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ENHANCING CATARACT DETECTION THROUGH INTEGRATED IMAGE ANALYSIS USING GRAY LEVEL CO-OCCURRENCE MATRIX AND CNN

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Abstract

Cataract, a leading cause of visual impairment, demands timely detection to prevent blindness. The current subjective diagnostic process by ophthalmologists is time consuming, motivating the development of an automated screening approach through retinal fundus image analysis. The proposed approach consists of three key stages: pre-processing, feature extraction, and classification. In pre-processing, images are converted to grayscale and resized for enhanced analysis. Feature extraction involves Gray Level Co-occurrence Matrix (GLCM), deriving key features like contrast, correlation, energy, and homogeneity. The extracted features are used to train the CNN model. Classification utilizes the Convolution Neural Network (CNN) algorithm, discerning cataract presence from the extracted features. To further improve accuracy, a combination of GLCM with Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) is used. This integration aims to leverage the complementary strengths of GLCM and CNN, enhancing detection capabilities. For classification the existing method used “GLCM-KNN” and Proposed method used “GLCM-CNN” algorithm.

Keywords: Cataract, Fundus image, GLCM, Convolutional Neural Network, Image Analysis.

1 Introduction

1.1 INTRODUCTION TO MACHINE LEARNING

Machine Learning is a branch of artificial intelligence that involves training computers to learn from data, rather than being explicitly programmed. In other words, machine learning algorithms are designed to automatically improve their performance on a task as they receive more data and experience. Machine Learning can be used for a wide range of tasks, including image and speech recognition, and natural language processing, anomaly detection, and predictive modelling. There are three main types of machine learning: supervised learning, unsupervised learning, and reinforcement learning

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labelled data can have a significant impact on the accuracy of the algorithm.

1.1.2 Supervised Learning and Un supervised learning

Supervised Learning is a type of machine learning in which an algorithm learns to make predictions or classifications by being trained on labelled data. Labelled data is data that has been pre-labelled with the correct output or target variable, which the algorithm is trying to predict. In supervised learning, the algorithm is presented with a dataset that includes input variables, also known as features, and corresponding output variables, also known as labels or targets. The algorithm then uses this labelled data to learn a function that maps the input variables to the output variables. Once the algorithm has learned this function, it can make predictions or classifications on new, unseen data. Examples of supervised learning include image classification, speech recognition, and natural language processing. Some common algorithms used is supervised learning include linear regression, logistic regression, decision trees, and neural networks. One of the advantages of supervised learning is that it can be used to solve a wide range of prediction and classification problems, and it has achieved remarkable success in many applications. However, it does require labelled data, which can be expensive and time-consuming to obtain, and the quality of the labelled data can have a significant impact on the accuracy of the algorithm.

Supervised learning algorithms include: Regression, classification, decision Trees, support Vector Machines (SVM), naive Bayes, neural Networks, Unsupervised Machine Learning algorithm include: K-means clustering, Hierarchical clustering, Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Independent Component Analysis (ICA), Autoencoders.

1.1.3 Reinforcement Learning

Reinforcement learning is a type of machine learning that involves an agent learning to interact with an environment in order to maximize a reward signal. In reinforcement learning, the agent learns by trial and error through interactions with the environment, receiving feedback in the form of rewards or punishments. The basic idea is to learn from experience by trying out different actions and observing the consequences of those actions. The agent learns to associate certain actions with certain outcomes and adjusts its behaviour accordingly to maximize the reward Reinforcement learning is commonly used in applications such as robotics, game playing, and autonomous vehicles, where an agent must learn to make decisions based on its environment in order to achieve a particular goal. Some of the popular reinforcement learning algorithms include Q-learning, SARSA, and deep reinforcement learning with neural networks. These algorithms are used to train agents to learn to take actions that maximize the expected cumulative reward over time.

1.2 EYE

The eye is a marvel of biological engineering, serving as one of the most crucial sensory organs in the human body. It enables us to perceive the world around us, providing us with the ability to see and interpret visual information. Comprising intricate structures and mechanisms, the eye functions seamlessly to capture light, convert it into electrical signals, and transmit these signals to the brain for interpretation.

The human eye is composed of several key components, each playing a vital role in the visual process. The outermost layer, known as the cornea, acts as a protective covering and helps to focus light onto the retina. Behind the cornea lies the iris, a colored muscular structure that regulates the amount of light entering the eye through its central aperture, the pupil. The crystalline lens, situated behind the iris, further focuses incoming light onto the retina by adjusting its shape through a process known as accommodation. This enables the eye to focus on objects at varying distances, providing us with clear vision both up close and at a distance. The retina, often likened to the film of a camera, contains millions of photoreceptor cells that detect light and transmit visual information to the brain. Rods are highly sensitive to low levels of light and are responsible for night vision, while cones are specialized for detecting colour and detail in bright light conditions.

In addition to these essential structures, the eye is supported by a complex network of muscles, ligaments, and fluids that maintain its shape, position, and function. Tears produced by the lacrimal glands help to lubricate the surface of the eye and protect it from foreign particles, while muscles surrounding the eye enable precise movements for tracking objects and focusing. Overall, the human eye is a remarkable organ that exemplifies the intricate interplay between biology, optics, and neuroscience. Its ability to perceive the richness and diversity of the visual world underscores its importance in shaping our experiences and interactions with the environment. Understanding the anatomy and function of the eye is not only crucial for appreciating its complexity but also for diagnosing and treating a wide range of visual impairments and diseases.

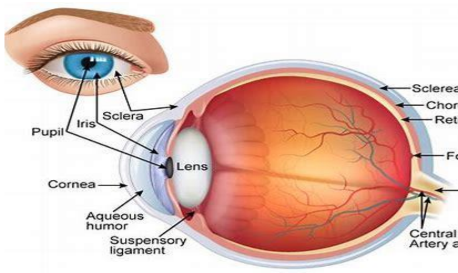


FIG URE 1.1 Structure of Eye

1.1.1 Some of Eye Diseases

There are many different eye diseases that can affect the structure and function of the eye.

Here are some common examples:

- Age-related macular degeneration (AMD): AMD is common eye disease that affects the macula, the centra1 part of the retina that is responsible for sharp, detailed vision. AMD can cause a loss of central vision, making it difficult to read, drive, or recognize faces.

- Glaucoma: Glaucoma is a group of eye disease that can cause damage often optic nerve,
leading to vision loss or blindness. Glaucoma is often associated with increased pressure
inside the eye, but it can also occur in people with normal eye pressure.
- Cataracts: Cataracts are a common age-related eye disease that occurs when the clear lens of the eye becomes cloudy. Cataracts can cause blurred vision, glare, and difficulty seeing in low light.
- Diabetic Retinopathy: Diabetic retinopathy is a complication of diabetes that can cause
damage to the blood vessels in the retina, leading to vision loss or blindness. People with
diabetes are at a higher risk of developing diabetic retinopathy.
- Conjunctivitis: Conjunctivitis also known as pink eye, is a common eye infection that
can cause redness, itching, and discharge from the eye. Conjunctivitis can be caused by
bacteria, viruses, or allergens.
- Dry eye syndrome: Dry eye syndrome is common condition that occurs when the eyes
do not produce enough tears or the tears evaporate too quickly. This can cause dryness,
itching, burning, and discomfort.

2 Background Study

Sunitha Yadav, Jay Kant Pratap Singh Yadav in 2023[1] done a review on Automatic Cataract Severity Detection and Grading Using Deep Learning. This study proposes an automatic method for detecting and classifying cataracts in their earliest stages by combining a deep learning (DL) model with the 2D-Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) spectrum of fundus images. The proposed method calculates the spectrogram of fundus images using a 2D-DFT and uses this calculated spectrogram as an input to the DL model for feature extraction. The experimental results shows that the proposed system can outperform previous state-of-the-art works by a significant margin compared to a benchmark of four-class accuracy and achieves the four-class accuracy of 93.10%.

Shaohua Zhang, Keke Zhang, Wenwen He, Yi Lu, and Xiangjia Zhu in 2021[2] proposed a Quantitative Phosphoproteomic Comparison of Lens Proteins in Highly Myopic Cataract and Age-Related Cataract. Which aims to investigate and compare the lens phosphoproteomics in patients with highly myopic cataract (HMC) or age-related cataract (ARC). In this study they undertook a comparative phosphoproteome analysis of the lenses from patients with HMC or ARC. This study provides an overview of the differential phosphoproteomes of HMC and ARC lenses that can be used to clarify the molecular mechanisms underlying their different phenotypes.

V. Agarwal, V. Gupta, V. Vashist, k. Sharma and N. Sharma in 2019[3] proposed a method which is a smartphone based android application is developed using the proposed methodology that can be used to detect the presence of the cataract in an individual’s eye. This developed application is based upon Android architecture and can be used only on Android phones. The Machine Learning and Image Processing techniques are used in this proposed method. The system has been trained on a number of data sets in order to improve its accuracy and have resulted in the successful completion of this search.

J. Wang, Zhe Xu, Wenhao Zheng et al. in 2024[4] proposed a novel Transformer-based Knowledge Distillation Network, called TKD-Net, for cortical cataract grading. This study focuses on to tackle the complex opacity problem. They first devise a zone decomposition strategy to extract more refined features and introduce special opacity assessment for comprehensive quantification. Next, they develop a multi-modal mix-attention Transformer to efficiently fuse sub-scores and image modality for complex feature learning. However, they faced a challenge while obtaining the sub-score modality in the clinic, which cause the modality missing problem. To simultaneously alleviate the issues of modality missing and uncertain data, they further design a Transformer-based Knowledge distillation method. They conduct extensive experiments on a dataset of commonly-used slit lamp images annotated by the LOCS III grading system to demonstrate that their TKD-Net outperforms state-of-the-art methods.

Yih-Chung Tham, Jocelyn Hui Lin Goh, Ayesha Anees, Tyler Hyungtaek Rim et al. in 2022[7] reviewed on the development and validation of a retinal photograph-based, deep learning algorithm for automated detection of visually significant cataracts, using more than 25,000 images from population-based studies. In the internet test set, the area under the receiver operating characteristics curve (AUROC) was 96.6%. The external testing performed across three studies showed AUROCs of 91.6-96.5%. They further compared the algorithm's performance with 4 ophthalmologists' evaluations. The algorithm performed comparably, if not being slightly more superior. Their finding shows the potential of a retinal photograph-based screening tool for visually significant cataracts among older adults, providing more appropriate referrals to tertiary eye centers.

3 Proposed Scheme

3.1 CONVOLUTIONAL NEURAL NETWORKS(CNN)

Convolution Neural Networks (CNNs)are a class of deep neural networks that are particularly powerful for image processing tasks. They are inspired by the organization of the animal visual cortex and are designed to automatically and adaptively learn spatial hierarchies of features from raw input data.

CNNs consist of multiple layers, including convolutional layers, pooling layers, and fully connected layers. These layers work together to extract relevant features from the input images and classify them into different categories.

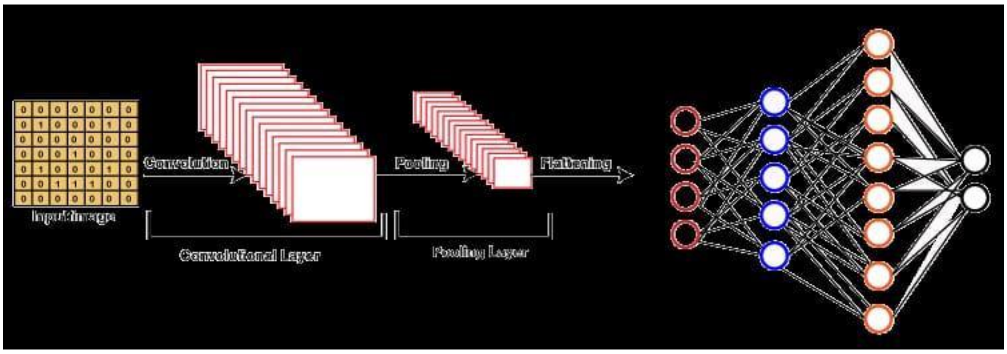


FIGURE 3.1 CNN Model

The key components of a CNN include:

➢ **Convolutional Layers**: These layers apply a set of filters to the input image to create feature maps. Each filter detects specific features, such as edges or textures, at different spatial locations in the input image.

➢ **Pooling Layers**: Pooling layers reduce the spatial dimensions of the feature maps by down sampling. This helps to make the network more robust to variations in the input and reduces the computational cost.

➢ **Activation Functions**: Activation functions introduce non-linearity into the network, allowing it to learn complex patterns in the data. Common activation functions include ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit) and Sigmoid.

➢ **Fully Connected Layers**: Fully connected layers are typically used in the final stages of the network to classify the features extracted by the convolutional and pooling layers into different categories.

3.1.1 Implementation of CNN:

Implementing a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) for image classification typically involves several steps using a deep learning framework like TensorFlow or PyTorch. Here's a basic outline of the implementation process:

1. Dataset Preparation: Download and pre-process the dataset. For example, if you're using the MNIST dataset for digit classification, you would resize the images to a common size and normalize the pixel values.

2. Model Architecture: Define the CNN architecture. This includes specifying the number of convolutional layers, pooling layers, and fully connected layers. You also need to choose activation functions and kernel sizes for the layers.

3. Building the Model: Use the deep learning framework to create an instance of the CNN model, specifying its architecture.

4. Compiling the Model: Compile the model by specifying the loss function, optimizer, and metrics to be used during training. For classification tasks, categorical crossentropy is commonly used as the loss function.

5. Training the Model: Train the model on the training dataset using the ‘fit’ method. This involves passing the training images and their corresponding labels to the model and specifying the number of epochs (iterations over the entire dataset).

6. Model Evaluation: Evaluate the trained model on a separate validation dataset to assess its performance. Use the evaluate method to calculate metrics such as accuracy.

7. Making Predictions: Use the trained model to make predictions on new images. Pass the images through the model using the ‘predict’ method and interpret the output probabilities to determine the predicted class.

3.1.2 Kernel in CNN:

In Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), a kernel (also known as a filter) is a small matrix used for convolution operations. Kernels are a key component of CNNs and play a crucial role in extracting features from the input data, which is essential for tasks such as image recognition and classification.

The kernel slides over the input image to perform element-wise multiplication with the overlapping region of the image, and then sums the results to produce a single output pixel in the output feature map.

Here's a simplified explanation of how kernels work in CNNs:

- **Convolution Operation:** The kernel is applied to the input image using a process called convolution. The kernel is a small matrix (e.g., 3x3 or 5x5) that contains weights. These weights are learned during the training process.
- **Feature Extraction:** As the kernel slides over the input image, it extracts features by performing element-wise multiplication with the pixel values in the overlapping region of the image. The results are then summed to produce a single value in the output feature map.
- **Multiple Kernels:** In practice, a CNN consists of multiple kernels in each convolutional layer. Each kernel is responsible for extracting a different set of features from the input image. For example, one kernel might detect edges, while another might detect textures.
- **Depth:** The number of kernels in a convolutional layer determines the depth of the output feature map. Each kernel produces a single channel in the output feature map, so if there are n kernels, the output feature map will have a depth of n.
- **Non-linearity:** After the convolution operation, a non-linear activation function (such as ReLU) is applied to introduce non-linearity into the network. This allows the CNN to learn complex patterns and relationships in the input data.

3.2 GRAY LEVEL CO-OCCURRENCE MATRIX:

The Gray Level Co-Occurrence Matrix (GLCM) is a statistical method used in image processing and analysis to describe the texture of an image. It quantifies the relationship between pairs of pixels at a specified offset. GLCM calculates how often different combinations of pixel intensity levels occur in an image at a specific spatial relationship. This information is used to extract features that characterize the texture of the image, such as contrast, correlation, energy, and homogeneity. GLCM is particularly useful in tasks like image classification, segmentation, and texture analysis, as it provides a compact representation of texture information in an image.

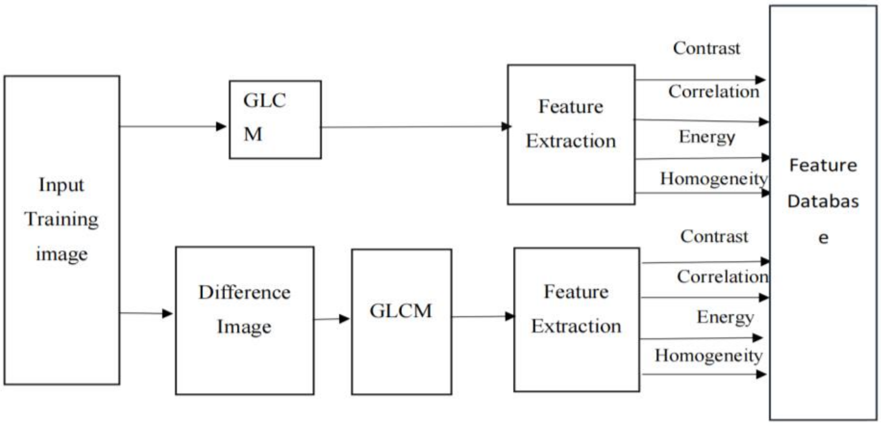


Fig: 3.2 Typical GLCM Model

3.2.1 Implementation of GLCM (Gray Level Co-Occurrence Matrix):

1. **Image Pre-processing:** The input image needs to be pre-processed to improve the quality of the image. The pre-processing steps include resizing the image, adjusting the contrast and converting the image to grey scale.
2. **Co-Occurrence Matrix Calculation:** The GLCM algorithm works by calculating the co-occurrence matrix of the grey scale image. The co-occurrence matrix is a 2D matrix that counts the number of times a pixel with a certain value occurs at a specific offset from another pixel with a certain value. The calculation of the co-occurrence matrix involves the following steps.
2.1. **Select the distance and direction:** The first step is to select the distance between the two pixels. The distance and direction are usually predefined values.
2.2. **Calculate the co-occurrence matrix:** For each pair of pixels in the Image that satisfy the distance and direction criteria, the algorithm updates the corresponding entry in the co-occurrence matrix.
3. **Feature Extraction:** Once the co-occurrence matrix is calculated, features can be extracted from it. The most commonly used features are energy, contrast, homogeneity, and correlation. The calculation of each feature involves a mathematical formula that takes into account the values in the co-occurrence matrix.
4. **Classification:** The final step in the GLCM algorithm is to classify the image based on the extracted feature Classification algorithms can be used to distinguish between different types of textures based on the values of the Features.

3.3 IMPLEMENTATION PROCEDURE :

3.3.1 Dataset

To train our model we consider Cataract Dataset from Kaggle. It contains 400 images
of normal and cataract fundus images.

Class	No of images
Normal	300
Cataract	100

Table 1: Dataset Distrubution

3.3.2 Data Pre-processing

All the images are resized to 256 × 256 resolution. In this data, 90% is used for training
and 10% is used for testing.

3.3.3 GLCM

We implemented GLCM on the dataset to extract features. The following features are extracted from the images. We extract features at three inter pixel distances that is at 1,2,3 along with four angle orientations. Those are 0, π/4, $\pi/2$, 3π/4.

3.3.3.1 Features of GLCM
3.3.3.1.1 Contrast

Contrast is a statistical feature that can be calculated from a Grey-Level Co-Occurrence Matrix (GLCM). In GLCM analysis, contrast is used to measure the local variations in the greylevel values of neighbouring pixels in an image.

The contrast value is computed by assuming the squared difference of the grey-level
values of neighbouring pixels in the GLCM matrix. The formula to calculate contrast from a
GLCM is:

$$contrast = \sum_i \sum_j (i-j)^2 \, p_d(i,$$

Where G (i , j) is the element (i , j) of the GLCM. The resulting contrast value ranges from 0 to a maximum value, which depends on the maximum grey-level value in the image. A higher contrast value indicates that neighbouring pixels in the image have larger differences in grey-level values, while a lower contrast value indicates that neighbouring pixels have more similar grey-level values. Contrast is one of several statistical features that can be extracted from a GLCM. Other commonly used features include homogeneity, dissimilarity, correlation, and entropy, can be used to characterize different aspects of the texture or spatial distribution of pixels in an image, and they can be used as input to machine learning algorithms for tasks such as image classification or segmentation.

3.3.3.1.2 Homogeneity

Homogeneity is a statistical feature that can be calculated from a Grey-Level Co occurrence Matrix (GLCM). In GLCM analysis, homogeneity is used to measure the degree to which the grey-level values of neighbouring pixels in an image are similar. The homogeneity value is computed by summing the elements of the GLCM matrix, which represents the similarity of the neighbouring pixels in the image. The formula to calculate homogeneity from a GLCM is:

$$Homogeneity = \sum_i \sum_j \frac{P_d(i,j)}{1+|i-j|}$$

Where G (i, j) is the element (i, j) of the GLCM.

The resulting homogeneity value ranges from 0 to 1, where a value of 1 represents perfect homogeneity or uniformity in the image. If all pairs of neighbouring pixels in the image have the same intensity value, the homogeneity value will be 1.Homogeneity is one of several statistical features that can be extracted from a GLCM.

3.3.3.1.3 Energy

Energy, also known as angular second moment (ASM), is a statistical feature that can be calculated from a Gray-Level Co-occurrence Matrix (GLCM). In GLCM analysis, energy is used to measure the uniformity or homogeneity of the grey-level values of neighbouring pixels in an image.

The energy value is computed by summing the squared values of the elements in the GLCM matrix. The formula to calculate energy from a GLCM:

$$Energy = \sum_{i,j}$$

Where G (i, j) is the element (i, j) of the GLCM.

The resulting energy value ranges from 0 to 1. A higher energy value indicates that neighboring pixels in the image have more similar grey-level values, while a lower energy value indicates that neighboring pixels have more diverse grey-level values.Energy is one of several statistical features that can be extracted from a GLCM.

3.3.3.1.4 Correlation

Correlation is a statistical feature that can be calculated from a Gray-Level Co occurrence Matrix (GLCM). In GLCM analysis, correlation is used to measure the linear dependence between the grey-level values of neighbouring pixels in an image. The correlation value is computed by summing the products of the differences of the grey-level values of neighbouring pixels and their corresponding row and column marginal probabilities in the GLCM matrix.

The formula to calculate correlation from a GLCM is:

$$Correlation = \sum_{i}\sum_{j}\frac{(i-\mu i)(j-\mu j}{\sigma i \sigma j}$$

Where G (i, j) is the element (i, j) of the GLCM, µx and µy are the row and column means of the GLCM, and σx and σy are the row and column standard deviations of the GLCM. The resulting correlation value ranges from -1 to 1. A correlation value of 1 indicates a perfect positive correlation between the grey-level values of neighboring pixels, while a correlation value of -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation. A correlation value of 0 indicates no linear correlation. Correlation is one of several statistical features that can be extracted from a GLCM.

3.3.4 CNN

The features extracted from the GLCM are stored in array which is utilized to train CNN model. The data in the array is divided into 90:10 ratio. Further 90% of the data is used to train the CNN.Finally 10% data has been used to evaluate the model.

3.5 PRACTICAL IMPLEMENTATION

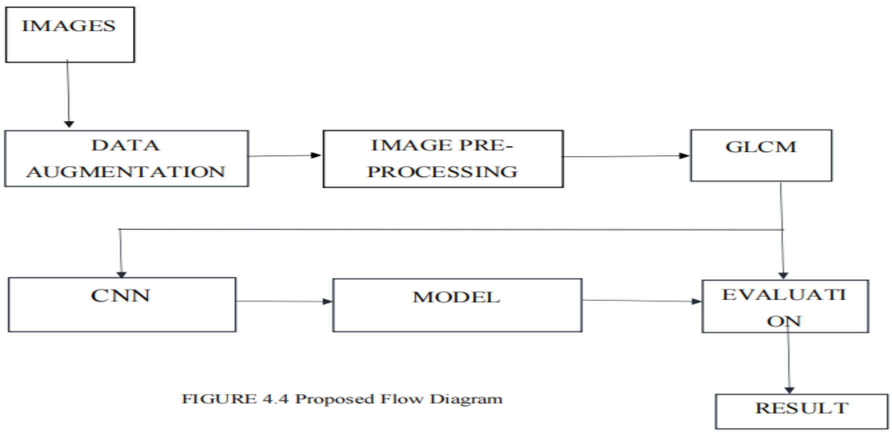


FIGURE 4.4 Proposed Flow Diagram

3.5.1 Data Augmentation Algorithm

Input: Normal and cataract images
Output: Rotated and mirrored images

Step 1: Read image from folder
Step 2: Rotate the original image by 180º and save it
Step 3: Mirror the original image and save it
Step 4: Repeat the steps from 1 to 3 for all image

Input: Normal and cataract images
Output: Resized images

Step 1: Read image
Step 2: Resize the original image into resolution of 256 * 256
Step 3: Save image
Step 4: Repeat the steps from 1 to 3 for all images

3.5.2 GLCM Algorithm

Input: Normal and cataract images
Output: GLCM features

Step 1: Read image
Step2: Convert the image into grey co-matrix of unit eight format
Step 3: Extract features from image
Step 4: Repeat 1, 2, 3 for all images with interpixel distances has 1, 2, 3, and angles 0,
π/4, π/2, 3π/4 for all images.

Step 5: Update and store data in an array

3.5.3 CNN Algorithm

Input: GLCM features

Output: SVM trained model for DR classification

Step 1: Read GLCM features
Step 2: Split the data into train and test with training data
Step 3: Train CNN with training data.
Step 4: Save the Trained model.
Step 5: Evaluate the model with testing data.
Step 6: Generated confusion matrix
Step 7: Calculate Precision and recall for each class.

4 Result Analysis and Discussion

4.1 CONFUSION MATRIX

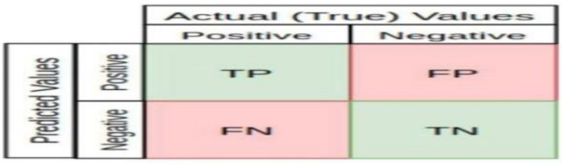
A Confusion matrix is an N × N matrix used for evaluating the performance of a classification model, where N is the total number of target classes. The matrix compares the actual target values with those predicted by the machine learning model This gives us a holistic view of how well our classification model is performing and what kinds of errors it is making. It provides a detailed breakdown of the model's performance. It shows the number of true positives, true negatives, false positives, and false negatives. Analysing the confusion matrix can help identify any specific patterns of misclassification.

Generally, a binary classifier is used to classify the information into two types positive and negative. Positive indicates when correct classification or prediction has been made, whereas negative indicates the objective not belonging to a particular instance. Based on these two binary patterns, again information is represented with four values which are termed as

- TruePositive (TP)
- FalsePositive (FP)
- TrueNegative (TN)
- FalseNegative (FN)

Case 1: If the given predicted positive value matches with an actual positive value, then it is
referred to as TP.

Case 2: If the given predicted positive value matches the actual negative value, it is referred to as FP.
Case 3: If the given predicted negative value matches with an actual positive value, then it is
referred to as FN.
Case 4: If the given predicted negative value matched with the actual negative value, then it is referred to as TN.



	Normal	Cataract
Normal	34	0
Cataract	6	0

Table 2: Confusion Matrix Proposed

4.1.2 Graphical Representation

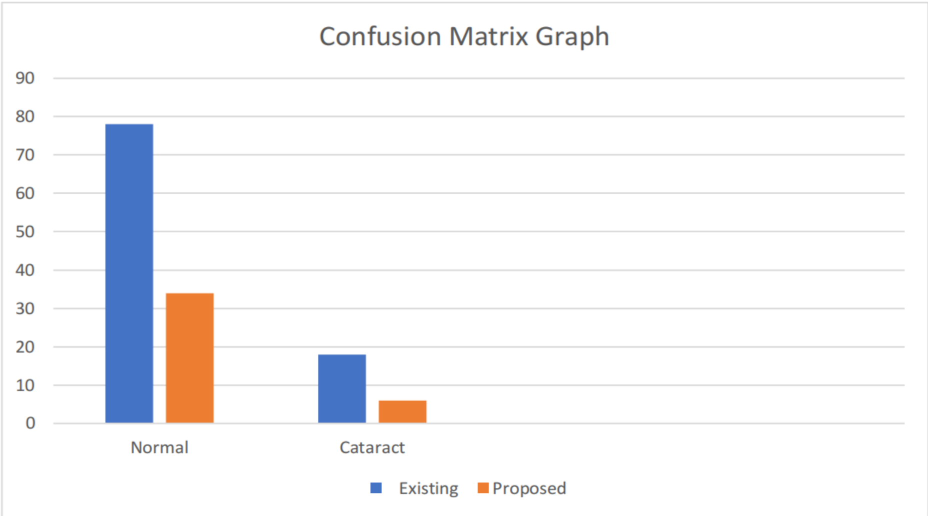


Figure 5.1: Graphical Representation of Confusion Matrix

4.2 ACCURACY

Accuracy is a measure of how correctly a model's predictions match the actual outcomes in a dataset. It is calculated as the number of correct predictions divided by the total number of predictions. Accuracy is commonly used in classification problems, where the goal is to predict a categorical outcome. The accuracy of the model can be obtained from the training history (history) or by evaluating the model on the test dataset. A high accuracy indicates that the model is performing well in classifying normal and cataract eyes.

CLASS	Existing Method	Proposed Method
Normal	0.8000	0.8500
Cataract	0.7500	0.8000

Table 3: Comparison Between Existing and Proposed Method

4.2.1 Graphical Representation

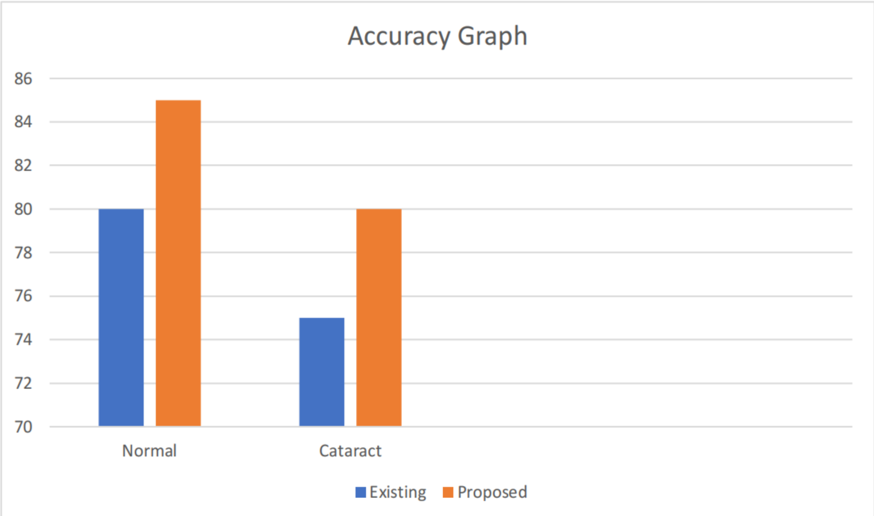


Figure 5.2: Graphical Representation of Accuracy

5 Conclusion

Our proposed method for cataract detection leverages GLCM features in conjunction with a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) algorithm. By incorporating both normal and cataract images into the dataset, the model learns to distinguish between healthy and diseased eye conditions. GLCM features efficiently capture textural patterns present in the images, providing crucial information for classification. The CNN architecture further enhances the model's capability to learn intricate features, resulting in an impressive accuracy exceeding 80%. Through the utilization of a dataset comprising normal and cataract images, our approach demonstrates robust performance in identifying cataracts from digital images. This comprehensive dataset ensures that the model learns to differentiate between subtle variations in eye conditions, enabling accurate diagnosis.

This approach holds significant promise for early detection and intervention in cataract patients, potentially mitigating vision loss and improving overall healthcare outcomes. Moreover, the successful implementation of this method sets a foundation for future advancements in automated medical diagnosis systems, facilitating the development of accurate and efficient diagnostic tools for various eye diseases.

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