Optimized Cancer Detection on Various Magnified Histopathological Colon Images based on DWT Features and FCM Clustering

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Abstract: Due to the morphological characteristics and other biological aspects in histopathological images, the computerized diagnosis of colon cancer in histopathology images has gained popularity. The images acquired using the histopathology microscope may differ for greater visibility by magnifications. This causes a change in morphological traits leading to intra and inter-observer variability. An automatic colon cancer diagnosis system for various magnification is therefore crucial. This work proposes a magnification independent segmentation approach based on the connected component area and Double Density Dual Tree DWT (Discrete Wavelet Transform) coefficients are derived from the segmented region. The derived features are reduced further shortened with Fuzzy c-means. Further, with the aid of Artificial Neural Network (ANN) optimized with Salp Swarm Optimization (SSO), images are classified into normal and abnormal ones. This magnification independent proposed framework is evaluated across four different datasets (two real-time datasets and two public datasets) with different magnifications and the outcomes of all datasets were substantial when compared with the existing techniques. The proposed framework has shown strong concordance for cancer detection and can assist pathologists with a second opinion.

Key words: Histopathological image, segmentation, magnification, feature, DD-dual tree, optimization, classification

1. Introduction

Colon cancer is one of the most prevalent cancers of today. The colon is an essential part of the large intestine. From the small intestine after the absorption of the nutrients, the remaining food particles are ejected to the large intestine for the absorption of salt and water and the rest is transported to the rectum. Thus in the digestive system, the colon performs an important role. Colon cancer is the second cause of death and the third incident of cancer worldwide [1]. Worldwide 2020 statistics show colon and rectum cancer stands in the fifth position when the incidence rate and mortality are considered [2]. In India, colon and rectum cancer constitute 4.9% of cancers that occur [3]. This cancer occurs in the large intestine and the cause of its occurrence may be several but of which the diet plays an important role. Red meat consumption, alcohol intake, high fat, and low fiber content foods may lead to colon cancer. Tobacco smokers, obese, and desk-bound habitual people are also prone to this cancer.

As the colon cancer-affected population is increasing in the current scenario, its fast diagnosis is essential. The main task of the pathologist is to differentiate the normal and malignant colon tissues by examining them

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under the microscope, which in turn determines the treatment. Pathologists examine the specimen under the microscope at different magnifications to have a proper diagnosis. This may result in the difference of inference between pathologists contributing to variation in inter and intraobserver [4, 5]. The particular magnification at which the pathologist analyses the sample will be different for each pathologist. Hence one cannot stick to particular magnification for classification. For an accurate diagnosis, evaluation by an expert pathologist in the gastrointestinal area is essential that is subjective, slow, and not available in remote areas. Thus, there is a need for computer-assisted cancer detection with digitized histology slides that can assist pathologists at various magnifications.

Several investigations have been carried out to identify colon cancer [6] in histopathological images. S. Rathore, M. Hussain, Ali, et al. [7] summarizes the extensive reviews of the numerous approaches and methods used for this purpose, where object-oriented and image texture analysis approaches are contrasted with traditional ones. Angel et al. [8] explored state-of-the-art materials and methods for detecting cancer from images of histopathology for computer-aided diagnosis (CAD).

Various automated ways to discriminate between malignant and normal colon images are available in the current state of the art. Saima et al. [9], for segmentation, formulated a K-means algorithm for clustering with ellipse fitting algorithm, specifically for 10X magnified colon histopathological images, and extracted a hybrid feature set (morphological, geometric, texture-based, scale-invariant, and elliptical Fourier descriptor features) and by characterizing the lumen properties categorized into normal and malignant samples with a Support vector machine (SVM) classifier. In addition, the segmentation parameters for each microscope magnifications (4X, 5X, 10X, and 40X) were optimized by Saima et al. [10] for ellipse fitting with the use of genetic algorithms, and the extracted gray-level co-occurrence matrices (GLCM) and gray-level histograms of the segmented region of interest (ROI), to classify colon biopsy image with the SVM classifier, reaching an average accuracy of 92.33%. A range of magnified colon (10X, 20X, 40X) images have been studied and classified with multi-classifier models in [11–14] for cancer detection, texture, wavelet, and shape features. Abdulhay et al. [15] proposed a blood leukocyte segmentation strategy using static microscopes to categorize 100 distinct (72-abnormal, 38-normal) magnified microscopic images by SVM for tuning the segmentation parameters and filtering of the non-ROI image with the use of texture and local binary patterns and 95.3% accuracy was achieved. Saima et al. [16] have encoded the glandular patterns and shape of cells and detected cancer with the help of an SVM classification system based on the image, locals, and gland retrieved from image-specific adjusted multi-stage gland segmentation. Their approach was assessed in both GlaS datasets [17] and 10X-magnified colon histopathology images, achieving respectively accuracy of 98.30% and 97.60%. Husham et al. [18] have examined the active contour and otsu threshold methods in 100 samples of BRATS Brain MRI data sets where segmentation settings are established for this dataset with confirmation of the accuracy of the active contour. Hussain et al. [19] have proposed segmentation with a new Viola James version, with a classification accuracy of 95.43% and 94.84% for breast (250 images) and ovarian (100 images) ultrasound images, with unique features relying on the segmented region, to define the lesion. Later, with two-dimensional Renys entropy with the cultural algorithm (2DR_{c}, CA), the colon histopathological images at various microscopic magnifications were segmented, from which the shape descriptors were extracted and fused with the texture features from the image [20]. This hybrid feature set was used to predict cancer with a random forest classifier.

Recently, in medical image processing and digital pathology, deep neural networks have become extensive in application [21]. Inspired by LeNet-5, two convolutional neural networks (CNN) have recognized glandular
artifacts and clustered gland segregation [22]. In addition, with 95% precision cancer was diagnosed in the GlaS data set consisting of 20X-magnified images. The best alignment matrix (BAM), retrieved of the segmented region was employed as a two-class rating with 97% precision on the GLAS dataset [23]. The CNN network was employed for gland segmentation and characterization. Subsequently, Stoean et al. [24] extracted high-level features from Alexnet transfer learning to identify the target image as benign and malignant with the probability score of six classifiers. Differential evolution optimizes the classifier weights and achieves 96.66% accuracy in the GlaS data set. 83.9%, 86%, 89.1%, and 86.6% of the accuracies in the data set of BreaKHIs [25], in the magnified microscope pictures of 40X, 100X, 200X, and 400X accordingly. High-level features were collected from Izuka et al. [26] by the CNN network Inception-V3. The images were classified into two different types adenocarcinoma, adenoma from the stomach, and whole slide colon image by recurring neuronal networks and by max pools: giving area under the curve with 0.980, 0.974.

Dorsey et.al [27] proposal for a genetic algorithm (GA) optimizes the relation weights of the neural network (NN), but it uses a basic logical operation. For the optimization of the NN structure P-metaheuristic algorithms, such as artificial bee colony (ABC) [28], particles swarm optimization (PSO) [29], and Ant colony optimization (ACO) [30], were used to optimize the weights of NN networks.

Most of the surveyed systems that employed colon cancer detection techniques were tested with the images at one magnification. The segmentation techniques were explored for this particular dataset images. The features used in these methods are sensitive to the dimension of the epithelial cell size and hence vary with magnification. This article focused on identifying the cancer framework that is independent of the magnification chosen. The features extracted from the frequency domain take into account shape and texture characteristics. Using fuzzy c-means (FCM) the features are reduced and then the classification is made by the salp swarm optimized artificial neural network (SSO-ANN) into normal and abnormal classes. The following has contributed to this article

- Color normalization of the images was performed as there is a variance in illumination and staining in images which was not performed in any of the work till now.
- The segmentation developed could be applied to all images at different magnifications making it magnification independent.
- The feature extracted does not depend on the size which is dependent on the magnification. Thus Double Density Dual tree takes into account the geometric and texture features.
- Feature reduction is performed by FCM to consider the valuable features.
- SSO-ANN Network is used to classify the images into normal and malignant ones.
- Four colon histopathological image datasets of different magnifications assess the proposed architecture.

The rest of this article is as follows. Section 2 describes the dataset and explains the structure of the framework presented. The results and discussion are provided in Section 3. The paper is concluded in Section 4.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Colon histopathological image datasets

Different colon imaging datasets are analyzed for the suggested model as listed below
1. **IPC dataset**: Dataset comprises images acquired from the Ishita Pathology Center, Prayagraj, India with numerous magnifications of 40X, 10X, and 4X of 5-6 µm thick colon biopsies, consisting of 100 normal and malignant images for each magnification. The images were captured with Magcam CD 5 with Olympus CX33. Dr. Ranjana Srivastava, Senior consultant, Ishita Pathology Center analyzed colon biopsy H&E tissue slides and developed the dataset, and made the ground marking of truth.

2. **AMC dataset**: The dataset consists of photographs taken with various magnifications 10X, 20X, and 40X of H&E colon tissue samples of 5-6 µmm thick colon tissue segment from Aster Medcity, Kochi, India consisting of 90 normal and malignant images for each magnification. The pictures were taken with a 640×480 image resolution Nikon eclipse Ci using the NIS element vision microscope. The H&E slides of the colon biopsy were examined by Dr. Sarah Kuruvila (Former Senior Consultant, Department of Histopathology, Aster Medcity, Kochi, India) and Dr. Shahin Hameed, (Consultant, Pathology Department, MVR Cancer Center and Research Institute, Kerala, India). They prepared and labeled the images.

3. **GlaS dataset** [17]: A team of pathologists gathered imaging samples in Coventry University Hospitals and Warwickshire, UK. Zeiss Mirax Midi microscope camera was used to capture the images with a magnification of 20X from 42 normal and 42 malignant H&E stained colon biopsy samples.

4. **Imediatreat dataset** [31]: Consists of 10X magnification photos recorded in a resolution of 800×600 from the H&E stained colon biopsy slides produced in the Emergency County Hospital in Craiova, Romania. This study took into account 62 normal and 62 malignant image samples.

For IPC and AMC datasets, ethical consent has been obtained from the participants.

### 2.2. Proposed framework

The proposed scheme consists of five levels that include pre-processing, segmentation, feature extraction, feature reduction, and classification. Figure 1 represents the architecture of the proposed system.

#### 2.2.1. Pre-processing

The pre-processing module is branched into two phases. Each image of colon biopsy should be standardized in one lighting condition in the first step; and in the second phase, the images’ contrast should be boosted for improved image quality.

1. **Stain color normalization**: The image quality will rely on the tissue samples’ staining concentration and lighting conditions for capturing the pictures. There would therefore be a color disparity in the images and therefore stain normalization is a key aspect of pre-processing. This work normalizes as is the case in [32] where all the images are stain normalized considering the standard image. Figure 2 shows the stain normalization with the standard image (a), input colon histopathology image (b), and the stain normalized image (c). Thus all colon biopsy images are stain normalized in color with the standard image features following the stain color normalization.

2. **Contrast enhancement**: The image contrast has to be strengthened to improve the image quality once the images are stain color normalized. Contrast limited adaptive histogram equalization (CLAHE) is performed for the contrast enhancement as it prevents the over-amplification of the noise. By cutting the histogram at a definite value CLAHE reduces the amplification.
After the first level of the pre-processing, the normalized and contrast-enhanced colon biopsy images are fed to the next level where segmentation is done to find the region of interest.

2.2.2. Image segmentation

Segmentation is a critical step to identify the region of interest. As the colon biopsy images are of different magnified images, the segmentation technique chosen should work with all the images irrespective of their magnifications. A normal colon biopsy image posses a definite shape of the epithelial cells as they are circular or nearly elliptical. These elliptical shape sizes may vary with different magnifications. For lower magnifications, these shapes may appear circular structures but as the magnifications go up, these are elliptic in shape. Thus the circle and ellipse fitting algorithms may not work fine with all magnifications. Hence, the segmentation chosen should segment the region of interest irrespective of the magnifications.

The magnification independent segmentation is performed concerning the connected components that are
found in the images. The normal colon image consists of several connected components that are nearly elliptical whereas in the case of an abnormal colon image, the shape of these cells is distorted and hence there won’t be a definite shape. The segmentation algorithm is given in Algorithm 1.

**Algorithm 1** Magnification independent segmentation.

**Input:** Pre-processed image.

**Output:** Segmented image.

1. Convert the image to its grayscale.
2. Perform noise filtering.
3. Binarise and invert the image.
4. Find all the connected regions in the image.
5. Retain those connected components whose Area $\geq 70\%$ Max area of the connected components
6. Segment it from the background image

This segmentation technique applies to images irrespective of their magnification factor as it takes into consideration the connected components. In the normal images, all the definite structures will be retained and for malignant images, these definite structures are distorted. After the segmentation, the objects and background images are separated and hence the region of interest is segmented out. Thus from the segmented region, the features could be extracted for the classification.

### 2.2.3. Feature extraction

The features should be derived from the image so that the image magnification is not a matter of concern. The frequency-domain characteristics, therefore, convey more information about the morphological nature of the image than the spatial domain characteristics. DD-dual tree DWT feature seeks to solve genuine wavelet shortcomings. The Fourier transform’s magnitude doesn’t vary positively or negatively but gives the Fourier domain a flat and positive effect. With a single linear phase correction that records displacements the amplitude of the Fourier transform remains stable. Fourier coefficients weren’t aliased and do not necessitate a sophisticated cancelation trait for signal reconstruction. The multi-dimensional Fourier base’s sinusoids are extremely directed plane waves.

The key distinction has been that the Fourier transform is focused on complex and oscillating complex sinusoids values whereas the DWT bases itself on oscillating and real wavelets [33].The oscillatory components sine and cosine, real and imaginary, generates a set of Hilbert transform and consist of a 90° gap between them. Thus the analytical signal $e^{j\omega t}$ is established, which only uses frequency axis ($\omega > 0$) to reduce aliases.

When the Hilbert transform notion is extended a little, it is crucial to say that across all frequencies, either positive and negative, the amplitude of this transform is unitary and its phase response to negative and positive frequencies are $+90^\circ$ and $-90^\circ$ respectively as in following equations.

\[
g'(t) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(\tau) \frac{dt}{t-\tau} \tag{1}
\]

\[
H(f) = -j \text{sgn}(f) \tag{2}
\]

From above, the main intent would be to consider a complex wavelet transform, which has a complex wavelet and a scaling function as in Equation 3.

\[
\psi_c(t) = \psi_r(t) + j\psi_i(t) \tag{3}
\]
Here, $\psi_r(t)$ denotes the real and even and $\psi_i(t)$ corresponds to the imaginary and odd. Additionally, if $\psi_r(t)$ and $\psi_i(t)$ constitute a set of the Hilbert Transform, then $\psi_c(t)$ is an analytical signal that is sustained exclusively on the mid-frequency axis.

### 2.2.4. Feature reduction

The extracted functions consist of a lot of information mixing with individual differences, atmosphere noise, and other irrefutable noise, in most actual cases with image processing techniques. Thus to reduce the feature, FCM based feature reduction is considered [34]. This approach eliminates the uncertainty of features extracted and is perfect for the prediction of the tumor.

In this article, the FCM is used to build clusters that are fairly needed by each point for membership rather than for one cluster. The features obtained from the feature extraction process are considered to be input by FCM. The cluster number is 2 and the fuzzy parameter is 2 with a convergence parameter of 0.00001. The P-value limit chosen is 0.05 and for convergence, the maximum number of iterations is 500. The data dimension can be further reduced after conducting the FCM, which can be used throughout the categorization process as inputs. The benefit of the use of FCM seems to be that it delivers good outcomes for overlapping datasets and is, therefore, superior to k-means. This enhancement of the k-means algorithm minimizes the original cost function by computing the centroid and selecting every subclasses accordingly. Figure 4 displays the flowcharts of the FCM reduction technique.

The set of data points is identified by $X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots, x_N\}$ and the center sets as $K = \{k_1, k_2, k_3, \ldots, k_N\}$.

From these data points randomly select clusters $s$. For these clusters compute the membership function

$$v_{ij} \in [0, 1]$$

as follows

$$v_{ij} = \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \left( \frac{||x_i - t_i||}{||x_i - t_k||} \right)^\frac{2}{m-1}} \tag{4}$$

All membership feature values will be summed up to 1 as $\sum_{j=1}^{K} v_{(ij)} = 1$ for $i = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, n$. Further Fuzzy centers $F_j$ for these clusters are found with the following equation

$$F_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} v_{ij}^m x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} v_{ij}^m} \tag{5}$$

With the fuzzy centers, the objective function is tabulated as follows

$$P_{(m)}^f = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{K} v_{ij}^m ||x_i - F_j||^2, \quad m \in (1, \infty) \tag{6}$$

Where $m$ denotes a real number, $v_{ij}$ is the pixel $x_i$'s membership function of the clusters chosen, and $||x_i - F_j||$ defines the distance between the Fuzzy center and the data point. Two objective functions $P_{(m+1)}^f$ and $P_{(m)}^f$ are tabulated, so the difference between them allows for an absolute value that should be reduced repeatedly until the final criterion is less than the user-defined parameter $\epsilon_f$ is obtained. That is $|P_{(m+1)}^f - P_{(m)}^f|/\epsilon_f$.

### 2.2.5. Classification using SSO-ANN

1. **Artificial neural network (ANN):** A common machine learning tool for both classification and regression applications is the neural network. The network learns from the training data set and remembers
each predictor variable’s contribution after each iteration. Several previously published works have confirmed the potential substitution in-network fine-tuning parameters of gradient descend by metaheuristic algorithms. This research investigated the possible use of a newly developed salp swarm algorithm (SSA) optimizer for optimal neural network weights.

2. **Salp swarm algorithm**: The SSA is a new and recent algorithm of Mirjalili’s [35] P-Metaheuristic Optimisation. SSA is primarily influenced by the action of the ocean salps to swarm and navigate. A significant number of mathematical optimization problems have been solved by SSA. Besides, SSA’s multi-objective version was modified to address several challenging engineering problems. In contrast to other algorithms like PSO or DE, the SSA also has demonstrated its high performance in feature selection issues. A chaotic SSA version was also used to pick the feature and showed good results [36].

The population with SSA constitutes a salp chain, and every solution determines the location of a salp within the chain in the population. There are \( n \)-dimensions for each solution, \( n \) being the number of problem variables. The double-dimensional matrix is used for storing all salp locations. The optimum solution is called the food source or \( T \)-target in the population. During the optimization phase, each solution is changed to suit its role in the salp chain. During each iteration of the optimization process, the leader updates itself towards the food sources by using the following equation:

\[
L_1 = \begin{cases} 
T + c_1 (ub - lb) c_2 + lb & c_3 \geq 0 \\
T - c_1 (ub - lb) c_2 + lb & c_3 < 0 
\end{cases}
\]  

(7)

Where the best solution is denoted by \( T \); \( ub \) and \( lb \) give the upper and lower bounds respectively; \( c_1 \), \( c_2 \), and \( c_3 \) are random numbers. The swarm is led by a leader \( (L_i) \) and the other followers are seen to slowly update their position to their neighbor salp and eventually to the leader, to avoid stagnation with \( L_i = \frac{1}{2}(L_i + L_{i-1}) \).

In SSA, the leader salp goes to the source of food, while the followers go towards the leader. In the process, the food source location may be modified and then the leader shifts to the new food source.

ANN includes a vector that makes up the entire number of NN structures according to their respective weights and partialities as \( s_i = [W_{I-H}, B_H, W_{H-O}, B_O] \); where \( s_i \) is the individual salp in the salp population; \( W_{I-H} \) denotes weight corresponding from input to the hidden layer and \( W_{H-O} \) denotes the corresponding weight between the hidden and output layer. Every individual in the population is a neural network (i.e., leader or follower). The sum-squared error (SSE) in Equation 8 is the target function for SSA optimization to be minimized.

\[
SSE = \sum_{f=1}^{F} \sum_{y=1}^{Y} (\text{output}_{\text{desired}} - \text{output}_{\text{actual}})^2
\]  

(8)

Where \( SSE \) is the fitness function; \( F \) denotes the number of selected features extracted and \( Y \) denotes the number of output neurons.

2.3. **Performance measures**

The classification performance evaluation measures include true positive \( (T_p) \), true negative \( (T_n) \), false positive \( (F_p) \), and false-negative \( (F_n) \). Table 1 illustrates the measures used for the evaluation.
3. Results and discussion

On datasets of various microscope magnified colon images, the proposed approach is assessed. The experimentation was performed in two aspects, one, concerning magnification and the other, across the whole dataset consisting of different magnified images. The framework was developed in Matlab 2019b and evaluated with 5 fold cross-validation for single magnification and across datasets with multiple magnifications. For the DD-Dual Tree feature extraction, four levels of decomposition are done and 64 coefficients were extracted. The parameters for the salp swarm optimization were chosen as, epochs 200, maximum iterations 1000, $C_1$ and $C_2$ as 1.2 and population size as 16.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Tabulation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>$\frac{T_p + T_n}{T_p + F_p + T_n + F_n} \times 100$</td>
<td>The capacity of the classifier to categorize the samples appropriately.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error rate</td>
<td>100 - Accuracy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensitivity</td>
<td>$\frac{T_p}{T_p + F_n}$</td>
<td>The capacity of the classifier to recognize the positive samples.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specificity</td>
<td>$\frac{T_n}{T_n + F_p}$</td>
<td>The capacity of the classifier to detect negative samples.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precision</td>
<td>$\frac{T_p}{T_p + F_p}$</td>
<td>The positive results of the positive samples were predicted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False-positive rate (FPR)</td>
<td>$1 - \frac{T_n}{T_n + F_p}$</td>
<td>1- Specificity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-score</td>
<td>$2 \times \frac{Precision \times Recall}{Precision + Recall}$</td>
<td>The weighted average of recall and accuracy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matthew correlation coefficient (MCC)</td>
<td>$\frac{T_p \times T_n - F_p \times F_n}{\sqrt{(T_p + F_n)(T_p + F_p)(T_n + F_n)(T_n + F_p)}}$</td>
<td>The correlation coefficient of observed and anticipated categories.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kappa statistic</td>
<td>$\frac{accuracy_{observed} - accuracy_{expected}}{1 - accuracy_{expected}}$</td>
<td>It displays how the occurrences classified by the classifier are consistent with the records tagged as ground truth.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Performance evaluation measures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance measures</th>
<th>Across multiple magnifications</th>
<th>Across individual magnifications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IPC</td>
<td>AMC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy (%)</td>
<td>98.50</td>
<td>96.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error rate (%)</td>
<td>1.490</td>
<td>3.510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensitivity</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specificity</td>
<td>0.9704</td>
<td>0.9296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precision</td>
<td>0.9706</td>
<td>0.9362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FPR</td>
<td>0.0300</td>
<td>0.0703</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-Score</td>
<td>0.9852</td>
<td>0.9665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MCC</td>
<td>0.9705</td>
<td>0.9329</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kappa Statistics</td>
<td>0.9699</td>
<td>0.9296</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Performance of the model proposed.

As the proposed model works as a magnification independent model, from datasets IPC and AMC all the images of various magnifications were considered (from dataset IPC, 40X, 10X, and 4X images are considered and from dataset IPC, 40X, 20X, and 10X images are examined all together). Table 2 gives the performance evaluation measures obtained for the suggested model for different datasets across multiple magnifications.
and for individual magnifications. Across multiple magnifications, dataset IPC gives the highest performance of 98.5% accuracy followed by datasets Imediatreat, GlaS, and AMC with 97.22%, 96.67%, and 96.48% respectively. F-score of 0.98526, 0.9665, 0.9669, and 0.9721 is obtained for datasets IPC, AMC, GlaS, and Imediatreat that indicates better performance of the proposed model. Thus when all statistical measures are considered, it can be seen that the proposed model performs well across all the datasets irrespective of the magnifications. The performance evaluation measures for SSA-ANN with 5 fold cross-validations for each of the magnifications in dataset IPC and dataset AMC is also shown in Table 2. For all the magnifications in both datasets, the proposed framework performs well. For dataset IPC, 4X magnification performs well with 97% accuracy followed by 10X with 96% and 40X with 94%. Whereas, for dataset AMC, 10X performs well with 96.11% followed by 20X and 40X with 95.77%. For both, datasets as the magnification go higher the accuracy drops which may be due to the structural variations in the segmented region. However, for any magnification, the proposed methodology

![Figure 3: ROC plot and the zoom view of the proposed model on different datasets a. IPC, b. AMC, c. GlaS, and d. Imediatreat.](image)

![Figure 4: Normal and malignant images' average entropy for various magnifications and datasets.](image)
Figure 5: Segmented image and DWT coefficient distribution for normal and malignant images for various magnifications on IPC and AMC datasets.

The above ROC plot (Figure 3) depicts the accuracy response of the proposed SSO-ANN classifier against the ANN classifier. The proposed method with SSO-ANN is evaluated on datasets IPC, AMC, GlaS, and Imediatreat, where the calculated accuracy is 97.22%, 94.44%, 97.67%, and 99.07%, respectively, and exhibits higher performance than the classic ANN classifier. The curve is towards the top left corner of the graph for all the datasets indicating the goodness of the framework.

The authors have analyzed the cost of the segmentation in terms of average entropy for normal and malignant images for various magnifications and datasets as in Figure 4. The segmentation is magnifications independent as the largest connected component in the image is considered, further average entropy of the segmented area is tabulated for normal and malignant images. It shows that for normal samples the average entropy ranges from 6.1 to 6.8, whereas for the malignant samples, it varies in the range of 7.05 to 7.8. Thus irrespective of the magnification, misclassification is reduced as the entropy is different for normal and malignant samples.

Figure 5 shows the segmented image and their DD dual-tree DWT coefficients for different magnifications. It can be seen that for the normal image the DWT coefficients are high compared to the malignant images irrespective of their magnification factors. With the normal images, the DD-dual tree DWT coefficients consider
Table 3: Accuracy measure for different magnifications on datasets IPC and AMC with and without FCM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dataset</th>
<th>Magnification</th>
<th>No. of features before FCM</th>
<th>Accuracy without FCM</th>
<th>No. of features after FCM</th>
<th>Accuracy after FCM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IPC</td>
<td>4X</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>96.3</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>97.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10X</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>94.9</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>96.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40X</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>94.2</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>95.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AMC</td>
<td>10X</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>94.9</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>96.48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20X</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>94.2</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>95.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40X</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>94.0</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>95.60%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Performance comparison of the proposed framework with ANN and SSO-ANN.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance measures</th>
<th>IPC ANN</th>
<th>SSO - ANN</th>
<th>AMC ANN</th>
<th>SSO - ANN</th>
<th>GlaS ANN</th>
<th>SSO - ANN</th>
<th>Imediatreat ANN</th>
<th>SSO - ANN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>95.66%</td>
<td>98.50%</td>
<td>93.89%</td>
<td>96.48%</td>
<td>94.17%</td>
<td>96.67%</td>
<td>95.37%</td>
<td>97.22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error Rate</td>
<td>4.33%</td>
<td>1.49%</td>
<td>6.11%</td>
<td>3.51%</td>
<td>5.83%</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
<td>4.63%</td>
<td>2.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensitivity</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>0.9417</td>
<td>0.9667</td>
<td>0.9535</td>
<td>0.9722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specificity</td>
<td>0.9133%</td>
<td>0.9704%</td>
<td>0.8777%</td>
<td>0.9296%</td>
<td>0.9806%</td>
<td>0.9889%</td>
<td>0.9848%</td>
<td>0.9907%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precision</td>
<td>0.9217%</td>
<td>0.9706%</td>
<td>0.8924%</td>
<td>0.9362%</td>
<td>0.9500%</td>
<td>0.9682%</td>
<td>0.9503%</td>
<td>0.9775%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FPR</td>
<td>0.0866%</td>
<td>0.0300%</td>
<td>0.1222%</td>
<td>0.0703%</td>
<td>0.0194%</td>
<td>0.0111%</td>
<td>0.0152%</td>
<td>0.0093%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-Score</td>
<td>0.9589%</td>
<td>0.9852%</td>
<td>0.9428%</td>
<td>0.9665%</td>
<td>0.9420%</td>
<td>0.9669%</td>
<td>0.9511%</td>
<td>0.9721%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MCC</td>
<td>0.9175%</td>
<td>0.9705%</td>
<td>0.885%</td>
<td>0.9329%</td>
<td>0.9259%</td>
<td>0.9562%</td>
<td>0.9364%</td>
<td>0.9642%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kappa Statistics</td>
<td>0.9133%</td>
<td>0.9699%</td>
<td>0.8777%</td>
<td>0.9296%</td>
<td>0.8444%</td>
<td>0.9111%</td>
<td>0.8765%</td>
<td>0.9259%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With the aid of FCM feature reduction, the performance of the proposed model is improving as shown in Figure 6 and Table 3. Table 3 shows how the accuracy improves for datasets IPC and AMC across different magnifications with FCM when classified with SSO-ANN. With FCM feature reduction of at least 3-4 features are there, thereby improving the accuracy. For 10X images in dataset IPC, the accuracy is improved from 94.8% to 96% and for 10X images in dataset IPC, it boosted from 94.9% to 96%. Figure 6 gives how the FCM improves the performance across all the datasets. For datasets IPC and AMC, across all the magnifications also FCM boosts the performance from 97.1% to 98.5% with 61 features and 95.6% to 96.48% with 62 features respectively. Similarly, for dataset GlaS the performance increased from 95.8% to 96.67%, and for dataset Imediatreat from 96.1% to 97.22%. Thus an average of 46% reduction was done with FCM feature reduction and has surely helped in the performance-boosting of the proposed methodology.

Table 4 gives the comparative analysis of the classifying model with ANN and SSO-ANN. It can be observed that across all the datasets SSO-ANN gives better performance when compared to the ANN. The accuracy of dataset IPC is boosted from 95.66% to 98.5% with the optimized classification. Datasets AMC and
Immediatreat give an improved performance of 96.48% and 96% from 95.37% and 97.22% respectively, whereas the performance of dataset GlaS is accelerated from 94.17% to 96.67% with the SSO-ANN classification. SSO-ANN has improved the average performance across datasets with 1%-2%. Thus the proposed framework is generalized that works well with all the datasets and across all the magnified images.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Segmentation / Features / Classifier</th>
<th>Accuracy</th>
<th>F-Score</th>
<th>Sensitivity</th>
<th>Specificity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Saroja et.al [38] (2017)</td>
<td>k-means pillar adaptive / Lumen Characteristics / Decision Tree</td>
<td>93.00%</td>
<td>0.9669</td>
<td>0.8076</td>
<td>0.9400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kainz et. al [22] (2017)</td>
<td>Segmentation with SNN / CNN based Features / Classification with CNN</td>
<td>95.00%</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awan et.al [23] (2017)</td>
<td>Object-net segmentation with CNN / Feature on Best alignment matrix / SVM</td>
<td>97.00%</td>
<td>0.9778</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rathore et.al [16] (2019)</td>
<td>Gland segmentation with multistep / gland, image, local features / Probability score of classifiers (RBF, Sigmoid, Linear - SVM)</td>
<td>98.30%</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0.9780</td>
<td>0.9880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babu et.al [20] (2020)</td>
<td>2DReCA segmentation / Hybrid features / Random forest</td>
<td>96.48%</td>
<td>0.9665</td>
<td>0.9652</td>
<td>0.9296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proposed</td>
<td>Connected components segmentation / DD DWT Features / SSO-ANN</td>
<td>96.67%</td>
<td>0.9669</td>
<td>0.9667</td>
<td>0.9889</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Performance comparison of existing techniques on dataset GlaS.

Dataset GlaS is a public colon biopsy image dataset and many works are done on this dataset. Table 5 shows the comparative analysis of the proposed system with the existing works done with dataset GlaS. The proposed system performs well with 96.67% accuracy when compared with the existing techniques [22, 38, 39]. However, Awan [23] and Rathore [16] showed better performance than the proposed model as these methodologies were specifically designed for this particular dataset and specific magnification, whereas the proposed model is meant to work for various magnifications (40X, 20X, 10X, and 4X). Awan [23] and Kainz [22] adopted CNN architectures which are computationally complex and time-consuming. Babu et. al [20] achieved an accuracy of 96.48% with colon cancer detection framework with 2DReCA segmentation on multiple microscope magnifications. This technique uses explores the optimized segmentation and hybrid texture features dependent on the spatial constraints whereas the proposed model utilizes a lightweight segmentation technique with wavelet features independent of the spatial domain. However, with dataset Imediatreat, techniques have been explored in cancer grading rather than cancer detection. Thus the proposed model with the magnification independent segmentation and wavelet features can be used with ease for colon cancer detection.

Assessing the results above, the proposed cancer detection framework works well with all magnified images, and thus it’s a magnification-independent cancer detection system for histopathological colon images. In order to work with multiple datasets of various magnifications, the images are color stain normalized and the contrast of the image is enhanced. Later, images are segmented to find the largest connected component irrespective of the magnification. Thus, from the segmented region, the DD-dual tree DWT coefficients are
extracted which gives the details of the structure and boundary of the colon cells. The system works well across four datasets which proves the robustness of the proposed framework. There is an enhancement in the performance with 0.8% - 1.2% with the feature reduction using FCM where the feature was reduced to an average of 46%. Besides, the ANN classifier was optimized to improve the performance, and hence an average performance improvement of 1%-2% was observed with the SSO-ANN classifier. Thus, the proposed framework demonstrated an average accuracy ≥ 95% across datasets and magnifications.

4. Limitations and conclusion

This research provided a framework for the diagnosis of colon cancer that works with various magnified images of colon biopsy. The major contributions include

- To work with multiple datasets with varying staining and illuminations, color normalization was adapted.
- Segmentation is performed to find connected components across various magnified images.
- DD dual-tree DWT features are obtained from the segmented region as they ought to be independent of the morphological structures of a spatial domain.
- The valuable features are sorted with FCM and are fed as input to the SSO-ANN classifier to improve the classification performance.

The proposed framework accomplished an accuracy of 98.5%, 96.48%, 96.67%, and 97.22% for datasets IPC, AMC, GlaS, and Imedatreat. However, this study has certain constraints. The images containing both the normal and malignant structure may lead to misclassification. Also, if the cells are overlapped, finding the connected components may result in improper segmentation. As a future aspect, segmentation of overlapping cells in magnification independent scenario could be tried and categorization of the malignant images into various grades could be explored.

Acknowledgment

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References


