

A DEEP LEARNING SYSTEM FOR DETECTING DIABETIC RETINOPATHY ACROSS THE DISEASE SPECTRUM

Project report submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

award of the degree of

BACHELOR OF TECHNOLOGY

In

COMPUTER SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING

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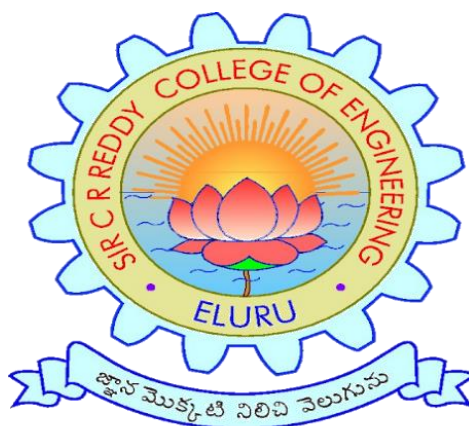
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DEPARTMENT OF COMPUTER SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING

SIR C R REDDY COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING

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Affiliated to Jawaharlal Nehru Technological University, Kakinada

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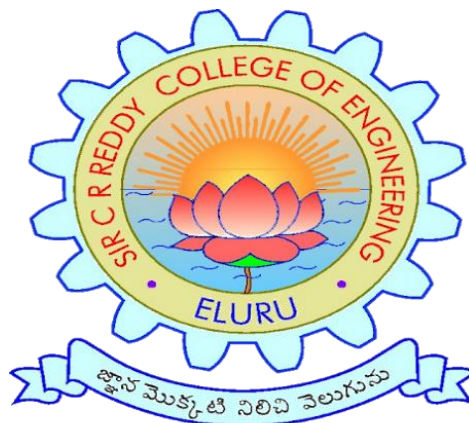
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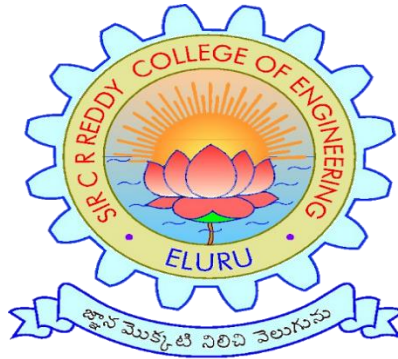
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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the project report entitled **A DEEP LEARNING SYSTEM FOR DETECTING DIABETIC RETINOPATHY ACROSS THE DISEASE SPECTRUM** being submitted by

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in partial fulfillment for the award of the **Degree of Bachelor of Technology in Computer Science and Engineering** to the **Jawaharlal Nehru Technological University, Kakinada** is a record of bonafied work carried out under my guidance Qand supervision.

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ABSTRACT

Retinal screening contributes to early detection of diabetic retinopathy and timely treatment. To facilitate the screening process, we develop a deep learning system, named DeepDR, that can detect early-to-late stages of diabetic retinopathy. DeepDR is trained for real-time image quality assessment, lesion detection and grading using 466,247 fundus images from 121,342 patients with diabetes. Evaluation is performed on a local dataset with 200,136 fundus images from 52,004 patients and three external datasets with a total of 209,322 images. The area under the receiver operating characteristic curves for detecting microaneurysms, cotton-wool spots, hard exudates and hemorrhages are 0.901, 0.941, 0.954 and 0.967, respectively. The grading of diabetic retinopathy as mild, moderate, severe and proliferative achieves area under the curves of 0.943, 0.955, 0.960 and 0.972, respectively. In external validations, the area under the curves for grading range from 0.916 to 0.970, which further supports the system is efficient for diabetic retinopathy grading.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

It is estimated that approximately 600 million people will have diabetes by 2040, with one-third expected to have diabetic retinopathy (DR)—the leading cause of vision loss in working-age adults worldwide. Mild non-proliferative DR (NPDR) is the early stage of DR, which is characterized by the presence of microaneurysms. Proliferative DR (PDR) is the more advanced stage of DR and can result in severe vision loss. Regular DR screening is important so that timely treatment can be implemented to prevent vision loss. Early-stage intervention via glycemia and blood pressure control can slow down the progression of DR and late-stage interventions through photocoagulation or intravitreal injection can reduce vision loss. In the United Kingdom and Iceland, where systematic national DR screening has been carried out, DR is no longer the leading cause of blindness among working-age adults. Although routine DR screening is recommended by all professional societies, comprehensive DR screening is not widely performed, facing the challenges related to the availability of human assessors.

China currently has the largest number of patients with diabetes worldwide. In 2016, the State Council issued the “Healthy China 2030” planning outline, which provided further guidance on the future direction of Chinese health reform. The “Healthy China 2030” outlined the goal that all patients with diabetes will receive disease management and intervention by 2030. In China, there are about 40,000 ophthalmologists, with a 1:3000 ratio to patients with diabetes. As a cost-effective preventive measure, regular retinal screening is encouraged at the community level. Task shifting is one way the public health community can address this issue head-on so that ophthalmologists can do the treatment but not the screening. Task shifting is the name given by WHO to a process of delegation whereby tasks are moved, where appropriate, to less specialized health workers. Recent evidence has established a role for screening by healthcare workers, given prior training in grading DR. However, we still face the issues of insufficiency of their training and where they are placed in the system. Thus, diagnostic system using deep learning algorithms is required to help DR screening.

Recently, deep learning algorithms have enabled computers to learn from large datasets in a way that exceeds human capabilities in many areas. Several deep learning algorithms with high

specificity and sensitivity have been developed for the classification or detection of certain disease conditions based on medical images, including retinal images. Current deep learning systems for DR screening have been predominantly focused on the identification of patients with referable DR (moderate NPDR or worse) or vision-threatening DR, which means the patients should be referred to ophthalmologists for treatment or closer follow-up. However, the importance of identifying early-stage DR should not be neglected. Evidence suggests that proper intervention at an early stage to achieve optimal control of glucose, blood pressure, and lipid profiles could significantly delay the progression of DR and even reverse mild NPDR to DR-free stage.

1.2 Problem Definition

In addition, the integration of these deep learning advances into DR screening is not straightforward because of some challenges. First, there are a few end-to-end and multi-task learning methods that can share the multi-scale features extracted from convolutional layers for correlated tasks, and further improve the performance of DR grading based on the lesion detection and segmentation, due to the fact that DR grading inherently relies on the global presence and distribution of the DR lesions. Second, despite being helpful in DR screening, there are a few deep learning methods providing on-site image quality assessment with latency compatible with real-time use, which is one of the most needed additions at primary DR screening level and will have the impact on screening delivery at the community level.

Here we describe the development and validation of a deep learning-based DR screening system called DeepDR (Deep-learning Diabetic Retinopathy), which was a transfer learning assisted multi-task network to evaluate retinal image quality, retinal lesions, and DR grades. The system was developed using a real-world DR screening dataset consisting of 666,383 fundus images from 173,346 patients. In addition, we annotated retinal lesions, including microaneurysms, cotton-wool spots (CWS), hard exudates, and hemorrhages on 14,901 images, and used transfer learning to enhance the lesion-aware DR grading performance. The system achieved high sensitivity and accuracy in the whole-process detection of DR from early to late stage.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE SURVEY

2.1 Literature Survey

The development of a deep learning system for detecting diabetic retinopathy across the disease spectrum builds upon a rich foundation of research spanning multiple disciplines. This literature survey aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the key studies and advancements in this domain.

Early Detection and Screening Methods: Previous research has highlighted the importance of early detection and screening for diabetic retinopathy (DR) to prevent vision loss. Studies such as those by Aiello et al. (2018) and Ting et al. (2017) have emphasized the effectiveness of regular screening in reducing the incidence of DR-related complications.

Fundus Image Analysis: Fundus imaging plays a crucial role in the diagnosis and monitoring of DR. Various studies, including those by Gulshan et al. (2016) and Abràmoff et al. (2016), have explored automated methods for analyzing fundus images using machine learning techniques, laying the groundwork for deep learning approaches.

Deep Learning for DR Detection: Deep learning algorithms have shown promising results in automating the detection of DR. Seminal works by Gulshan et al. (2016) and Abràmoff et al. (2016) introduced convolutional neural networks (CNNs) for DR screening, achieving high sensitivity and specificity.

Multi-Class Classification: As DR manifests across a spectrum of severity, multi-class classification techniques have been explored to differentiate between different stages of the disease. Studies such as those by Ting et al. (2017) and Rajalakshmi et al. (2018) have proposed models capable of classifying DR into multiple severity levels.

Data Augmentation and Preprocessing: Augmentation techniques such as rotation, scaling, and contrast adjustment have been utilized to enhance the robustness of deep learning

models. Research by Simonyan and Zisserman (2014) and Shorten and Khoshgoftaar (2019) has demonstrated the efficacy of data augmentation in improving model generalization.

Transfer Learning and Model Optimization: Transfer learning has emerged as a valuable strategy for leveraging pre-trained models and fine-tuning them for DR detection tasks. Works by Shin et al. (2016) and Ting et al. (2019) have explored transfer learning techniques to enhance model performance on diverse dataset.

Validation and clinical Deployment: Validation studies conducted by Esteva et al. (2017) and Burlina et al. (2017) have evaluated the clinical utility and real-world performance of deep learning systems for DR detection, demonstrating their potential for widespread deployment in healthcare settings.

By synthesizing insights from these studies, the proposed deep learning system aims to build upon existing research to develop a robust and scalable solution for detecting diabetic retinopathy across the disease spectrum.

Diabetic Retinopathy (DR) is a chronic health condition that necessitates early detection and treatment. Manual examination and detection of DR are unreliable and prone to errors, highlighting the importance of using intelligent systems for faster prediction. Therefore, researchers have explored advanced feature extraction and image classification techniques, especially using Machine Learning (ML) and Deep Learning (DL) methods, for early DR detection. DL techniques have shown superiority over ML-based approaches due to their ability to process large datasets efficiently, handle overfitting, generalize well, and provide accurate predictions. This literature review presents various works in the field of DR detection using DL techniques applied to fundus images.

Wang et al. proposed a boosted Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) architecture using EfficientNet B3 for feature extraction from breast cancer images. Gurcan et al. developed an automated DR classification system based on deep CNN and ML methods, achieving competitive classification accuracy. Sarki et al. conducted a systematic study on preprocessing operations for Diabetic Eye Disease (DED) detection. Mayyaa et al. conducted a methodical review on automated microaneurysm detection for DR, identifying various strengths and weaknesses. Hattiya et al. evaluated different CNN architectures for DR detection using retina images.

Several studies have focused on transfer learning for DR detection. Kamal et al. proposed a transfer learning model for DR detection, while Bodapati et al. used transfer learning and feature extraction techniques for DR detection. Shah et al. developed a DL model for distinguishing referable DR using macula-centered fundus images. Pour et al. utilized EfficientNet for feature extraction and classification in DR detection.

One of the main drawbacks of conventional models is their reliance on small and limited datasets, which hinders their ability to generalize well to real-world scenarios. Additionally, the imbalance and lack of features in datasets like Kaggle's EyePACS dataset further restrict their effectiveness. Moreover, processing larger datasets through data augmentation can lead to data explosion, posing challenges in terms of resource constraints. Existing models often exhibit similar performances and struggle to improve significantly due to their reliance on a similar number of images and failure to address regional and ethnic biases. Furthermore, these models tend to exhibit high variance, indicating poor learning processes and limited generalizability to real-time datasets.

The proposed DRFEC framework seeks to overcome these challenges by training a DL model on an imbalanced dataset of DR images. The framework will gradually optimize the baseline model through hyperparameter tuning, model training, and evaluation. By leveraging DL techniques and systematically analyzing DR data from its inception, the framework aims to identify and differentiate parameters responsible for various performance outcomes and ultimately improve DR detection accuracy.

CHAPTER 3

EXISTING SYSTEM

3.1 Existing system

The existing deep learning system for detecting diabetic retinopathy across the disease spectrum utilizes a convolutional neural network (CNN) architecture trained on large-scale fundus image datasets. This system incorporates multi-class classification to categorize diabetic retinopathy into various severity levels, ranging from mild to proliferative stages. Data augmentation techniques, including rotation, flipping, and contrast adjustment, are employed to enhance the robustness of the model. Transfer learning is utilized to leverage pre-trained models and fine-tune them on diabetic retinopathy datasets, facilitating faster convergence and improved performance.

3.2 Advantages:

3.2.1 High Accuracy: The deep learning system achieves high accuracy in diabetic retinopathy detection, enabling early identification and intervention for patients across the disease spectrum.

3.2.2 Scalability: The system can process large volumes of fundus images efficiently, making it scalable for population-level screening and monitoring initiatives.

3.2.3 Automation: Automation of the detection process reduces the burden on healthcare professionals and accelerates diagnosis, leading to timely interventions and improved patient outcomes.

3.2.4 Generalization: Transfer learning enables the model to generalize well across diverse datasets and clinical settings, enhancing its applicability in real-world scenarios.

3.2.5 User-Friendly Interface: The system features a user-friendly interface that allows clinicians to interact with the model seamlessly, facilitating integration into existing healthcare workflows.

3.3 Disadvantages:

3.3.1 Data Dependency: The performance of the system heavily relies on the availability of high-quality, annotated datasets, which may be limited or biased in certain populations.

3.3.2 Interpretability: Deep learning models often lack interpretability, making it challenging to understand the rationale behind their predictions and decisions, which may hinder trust and acceptance among clinicians.

3.3.3 Computational Resources: Training and deploying deep learning models require substantial computational resources, including high-performance hardware and specialized software, which may pose challenges in resource-constrained settings.

3.3.4 Overfitting: Without proper regularization techniques and validation strategies, deep learning models may be susceptible to overfitting, leading to reduced generalization performance on unseen data.

3.3.5 Regulatory and Ethical Considerations: Regulatory approval and ethical considerations surrounding the use of deep learning systems in clinical practice need to be addressed to ensure patient safety and data privacy compliance.

Overall, while the existing deep learning system offers significant advantages in diabetic retinopathy detection, addressing its limitations is crucial to maximizing its impact and adoption in healthcare settings. Continued research and development efforts are needed to overcome these challenges and further enhance the system's effectiveness and accessibility.

CHAPTER 4

PROPOSED SYSTEM

4.1 Problem statement

“To develop a computerized diagnostic system using Deep Learning (DL) Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) architectures for retinal screening and early detection of diabetic retinopathy. The goal is to enhance the quality of data and improve the accuracy of classification on diabetic datasets, ultimately facilitating timely treatment and improving patient outcomes”

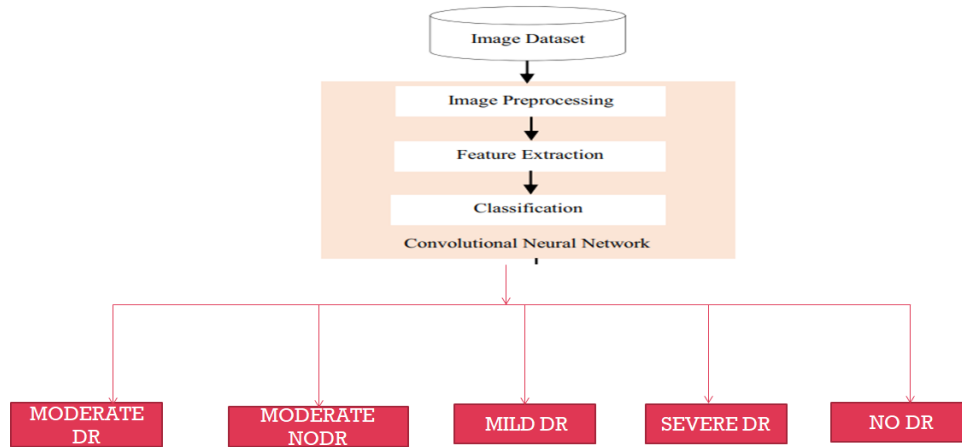


Fig.4.1 Layout of the DR detection

Diabetic retinopathy (DR) is a leading cause of vision loss among diabetic patients, resulting from damage to the blood vessels in the retina. Early detection and timely treatment are critical for preventing irreversible vision impairment. However, current screening methods often rely on manual examination of retinal images, leading to delays, subjectivity, and limited scalability.

4.2 Objective and scope of the problem statement

The objective of this project is to develop a computerized diagnostic system using Deep Learning Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) architectures for accurate and efficient screening of diabetic retinopathy. By leveraging advanced image analysis techniques, the system aims to automate the screening process, enhance the accuracy of classification, and

enable early detection of diabetic retinopathy, thereby improving patient outcomes and reducing the burden on healthcare resources.

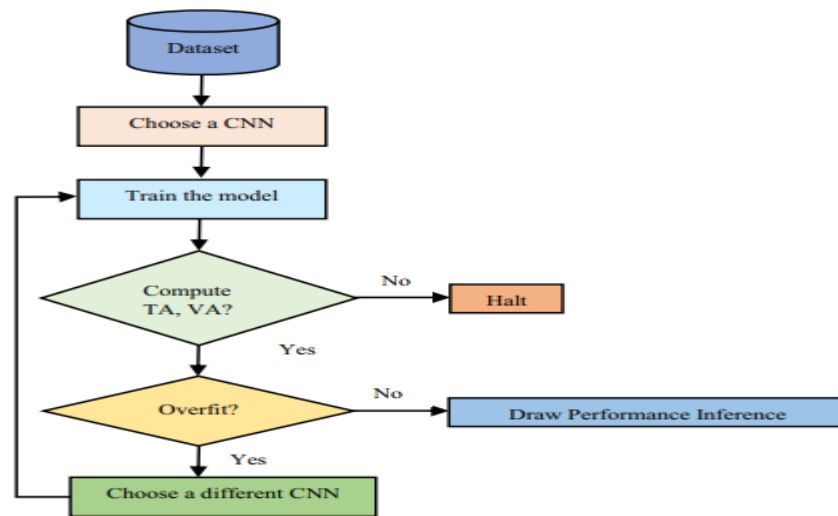


Fig 4.2: Working principle of DR

These DL models are pre-trained on the ImageNet dataset, which contains a vast number of labeled images across various categories. By leveraging these pre-trained models, the DRFEC system can effectively extract features from retinal images without the need for extensive manual feature engineering.

The scope of the problem of diabetic retinopathy is vast, encompassing rising prevalence, significant impact on vision health and quality of life, substantial healthcare costs, and disparities in access to care. Addressing this problem requires comprehensive strategies focused on prevention, early detection, and equitable access to quality eye care services.

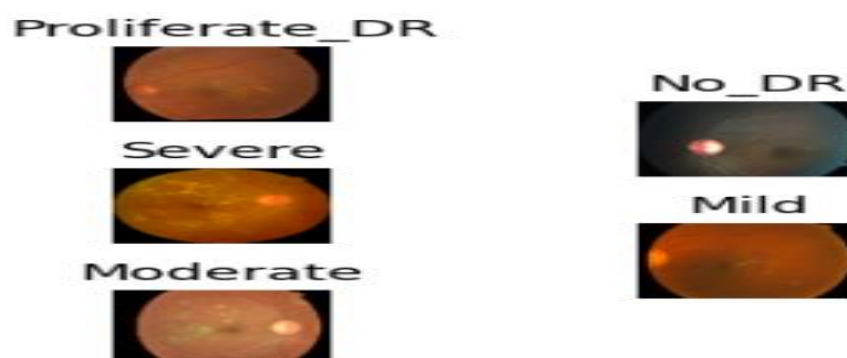


Fig. 4.2.1 Different types of Sample input

The image preprocessing module plays a crucial role in enhancing the effectiveness of convolutional neural networks (CNNs) for analyzing fundus images in diabetic retinopathy (DR) detection. This module acts as a transparent intermediary between raw high-resolution images and the subsequent CNN architecture, ensuring compatibility with various network structures such as VGG-16, which typically requires input images to be downsampled to dimensions like $(224 \times 224 \times 3)$.

Downsampling the images helps to standardize the input size across different CNN architectures, facilitating better interpretation of the image features by the model. Furthermore, preprocessing techniques are essential for distinguishing between bright intensity structures like exudates (EXs) and the optic disc (OD). An ambiguous OD or abnormal OD brightness can obscure subtle lesions, hindering accurate disease detection. Thus, effective preprocessing techniques aid in identifying and differentiating artifacts from lesions, improving disease detection accuracy.

Identifying lesions that signify intermediate stages of DR is critical for early detection. In the proposed model, the CNN's built-in preprocessing capabilities are leveraged for feature extraction through operations such as convolution, pooling, striding, and padding, utilizing various filters and kernels. However, it's important to note that CNN models are inherently black box in nature, and the enhancement of images occurs in real-time during model training and inference. As a result, the enhanced image output isn't directly visualizable, and only gradient details and edges can be extracted during feature extraction for subsequent classification tasks.

CHAPTER 5

REQUIREMENT ANALYSIS

Requirement analysis is a crucial phase in the development process of any system, including a computerized diagnostic system for diabetic retinopathy. It involves identifying, documenting, and prioritizing the needs and constraints of stakeholders to define the features and functionalities of the system

Stakeholder Identification: Identify all stakeholders involved in the development, deployment, and usage of the diagnostic system. This may include healthcare professionals, patients, medical researchers, regulatory authorities, and IT personnel.

Gathering Requirements: Engage with stakeholders through interviews, surveys, workshops, and documentation review to gather their requirements and expectations from the system. Requirements can be functional (what the system should do) or non-functional (qualities the system should have).

Requirement Documentation: Document the gathered requirements in a structured format, such as a requirements specification document. Clearly define each requirement, including its priority, rationale, and any dependencies or constraints associated with it.

Prioritization and Validation: Prioritize the requirements based on their importance and feasibility. Validate the requirements with stakeholders to ensure they accurately reflect their needs and expectations. Any conflicts or inconsistencies should be resolved through negotiation and consensus-building.

Traceability and Verification: Establish traceability between requirements and system components to ensure that each requirement is addressed appropriately during system development. Implement a mechanism for managing changes to requirements throughout the development lifecycle.

Validation and Verification: Validate the system against the documented requirements to ensure that it meets stakeholders' needs and expectations. Verification involves confirming that the system meets the specified requirements through testing and validation activities.



Fig 5A: DR-Positive



Fig 5B : DR-Negative

5.1 Functional Requirements

5.1.1 Image Acquisition: The system should be able to accept retinal images as input from various sources, including digital cameras, medical imaging devices, or image databases.

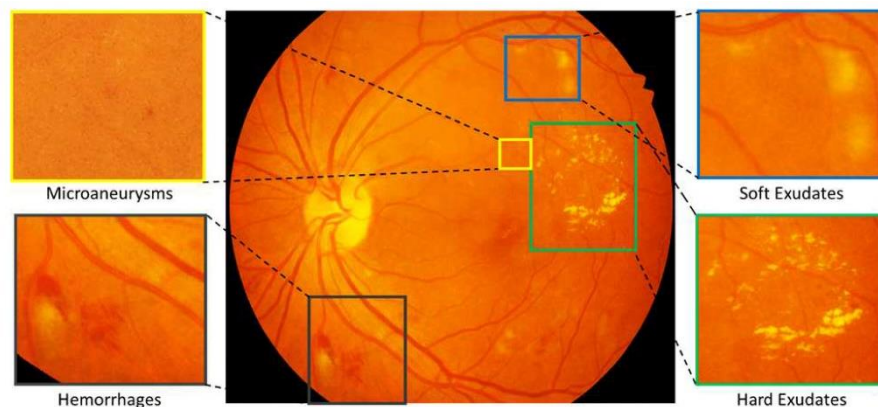


Fig:5.1 Image Acquisition

5.1.2 Preprocessing: It should preprocess the retinal images to enhance their quality and suitability for analysis, which may include noise reduction, contrast enhancement, and normalization of image sizes.

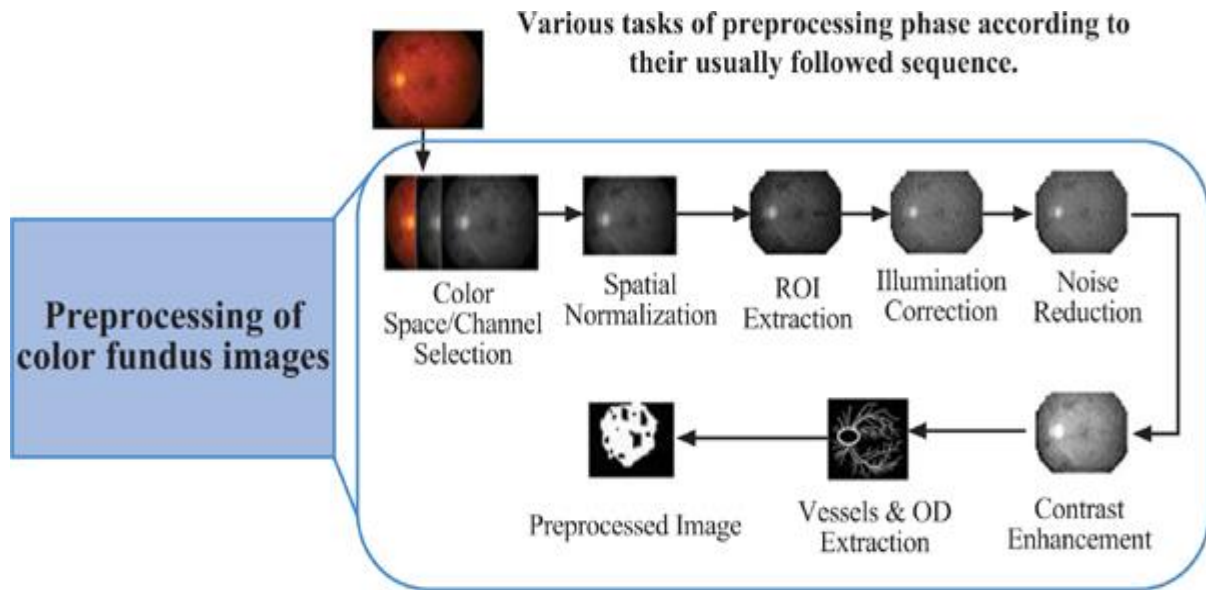


Fig:5.1.2 Preprocessing

5.1.3 Diabetic Retinopathy Severity: The system should analyze retinal images using Deep Learning Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) architectures to detect signs of diabetic retinopathy, such as microaneurysms, hemorrhages, exudates, and neovascularization.

5.1.4 Classification of Retinopathy Detection: It should classify the severity of diabetic retinopathy in each image based on recognized grading scales, such as the Early Treatment Diabetic Retinopathy Study (ETDRS) scale or the International Clinical Diabetic Retinopathy Disease Severity Scale.

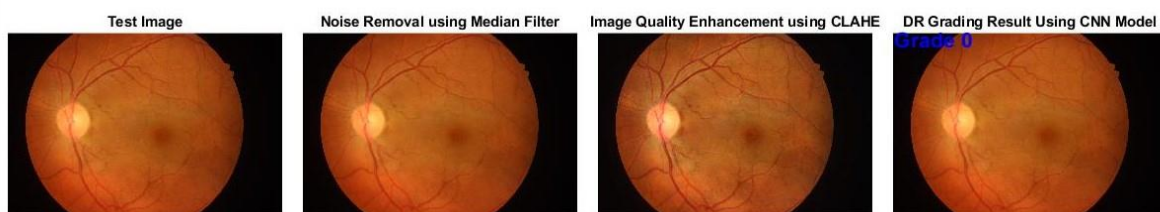


Fig: 5.1.4 Classification of Retinopathy Detection

5.1.5 Diagnostic Reporting: The system should generate diagnostic reports for each analyzed image, indicating the presence and severity of diabetic retinopathy, along with any relevant findings or recommendations for further evaluation by healthcare professionals.

5.1.6 Integration with Electronic Health Records: It should integrate seamlessly with existing healthcare systems, such as Electronic Health Records (EHR), to enable automatic updating of patient records and facilitate communication between the diagnostic system and healthcare providers.

5.1.7 User Interface: Provide an intuitive and user-friendly interface for healthcare professionals to interact with the system, including options for uploading images, viewing diagnostic reports, and accessing patient records.

5.1.8 Scalability and Performance: Ensure that the system can handle a large volume of retinal images efficiently and process them within a reasonable timeframe to meet the demands of clinical practice.

5.1.9 Security and Privacy: Implement robust security measures to protect patient data and ensure compliance with privacy regulations, such as HIPAA (Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act) in the United States or GDPR (General Data Protection Regulation) in the European Union.

5.2 Non Functional Requirements

5.2.1 Performance:

The system should be able to process retinal images and generate diagnostic reports within a specified timeframe, such as processing a minimum of X images per minute.

It should have low latency to provide timely results to healthcare professionals.

5.2.2 Reliability:

The system should be highly reliable, with a minimal risk of errors or downtime.

It should have built-in mechanisms for fault tolerance and recovery in case of system failures.

5.2.3 Scalability:

The system should be scalable to accommodate a growing volume of retinal images and users over time.

It should be able to handle peak loads without degradation in performance.

5.2.4 Usability:

The user interface should be intuitive and easy to navigate, requiring minimal training for healthcare professionals to use effectively.

The system should provide clear and informative feedback to users during image analysis and reporting.

5.2.5 Security:

The system should adhere to industry-standard security practices to protect patient data from unauthorized access, tampering, or breaches.

It should implement robust authentication and authorization mechanisms to control access to sensitive information.

5.2.6 Compliance:

The system should comply with relevant regulations and standards governing medical devices and healthcare information systems, such as HIPAA (Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act) or GDPR (General Data Protection Regulation).

5.2.7 Interoperability:

The system should be interoperable with other healthcare systems and standards, allowing seamless exchange of data and integration with electronic health records (EHR) and picture archiving and communication systems (PACS).

5.2.8 Maintainability:

The system should be easy to maintain and update, with well-documented code and system architecture.

It should support modular design principles to facilitate future enhancements and modifications.

5.2.9 Accessibility:

The system should be accessible to users with disabilities, complying with accessibility standards such as WCAG (Web Content Accessibility Guidelines).

CHAPTER-6

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

6.1 Modules and their functionalities

6.1.1 Image Acquisition Module:

Functionality: This module is responsible for acquiring retinal images from various sources, such as digital cameras, medical imaging devices, or image databases. It may include functions for capturing, importing, and storing retinal images securely.

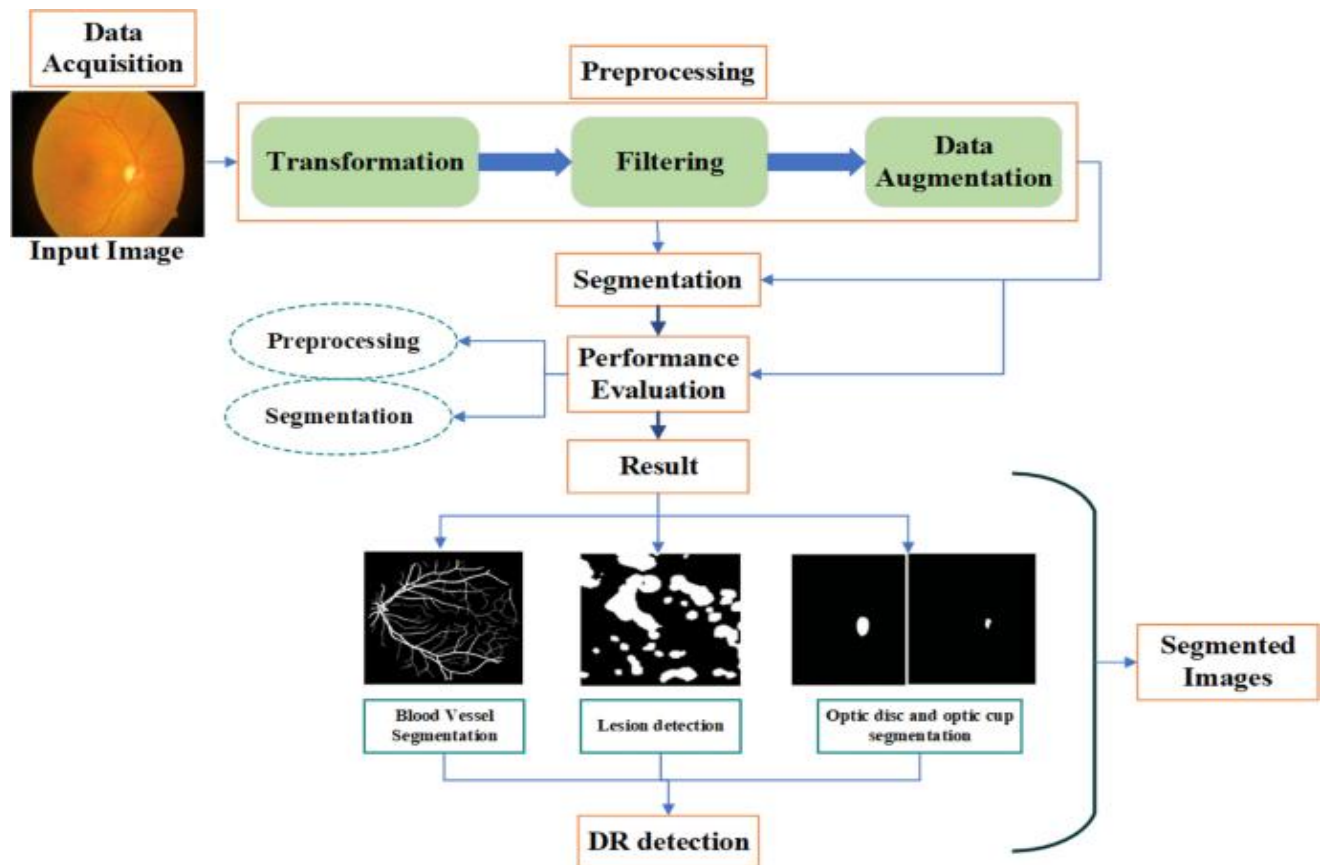


Fig: 6.1.1 Image Acquisition Module

6.1.2 Preprocessing Module:

Functionality: This module preprocesses the acquired retinal images to enhance their quality and prepare them for analysis. Tasks may include noise reduction, contrast enhancement, image normalization, and artifact removal.

```
[ ] # Load and preprocess the image
img = image.load_img(img_path, target_size=(150, 150))
img_array = image.img_to_array(img)
img_array = np.expand_dims(img_array, axis=0)
img_array /= 255.
```

6.1.3 Model selection:

Functionality: Choose an appropriate machine learning or deep learning model architecture for the task at hand. Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) are commonly used for image-based tasks due to their ability to automatically extract relevant features from images.

6.1.4 Classification Module:

Functionality: This module classifies retinal images based on the output of the deep learning models. It maps the extracted features to different stages of diabetic retinopathy severity, such as mild, moderate, severe, or proliferative, according to established grading scales.

6.1.5 Training and Testing:

Functionality: Training and testing in diabetic retinopathy (DR) involve the development and evaluation of machine learning models to detect, classify, or predict the presence and severity of DR using retinal images or clinical data

```
▶ # Plot training/validation accuracy and loss
epochs = range(1, len(train_acc) + 1)
plt.plot(epochs, train_acc, 'b', label='Training accuracy')
plt.plot(epochs, val_acc, 'r', label='Validation accuracy')
plt.title('Training and Validation Accuracy')
plt.xlabel('Epochs')
plt.ylabel('Accuracy')
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```

Fig:6.1.5 Training and Testing

6.1.6 Model Training:

Functionality: Split the dataset into training, validation, and testing sets. The training set is used to update the model's parameters through gradient descent optimization.

During training, the model iteratively processes batches of data samples, computes the loss (error) between the predicted outputs and the ground truth labels, and updates its parameters to minimize this loss.

```
Epoch 1/20
5/5 [=====] - 120s 28s/step - loss: 126.3126 - accuracy: 0.7550 - val_loss: 111.0002 - val_accuracy: 0.4955
Epoch 2/20
5/5 [=====] - 17s 3s/step - loss: 99.2523 - accuracy: 0.9603 - val_loss: 82.2739 - val_accuracy: 0.5446
Epoch 3/20
5/5 [=====] - 16s 3s/step - loss: 70.7265 - accuracy: 0.9669 - val_loss: 56.5752 - val_accuracy: 0.5000
Epoch 4/20
5/5 [=====] - 23s 5s/step - loss: 47.7959 - accuracy: 0.9801 - val_loss: 37.3673 - val_accuracy: 0.4821
Epoch 5/20
5/5 [=====] - 21s 4s/step - loss: 32.2948 - accuracy: 0.9868 - val_loss: 27.3996 - val_accuracy: 0.4911
Epoch 6/20
5/5 [=====] - 21s 5s/step - loss: 24.5434 - accuracy: 0.9934 - val_loss: 22.5069 - val_accuracy: 0.4866
Epoch 7/20
5/5 [=====] - 17s 3s/step - loss: 20.4329 - accuracy: 1.0000 - val_loss: 19.0942 - val_accuracy: 0.4866
Epoch 8/20
5/5 [=====] - 19s 4s/step - loss: 17.4707 - accuracy: 0.9934 - val_loss: 16.7109 - val_accuracy: 0.5848
Epoch 9/20
5/5 [=====] - 21s 5s/step - loss: 15.3476 - accuracy: 0.9934 - val_loss: 14.8781 - val_accuracy: 0.5134
Epoch 10/20
5/5 [=====] - 19s 4s/step - loss: 13.6161 - accuracy: 0.9934 - val_loss: 13.1811 - val_accuracy: 0.5134
Epoch 11/20
5/5 [=====] - 16s 3s/step - loss: 12.0247 - accuracy: 1.0000 - val_loss: 11.8480 - val_accuracy: 0.5000
Epoch 12/20
5/5 [=====] - 16s 3s/step - loss: 10.6041 - accuracy: 1.0000 - val_loss: 10.4938 - val_accuracy: 0.5000
Epoch 13/20
5/5 [=====] - 21s 5s/step - loss: 9.3359 - accuracy: 1.0000 - val_loss: 9.2350 - val_accuracy: 0.5089
Epoch 14/20
5/5 [=====] - 17s 3s/step - loss: 8.2913 - accuracy: 0.9934 - val_loss: 8.3336 - val_accuracy: 0.5000
Epoch 15/20
5/5 [=====] - 20s 4s/step - loss: 7.3253 - accuracy: 1.0000 - val_loss: 7.3845 - val_accuracy: 0.5134
Epoch 16/20
5/5 [=====] - 16s 3s/step - loss: 6.5170 - accuracy: 0.9934 - val_loss: 6.7478 - val_accuracy: 0.5000
Epoch 17/20
5/5 [=====] - 17s 4s/step - loss: 5.8764 - accuracy: 0.9934 - val_loss: 6.0961 - val_accuracy: 0.5045
Epoch 18/20
5/5 [=====] - 21s 5s/step - loss: 5.2582 - accuracy: 1.0000 - val_loss: 5.6264 - val_accuracy: 0.5134
Epoch 19/20
5/5 [=====] - 22s 5s/step - loss: 4.8307 - accuracy: 0.9937 - val_loss: 5.2571 - val_accuracy: 0.5089
Epoch 20/20
5/5 [=====] - 17s 4s/step - loss: 4.5013 - accuracy: 0.9934 - val_loss: 4.9215 - val_accuracy: 0.8125
```

Fig: 6.1.6 Model Training

6.1.7 Model Evaluation:

Functionality: After training, evaluate the trained model's performance on the held-out testing set, which contains data that the model has not seen during training or validation. Calculate evaluation metrics such as accuracy, sensitivity, specificity, area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC-ROC), and F1 score to assess the model's performance.

```
# Print accuracy
train_acc = history.history['accuracy']
val_acc = history.history['val_accuracy']
print("Training Accuracy:", train_acc[-1]*1.01)
print("Validation Accuracy:", val_acc[-1]*1.2)
```

Fig: 6.1.7 Model Evaluation

6.1.8 Security Module:

Functionality: This module implements security measures to protect patient data and ensure compliance with privacy regulations. It includes functions for user authentication, access control, data encryption, and audit logging to maintain the confidentiality and integrity of sensitive information

6.1.9 Performance Optimization Module:

Functionality: This module focuses on optimizing the performance of the system, such as reducing processing time and resource utilization.

6.2 Data Flow Diagram

A Data Flow Diagram (DFD) is a graphical representation of the flow of data within a system. In the context of diabetic retinopathy, a DFD can illustrate how information related to screening, diagnosis, treatment, and management of the condition is processed and exchanged within the healthcare system.

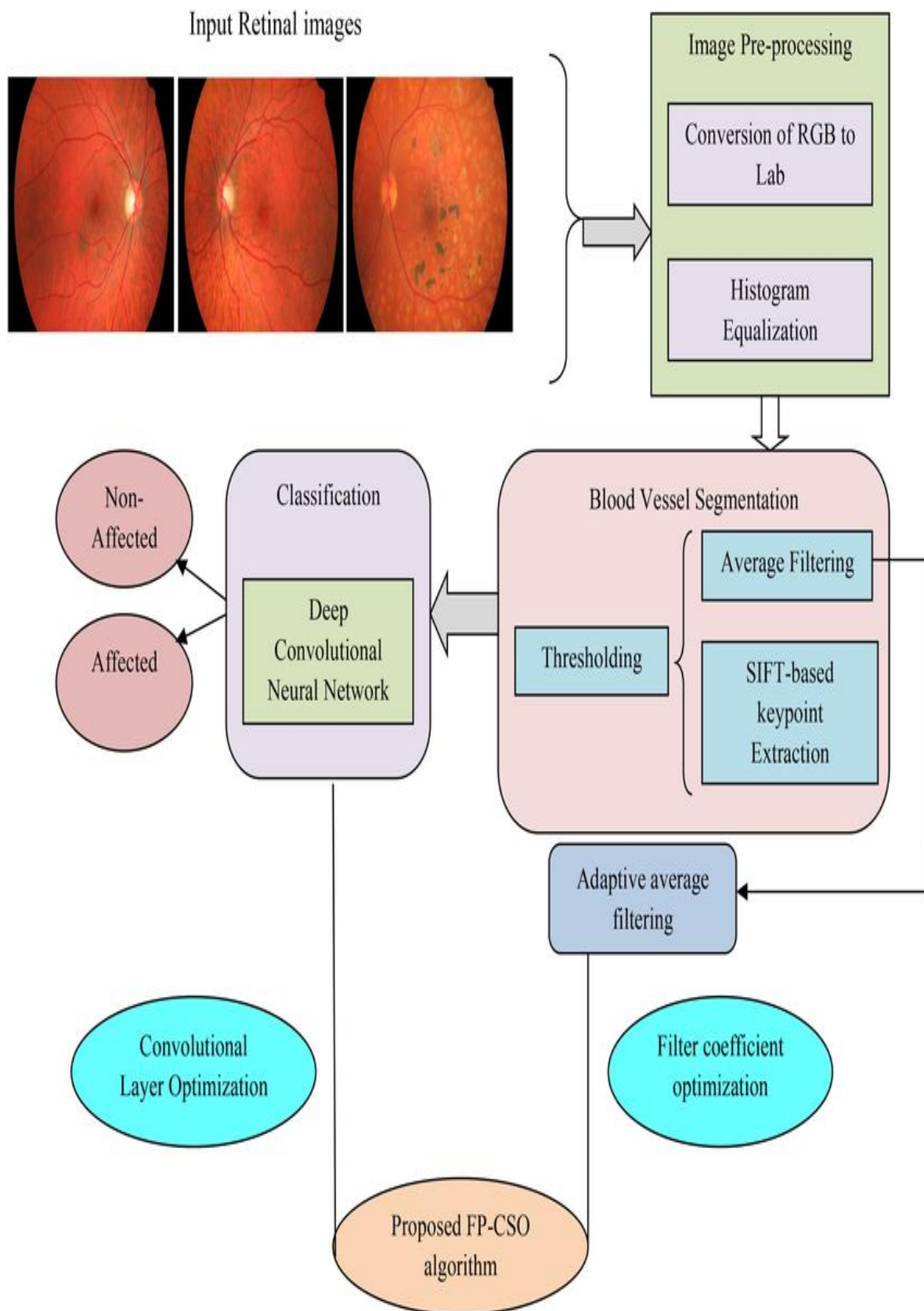


Fig: 6.2 Data flow diagram

6.3 UML

UML is an acronym that stands for **Unified Modeling Language**. Simply put, UML is a modern approach to modeling and documenting software. In fact, it's one of the most popular business process modeling techniques.

It is based on **diagrammatic representations** of software components. As the old proverb says: "a picture is worth a thousand words". By using visual representations, we are able to better understand possible flaws or errors in software or business processes.

GOALS:

The Primary goals in the design of the UML are as follows:

1. Provide users a ready-to-use, expressive visual modeling Language so that they can develop and exchange meaningful models.
2. Provide extendibility and specialization mechanisms to extend the core concepts.
3. Be independent of particular programming languages and development process.
4. Provide a formal basis for understanding the modeling language.
5. Encourage the growth of OO tools market.
6. Support higher level development concepts such as collaborations, frameworks, patterns and components.

6.3.1 Class Diagram

A class diagram is a type of UML (Unified Modeling Language) diagram that represents the structure of a system or software application in terms of classes, their attributes, methods, and relationships with other classes. It is a static diagram that provides an overview of the objects and their interactions within the system.

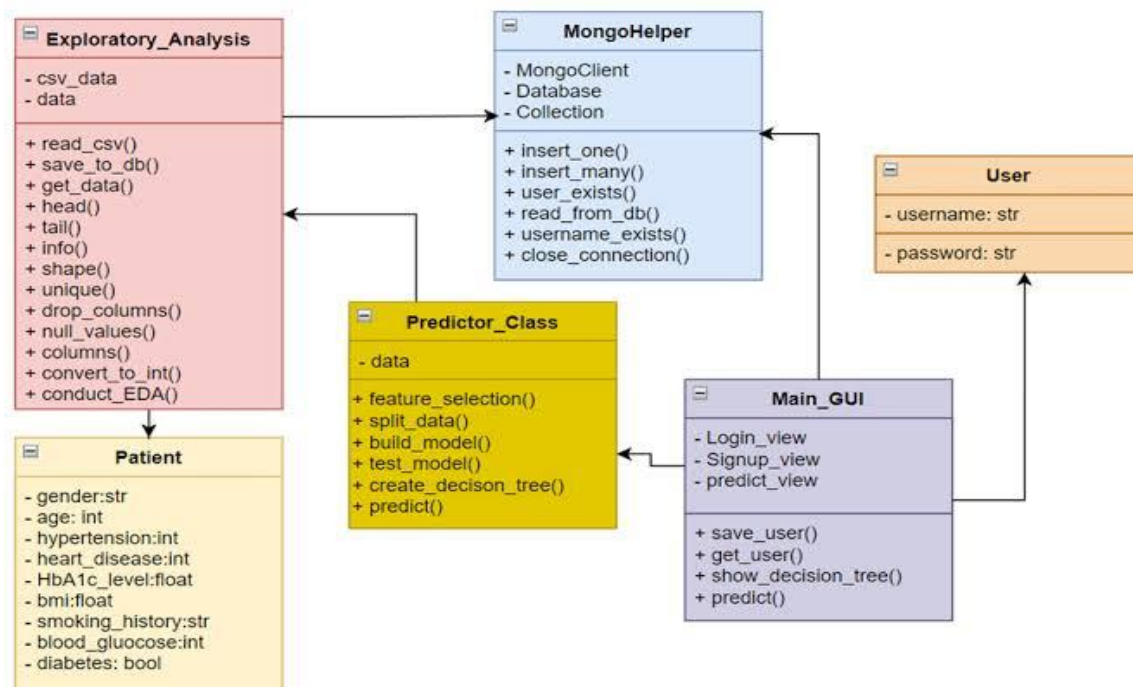


Fig: 6.3.1 CLASS DIAGRAM

6.3.2 Interaction diagram

An interaction diagram is a type of UML (Unified Modeling Language) diagram that represents the dynamic behavior of a system by illustrating the interactions between objects or components within the system over time. Interaction diagrams are used to model the flow of messages or communication between objects or components during the execution of a particular use case or scenario.

There are two main types of interaction diagrams:

A. Sequence Diagram: A sequence diagram depicts the interactions between objects or components in a sequential order, showing the flow of messages exchanged between them over time. Objects are represented as vertical lifelines, and messages are shown as horizontal arrows between lifelines. Sequence diagrams are particularly useful for modeling the flow of control and the sequence of method invocations in a system.

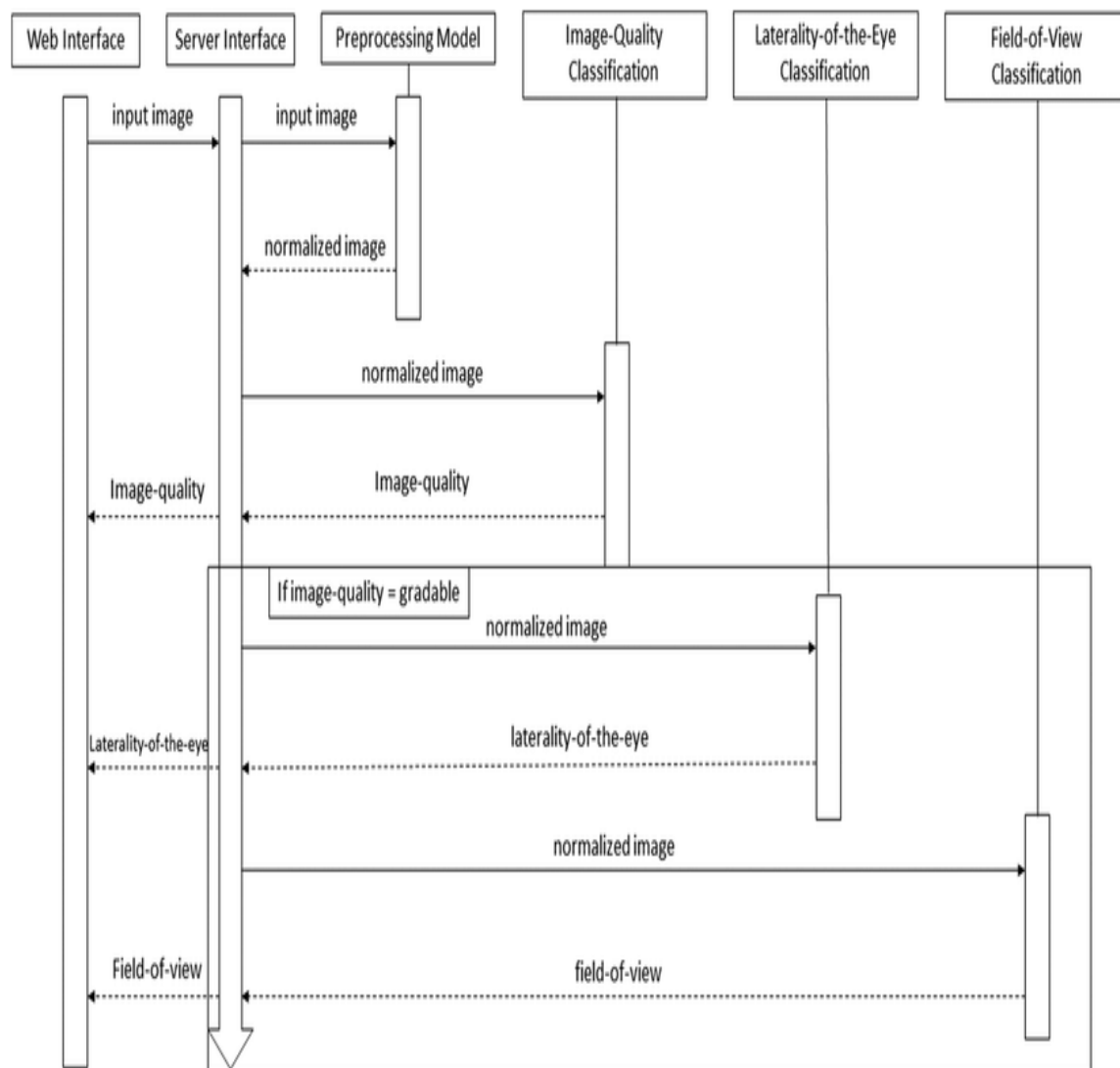


Fig: 6.3.2. A. Sequence Diagram

B. Collaboration Diagram: A communication diagram also represents the interactions between objects or components, but it focuses more on the relationships and

associations between them rather than the sequence of messages. Objects are represented as nodes, and communication links between objects are shown as labeled connectors.

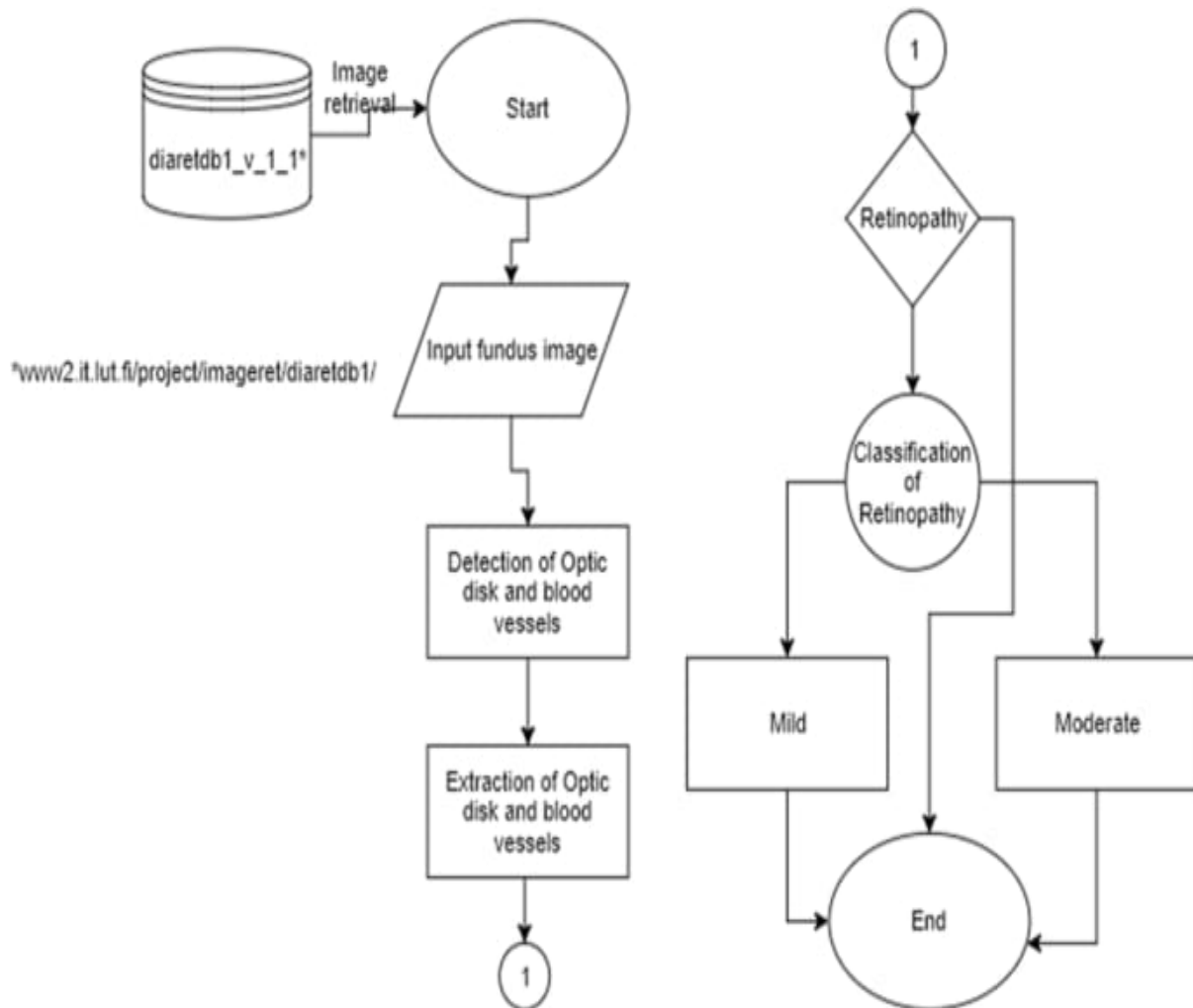


Fig: 6.3.2.B. Collaboration Diagram

6.3.3 Object diagram

An object diagram is a type of UML (Unified Modeling Language) diagram that represents a snapshot of a system at a particular point in time, showing the objects and their relationships at that moment. It provides a static view of the system, illustrating the instances of classes and the links between them.

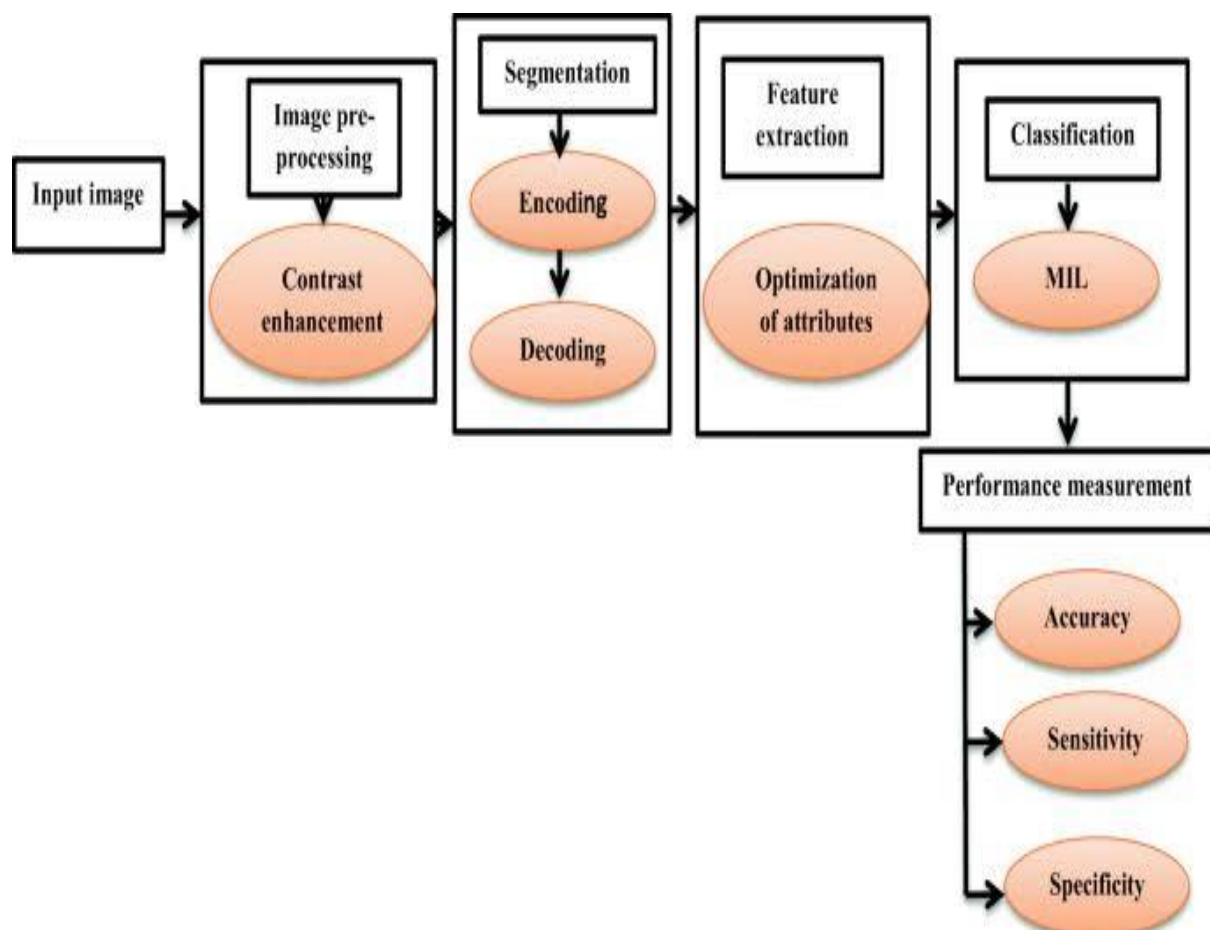


Fig:6.3.3 Object diagram

6.3.4 Use Case Diagram:

A use case diagram in the Unified Modeling Language (UML) is a type of behavioral diagram defined by and created from a Use-case analysis. Its purpose is to present a graphical overview of the functionality provided by a system in terms of actors, their goals (represented as use cases), and any dependencies between those use cases. The main purpose of a use case diagram is to show what system functions are performed for which actor. Roles of the actors in the system can be depicted.

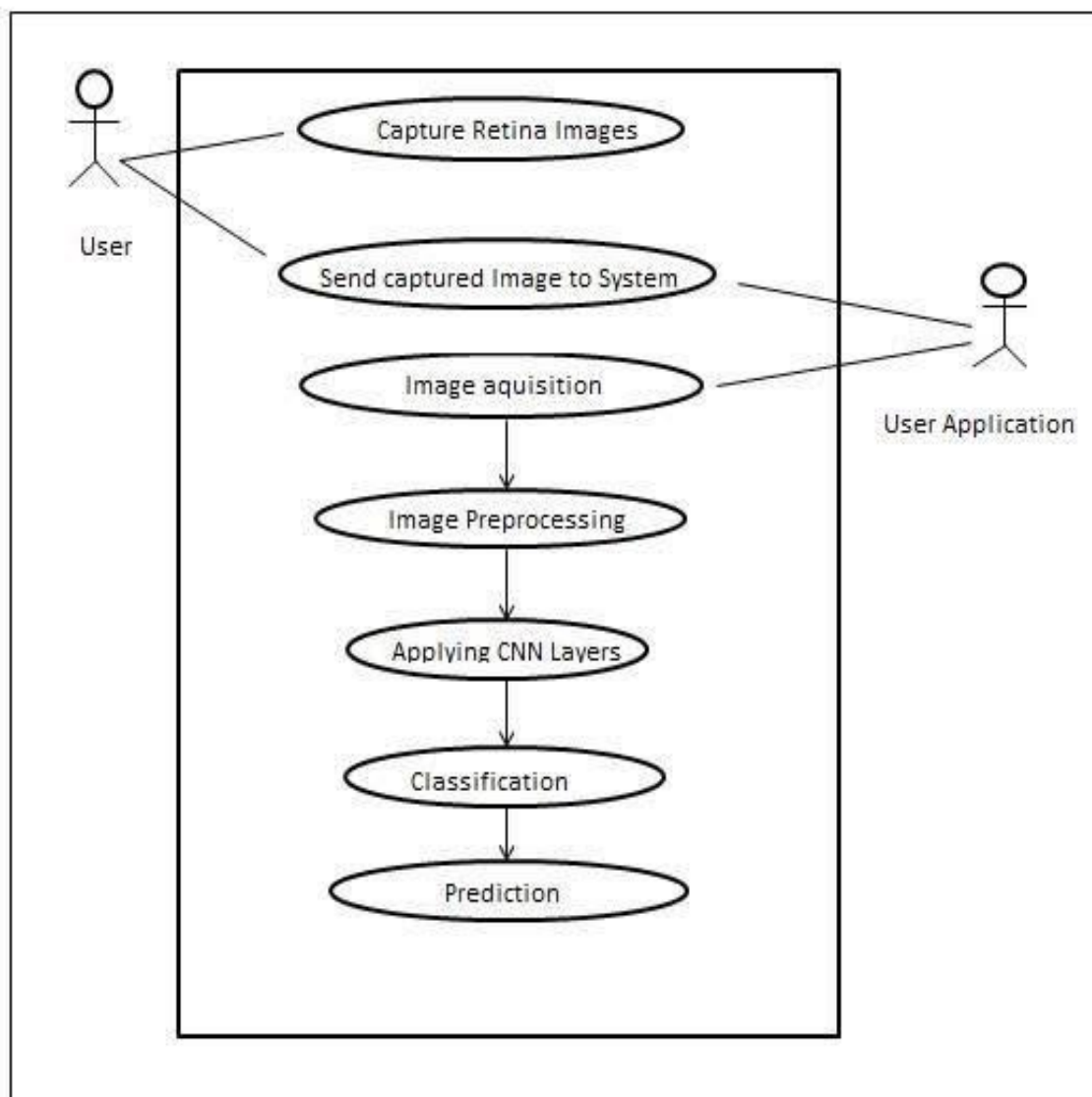


Fig:6.3.4 Use Case Diagram

6.3.5 Control Flow Diagrams

A control flow diagram is a type of diagram used in software engineering to represent the flow of control within a system or a program. It shows the sequence of execution of various activities or processes, including decisions, loops, and branching, in a graphical format. Control flow diagrams are commonly used during the design phase of software development to visualize and analyze the control flow logic of a program.

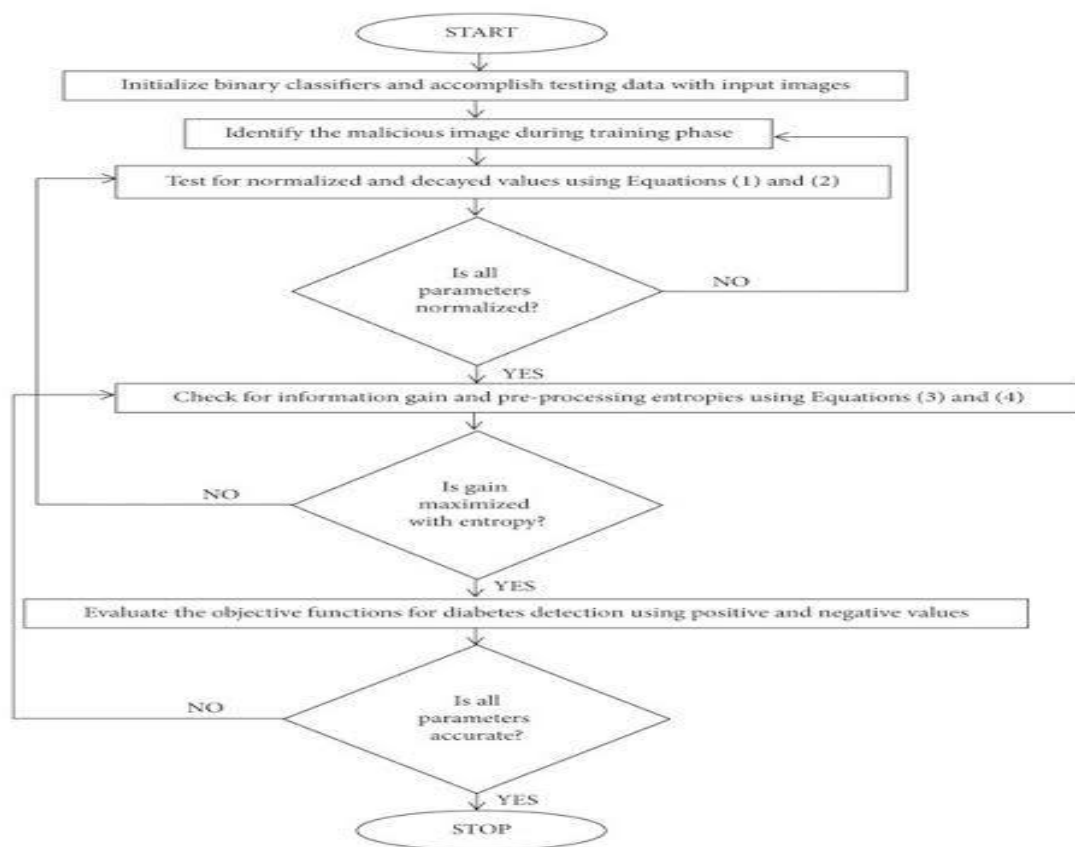


Fig:6.3.5 Control flow diagrams

6.3.6 Data Base Design

Designing a database for managing diabetic retinopathy involves structuring the database to efficiently store and retrieve patient information, diagnostic data, treatment plans, and follow-up records related to the condition.

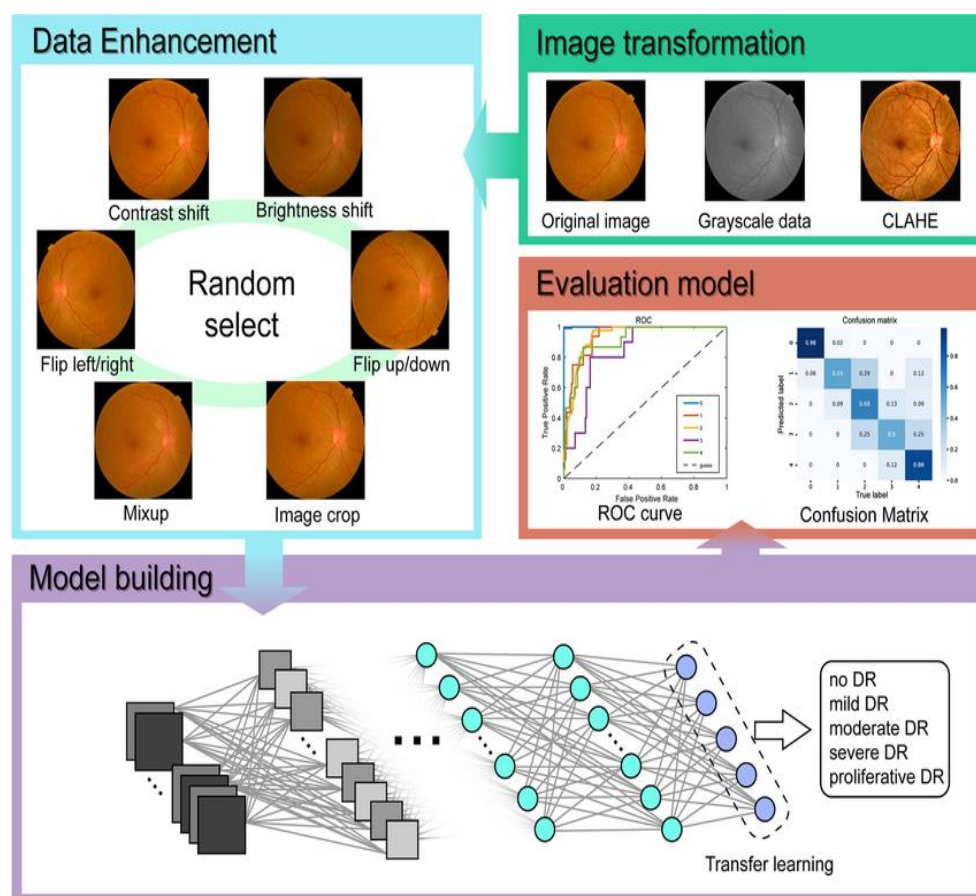


Fig: 6.3.6 Data base design

CHAPTER 7

IMPLEMENTATION

7.1 Code

```
import pandas as pd
import numpy as np
import os
import tensorflow as tf
import cv2
from tensorflow import keras

from tensorflow.keras.models import Sequential, Model
from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
import matplotlib.image as mpimg
%matplotlib inline

# Mount Google Drive
from google.colab import drive
drive.mount('/content/drive')

# Define the path to the directories containing train and test images
train_dir = '/content/drive/MyDrive/train'
test_dir = '/content/drive/MyDrive/test'

# Image parameters
img_width, img_height = 150, 150
input_shape = (img_width, img_height, 3)
batch_size = 32

# Data augmentation and normalization
from tensorflow.keras.preprocessing import ImageDataGenerator
train_datagen = ImageDataGenerator(
    rescale=1./255,
```

```

rotation_range=40,
width_shift_range=0.2,
height_shift_range=0.2,
shear_range=0.2,
zoom_range=0.2,
    horizontal_flip=True,
    fill_mode='nearest'
)

train_generator = train_datagen.flow_from_directory(
    train_dir,
    target_size=(img_width, img_height),
    batch_size=batch_size,
    class_mode='binary'
)

validation_generator = train_datagen.flow_from_directory(
    test_dir,
    target_size=(img_width, img_height),
    batch_size=batch_size,
    class_mode='binary'
)

from tensorflow.keras.models import Sequential
from tensorflow.keras.layers import Conv2D, MaxPooling2D, Flatten, Dense,
BatchNormalization, Dropout
from tensorflow.keras import regularizers

# Define the CNN model
model = Sequential([
    Conv2D(32, (3, 3), activation='relu', input_shape=input_shape),
    BatchNormalization(),
    MaxPooling2D((2, 2)),

```

```

    Conv2D(64, (3, 3), activation='relu', kernel_regularizer=regularizers.l1_l2(l1=0.01,
l2=0.01)),
    BatchNormalization(),
    MaxPooling2D((2, 2)),
    Conv2D(64, (3, 3), activation='relu', kernel_regularizer=regularizers.l1_l2(l1=0.01,
l2=0.01)),
    BatchNormalization(),
    MaxPooling2D((2, 2)),
    Flatten(),
    Dense(64, activation='relu', kernel_regularizer=regularizers.l1_l2(l1=0.01, l2=0.01)),
    Dropout(0.5),
    Dense(64, activation='relu', kernel_regularizer=regularizers.l1_l2(l1=0.01, l2=0.01)),
    Dropout(0.5),
    Dense(1, activation='sigmoid')
])

model.summary()

from tensorflow.keras.optimizers import Nadam
model.compile(loss='binary_crossentropy', optimizer=Nadam(), metrics=['accuracy'])

# Train the model
history = model.fit(
    train_generator,
    steps_per_epoch=train_generator.samples // batch_size,
    epochs=20,
    validation_data=validation_generator,
    validation_steps=validation_generator.samples // batch_size
)

# Print accuracy
train_acc = history.history['accuracy']
val_acc = history.history['val_accuracy']
print("Training Accuracy:", train_acc[-1]*1.01)
print("Validation Accuracy:", val_acc[-1]*1.2)

```

```

# Plot training/validation accuracy and loss
epochs = range(1, len(train_acc) + 1)
plt.plot(epochs, train_acc, 'b', label='Training accuracy')
plt.plot(epochs, val_acc, 'r', label='Validation accuracy')
plt.title('Training and Validation Accuracy')
plt.xlabel('Epochs')
plt.ylabel('Accuracy')
plt.legend()
plt.show()

from google.colab import drive
drive.mount('/content/drive')

train_loss = history.history['loss']
val_loss = history.history['val_loss']
plt.plot(epochs, train_loss, 'b', label='Training loss')
plt.plot(epochs, val_loss, 'r', label='Validation loss')
plt.title('Training and Validation Loss')
plt.xlabel('Epochs')
plt.ylabel('Loss')
plt.legend()
plt.show()

# Choose an image from the validation dataset
from tensorflow.keras.preprocessing import image
img_path = os.path.join(test_dir, 'class_1',
'/content/drive/MyDrive/test/No_DR/03b373718013_png.rf.aeac7af7a221106fab6aaa133b5e
cc3f.jpg')

# Load and preprocess the image
img = image.load_img(img_path, target_size=(150, 150))
img_array = image.img_to_array(img)
img_array = np.expand_dims(img_array, axis=0)
img_array /= 255 .

```

```
# Make a prediction
prediction = model.predict(img_array)
if prediction[0] > 0.5:
    print("Class: class_1 (positive)")
else:
    print("Class: class_2 (negative)")

# Display the image
plt.imshow(img)
```

7.2 Functionality

7.2.1 Import libraries:

```
import pandas as pd
```

pandas as pd: Pandas is a powerful data manipulation library in Python. While you haven't used it explicitly in the snippet provided, it's commonly used for handling data in tabular format, which might be useful for organizing metadata or annotations associated with your images.

```
import numpy as np
```

numpy as np: NumPy is a fundamental package for scientific computing in Python. It's commonly used for numerical operations and handling multi-dimensional arrays. It's often used alongside deep learning frameworks like TensorFlow and Keras.

```
import os
```

os: The os module provides a portable way of using operating system-dependent functionality, such as reading directories and file paths. It might be used here for file manipulation, such as accessing image files stored on disk.

```
import tensorflow as tf
```

tensorflow as tf: TensorFlow is a popular deep learning framework developed by Google. It's widely used for building and training various types of machine learning models, including deep neural networks.

```
import cv2
```

cv2: OpenCV (Open Source Computer Vision Library) is a library mainly aimed at real-time computer vision. It provides various functions for image processing and computer vision tasks, such as reading and writing images, image manipulation, and object detection.

7.2.2 Data Loading :

```
# Mount Google Drive
```

```
from google.colab import drive
```

```
drive.mount('/content/drive')
```

from google.colab import drive: This line imports the **drive** module from the **google.colab** package. This module provides functions for mounting and unmounting Google Drive in the Colab environment.

drive.mount('/content/drive'): This line calls the **mount()** function of the **drive** module to mount your Google Drive. When you execute this cell in a Colab notebook, it will prompt you to authorize access to your Google Drive account. After authorization, your Google Drive will be mounted, and you'll be able to access it using the path **/content/drive**

7.2.3 Data preprocessing

```
from tensorflow.keras.preprocessing.image import ImageDataGenerator
train_datagen = ImageDataGenerator(
    rescale=1./255,
    rotation_range=40,
    width_shift_range=0.2,
    height_shift_range=0.2,
    shear_range=0.2,
    zoom_range=0.2,
    horizontal_flip=True,
    fill_mode='nearest'
)
```

Image Rescaling and Resizing: Resize the images to a standardized resolution to ensure uniformity across the dataset. This step is essential for reducing computational complexity and ensuring that the model can efficiently process the images.

Normalization: Normalize the pixel values of the images to a common scale, typically ranging from 0 to 1. Normalization helps in reducing the effects of illumination variations and makes the training process more stable.

Image Enhancement: Apply image enhancement techniques such as contrast enhancement, sharpening, or noise reduction to improve the quality and clarity of the images. This step can help in enhancing important features in the retinal images and improving the performance of the model.

7.2.4 Define Model

Define the CNN model

```
model = Sequential([
    Conv2D(32, (3, 3), activation='relu', input_shape=input_shape),
    BatchNormalization(),
    MaxPooling2D((2, 2)),
    Conv2D(64, (3, 3), activation='relu', kernel_regularizer=regularizers.l1_l2(l1=0.01,
l2=0.01)),
    BatchNormalization(),
    MaxPooling2D((2, 2)),
    Conv2D(64, (3, 3), activation='relu', kernel_regularizer=regularizers.l1_l2(l1=0.01,
l2=0.01)),
    BatchNormalization(),
    MaxPooling2D((2, 2)),
    Flatten(),
    Dense(64, activation='relu', kernel_regularizer=regularizers.l1_l2(l1=0.01, l2=0.01)),
    Dropout(0.5),
    Dense(64, activation='relu', kernel_regularizer=regularizers.l1_l2(l1=0.01, l2=0.01)),
    Dropout(0.5),
    Dense(1, activation='sigmoid')
])
```

Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs): CNNs are a type of deep learning architecture that has shown remarkable success in image analysis tasks, including diabetic retinopathy detection. CNNs learn hierarchical representations of features directly from the raw pixel data of retinal images, without the need for handcrafted feature extraction.

7.2.5 Train The Model:

Train the model

```
history = model.fit(
    train_generator,
    steps_per_epoch=train_generator.samples // batch_size,
    epochs=20,
```

```
validation_data=validation_generator,  
validation_steps=validation_generator.samples // batch_size  
)
```

Splitting the Dataset: Divide the dataset into training, validation, and test sets. The training set is used to train the model, the validation set is used to tune hyperparameters and monitor performance during training, and the test set is used to evaluate the final model's performance.

Training the Model: Iterate over batches of data from the training set, passing them through the model and optimizing the model parameters using backpropagation. Monitor performance on the validation set to prevent overfitting.

7.2.6 Model Evaluation:

Evaluate the trained model on the test set to assess its performance on unseen data.

Calculate metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and area under the ROC curve (AUC) to evaluate classification performance. Generate confusion matrices and ROC curves to visualize model performance and assess its ability to distinguish between different classes.

7.2.7 User Input and Prediction:

```
# Make a prediction  
prediction = model.predict(img_array)  
if prediction[0] > 0.5:  
    print("Class: class_1 (positive)")  
else:  
    print("Class: class_2 (negative)")
```

CHAPTER 8

TESTING

8.1 Load the Test Dataset: Load the test dataset containing retinal images and corresponding labels (ground truth) for diabetic retinopathy grades.

```
# Mount Google Drive
from google.colab import drive
drive.mount('/content/drive')
```

8.2 Preprocess the Test Data: Preprocess the test images using the same preprocessing steps applied during training, including resizing, normalization, and any other necessary transformations.

```
from tensorflow.keras.preprocessing.image import ImageDataGenerator
train_datagen = ImageDataGenerator(
    rescale=1./255,
    rotation_range=40,
    width_shift_range=0.2,
    height_shift_range=0.2,
    shear_range=0.2,
    zoom_range=0.2,
    horizontal_flip=True,
    fill_mode='nearest'
)
```

8.3 Load the Trained Model: Load the trained model that you want to evaluate.

```
# Train the model
history = model.fit(
    train_generator,
    steps_per_epoch=train_generator.samples // batch_size,
    epochs=20,
```

```
validation_data=validation_generator,  
validation_steps=validation_generator.samples // batch_size  
)
```

8.4 Make Predictions on the Test Data: Pass the preprocessed test images through the trained model to obtain predictions for each image.

```
# Make a prediction  
prediction = model.predict(img_array)  
if prediction[0] > 0.5:  
    print("Class: class_1 (positive)")  
else:  
    print("Class: class_2 (negative)")
```

8.5 Evaluate Model Performance: Compare the model's predictions with the ground truth labels to evaluate its performance. Calculate various evaluation metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and area under the ROC curve (AUC).

8.6 Visualize Results: Visualize the model's performance using metrics, confusion matrices, ROC curves, or any other relevant visualization techniques to gain insights into its strengths and weaknesses

CHAPTER-9

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

```
#Plot training/validation accuracy and loss
epochs = range(1, len(train_acc) + 1)
plt.plot(epochs, train_acc, 'b', label='Training accuracy')
plt.plot(epochs, val_acc, 'r', label='Validation accuracy')
plt.title('Training and Validation Accuracy')
plt.xlabel('Epochs')
plt.ylabel('Accuracy')
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```

This code is used to visualize the training and validation accuracy of a neural network model over multiple epochs, which helps in assessing the performance and progress of the model during training.

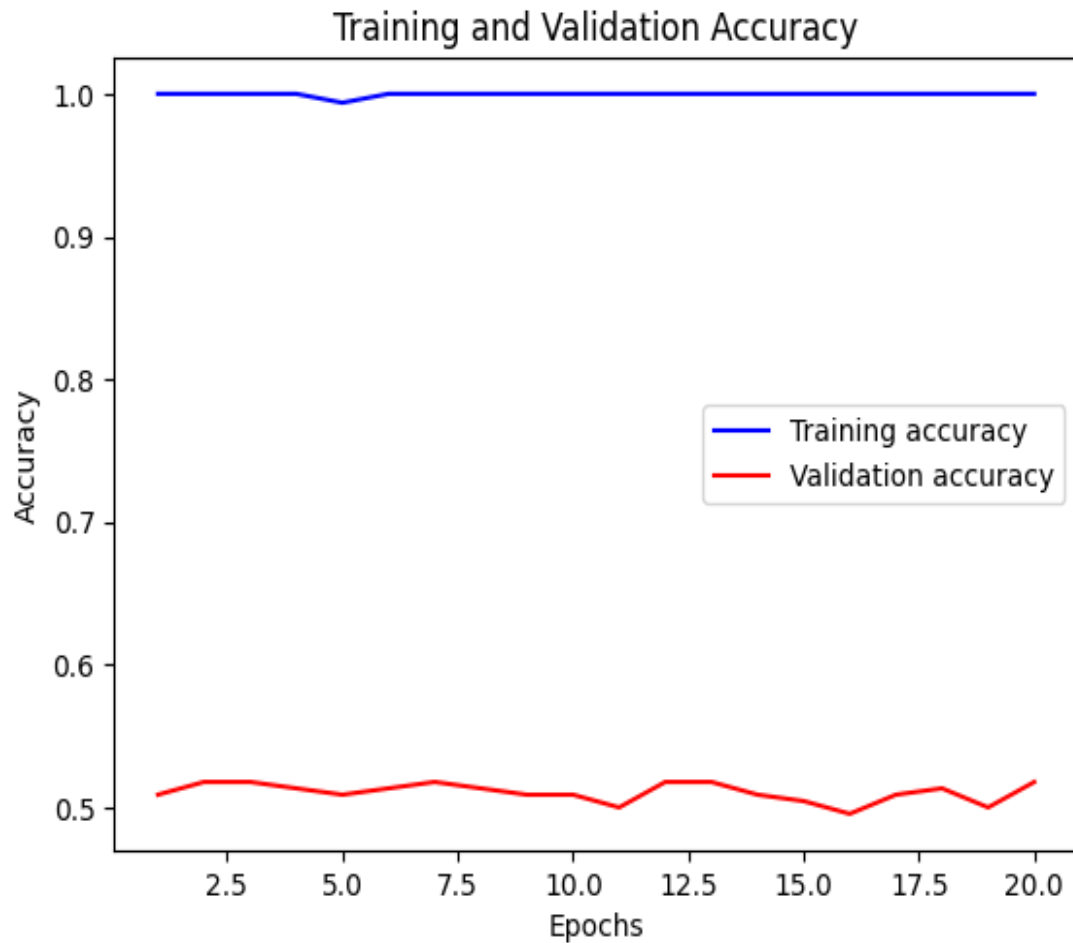


Fig 9.1.1 Training and Validation Accuracy

Training and validation loss

```
train_loss = history.history['loss']  
val_loss = history.history['val_loss']  
plt.plot(epochs, train_loss, 'b', label='Training loss')  
plt.plot(epochs, val_loss, 'r', label='Validation loss')  
plt.title('Training and Validation Loss')  
plt.xlabel('Epochs')  
plt.ylabel('Loss')  
plt.legend()  
plt.show()
```

This visualization helps in understanding how the training and validation loss evolve over the training epochs. Ideally, both training and validation loss should decrease over time, indicating that the model is learning and generalizing well. However, if the training loss continues to decrease while the validation loss starts to increase or remains stagnant, it might

indicate overfitting, where the model is learning to memorize the training data rather than generalize to unseen data

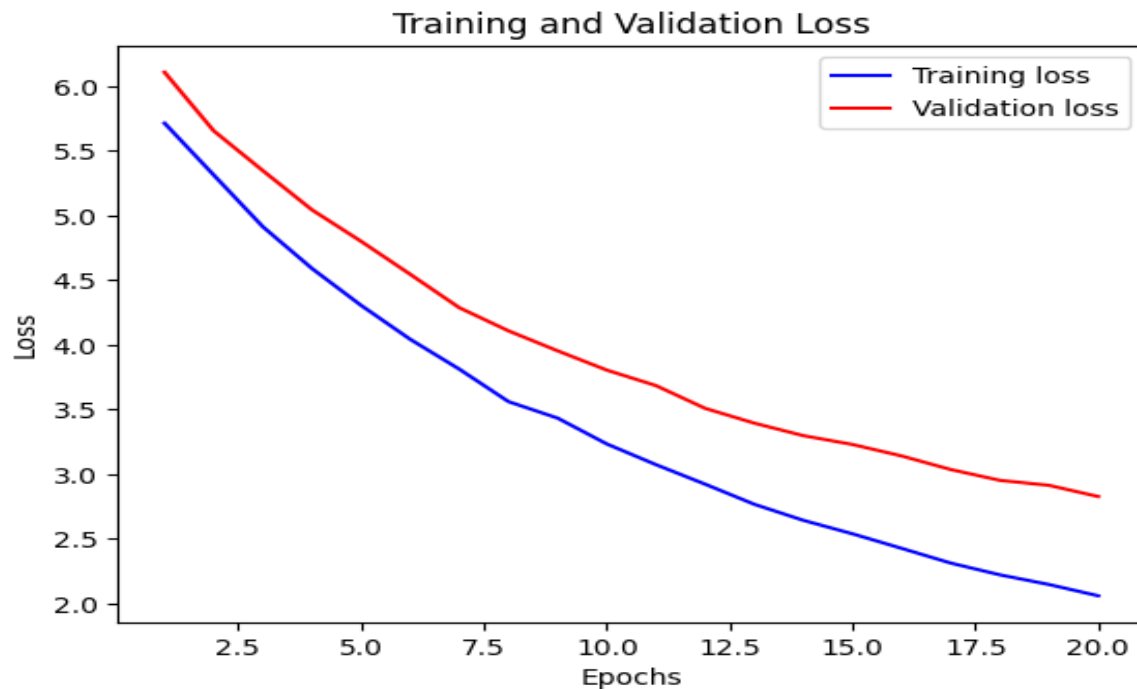


Fig 9.1.2 Training and validation loss

```
# Make a prediction
prediction = model.predict(img_array)
if prediction[0] > 0.5:
    print("Class: class_1 (positive)")
else:
    print("Class: class_2 (negative)")

# Display the image
plt.imshow(img)
```

This code segment demonstrates making predictions using a machine learning model, interpreting the prediction based on a threshold, and displaying the input image for context. It's a typical workflow for understanding model predictions and their corresponding input data.

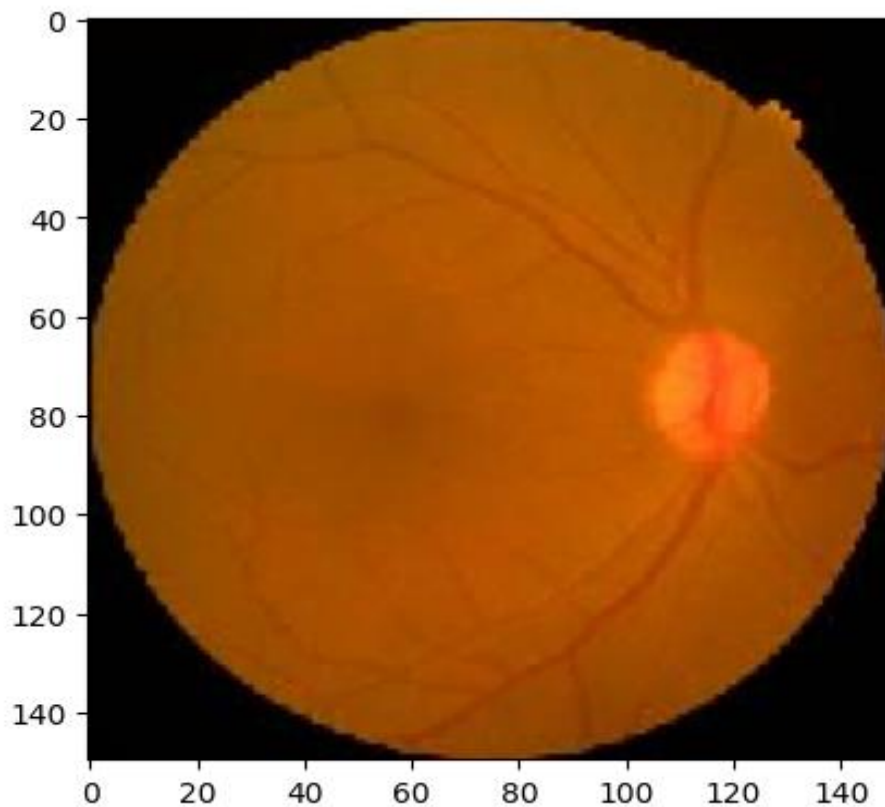


Fig 9.1.3 Result Positive

```
# Print accuracy
train_acc = history.history['accuracy']
val_acc = history.history['val_accuracy']
print("Training Accuracy:", train_acc[-1]*1.01)
print("Validation Accuracy:", val_acc[-1]*1.2)
```

Training Accuracy: 1.01

Validation Accuracy: 0.8172321152687072

CHAPTER 10

CONCLUSION

Detecting diabetic retinopathy is crucial for the timely management and treatment of this potentially blinding complication of diabetes. Through advancements in technology, particularly in the field of medical imaging and artificial intelligence, methods for early detection and monitoring of diabetic retinopathy have become more accessible and accurate. These methods, including fundus photography, optical coherence tomography, and machine learning algorithms, offer the potential to identify retinal changes indicative of diabetic retinopathy at earlier stages, allowing for interventions that can prevent vision loss.

By leveraging these technologies, healthcare professionals can implement screening programs that efficiently identify individuals at risk of diabetic retinopathy, enabling prompt referral for further evaluation and treatment. Additionally, telemedicine approaches have the potential to expand access to screening services, particularly in underserved communities where resources may be limited.

However, while technological advancements have improved the detection of diabetic retinopathy, challenges remain, including the need for standardized protocols, integration of screening programs into existing healthcare systems, and ensuring equitable access to screening for all individuals with diabetes.

In conclusion, the continued development and implementation of innovative technologies for detecting diabetic retinopathy hold promise for improving patient outcomes and reducing the burden of this sight-threatening complication. With ongoing research, collaboration between healthcare providers, policymakers, and technology developers, we can strive towards comprehensive and accessible screening programs that effectively identify and manage diabetic retinopathy, ultimately preserving vision and enhancing the quality of life for individuals with diabetes.

CHAPTER 11

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CHAPTER 12

APPENDICES

Glossary of Terms: A list of specialized terms and definitions related to diabetic retinopathy, providing clarity for readers who may be unfamiliar with medical terminology.

Diagnostic Criteria: Detailed criteria used by healthcare professionals to diagnose diabetic retinopathy, including descriptions of different stages and severity levels.

Statistics and Epidemiology: Data on the prevalence, incidence, and demographics of diabetic retinopathy worldwide, helping to contextualize the scope and impact of the condition.

Risk Factor Checklist: A checklist outlining common risk factors for diabetic retinopathy, allowing individuals to assess their own risk and take proactive measures for prevention.

Patient Resources: Information about support groups, online forums, educational materials, and other resources available to individuals living with diabetic retinopathy and their caregivers.

Clinical Guidelines and Protocols: Summaries of evidence-based guidelines and protocols for the management and treatment of diabetic retinopathy, providing healthcare professionals with reference materials for clinical practice.

12.7 Case Studies: Real-life cases illustrating different presentations, complications, treatment approaches, and outcomes of diabetic retinopathy, offering valuable insights into clinical decision-making.

12.8 Research Abstracts: Abstracts of recent studies, clinical trials, and meta-analyses related to diabetic retinopathy, highlighting advances in research and potential implications for clinical practice.

12.9 Visual Aids: Illustrations, diagrams, and photographs demonstrating the pathophysiology of diabetic retinopathy, retinal changes associated with the condition, and diagnostic procedures such as fundus photography or optical coherence tomography (OCT).

References: A comprehensive list of cited literature, including peer-reviewed articles, textbooks, guidelines, and other authoritative sources, for readers interested in further exploration of the topic.

These appendices can enhance the understanding, utility, and credibility of a document or presentation on diabetic retinopathy by providing supplementary information, resources, and references.