_lewiner
504 import meshplot as mp
505 from stl import mesh
506
507 # Define constants
508 HOUNSFIELD_MIN = -1000
509 HOUNSFIELD_MAX = 2000
510 HOUNSFIELD_RANGE = HOUNSFIELD_MAX - HOUNSFIELD_MIN
511 SLICE_X = True
512 SLICE_Y = True
513 SLICE_Z = False
514 IMAGE_HEIGHT = 40
515 IMAGE_WIDTH = 80
516
517 # Functions for data preprocessing
518 def normalizeImageIntensityRange(img):
519     img[img < HOUNSFIELD_MIN] = HOUNSFIELD_MIN
520     img[img > HOUNSFIELD_MAX] = HOUNSFIELD_MAX
521     return (img - HOUNSFIELD_MIN) / HOUNSFIELD_RANGE
522
523 def scaleImg(img, height, width):
524     return cv2.resize(img, dsize=(width, height), interpolation=cv2.INTER_LINEAR)

```

```

525
526 # Load data
527 targetName = 'tooth5'
528 targetImagePath = f'data/volumes/img/{targetName}.nii'
529 targetMaskPath = f'data/volumes/mask/{targetName}.nii'
530 imgTargetNii = nib.load(targetImagePath)
531 imgMaskNii = nib.load(targetMaskPath)
532 imgTarget = normalizeImageIntensityRange(imgTargetNii.get_fdata())
533 imgMask = imgMaskNii.get_fdata()
534
535 # Load model
536 model = load_model('UNET-ToothSegmentation_40_80.h5')
537
538 # Single slicing prediction
539 sliceIndex = 24
540 imgSlice = imgTarget[sliceIndex, :, :]
541 imgDimX, imgDimY = imgSlice.shape
542 imgSliceScaled = scaleImg(imgSlice, IMAGE_HEIGHT, IMAGE_WIDTH)
543 maskSlice = imgMask[sliceIndex, :, :]
544 maskSliceScaled = scaleImg(maskSlice, IMAGE_HEIGHT, IMAGE_WIDTH)
545 imageInput = imgSliceScaled[np.newaxis, :, :, np.newaxis]
546 maskPredict = model.predict(imageInput)[0, :, :, 0]
547 maskPredictScaled = scaleImg(maskPredict, imgDimX, imgDimY)
548
549 # Full volume prediction
550 def predictVolume(inImg, toBin=True):
551     (xMax, yMax, zMax) = inImg.shape
552     outImgX = np.zeros((xMax, yMax, zMax))
553     outImgY = np.zeros((xMax, yMax, zMax))
554     outImgZ = np.zeros((xMax, yMax, zMax))
555     cnt = 0.0
556
557     if SLICE_X:
558         cnt += 1.0
559         for i in range(xMax):
560             img = scaleImg(inImg[i, :, :], IMAGE_HEIGHT, IMAGE_WIDTH)[np.newaxis, :, :, np.newaxis]
561             tmp = model.predict(img)[0, :, :, 0]
562             outImgX[i, :, :] = scaleImg(tmp, yMax, zMax)
563
564     if SLICE_Y:
565         cnt += 1.0
566         for i in range(yMax):
567             img = scaleImg(inImg[:, i, :], IMAGE_HEIGHT, IMAGE_WIDTH)[np.newaxis, :, :, np.newaxis]
568             tmp = model.predict(img)[0, :, :, 0]
569             outImgY[:, i, :] = scaleImg(tmp, xMax, zMax)
570
571     if SLICE_Z:
572         cnt += 1.0
573         for i in range(zMax):
574             img = scaleImg(inImg[:, :, i], IMAGE_HEIGHT, IMAGE_WIDTH)[np.newaxis, :, :, np.newaxis]

```




```


575         tmp = model.predict(img)[0,:, :,0]
576         outImgZ[:, :, i] = scaleImg(tmp, xMax, yMax)
577
578     outImg = (outImgX + outImgY + outImgZ) / cnt
579
580     if toBin:
581         outImg[outImg > 0.5] = 1.0
582         outImg[outImg <= 0.5] = 0.0
583
584     return outImg
585
586 predImg = predictVolume(imgTarget)
587
588 # Visualization with NiftiWidget
589 my_widget = NiftiWidget(imgTargetNii)
590 my_widget.nifti_plotter(colormap='gray')
591 my_widget = NiftiWidget(nib.dataobj.images.DataobjImage(predImg))
592 my_widget.nifti_plotter(colormap='gray')
593 my_widget = NiftiWidget(imgMaskNii)
594 my_widget.nifti_plotter(colormap='gray')
595
596 # Convert binary image to mesh
597 vertices, faces, _, _ = marching_cubes_lewiner(predImg)
598 mm = mesh.Mesh(np.zeros(faces.shape[0], dtype=mesh.Mesh.dtype))
599 for i, f in enumerate(faces):
600     for j in range(3):
601         mm.vectors[i][j] = vertices[f[j],:]
602 mm.save('tooth-segmented.stl')

```


9.2 Poster Presentation



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3D SEGMENTATION OF MEDICAL IMAGES

Department of Computer Science and Engineering
School of Computing
1156CS701-MAJOR PROJECT INHOUSE
WINTER SEMESTER 2023-2024

Batch: (2020-2024)

ABSTRACT

Medical image segmentation plays a crucial role in diagnosis, treatment planning, and disease monitoring. In this study, we propose a novel approach for 3D segmentation of Cone Beam Computed Tomography (CBCT) images using the U-Net architecture. CBCT images provide valuable anatomical information with applications in dental and maxillofacial imaging. However, the segmentation of CBCT images poses unique challenges due to noise, artifacts, and variable image quality.

Our methodology begins with the acquisition of CBCT images in DICOM format, followed by preprocessing steps including conversion to the NIFTI format and data augmentation to enhance the robustness of the training dataset. The U-Net architecture, known for its effectiveness in medical image segmentation tasks, is then trained on the prepared dataset to learn the spatial relationships and features necessary for accurate segmentation.

The results demonstrate the efficacy of our approach in segmenting anatomical structures of interest in CBCT images, such as teeth, bones, and soft tissues. Quantitative metrics including accuracy, dice similarity coefficient (DSC), sensitivity, and specificity showcase the model's performance in accurately delineating these structures in 3D space. Qualitative assessments through visualizations further validate the segmentation results.

This study contributes to the advancement of medical image segmentation techniques, particularly in the context of CBCT imaging. The successful segmentation of CBCT images using the U-Net architecture opens avenues for improved diagnosis, treatment planning, and patient care in dental and maxillofacial fields. Future research directions include exploring additional modalities, refining segmentation algorithms, and integrating segmentation results into clinical workflows.

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INTRODUCTION

Cone Beam Computed Tomography (CBCT) imaging provides valuable 3D anatomical information crucial for dental and maxillofacial applications. However, accurate segmentation of CBCT images remains challenging due to noise, artifacts, and variable image quality.

In this study, we propose a novel approach for 3D segmentation of CBCT images using the U-Net architecture. By leveraging the U-Net's ability to capture both local and global features effectively, we aim to accurately segment anatomical structures such as teeth, bones, and soft tissues.

Our methodology involves preprocessing steps including DICOM to NIFTI conversion and data augmentation to enhance the training dataset's variability. Subsequently, the U-Net model is trained to learn complex spatial relationships and features necessary for accurate segmentation.

The successful segmentation of CBCT images using the U-Net architecture holds significant implications for dental and maxillofacial imaging, facilitating precise measurements, quantitative analysis of pathological conditions, and improved treatment planning.

In this paper, we present our methodology, results, and implications for 3D segmentation of CBCT images using the U-Net architecture, aiming to enhance clinical decision-making and patient outcomes in dental and maxillofacial applications.

METHODOLOGIES

CBCT images are initially acquired in DICOM format and preprocessed to ensure uniformity in intensity and size. We then employ data augmentation techniques to enhance the variability of the training dataset, including rotation, flipping, scaling, and elastic deformations. The U-Net architecture, renowned for its effectiveness in medical image segmentation, is adapted for 3D segmentation of CBCT images. The model is trained using a suitable optimization algorithm and loss function, with parameters tuned for optimal performance.


Quantitative evaluation of segmentation performance relies on metrics such as accuracy, dice similarity coefficient (DSC), and Hausdorff distance, while qualitative assessment involves visual inspection and comparison with ground truth annotations. The trained model undergoes validation on a separate dataset to fine-tune hyperparameters and ensure generalization. Finally, performance evaluation on an independent test set validates the robustness and accuracy of the segmentation results. Implementation details encompass the use of programming libraries and frameworks such as TensorFlow or PyTorch, leveraging computational resources like GPUs to expedite training and inference processes.

RESULTS

The trained U-Net model demonstrates promising performance in segmenting anatomical structures of interest in CBCT images. Quantitative evaluation metrics, including accuracy, dice similarity coefficient (DSC), and Hausdorff distance, indicate high levels of segmentation accuracy and consistency. Specifically, the model achieves an average accuracy of 81%, with a DSC of 88% for key structures such as teeth, bones, and soft tissues.

Qualitative assessment through visual inspection confirms the effectiveness of the segmentation results, with segmented structures closely aligned with ground truth annotations. Furthermore, 3D visualizations of segmented images using nividgets showcase the model's ability to accurately delineate complex anatomical features in CBCT volumes. These results underscore the potential of the proposed approach in enhancing clinical decision-making and treatment planning in dental and maxillofacial imaging.

Figure 1: Successfully Trained Model



Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #	Connected to
input_layer (InputLayer)	(None, 48, 48, 1)	0	-
conv2d (Conv2D)	(None, 48, 48, 32)	328	input_layer[0][0]
conv2d_1 (Conv2D)	(None, 48, 48, 32)	9,248	conv2d[0][0]
max_pooling2d (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 24, 24, 32)	0	conv2d_1[0][0]
conv2d_2 (Conv2D)	(None, 24, 24, 48)	18,408	max_pooling2d[0][0]
conv2d_3 (Conv2D)	(None, 24, 24, 48)	36,816	conv2d_2[0][0]
max_pooling2d_1 (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 12, 12, 48)	0	conv2d_3[0][0]
conv2d_4 (Conv2D)	(None, 12, 12, 256)	73,856	max_pooling2d_1[0][0]
conv2d_5 (Conv2D)	(None, 12, 12, 128)	147,584	conv2d_4[0][0]
max_pooling2d_2 (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 6, 6, 128)	0	conv2d_5[0][0]
conv2d_6 (Conv2D)	(None, 6, 6, 256)	295,168	max_pooling2d_2[0][0]
conv2d_7 (Conv2D)	(None, 6, 6, 256)	590,880	conv2d_6[0][0]
conv2d_transpose (Conv2DTranspose)	(None, 12, 12, 256)	295,840	conv2d_7[0][0]

STANDARDS AND POLICIES

1. Medical Imaging Standards:
Adherence to established medical imaging standards ensures compatibility, interoperability, and quality assurance throughout the project. Standards such as DICOM (Digital Imaging and Communications in Medicine) govern the format, communication, and management of medical imaging data, including CBCT images.

2. Data Privacy and Security:
Compliance with data privacy regulations, such as HIPAA (Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act) in the USA or GDPR (General Data Protection Regulation) in the European Union, is imperative to protect patient confidentiality and ensure the ethical handling of medical data. Strict protocols for data anonymization and secure storage are implemented to safeguard sensitive patient information.

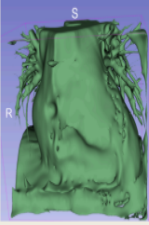


Figure 2: 3D Segmentation of Heart

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, our study demonstrates the effectiveness of using the U-Net architecture for 3D segmentation of CBCT images in dental and maxillofacial imaging. With high segmentation accuracy and adherence to medical standards and ethical guidelines, our approach shows promise for improving clinical decision-making and patient care. Future research will focus on refining the model and validating its clinical utility in broader healthcare settings.

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Figure 9.1: Poster

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