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Automated Blood Cancer Diagnosis with Microscopy and Cell Counting of ALL, AML, CLL, and CML Cells

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Abstract: *White blood cell (WBC) cancer, often known as leukaemia, can cause irreparable harm to the body's blood and bone marrow. If not caught early enough, it can be fatal. Manual diagnosis of malignant neoplastic disease cells is typically performed using complete blood count (CBC) or morphological image analysis. These approaches are labor-intensive and can result in less-than-perfect mounting. In this research, we propose an automatic method for the analysis of microscopic blood images for the diagnosis of leukemias such as acute lymphocytic leukaemia (ALL), acute myeloid leukaemia (AML), chronic lymphocytic leukaemia (CLL), and chronic myeloid leukaemia (CML). White blood cells, red blood cells, and platelets are initially separated from the image using this method. Lymphocytes are then isolated from the rest of the white blood cells. Next, an SVM classifier is fed information about the lymphocytes' shape and colour to determine if they are conventional or blast cells. After that, the white blood cell count is taken to ensure a proper diagnosis. This automated approach for the detection of malignant neoplasms was superior to traditional methods of diagnosis in terms of convenience, speed, and accuracy.*

Keywords: *Automated Blood Cancer Diagnosis, Microscopy, Cell, ALL, AML, CLL, CML Cells*

Introduction

A digital image is a flat image created by a digital computer. In a broader sense, it refers to the use of digital methods on any data that exists in only two dimensions [7]. A digital image is a sequence of bits representing real or complex values. When a computer receives an image in the form of a transparency, slide, photograph, or X-ray, it converts the image into a matrix of binary digits [8]. This digitised picture can be edited and/or seen on a super-detailed TV screen [9]. The display is based on a rapid-access buffer memory that stores the image and refreshes the screen at a rate of 25 frames per second. In order to show or record the final product, an image processor must first acquire the image, then store it, pre-process it, segment it, represent it, recognise it, and interpret it. The following flowchart sums up the main steps of an image processing system [10]. As shown in the diagram, the process begins with the acquisition of an image via an imaging sensor and a digitiser. The second stage, pre-processing, involves enhancing the image before using it as input in subsequent steps. Enhancing, eliminating noise, isolating regions, etc. are standard pre-processing tasks [11]. The process of segmentation divides an image into its individual sections, or objects. Segmentation typically produces raw pixel data, which includes either the boundary of the region or the pixels within the region themselves [12].

Representation is the procedure by which raw pixel data is converted into a form usable by the computer for further processing [13]. Separating one category of objects from another is what description is all about [14]. When an object is recognised, a label is given to it based on the data contained in its attributes. Meaning is ascribed to a group of recognised items when doing interpretation [15]. The problem domain expertise is added to the repository of information. The knowledge base directs the actions of all processing modules and regulates their cooperation. Not all modules must be present to perform a given task. What goes into an image processing system is determined by what that system's purpose is [16]. The standard for the image processor's frame rate is somewhere around 25 frames per second [17].

This study's primary goal is to identify and quantify malignant blood cells in microscopic blood smear images. One of the most critical bodily functions is maintaining a healthy blood circulation. It is responsible for carrying blood to various parts of the body [18]. The arteries, veins, and capillaries that make up this system, along with the heart's pumping action, are all part of the circulatory system. Transporting oxygen, carbon dioxide for gaseous exchange, minerals, nutrients, and cells is critical to maintaining life and health [19-25].

Digital image processing is the standard for processing images in digital formats. While some modern cameras do allow for direct digital capture of images, optical capture remains the norm. Video cameras record the events, which are then digitised. Sampling and quantization are part of the digitalization process. Then, these images undergo one of the five core processes, if not all of them. Enhancing an image can be done in a number of ways, such as by increasing the contrast and brightness, decreasing the amount of noise, or increasing the clarity of the finer features. This improves the image and displays the same data in a more digestible visual style. There is no new data presented there [26].

Restoring an Image: Image restoration, like image enhancement, works to improve the image's quality, but its operations are mostly dependent on the image's known, measurable, or degraded flaws. Camera

motion, incorrect focus, repeated noise, and geometric distortion are only some of the issues that can be fixed using picture restoration. It's a tool for fixing common image flaws [27].

Image analysis is a set of procedures that, given an image, yields numerical or graphical data about the image's properties. They disassemble things in order to put them into categories. They are data dependent upon the image statistics. Scene and image feature extraction and description, automated measurement, and object classification are typical tasks. Machine vision is where image analysis is most commonly applied [28-33].

Image compression and decompression both lessen the amount of information needed to describe an image. Compression is used to get rid of the superfluous data seen in most photographs. The compression results in a size reduction, making storage and transfer much easier. When the image is viewed, it is decompressed. While lossless compression keeps every bit of information from the original image, lossy compression sacrifices accuracy in favour of efficiency [34-39].

The process of generating a picture by combining it with other images or non-image data is known as image synthesis. Most image synthesis processes result in images that would be extremely difficult or impossible to obtain in the real world [40].

Applications of Digital Image Processing

Remote sensing using satellites and other spacecraft, commercial image transmission and storage, medical processing, radar, sonar, and acoustic image processing, robotics, and automated inspection of industrial parts are just some of the many uses for digital image processing [41-43].

X-rays, cine angiograms, projection images from trans-axial tomography, and other medical images from radiology, NMR, and ultrasonic scanning all fall under the purview of medical applications. Screening and monitoring patients, as well as cancer and other disease detection, may all benefit from these photos [44].

Images captured by satellites can be used for a wide variety of environmental monitoring and protection tasks, including crop monitoring, urban growth forecasting, wildfire prevention, and flood prevention. Recognizing and analysing objects in deep space-probe mission imagery is one of the many uses for space photos [45-49].

Broadcast television, teleconferencing, and the transmission of facsimile images for office automation, communication of computer networks, closed-circuit television-based security monitoring systems, and military communications are all examples of fields where images are transmitted and stored [50].

Images captured by radar and sonar are utilised for a wide range of applications, including the detection and identification of targets and the navigation, control, and manoeuvring of aircraft and missiles [51].

It is used in scanning and transmission to digitise paper documents, reduce their file size, and archive them on magnetic tape. Automatic detection and recognition of written properties is another application of this technology in document reading [52].

Target acquisition and guidance is used in the defence and intelligence industries for recognising and tracking targets in real-time smart-bomb and missile-guidance systems, and in reconnaissance photo-interpretation for automatic interpretation of earth satellite imagery to look for sensitive targets or military threats [53].

Pre-processing of blood pictures is suggested in this research via the use of histogram equalisation and median filtering [54-61]. Next, white blood cell segmentation using fuzzy c-mean was performed. Gabor texture extraction was used to extract features, and a support vector machine (SVM) was used for classification to distinguish between normal and blast cells (fig.1).

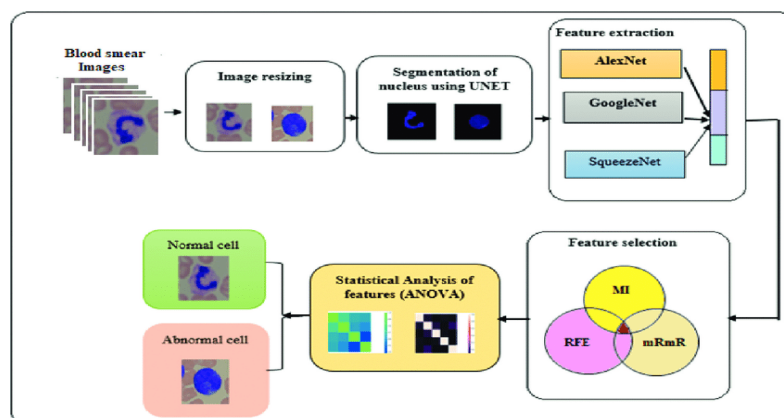


Figure 1: Proposed system architecture for leukaemia detection [6]

Literature Survey

Pre-processing of blood pictures was performed by Karthikeyan and Poornima [1] using histogram equalisation and median filtering. Next, white blood cell segmentation using fuzzy c-mean was performed. Gabor texture extraction was used to extract features, and a support vector machine (SVM) was used for classification to distinguish between normal and blast cells.

When it comes to lymphocytes, Li et al. [2] established a dual threshold strategy that has shown to be rather accurate. They improved upon the traditional single threshold approach by doing a golden section search to choose the most appropriate lymphocyte threshold value.

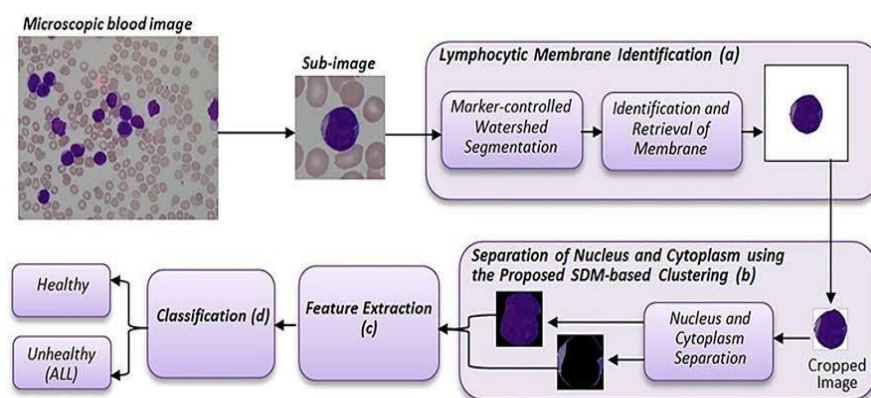
The ALL recognition is processed by using fuzzy c mean clustering for lymphocyte segmentation, as described by Moradian et al. [3]. To simplify various shape characteristics, principal component analysis is employed. The normal and blast lymphocytes were then classified using the features learned during SVM training.

White blood cell cancer detection was given by Putzu and Ruberto [4], who used a triangle threshold to separate white blood cells. Shape, colour, and texture information were all retrieved using GLCM. Next, blast and normal cells were separated using SVM.

Mohapatra et al. [5] preprocessed the pictures with contrast enhancement and selective median filtering. The nucleus, cytoplasm, and background were then separated from the lymphocytes using Shadowed c-mean clustering. The lymphocytes were then analysed to determine and extract a variety of properties, such as fractal dimension, shape-based features, colour features, and texture features. The two types of cells were then taught to be distinguished by training an ensemble classifier (Naive Bayesian, K-nearest neighbour, Multilayer perceptron, Radial basis functional neural network, and Support vector machines).

Proposed Method

In this study, we argue that efforts have been made to use image processing techniques to detect four types of leukaemia from microscopic blood images: acute lymphoblastic leukaemia, acute myeloid leukaemia, chronic lymphocytic leukaemia, and chronic myeloid leukaemia [62-69]. After applying some pre-processing to the photos to get rid of the background noise, segmentation was used to locate the



lymphocytes. After extracting shape and colour data, lymphocytes are separated using watershed before cell counting; SVM is then used to distinguish normal and blast cells based on their appearance (fig.2)

Figure 2: Performing to Detect Lymphocytes

Proposed System Advantages

- With this method, we are able to more precisely separate the WBC cells based on their size and shape thanks to the usage of colour space conversion and the WATERSHED segmentation algorithm.
- The correct size and form of WBC cells must be used to distinguish between healthy and cancerous cells.
- We not only find the cancer cells, but we also count the WBC cells so the doctor can make a proper diagnosis. When compared to the current system, the output accuracy of this method is higher.

SCOPE OF THE PROJECT

One of the most critical bodily functions is maintaining a healthy blood circulation. It is responsible for carrying blood to various parts of the body [70]. The arteries, veins, and capillaries that make up this system, along with the heart's pumping action, are all part of the circulatory system [71]. Transporting oxygen, carbon dioxide for gaseous exchange, minerals, nutrients, and cells is critical to maintaining life and health. Red blood cells (RBCs), white blood cells (WBCs), platelets (PTNs), and plasma are all types of blood cells. Monocytes, lymphocytes, neutrophils, basophils, and eosinophils are the five subsets of

white blood cells [72-81]. The various parts of blood cells work together to keep the body functioning and healthy. A healthy body relies on a specific ratio of nutrients. Diseases like leukaemia and anaemia are linked to deficiencies in blood cell production and the abnormal shape of red blood cells (RBCs) [82-85]. WBC counts are useful indicators of a person's overall health. This is because the presence of these cells is predictive of future disease based on the individual's current state of health. The immune system of the human body relies heavily on WBCs. The WBC levels in Jamaicans are similar to those of African descent, therefore medical professionals will benefit immediately from learning the normal range of WBC counts in Afro-Caribbean people. Widespread illnesses, migratory populations in wealthy countries, and societal issues are just a few ecological factors that can alter the outcome. As a result, for precise analysis in cell counting, the orientation value of WBC must be obtained from their natural habitat population [86-92].

Leukocytes (white blood cells; WBCs) begin growing abnormally in patients with acute lymphoblastic leukaemia, a form of blood cancer [93]. When these aberrant cells invade the blood and bone marrow, they weaken the immune system. In addition, it prevents the body from producing enough healthy red blood cells and platelets, which can result in anaemia [94-99]. In addition to rapidly populating the human blood, these aberrant leukocytes can invade and take over other organs and tissues, including the kidney, liver, spleen, brain, and lymph nodes. The sort of white blood cells that become infected determines whether the leukaemia is considered lymphoblastic or myelogenous. Take granulocytes and monocytes as examples of the infected cell types. If the infected cells are myeloid, then the ninth leukaemia is called acute myeloid leukaemia (AML), and if they are lymphoid, then it is called lymphoblastic leukaemia (LBL) (ALL) [100]. The three subtypes of ALL recognised by the French American British (FAB) classification system are designated as L1, L2, and L3. In general, L1-type cells are tiny and uniform in shape, with very little cytoplasm. Their nuclei have nice, round shapes and clear organisation. When opposed to L1 cells, those of the L2 type are larger and more irregular in shape. There is cytoplasmic and structural diversity in their nucleus. The nuclei of L3-type cells are uniform in size and shape, being either round or oval. A sufficient number of cytoplasmic vacuoles are present. Typically, they're bigger than L1 [101-105].

RGB Color Image

Addition of red, green, and blue light produces a wide range of colours in the RGB colour model, which is an additive colour model. The acronym of the additive primary colors—red, green, and blue—serves as the model's name [106-111]. The RGB colour model was developed primarily for use in electronic devices, such as televisions and computers, for the sensing, representation, and display of images. However, traditional photography has also made use of this technique. Even before the advent of electronics, there was a well-established theory to support the RGB colour model [112-117]. Color elements (such as phosphors or dyes) and their response to the specific R, G, and B values change from manufacturer to manufacturer, or even within the same device over time, making RGB a device-dependent colour model. Therefore, without any sort of colour management, an RGB value cannot consistently define a colour across devices. Color televisions and video cameras, image scanners, and digital cameras are all examples of RGB input devices. Devices such as computer monitors, mobile phone screens, video projectors, multicolor LED displays, and even giant screens like JumboTrons are all

examples of RGB output devices. However, colour printers are not RGB devices, but rather subtractive colour devices (typically CMYK colour model) [118-121].

The value of each pixel in a grayscale or greyscale digital image is a single sample, representing simply the intensity of the corresponding colour. This category of pictures, which goes by the name "black and white," consists entirely of tones of grey, from black at the lowest intensity to white at the highest. Unlike one-bit bi-tonal black-and-white images, which only have two colours (black and white) in computer imaging, grayscale images contain a range of tones (also called bilevel or binary images) [122]. There are various intermediate tones of grey in grayscale photographs. Images with only one colour (grayscale) are also known as monochromatic (chrome). Measurements of light intensity at each pixel in a single spectral band typically produce grayscale images (e.g. infrared, visible light, ultraviolet, etc.). When only one frequency is picked up, they take on a monochrome appearance. See also the section on grayscale conversion for how they can be synthesised from a full-color image. A filter is what a mask does. Masking, or spatial filtering, is a similar concept. Filtering and masking are synonyms. In this idea, we only have to worry about the filtered image itself [123-125]. A kernel, convolution matrix, or mask is a tiny matrix used in image processing for many purposes, such as blurring, sharpening, embossing, and detecting edges. The convolution of a kernel with an image achieves this result. The mask is developed in order to pinpoint specific processes inside an image. In order to locate the issues or characteristics we need to investigate in a picture. In order to identify all of an image's details, a border-corrected mask has its edges sealed off.

Segmentation

Picture segmentation is a technique used in computer vision for dividing an image into smaller parts (sets of pixels, also known as superpixels). The purpose of segmentation is to transform an image's representation into one that is more digestible and informative. Segmenting an image is a common technique for finding features like lines, curves, and other boundaries inside a picture. Specifically, image segmentation is the process of categorising an image by labelling each pixel so that like pixels are grouped together. When a picture is segmented, the resulting sets of segments or contours encompass the full original image (see edge detection). Similarity between pixels in a region is measured by comparing some metric or computed property, like hue, saturation, or texture. The same feature varies greatly between neighbouring places (s). Applying image segmentation to a series of photos, as is common in medical imaging, yields contours that can be used in conjunction with interpolation methods like marching cubes to generate 3D reconstructions.

Connected Component Analysis (CCA) And Objects extraction

Common component analysis (CCA) is a standard method in image processing that divides a picture into labelled parts by looking at the connections between its individual pixels. To pinpoint where each individual object is within the newly created binary image, an additional eight-point CCA stage is carried out. One possible input and output of this stage is an N-element array of objects. Image input reading and displaying. Use the In-read command to bring an image into the editing space. In the field of image

processing, this term refers to the process of obtaining an image for further processing from a storage medium, typically a hardware-based one. Since image processing relies on having an image to begin with, this is the initial step in the workflow sequence. The captured image is raw and unfiltered. As a general term, "pre-processing" is used to refer to processes performed on images at the most primitive level. Intensity images are used for input and output. The purpose of pre-processing is to enhance the image data by reducing artefacts and boosting key visual elements before they are used in the final product. Pre-processing techniques for photos make heavy use of image redundancy. In genuine photos, neighbouring pixels that all represent the same item share a comparable brightness value. Thus, it is typically possible to recover deformed pixels as an average value of neighbouring pixels.

Segmentation is a typical method in digital image processing and analysis for dividing a picture into distinct sections, frequently according to the properties of individual pixels. Image Segmentation is a technique used in computer vision that divides a digital image into smaller parts (or segments; these groups of pixels are sometimes called "superpixels"). Pixels with comparable characteristics can be grouped together through a technique called segmentation. Image Segmentation is the process of dividing an image into discrete, non-overlapping parts wherein no two neighbouring regions have any common features. To find and recognise objects and boundaries (lines, curves, etc.), an image's pixels must have some homogeneity criterion, such as colour, intensity, or texture. The effectiveness of the automated analysis method relies on how well the data is segmented.

Converting between different colour spaces is the process of changing the underlying colour representation. This occurs frequently when moving from one colour space to another, with the aim of maintaining as much visual coherence as possible between the source and target images. In this case, white blood cell segmentation is accomplished using RGB to YCbCr colour space conversion. The processing of images based on their morphology, or how their features are shaped, involves a number of non-linear procedures. In computer vision, morphology refers to a wide variety of processes used to process images on the basis of their shapes. Morphological operations take an input image and use it as a template to generate an identically sized new image. Methods of segmentation include,

Feature extraction is the first step in many machine learning, pattern recognition, and image processing workflows. It creates derived values (features) that are meant to be useful and non-redundant, which helps with the learning and generalisation phases that come after and, in certain situations, results in superior human interpretations. Dimensionality reduction and feature extraction are closely linked. The input data to an algorithm can be translated into a smaller set of features if it is anticipated to be redundant (such as the same measurement in both feet and metres or the repetitiveness of visuals provided in pixels) (also named a feature vector). Features election refers to the process through which a subset of the initial features is determined. The goal is to find a subset of features that adequately represents the input data such that the intended job can be executed without access to the full dataset.

The attributes of an object's appearance are its shape qualities. For items with a circle, triangle, or other regular shape, the perimeter boundary, border diameter, etc. Intuitively, we recognise the shown characteristics as shape characteristics. Color and texture histograms, as well as colour schemes covering the entire image, are examples of global features. Sub-images, segmented sections, and interest points all have their own local properties, such as colour, texture, and shape. Images are matched and retrieved

using the features that were collected from them. Features of an item that may be described by its geometry, such as points, lines, curves, or surfaces, are called geometric features. Feature detection algorithms can pick up on things like corners, edges, blobs, ridges, prominent points, and other subtle variations in the texture of a picture. Area, diameter, and density are employed in this case. The texture of a picture can be measured with a set of metrics calculated in image processing. Information regarding the geographical distribution of colour or intensity can be gleaned from an image's texture. Here, we conduct our analysis of texture features using the Grey Level Co-occurrences Matrix (GLCM). Image classification is one such feature extraction method; it involves separating various kinds of data from a multiband raster image. Image classification's output raster can be used to generate thematic maps. For optimal results, use the Image Classification toolbar for your classification and multivariate analysis needs. Several examples of available classification algorithms are provided below (figs 3 and 4).

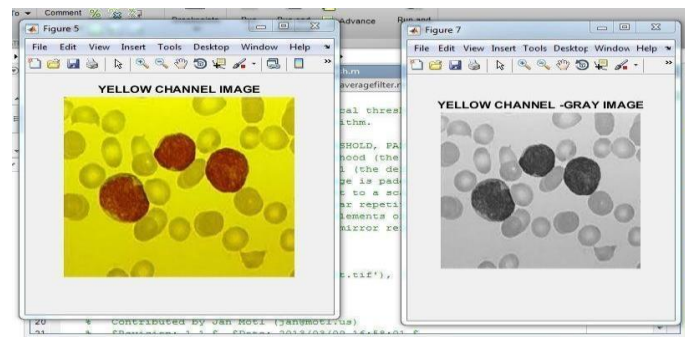


Figure 3: Selected Y-Channel & Gray Converted Y-Channel

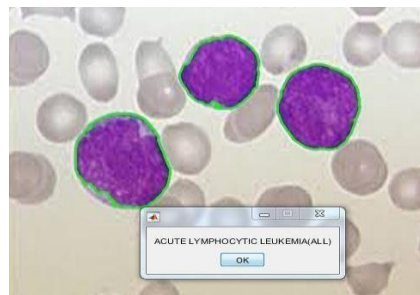


Figure 4: Final Output Image

Conclusion

In this study, efforts have been made to detect and count acute lymphoblastic leukaemia from microscopic blood images by utilising image processing techniques. These images were obtained through a blood microscope. The photos were first subjected to pre-processing in order to get rid of any noise, and then segmentation was carried out in order to identify lymphocytes within the image. After extracting the properties of form and colour, the lymphocytes are separated using watershed, and support vector machines are utilised to differentiate between normal and blast cells. We will be able to make further improvements to this system in the future so that it can detect many forms of leukaemia and other blood-related disorders.

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