

Detecting Pneumonia within CT Scans Using Convolutional Neural Networks

Graham Chickering

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Abstract

Convolutional Networks are a specific type of Neural Networks that have shown to be particularly effective at being able to identify distinct objects within images. This technique has been shown to be effective within the healthcare industry with tasks such as identifying certain types of cancers or even pneumonia from different types of scans. In theory this type of network is designed based on how the human brain works and the idea that multiple levels of neurons are connected together in order to detect and identify images. In practice though, running and training these types of neural networks can be very computationally expensive and require large amounts of memory and processing capabilities if working with a very large dataset. While there is more work to be done, this project shows how to create an infrastructure that efficiently stores data and then trains convolutional neural networks within the R Studio Environment.

Keywords: Convolutional Neural Networks, Tensorflow, Keras , Medical Images

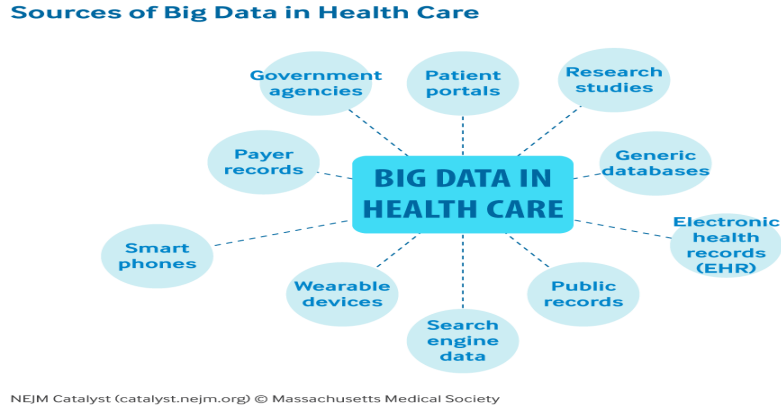


Figure 1: Big Data in Healthcare

1 Introduction

It has been estimated that roughly 80% of health care data is unstructured data, which can come in the form of videos, sensor data, images, or text. Although hospitals and researchers historically had a hard time extracting insights from this type of data, with the recent advances that have been made in data science and handling big data, this has created new application areas within the health care industry in sectors such as genomics, predicting patient health, and medical imagery (See Figure 1 (NEJM 2018)). Medical imaging research in particular has made significant progress recently with scientists being able to use different machine learning algorithms to detect different types of lesions and cancers from CT, MRI, and other types of scans. In particular the advancements of convolutional neural networks have enormous potential for different image detection problems. In particular this type of network could be used to assist doctors and clinicians as to whether or not someone has pneumonia by looking at their CT Scans, which would in turn help reduce the amount of hours and amount of expertise required to understand these scans.

When working with medical imagery data sets one of the first problems someone may run into is how to process and handle these large data sets. When trying to perform analysis on small and medium sized data sets within R, one rarely runs into complications that would be attributed to how R is loading and dealing with the data itself. While most of the time one can load data into the R Studio environment without issues and without having to worry about whether the entirety of our data can even be loaded in, one may

begin to run into complications the larger the data set becomes. If one ends up crossing into the threshold where R can no longer store all the data in an effective way, there are multiple potential solutions in the forms of choosing random subsets of the data, buying a computer with larger memory, or use parallelization and using multiple clusters to perform the analysis. It is this solution of choosing random subsets of data, using the Keras and Tensorflow R packages, that will allow me to work with and convert large image files into a form that models can be trained on them.

By working with Keras and Tensorflow, this will allow me to utilize a large medical imagery data set that consists of CT scans of patients with and without pneumonia. This data set will then be used to train and create convolutional neural networks that will try to identify whether or not someone has pneumonia from the images.

This project will allow me to answer the questions of how does one handle and process images so that analysis can be performed on them? How does one create and train a convolutional neural network? And finally, how effective are convolutional neural networks at identifying pneumonia within CT scans?

2 Image Transformation and Tensorflow

Once the images are in a place where they could be loaded into R, one needs to standardize the images into a format where R can actually perform analysis on them. For images, this means making it so they all have the same underlying features. This means performing different image transformations such as cropping, brightness, contrasting, changing the color scale, or resizing an image. This sort of data augmentation, when performed on all the images in the data set can help create a more consistent and standard form between all the images. For the images in my medical imagery data set, this consisted of resizing the images on a pixel by pixel basis so they were all the same size, and then converted them to a grayscale color. When looking at Figure 2, we can see an example of two different types of scans, one of a patient with pneumonia and one of a normal patient, but both have been converted to the same size with the same contrast, brightness, and color scale.

After getting all the images into the same structure, I needed to convert them to a

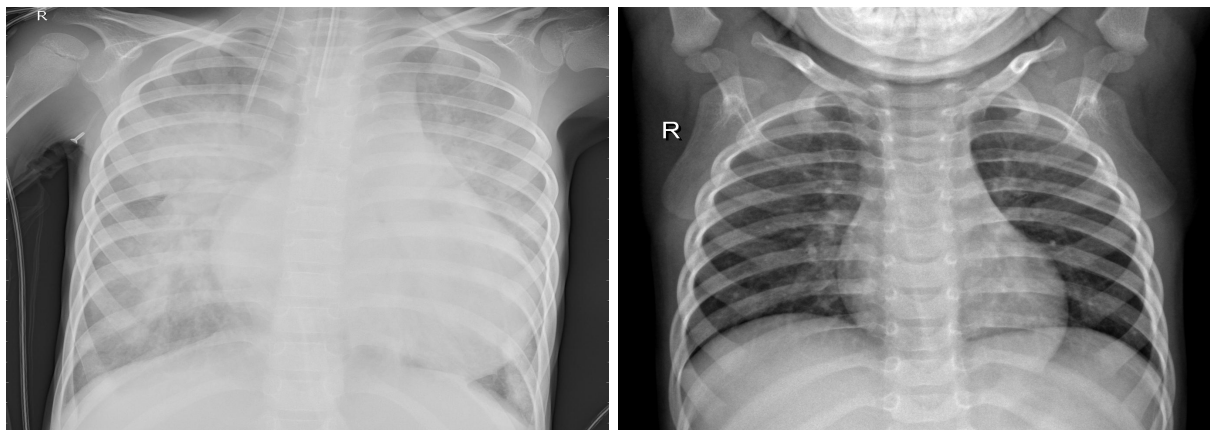


Figure 2: Patient CT Scans. At left, patient with pneumonia. At right, a patient without pneumonia

form where I could actually perform analysis on the images. In order to do this I relied on the *tensorflow* R package (Studio 2019). Tensorflow is a “scalable and multiplatform programming interface for implementing and running machine learning algorithms” (Raschka & Mirjalili 2015). This package is built around the idea of a “computation graph composed as a set of nodes where each node represents an operation”. A tensor is created as a symbolic handle to refer to the input and output of these operations” (Raschka & Mirjalili 2015). A tensor is best understood as either a scalar, vector, or matrices where all values within the tensor hold an identical data type. These tensors are created from the values in the data and then are used to build and create the complex models one wants to work with.

For the images in my data set, by using Tensorflow I was able to convert the images into a set of tensors that represented the pixels of the images themselves. Since the images had been resized to a 64x64 pixel picture in grayscale coloring, this became a 64x64x1 tensor for each image. These tensors were then combined with their appropriate label for the type of image they were, either Normal or Pneumonia, creating a nicely formatted data set where we could then start to create models to best classify the data.

3 Keras and Convolutional Neural Networks

As we could see from the prior pictures of someone who had pneumonia versus someone who did not have pneumonia, it can be very hard to discern whether or not someone has pneumonia for a person without the technical training and expertise to identify pictures of pneumonia from looking at the CT scans. This ultimately requires doctors and those with the expertise to spend more time looking at the scans, rather than spending their already limited time directly helping patients. One way to help doctors to get back to directly helping patients is by utilizing machine learning to identify and detect different diseases or ailments within CT scans. By training and creating models that are able to discern between a normal or healthy scan versus someone who has a lesion or has pneumonia, we can begin to use artificial intelligence to alleviate some of the extraneous work that doctors are required to do.

3.1 Keras

For this project, I was specifically focused on creating a model that would be able to discern between someone who has pneumonia versus someone who does not have pneumonia. In order to do this I utilized the *keras* package in order to build a convolutional neural network to be able to distinguish between the two different diagnosis (Studio 2020). Keras is a “high-level neural network API that is built to run off other libraries such as Tensorflow to provide a user-friendly interface to building complex models” (Raschka & Mirjalili 2015). Keras, when working with Tensorflow, helps to provide the framework to begin building complex neural network models. This package will allow me to be able to not only train and build the model, but also be able to predict whether or not someone has pneumonia from looking at a specific image.

3.2 Neural Networks

By utilizing the Keras package, I was able to leverage a deep learning technique called a neural network that has been proven to work well on complicated machine learning tasks. Neural networks are extremely popular today due to recent advances in both the algorithms

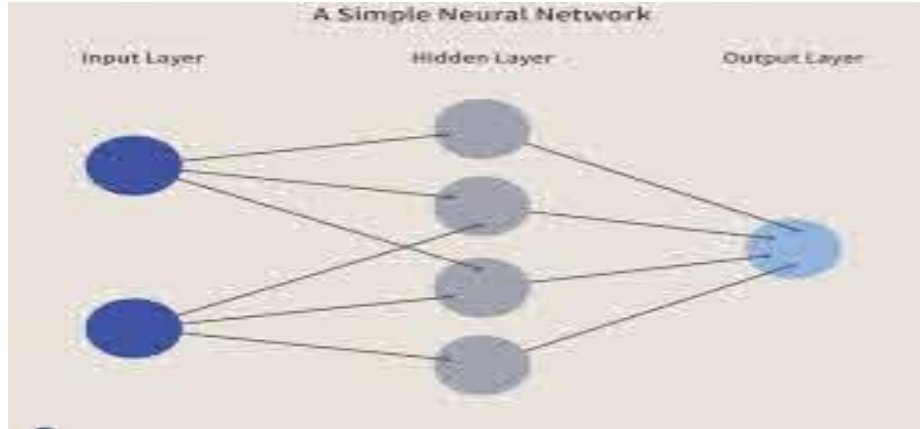


Figure 3: Structure of a Neural Network

used to build the models as well as the computer architecture which allows for much faster processing times of these complex models.

By looking at Figure 3, we can see an example of what the underlying structure of a neural network looks like (See Figure 3 (Chen 2020)). The neural network shown in this example consists of one input layer, one hidden layer with 4 hidden units, and then one output layer. The input layer would be the exact data you are feeding into the model, so for this picture this would mean there was two examples being fed into network to train the model. Then we can see how each of the input layers are connected to three of the gray nodes in the hidden layer. Then finally there is one output layer that is connected to all the nodes of the hidden layer. In general, neural networks can contain differing number of hidden layers, hidden units, and input and output units, which will all depend based on the data they have and the problem one is trying to solve. Although these models can be extremely hard to interpret and understand, they have been shown to be extremely successful at a broad range of tasks from natural language processing to self-driving cars.

3.3 Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN)

The specific form of neural network that I utilized for my project was a Convolutional Neural Network. Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) at a high level are a form of deep learning that takes an image as an input and eventually classifies it under a certain category. These types of networks are used heavily to perform tasks such as facial recognition, object

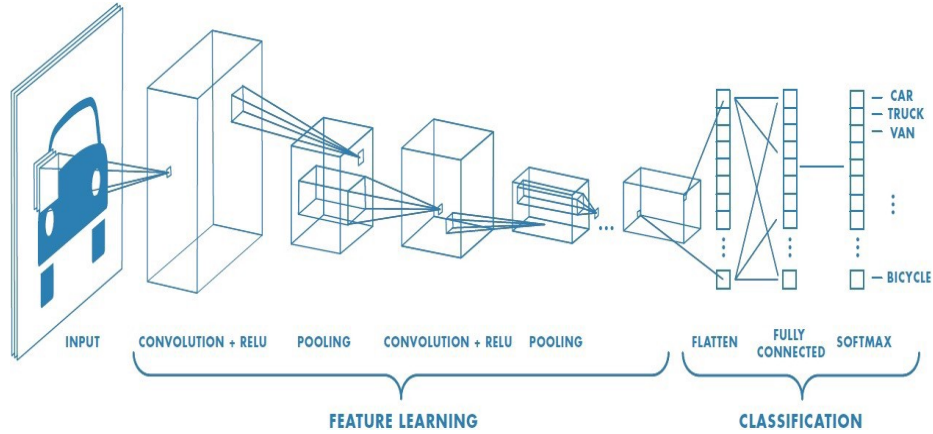


Figure 4: Convolutional Neural Network Example

detection, and image classification to just list a few. CNN’s are based heavily on how the visual cortex of the human brain works when recognizing images, which is what allows it to perform extremely well on image classification tasks.

CNN’s work by “combining the low level features in a layer-wise fashion to form high-level features” (Raschka & Mirjalili 2015). So rather than just looking at each pixel of an image separately, this model works to combine pixels into distinct features that can then be used to identify exact objects within the images. In order for the model to actual identify distinct features it relies on an idea called feature mapping that groups patches of pixels together in the image and combines them into one feature in the new feature map. This is based on the underlying assumption that in the context of image data, “nearby pixels are typically more relevant to each other than pixels that are far away from each other” (Raschka & Mirjalili 2015).

In order to actually perform this feature mapping though a CNN relies on creating a series of different types of layers in the form of convolution layers, subsampling layers, pooling layers, and dropout layers. By looking at Figure 4, one can begin to understand how the different layers connect to form a model (Saha 2018).

3.3.1 Convolution layers

Convolution layers is one of the first layers that begins extracting features from the input images. This layer works by taking an input matrix that represents the image, and a

filter matrix, of potentially a different size. These two matrices are multiplied together to create a feature map that begins to identify the low level features such as edges, blurriness, or sharpness of the image.

3.3.2 Subsampling and Pooling Layers

Another type of key layers are the subsampling and pooling layers. Usually the feature map that is created from the previous convolution layer is then fed into a subsampling or pooling layer. These layers work by combining small subsections of the feature map in order to simplify the feature map. The advantages of this include leading to higher computational efficiency by decreasing the size of the features and the number of parameters that are required to learn, as well as introducing local invariance that helps to generate features that are more robust to noise from the input images (MathWorks 2019).

3.3.3 Dropout layers

Dropout layers are then used to prevent over-fitting of the data set. It can be very easy to create a CNN that gets over-trained but then fails to perform well on the testing set of data. To prevent over-fitting and make the model work well for a broader range of images for general performance, dropout layers are introduced as a form of regularization. Dropout is usually applied to units of hidden layers and works by “during the training phase of a neural network, a fraction of the hidden units are randomly dropped at every iteration. This dropping out of random units requires the remaining units to rescale to account for the missing units which forces the network to learn a redundant representation of the data” (Raschka & Mirjalili 2015). This makes it so the model is more generalizable and robust to changes in patterns in the data and prevent over-fitting.

3.3.4 Challenges

When working with CNN’s, these different types of layers that the network can be built off of can all be included multiple times and in different orders. For example one could create a network of just a convolution layer and a dropout layer or someone could create a model that is convolution layer, pooling layer, convolution layer, and then two

dropout layers. There is no set rules around what order or how many different layers your network can have. On top of having unlimited variations of the type of layers within the network, there is also unlimited parameters that one can choose in terms of the size of the feature map, the number of units to pool together in the pooling layer, or the number of units to dropout in the dropout layer to just list a few examples. Due to having so many input parameters that can be changed and altered when it comes to building the model, finding the best possible input parameters and underlying structure of the model can become computationally expensive very quickly.

On top of CNN's being very computationally expensive to run, being able to interpret the outputs and inputs of individual layers of the network is its own separate issue. Often these types of models are referred to as "black box" models because while a human can understand the input and outputs of the models, it is often hard to decipher and understand what exactly the model is doing inside the box. For example, it is very tough to understand exactly how the model is able to distinguish between someone who has pneumonia or not. While there has been promising developments in this area such as Visualizing Activation Layers and Occlusion Sensitivity, this still remains an area of the field that a lot of future work can be done in (Sarkar 2019). While CNN's have been shown to do an incredible job at image classification tasks, optimizing and understanding these types of models is an area that can cause problems and issues.

3.4 CNN's with Medical Images

For my project, I wanted to use Convolutional Neural Networks to see how well this type of network could perform on the task of trying to classify whether or not someone had pneumonia based just of a CT scan. At this point I have already gotten my images into a form that allows them to be passed as inputs to build a model, so the next step was for me to begin training the model.

To begin training the model I started off by first splitting my data into training, validation, and testing sets. The training set would be used to train the model, the validation set would be used to tune the parameters in the network, and then the test set would then be used to assess the performance of the final model and see how generalizable the results

are when given separate input images.

After splitting up the data into their different sets I found that overall the data set contained many more pictures of people than pneumonia than people who did not have pneumonia. In fact, the training data contains 74% picture of people with pneumonia and 26% being normal images.

What this tells us is that if a random person were to guess that every picture was a picture of pneumonia, that they would be correct 74% of the time. So when I build out my models, I will be looking for a model that is able to achieve better than 74% accuracy to say it is an improvement over a baseline random guessing model.

3.5 Model 1

Now that I had an understanding of what my training set looked like, I wanted to try building my first convolutional neural network. For my first model I decided to build a model that had one convolution layer, one pooling layer, one flattening layer, a dropout layer that removed half of the available units available in the previous layer during each new training iteration, and then finally one dense layer. The flattening layer works to replace all dimensions of the previous tensors down to one dimension, which is the dimension size we want our output layer to be. The dropout layer is used to make the model more generalizable and requires the model to fit the units with only half the units of the previous layer available during any iteration. The final dense layer is used to create a layer of units, in this case one unit, where every unit in this new layer is connected to every unit in the previous layer, making it densely connected. By looking at Figure 5, one can see what this model looks like, and how there are 13,121 trainable parameters. These are all the weights between the different layers that the model will try to optimize during each training run.

After training this model we can see from looking at Figure 6 that although it starts at around being 75% accurate on both the training and validation sets, that even after 5 epochs that the model does not do any better at being able to discern between whether or not an image is normal or pneumonia than just random guessing. This suggests that either the model does not have enough layers to it and is not able to extract distinguishable features from the images or that there were not enough epochs to train the model. It is

Model: "sequential"

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
conv2d (Conv2D)	(None, 62, 62, 32)	320
max_pooling2d (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 20, 20, 32)	0
flatten (Flatten)	(None, 12800)	0
dropout (Dropout)	(None, 12800)	0
dense (Dense)	(None, 1)	12801

Total params: 13,121
Trainable params: 13,121
Non-trainable params: 0

Figure 5: Summary of Model 1

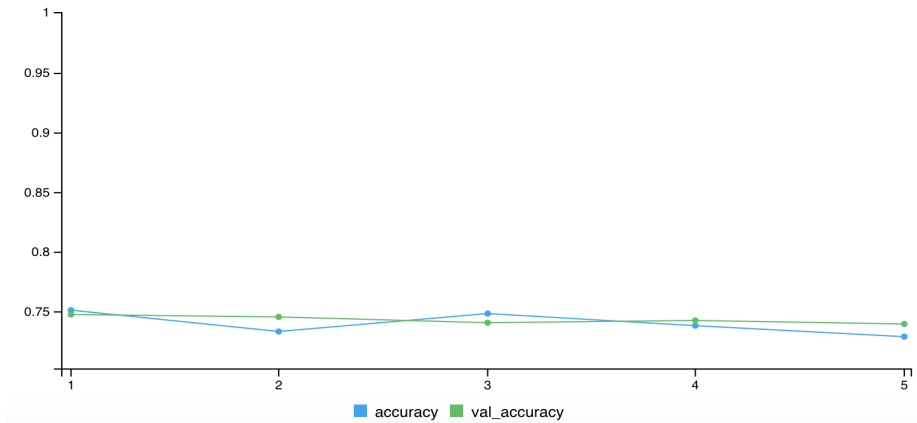


Figure 6: Model 1 Accuracy per Epoch

also worth noting that this model took 2 and a half minutes to complete its training, with roughly 30 seconds per epoch. This long run time is due to the large number of trainable parameters in the model.

3.6 Model 2

Since model 1 did not do any better than one would do than just randomly guessing, I decided to try to improve upon the first model by adding a second convolution layer after the first pooling layer, as well as a second dense layer at the end of the model. I also decided to increase the number of epochs from 5 to 10 to see if allowing the model a longer period of time to train itself would help improve the accuracy of the model at all. My hopes

Model: "sequential_1"

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
conv2d_1 (Conv2D)	(None, 60, 60, 32)	832
max_pooling2d_1 (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 20, 20, 32)	0
conv2d_2 (Conv2D)	(None, 16, 16, 32)	25632
flatten_1 (Flatten)	(None, 8192)	0
dropout_1 (Dropout)	(None, 8192)	0
dense_1 (Dense)	(None, 1)	8193
dense_2 (Dense)	(None, 1)	2

Total params: 34,659
Trainable params: 34,659
Non-trainable params: 0

Figure 7: Summary of Model 2

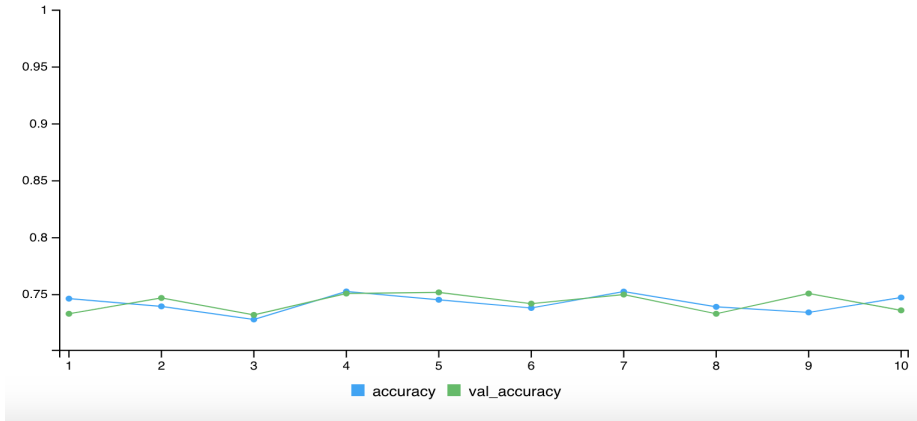


Figure 8: Model 2 Accuracy per Epoch

were that adding these new layers would help the model discover features in the images that it wasn't able to detect with the first model and adding more epochs would give the model more time to find these features. Figure 7 shows how the new model is constructed. We can see that by adding these two new layers to the model that there are now 34,659 parameters that the model is going to try to maximize during its training process.

Even after adding a second convolution layer and a second dense layer at the end, we can see that this model again does not do any better than the previous model by looking at Figure 8. One can see that the accuracy stays right around 75% for both the training and validation sets, and that even after increasing the complexity of the model slightly and increasing the number of epochs that the model is still not any better than guessing Pneumonia every time. This model also took roughly 5 minutes to run with every epoch

Model: "sequential_9"		
Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
conv2d_28 (Conv2D)	(None, 62, 62, 32)	320
max_pooling2d_27 (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 31, 31, 32)	0
conv2d_29 (Conv2D)	(None, 29, 29, 32)	9248
max_pooling2d_28 (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 14, 14, 32)	0
dropout_13 (Dropout)	(None, 14, 14, 32)	0
conv2d_30 (Conv2D)	(None, 12, 12, 64)	18496
max_pooling2d_29 (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 6, 6, 64)	0
dropout_14 (Dropout)	(None, 6, 6, 64)	0
conv2d_31 (Conv2D)	(None, 4, 4, 64)	36928
max_pooling2d_30 (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 2, 2, 64)	0
dropout_15 (Dropout)	(None, 2, 2, 64)	0
flatten_9 (Flatten)	(None, 256)	0
dropout_16 (Dropout)	(None, 256)	0
dense_16 (Dense)	(None, 128)	32896
dense_17 (Dense)	(None, 1)	129
Total params: 98,017		
Trainable params: 98,017		
Non-trainable params: 0		

Figure 9: Model 3 Summary

taking 30 seconds to run.

3.7 Model 3

Since my second model still did not do much better than someone randomly guessing, for my third model I decided to increase the complexity of the model substantially. Since the previous models did not appear to be able to detect any distinguishable features from the images, by increasing the number of layers in the model I believe it should help the model finally be able to detect the underlying features. For this model I decided to have 4 pairs of convolution, pooling, and dropout layers, followed by a flattening layer and then two dense layers. As we can see from Figure 9, this model now has 98,017 trainable parameters that the model will try to optimize.

As we can see from this output, the model is finally able to discern between images that contain pneumonia and normal images. As we can, over the course of 10 epochs the model is able to increase its accuracy from under 75% to close to 90% by the 10th epoch. From the graph we can also see that the validation accuracy score is always slightly under the training accuracy score, which suggests that the model might be slightly over-fitting the data, but because I already included 4 dropout layers in the model and the scores are still relatively close, this is not something to worry about too much. This model also took close to 5 minutes to run even though the number of trainable parameters increased substantially.

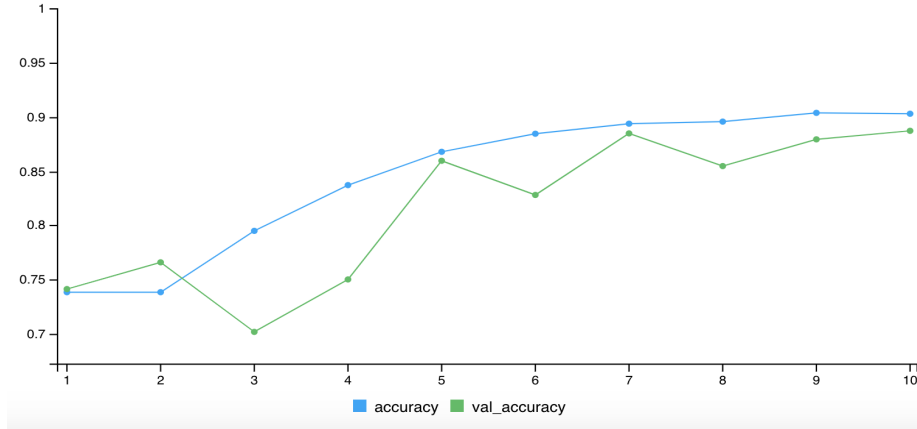


Figure 10: Model 3 Accuracy

3.8 Results

After creating each of these three different models, we can see by looking at the chart below, that Model 3 is able to obtain the highest accuracy scores on both the training and validation sets. Therefore I will use this model on the testing set.

Model	Training Accuracy	Validation Accuracy
Model 1	0.75	0.75
Model 2	0.75	0.75
Model 3	0.90	0.88

After running model 3 on the testing set, the model was able to achieve an accuracy score of 84.62% and a loss score of 0.381 . The testing set contained 234 normal images and 390 pneumonia images so if one were to guess pneumonia every time they would be correct 62.5% of the time. While this model could potentially still be improved upon, being able to train a model that achieves an accuracy of 85% on a task as challenging as being able to identify whether or not someone has pneumonia is a very promising result.

Model	Accuracy	Loss
Model 3	0.846	0.381

While ideally I would like to understand how the model is making its decisions, and understand exactly how each of the different layer is affecting the output of the model, currently this task is extremely challenging and is a major downside of using this type of model. As briefly mention earlier, one of the biggest challenges with using this type of model is being able to interpret the model itself and is why its commonly referred to as

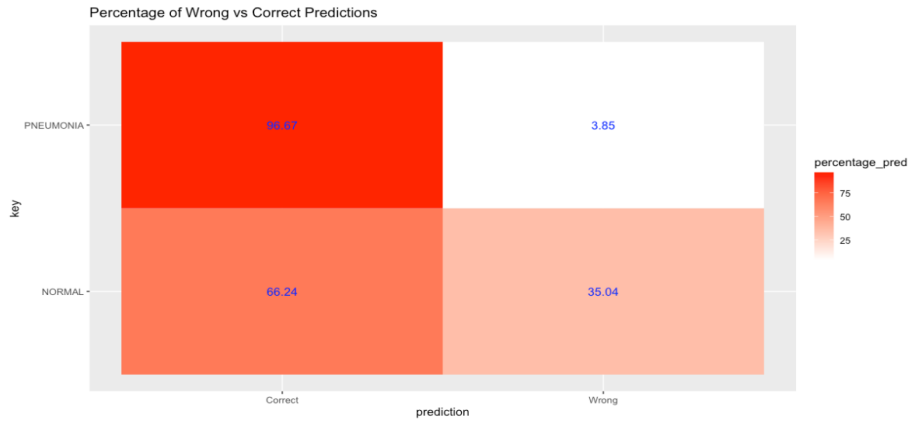


Figure 11: Confusion Matrix of Testing Set Results

a blackbox model. Being able to explain these types of models is a huge area of research, and trying to go under the hood and unpack the model could be its own separate project. For now this means that I have to settle for looking at what types of scans the models does a good job classifying, to see how it could be improved.

When looking at Figure 11, we can break down the accuracy score further and look into how the model did at identifying the two different classes one can begin to look into areas where the model does very well and where the model struggles. By looking at the confusion matrix in Figure 11, we can see that the model does an extremely good job of identifying when the image is of someone who has pneumonia, being able to predict is correctly 96.7% of the time. We can also see that the model is only able to correctly predict whether someone is normal at a 66.2% of the time. What this output tells us is that the model is more likely to identify a patient as having pneumonia when they have do not have it, rather than the opposite scenario of telling a patient they do not have pneumonia when they in fact have it which is probably the more dangerous scenario. When thinking about why the model does such a better job at identifying patients who have pneumonia, it comes back to the type of data we used to train the model. Since the training and validation data contained 3x as many pictures of pneumonia, it makes sense that the model does a much better job of being able to recognize when someone has pneumonia. So while being able to achieve 85% accuracy with a convolutional neural network is very promising, these results show that there is future work that can be done that would be able to improve the model's

accuracy even more.

4 Conclusion and Future Work

When reflecting back and thinking about ways that this worked could be built on in the future, the first thing that comes to mind is learning how to use different image augmentation techniques to build off the underlying images. Having a training set that contained a much higher percentage of patients with pneumonia than patients without pneumonia drastically affected the final model that was created. As one could see from the final confusion matrix, the model did an incredible job correctly predicting when a patient had pneumonia but did poorly when predicting if a patient was normal. This is largely due to the training set that it was fed and is the first area that could be used to improve the model.

The second way this project could be improved upon in the future would have been to work entirely within the Google Cloud Environment. Since Google Cloud now offers an R Studio that runs directly within their cloud environment, this means that I could have taken advantage of both Google Cloud Storage, to store the data, and also the Google Cloud AI Platform, to optimize the model.

The Google Cloud AI Platform would have first helped by speeding up the run time of the models I created. As I mentioned in the report, running and training these models took upwards of 5 minutes each and this didn't include any optimization techniques. Using the AI platform would have allowed me to speed up the training time and also try out different optimization methods that would have helped improve the accuracy of my model even further. So while overall this project was very successful in what I set out to learn, there are certainly still areas that could be improved upon in the future.

5 Appendix

5.1 Image Transformation and Tensorflow

```
chest_list <- c("NORMAL","PNEUMONIA")
output_n<-length(chest_list)

img_width <- 64
img_height <- 64
target_size <- c(img_width, img_height)

#this is for grayscale images
channels <- 1

batch_size<-32

# path to image folders
train_image_files_path <- file.path("setup/images/chest_xray/train")

train_data_gen = image_data_generator(
  rescale = 1/255,
  validation_split=0.2
)

train_image_array_gen <- flow_images_from_directory(train_image_files_path,
                                                    train_data_gen,
                                                    subset = 'training',
                                                    target_size = target_size,
                                                    color_mode="grayscale",
                                                    class_mode = "binary",
                                                    classes = chest_list,
```

```

shuffle=TRUE,
batch_size=batch_size,
seed = 27)

val_image_array_gen <- flow_images_from_directory(train_image_files_path,
train_data_gen,
subset = 'validation',
color_mode="grayscale",
target_size = target_size,
class_mode = "binary",
classes = chest_list,
shuffle=TRUE,
batch_size=batch_size,
seed = 27)

```

5.2 Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) with Medical Images

```

# number of training samples
train_samples <- train_image_array_gen$n
# number of validation samples
valid_samples <- val_image_array_gen$n

# define batch size and number of epochs
batch_size <- 32
epochs <- 10

```

5.2.1 Model 1

```

model1<- keras_model_sequential() %>%
  layer_conv_2d(filters = 32, kernel_size = c(3,3), activation = "relu",
                input_shape = c(64,64,1)) %>%
  layer_max_pooling_2d(pool_size = c(3,3)) %>%
  layer_flatten() %>%
  layer_dropout(rate=0.5) %>%
  layer_dense(1, activation="softmax")

model1 %>% compile(
  optimizer = "adam",
  loss = "binary_crossentropy",
  metrics = "accuracy"
)
summary(model1)

```

```

set.seed(27)
batch_size<-32
hist <- model1 %>% fit_generator(
  # training data
  train_image_array_gen,

  # epochs
  steps_per_epoch = as.integer(train_samples / batch_size)/2,
  epochs = 5,

  # validation data
  validation_data = val_image_array_gen,
  validation_steps = as.integer(valid_samples / batch_size),

)

```

```
plot(hist)
```

5.2.2 Model 2

```
model2<- keras_model_sequential() %>%  
  layer_conv_2d(filters = 32, kernel_size = c(5,5), activation = "relu",  
                input_shape = c(64,64,1)) %>%  
  layer_max_pooling_2d(pool_size = c(3,3)) %>%  
  layer_conv_2d(filters = 32, kernel_size = c(5,5), activation = "relu",  
                input_shape = c(64,64,1)) %>%  
  layer_flatten() %>%  
  layer_dropout(rate=0.5) %>%  
  layer_dense(1, activation="relu") %>%  
  layer_dense(1, activation="softmax")  
  
model2 %>% compile(  
  optimizer = "adam",  
  loss = "binary_crossentropy",  
  metrics = "accuracy"  
)  
summary(model2)
```

```
set.seed(27)  
hist2 <- model2 %>% fit_generator(  
  # training data  
  train_image_array_gen,  
  
  # epochs  
  steps_per_epoch = as.integer(train_samples / batch_size)/2,  
  epochs = epochs,
```

```

# validation data
validation_data = val_image_array_gen,
validation_steps = as.integer(valid_samples / batch_size),

)
plot(hist2)

```

5.2.3 Model 3

```

model3 <- keras_model_sequential() %>%
  layer_conv_2d(filters = 32, kernel_size = c(3,3), activation = "relu",
    input_shape = c(64,64,1)) %>%
  layer_max_pooling_2d(pool_size = c(2,2)) %>%

  layer_conv_2d(filters = 32, kernel_size = c(3,3), activation = "relu") %>%
  layer_max_pooling_2d(pool_size = c(2,2)) %>%
  layer_dropout(rate=0.5) %>%

  layer_conv_2d(filters = 64, kernel_size = c(3,3), activation = "relu") %>%
  layer_max_pooling_2d(pool_size = c(2,2)) %>%
  layer_dropout(rate=0.5) %>%

  layer_conv_2d(filters = 64, kernel_size = c(3,3), activation = "relu") %>%
  layer_max_pooling_2d(pool_size = c(2,2)) %>%
  layer_dropout(rate=0.5) %>%

  layer_flatten() %>%
  layer_dropout(rate=0.2) %>%
  layer_dense(128, activation="relu") %>%
  layer_dense(units = 1, activation = "sigmoid")

```

```

model3 %>% compile(
  optimizer = "adam",
  loss = "binary_crossentropy",
  metrics = "accuracy"
)

summary(model3)

```

```

set.seed(27)
hist3 <- model3 %>% fit_generator(
  # training data
  train_image_array_gen,

  # epochs
  steps_per_epoch = as.integer(train_samples / batch_size)/2,
  epochs = epochs,

  # validation data
  validation_data = val_image_array_gen,
  validation_steps = as.integer(valid_samples / batch_size),
)

plot(hist3)

```

5.2.4 Testing Results

```

model3 <- load_model_hdf5("my_model3.h5")

test_image_files_path<-file.path("setup/images/chest_xray/test")

```

```

test_datagen <- image_data_generator(rescale = 1/255)

test_generator <- flow_images_from_directory(
  test_image_files_path,
  test_datagen,
  color_mode="grayscale",
  target_size = target_size,
  class_mode = "binary",
  classes = chest_list,
  batch_size = 1,
  shuffle = FALSE,
  seed = 42)

set.seed(2)
test_results<-model3 %>%
  evaluate_generator(test_generator,
                    steps = as.integer(test_generator$n))

test_results

```

One can also check out the file “report/setup/Convolutional_Neural_Net.pdf” to see output to all the code above.

5.3 Google Cloud Storage

If one wants to learn how to store data and upload data from Google Cloud Storage to work with within RStudio, go to report/setup/GoogleCloudSetup.Rmd to learn how to connect ones R Studio with their Google Cloud Storage Buckets. One can also go to report/setup/Google_Cloud_Setup_Instructions folder to follow the exact process of connecting the data from this project with Google Cloud Storage.

Note: Other sources that were extremely beneficial towards this project include (?), (Prabhu 2018), (Edmondson 2019), (Mooney 2020), (Studio 2018),and (Elsinghorst 2018).

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