

Detection of Diabetic Retinopathy Using MobileNet Model

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Abstract: Diabetic Retinopathy is a chronic disease that may cause blindness to diabetic patients. The proposed system displays various pathological changes and identifies DR grades for ophthalmologists. The collection of 516 retinal fundus photographs is freely available. We start by removing noise, improving image quality, and standardizing retinal image sizes. Second, we distinguish between healthy and diabetic retinopathy instances, and data augmentation is used to increase the volume, quality, and diversity of training data. Next, we divided the data into three datasets: training, testing, and validation. According to the degree of DR, images are divided into four groups normal-class 0, mild-class 1, moderate-class 2, and severe-class 3. The proposed method detects the presence of DR using fine-tuned MobileNet model. This system achieved precision of 91.70%, Recall of 89.53%, F-Score of 88.50% and moreover an accuracy of 89.53% for IDRiD dataset. The experiments yield good results when compared to other systems.

1 INTRODUCTION

A chronic illness that affects millions of individuals globally is diabetes. Diabetic Retinopathy (DR) is the term used to describe people whose diabetes causes an eye condition. The most common cause of vision loss and blindness in humans is DR. Diabetic retinopathy occurs in two stages: proliferative retinopathy (PDR) and non-proliferative retinopathy (NPDR). The early stage of diabetic retinopathy is known as NPDR, and the advanced stage is known as PDR. Five phases (0–4) can be used to categorize the severity of DR. There is no retinopathy(0), moderate NPDR(1), severe NPDR(2), mild NPDR(1), and PDR (4). The frequency and severity of different related lesion presentations and outcomes are the primary grading factors.

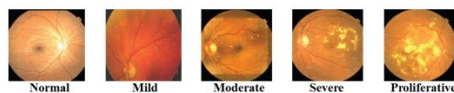


Figure 1: Stages of a Diabetic Retinopathy

In the literature on DR diagnosis, we often look for one or more pre-selected DR-related characteris-

tics in color fundus pictures, such as microaneurysms, cottonwool spots, hard exudates, and Neo Vascularization. In recent years, computational approaches for automatically detecting DR severity in fundus images have been developed. These approaches predict the existence or absence of DR severity levels, such as early stage and advanced stage. Approximately one-third of diabetic people acquire DR, with one-tenth experiencing severe vision-threatening DR. Initially, DR patients may not experience any visible symptoms. However, when the lesions progress to a more severe stage, patients may notice eye issues. (Examples: dark shadow, eyesight loss, etc.) Techniques must be durable, accurate, and cost-effective. This approach aims to identify and characterize DR based on severity. Figure 1 shows the structure of a normal retina and different stages of DR. Microaneurysms are little swellings that occur within the blood vessels of the retina during the first stage. Hemorrhage occurs when blood vessels burst and release blood. Cotton wool spots (CWS), also known as exudates, occur during the second stage. These are brought on by fluid—which includes lipids, white blood cells, fibrin, and serum—seeping out of the blood vessels. Exudates are categorized as brilliant lesions because of their yellowish white tone, while microaneurysms and hemorrhages are classified as dark lesions because of their red appearance. The two lesions differ in size,

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shape, and brightness. Because there aren't enough ophthalmologists in India, screening each patient by hand takes time. The Indian Diabetic Retinopathy image consists of 512 images. The resolution of these images are 4288 X 2848 pixels. This dataset composed of 5 DR and 3 DME. It provides severity level of DR and DME for each image in the dataset. It also provides normal retina and DR lesions structures.

2 LITERATURE SURVEY

HUA et al., a proposed design called TFA-Net, which is a Twofold Feature Augmentation mechanism connected to a backbone convolutional network. Several convolution blocks are used in the former to extract representational information at different scales (Bilal et al., 2021). The latter is built in two stages: first, a Reverse Cross-Attention (RCA) stream is deployed, and then weight-sharing convolution kernels are employed.

M. M. Abdelsalam, M. A. Zahran et al., proposed a detailed explanation of a revolutionary multifractal geometry-based early DR detection technique is provided. Image analysis using OCTA (macular optical coherence tomography angiography) for the early detection of non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy (NPDR) (Chaudhary and Pachori, 2022).

X. Zeng et al., proposed Automated diagnosis of diabetic retinopathy can be achieved by dividing color retinal fundus photos into two categories (Dharmana and Aiswarya, 2020). This research describes the use of transfer learning to train a unique convolutional neural network model with a Siamese-like topology.

L. Qiao et al., suggested a system that uses convolutional neural network algorithms to analyze fundus images for the presence of microaneurysms. Deep learning is incorporated as a key component, and the system is accelerated by GPUs (Graphic Processing Units) (Hua et al., 2020).

K. Shankar et al. proposed using a brand-new automated Hyperparameter Tuning Inception-v4 (HPTI-v4) model to recognize and categorize DR in color fundus pictures (Shankar et al., 2020). The contrast limited adaptive histogram equalization (CLAHE) model will be used during the preprocessing stage to raise the fundus image's contrast level. The pre-processed image is then segmented using a segmentation model based on histograms.

J. Wang et al., proposed a retinal fundus image can be used to directly identify one or more fundus illnesses using a multi-label classification ensemble model based on CNN. Each and every model has two components. The second section includes a pro-

prietary classification neural network for multi-label classification challenges, whereas the first uses an EfficientNet-based feature extraction network. Ultimately, the final recognition result is a fusion of the output probabilities from various models. Additionally, training and testing were conducted using the data set made available by the Peking University International Competition on Ocular Disease Intelligent Recognition (ODIR 2019) (Wang et al., 2020b).

Juan Wang et al., proposed a hierarchical multi-task deep learning architecture for diagnosing fundus photos' DR-related properties and severity concurrently (Wang et al., 2020a). To account for the random relationship between DR severity levels and DR-related features, a hierarchical framework is proposed.

M. D. Alahmadi et al. created a deep neural network that employs style and content recalibration to scale informative regions for diabetic retinopathy classification. To draw emphasis to texture details in the style representation, the texture attention module applies a high-pass filter. To identify the most informative area of the input image, the spatial normalization module uses a convolutional approach (Alahmadi, 2022).

W. Nazih et al. proposed an automated method for determining the severity of DR in fundus images. To find long-range correlations in images, we developed a vision transformer deep learning pipeline (Nazih et al., 2023). To train a large vision model on a limited dataset, the researchers employed transfer learning. The new real-world FGADR dataset was used to train the model in order to test it.

ZHOU et al. developed a methodology for generating high-resolution DR images that performs well with grading and lesion data. Synthesized data can improve grading model performance, especially for photos with high DR levels. (Zhou et al., 2020)

Natarajan Chidambaram et al., focused automated CAD system that can identify and categorize exudates in DR. Prior research mostly concentrated on using region-based techniques, such as the Hough transform, watershed transform, region growth approaches, etc., to segment the optic disc. (Chidambaram and Vijayan, 2018)

Bindhumol et al. system makes use of Transfer Learning methods, including ResNet50 and EfficientNetB5. When comparing the two models classification and confusion matrix results, it was found that ResNet50 performed better at classifying the DR images than EfficientNetB5. (Bindhumol et al., 2022)

Meher Madhu Dharmanan et al. focused on blob detection and image preprocessing are used to present an effective, straightforward, and precise feature extraction technique. In the proposed paradigm, testing

is carried out on a scale of 0 to 4; 0 (no DR), 1 (mild DR), 2 (moderate DR), 3 (severe DR), and 4 (proliferative DR) to expedite disease identification of diabetic retinopathy.(Dharmana and Aiswarya, 2020)

Praveena S et al. suggested method for diagnosing diabetic retinopathy will help to produce segmentation findings that are accurate with few misclassifications and will also direct doctors in simulating the patient's course of treatment in order to grade the condition. Even though CWS is quicker, better segmentation outcomes are produced for the LSC approach because, using a straightforward local feature-based algorithm, it meets both boundary adherence and perseverance of global picture structure.(Praveena and Lavanya, 2019)

Payel Patra et al., proposed a system for diagnosing DR disease automatically. This study used fundus images to identify diabetic retinopathy using Resnet50 and Inception V3 architecture. Based on the upcoming output, we were able to achieve an affirmation delicacy of 83 percentile.(Patra and Singh, 2022)

L Sai Prajeeth Reddy et al., a variety of algorithms, to extract both basic and sophisticated information that aid in the early detection of the condition, enabling ophthalmologists to diagnose diabetic patients more accurately and restore their vision.(Reddy et al., 2022)

3 METHODOLOGY

1. **MobileNet** Convolutional neural network (CNN) architecture known as MobileNet was created to operate effectively on embedded and mobile devices with constrained computational power.
2. **MobileNet Architecture** MobileNet substitutes depthwise separable convolutions for traditional convolutions. In order to achieve this, the standard convolution is divided into two distinct layers: a pointwise convolution and a depthwise convolution. As a result, the network becomes lighter and uses fewer computations and parameters. MobileNet Architecture is displayed in Fig.2. Defines the input shape and initializes the MobileNet base model without the upper classification layers using pre-trained weights from the "imagenet" dataset. Constructs custom deep layers for fine-tuning based on the fundamental MobileNet idea. This consists of a final dense layer with softmax activation for classification, a dense layer with ReLU activation, and a global average pooling layer. It describes the outputs and inputs that go into defining the final model. The architecture of the proposed system is divided into four

stages. The initial stage, known as preprocessing, involves taking out illumination, noise, and artifacts from color fundus images. Using the median filter, we may enhance the quality of color fundus images by removing the green channel from an RGB image, which can then be utilized for binary classification and feature extraction. The second

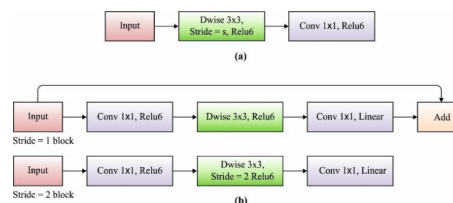


Figure 2: MobileNet Architecture

phase, feature extraction, is used to retrieve color fundus images and differentiate between normal and DR instances. Four DR classes are categorized in the third step, segmentation: mild NPDR, moderate NPDR, severe NPDR, and PDR. The fourth stage, known as binary classification or multilabel classification, uses the previous feature vector to categorize the different stages of DR and to separate the images into normal and DR cases.

3. **Preprocessing of image data** One of the most important viewpoints is image preprocessing, which is vital for altering the data to either fix security vulnerabilities in the data brought about by the capturing equipment or to change the

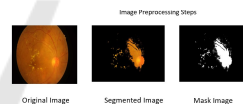


Figure 3: Image Preprocessing Steps

data into a configuration that will be managed much more successfully and effectively.

4. **Morphological Transformation**

Morphology is the set of techniques that can be applied to either the pre-processing of the image segmentation stage's input data or the post-processing of its output. To put it another way, morphological operations can be applied after segmentation is finished to eliminate flaws in the segmented image and provide details about its composition.

5. **Testing and Training**

After preprocessing the entire training set, the features are taken out of the bleeding areas and exudates to begin the training process. 80% images for training, 20% for testing are used. The target classes provide all of the training features that

Table 1: **Summary of Recent Studies on Retinal Disease Detection.** (AUC: Area under the curve, ACC: Accuracy, SPE: Specificity, SEN: Sensitivity)

Ref.	Dataset	Images	Classes	Partitioning	Techniques	Performance (%)
3	IDRiD	516	DR (0-4), DME (0-3)	80% train, 20% test	SVM, KNN, BT	Acc: 98.06, Sens: 83.67, Spec: 100
1	DRIVE	40	7 DR cases, 33 healthy	80/20 split	ML-CAD System (Deep Learning)	Acc: 95.1, AUC: 91.9, Sens: 86.1, Spec: 86.8
8	Shenzhen SIBright	89,917	NPDR, PDR	Train: 77,626; Val: 6,200; Test: 4,502 & 1,589	Hierarchical Deep Learning	AUC: 95.00
7	ODIR 2019	3,500 patients	N, D, G, C, A, H, M, O	Uneven	EfficientNetB3	Acc: 89, Precision: 63, Recall: 58, AUC: 73, Kappa: 49, F1: 89
6	MESSIDOR	1,200	Normal, Stage 1-3	10-fold CV	HPTI-v4	Sens: 98.04, Spec: 99.62, Acc: 99.42, Precision: 97.40
5	KHUMC & Messidor	297 pairs, 1,200	No DR, Mild NPDR, Mod NPDR, Severe NPDR, PDR	1,080 train, 120 test	ConvNet + Feature Augmentation	Kappa: 90.2, Acc: 94.8, AUC: 99.4
4	IDRiD, Messidor, APTOS 2019	516, 1,200, 3,662	DR (0-4), DME (0-2)	413 train, 103 test	2-D-FBSE-FAWT	ACAvg: DR (95.5), DME (96.5)
2	ODIR, SSL, GTTest	10,000, 2,023, 506	N, D, G, C, A, H, M	9,000 train/val	MCG-Net, MCCS-Net	Precision: (64.31, 65.88), Recall: (59.04, 61.60), Kappa: (55.27, 57.65), F1: (89.16, 89.67), AUC: (76.88, 78.16)

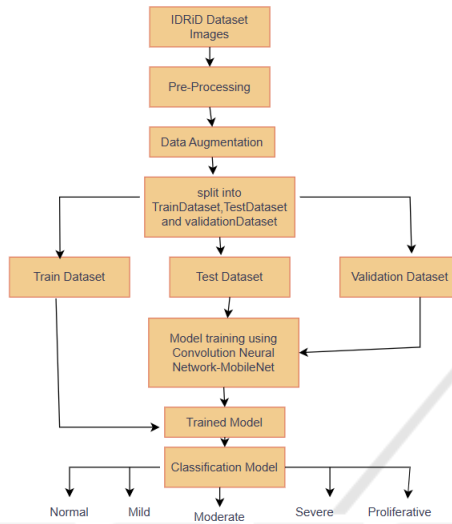


Figure 4: A System for Recognizing and Handling DR Cases

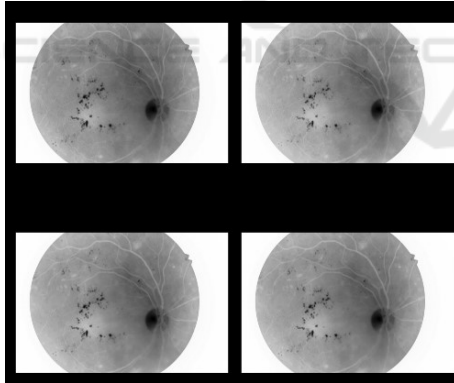


Figure 5: Morphological Transformation Images

were gathered from all of the images to each of the three classifiers independently. The classifiers are lastly kept for testing. Similarly, the preparation stage also starts the testing process. Furthermore, the prediction values of each classifier are regarded as votes, and the mode of votes is determined.

4 EVALUATION METRICS

Classifier	Recall	Precision	F-Score	Accuracy
MobileNet	0.895	0.917	0.885	0.895

The performance of a classifier is evaluated using the Accuracy, Precision, Recall, F1-Score, and Specificity.

Accuracy:

The percentage of correctly categorized samples among all samples is known as accuracy. It is described as:

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$

Precision:

The percentage of true positive predictions among all positive predictions is measured by precision, also known as positive predictive value:

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

Recall:

The percentage of true positive predictions among all real positive samples is measured by recall, which is often referred to as sensitivity or true positive rate:

$$\text{Recall} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

F1-Score:

The F1-Score provides a single statistic that balances Precision and Recall by taking the harmonic mean of the two:

$$\text{F1-Score} = 2 \times \frac{\text{Precision} \times \text{Recall}}{\text{Precision} + \text{Recall}}$$

Specificity:

Specificity (also called True Negative Rate) measures the proportion of true negative predictions out of all actual negative samples:

$$\text{Specificity} = \frac{TN}{TN + FP}$$

Definitions:

- The number of accurately predicted positive samples is known as True Positives (TP).
- The number of accurately predicted negative samples is known as True Negatives (TN).
- The number of falsely anticipated positive samples is known as False Positives (FP).
- The amount of negative samples that were mispredicted is known as False Negatives (FN).

5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This paper focuses on CNN model MobileNet, which had already been trained and refined using the DR dataset. Fundus images were divided into five severity levels by the algorithm, which went from early stage to advanced stage in DR. CNN automatically extracts features from retinal images. To improve the network even more, a fully linked layer is added after the two layers used for feature extraction and selection. The suggested method used the pre-trained CNN model MobileNet, EfficientNetB0 which was fine-tuned with the DR dataset. Fundus images were divided into five severity levels by the algorithm, which went from no DR to proliferative DR. CNN uses retinal scans to automatically extract characteristics. After the two layers used for feature extraction and selection, a fully linked layer is added to further enhance the network. First, we load the MobileNet architecture pretrained on ImageNet, removing its top classification layer, and freezing its weights. This allows us to build a sequential model. Then, we add a GlobalAveragePooling2D layer to reduce spatial dimensions and flatten features into a vector. Two Dense layers follow, each employing ReLU activation and dropout for enhanced feature transformation. Finally, a Dense layer for classification is attached with softmax activation. The Adam optimizer with categorical cross-entropy loss is used to construct the model. Training is done with the retrieved features and labels, and variables like batch size and epochs are adjusted based on the particular issue.

6 CONCLUSION

The proposed approach uses a scale of 0 to 4 to diagnose diabetic retinopathy. In this case, 0 denotes no DR, 1 mild DR, 2 moderate DR, 3 severe DR, and 4 proliferative DR. After analyzing various classification algorithms, it was discovered that the CNN model MobileNet which is fine-tuned with DR dataset is more efficient with an accuracy rate of 89.53%.

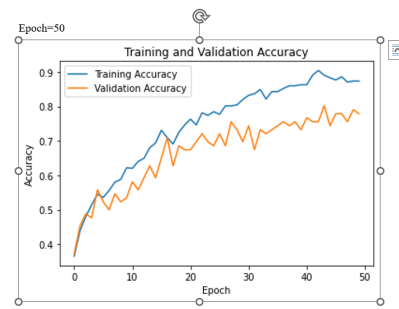


Figure 6: Training and Validation Accuracy graph

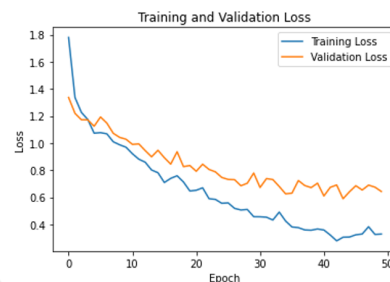


Figure 7: Training and Validation Loss graph

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