

Theory, Method And Applications Of Deep Learning Impacts On Biomedical Application

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Abstract: Medical imagery allows for an increase of biological processes at genetic level in visualisation and quantitative analysis, which is of high importance for early cancer detection. Deep learning has been widely applied in recent years in medical imaging science, as it endures the limitations of visual assessment and traditional methods of machinery training by drawing hierarchical features with strong representation ability. Deep learning was proposed as a more general model, requires less data engineering and allows for more accurate prediction while working with high data volumes. We perform a review in this research on the aspects of cancer diagnosis and diagnoses that promote profound learning. Second, we outline an overall cancer detection profound learning model. Thirdly, we have checked and received input on the most current studies on cancer deep learning systems and some research perspectives.

Keywords: Cancer, Deep learning, deep neural network, Machine learning, Medical imaging, Supervised learning.

1. INTRODUCTION

Deep learning is indeed a machinery learning category, also known as a deeper neural network, which has recently made considerable progress, resulting in an increase in computer power, the creation of model design, and the exponential increase in the collection of cellular and other system data. Machine learning, supervised study, unsupervised learning and strengthened learning are three fundamental paradigms. Training data should be obtained with features (inputs) and labels in a supervised learning algorithm (outputs). Linear regression and logistics, SVM, naive bayes, multilayer perceptron, genetic algorithms and random forests are some of the popular algorithms of supervised learning. These methods are commonly used in classification and regression analyses Munir et al.[2019].

Unmonitored learning on the other hand has no pre-existing output/labels and is attempting to recognise similarities based on the input distribution. Clustering is the most common uncontrolled learning method (e.g., K-means). Late dirichlet allocation, main component analysis and word2vec are among the current traditional unattended learning methods. Regulated, unmonitored or semi-controlled learning can be neural networks which suggest their versatility. To find the right way, reinforcement education can be defined as a mechanism for maximising rewards for the computer programme Zhu et al.[2020].

Deep learning consists of many layers of neural networks imitating neurons in the human brain. The weighted value of each neuron is adjusted by the gradient descent algorithm during training to minimise the global loss function, similar to linear regression. The more abstract mathematical connections were extracted by nonlinearity with activation to the many levels of each neuron, derived from input data to map to the output. A well-trained collection can therefore be used to predict new unlabeled data. Data mining is a domain of machine learning that obtains some common points of view in machine learning, including basic statistical estimation, costing features,

etc., but in the meantime is more flexible in developing multiple neurons across every layer to provide strong prediction capabilities Hu et al.[2018].

Profound research is being used to analyse the pathogenic potential of genetic variants in the latest biomedical studies, to illustrate state-of-the-art success in genomic variant calling, and to boost protein folding prediction. Deep learning, as opposed to other techniques to be applied to isolated or ongoing processes, is more flexible and streamlined and requires less feature design with knowledge compared to machine learning in general. Deep learning algorithms for the detection of cancer are a challenging technique. These devices must examine clinically collected data from tens of thousands of patients before they are able to identify specific links with data accuracy Levine et al.[2019].

In cancer pathology, an optimum data set is almost impossible to obtain. Researchers typically have access to just hundreds or thousands of correctly diagnosed pathology slides. The group has developed an algorithm of two phases to identify unique patterns in cancerous tissue before it has been properly identified in order for this challenge to be resolved. The first step is to implement the definition of the tissue fingerprints or to recognise architectural patterns in cancer tissue which optimization could be used to distinguish between the samples since no two patients are present. Deep learning algorithms recognise functional differentiations on pathologies and recognise these distinctions with greater accuracy and reliability than the human eye without human oversight Hajela et al.[2018].

For the study, researchers took images of digital pathology and divided them into half, then encouraged the creation of a deep learning algorithm which combined them based on their molecular fingerprints. This demonstrated the model's efficiency in grouping the same and different slides of pathology without even diagnoses, enabling the team to train the algorithm into a large, annotated data set, a process called self-controlled research. Once the algorithm has been trained to identify the cancer tissue structure that distinguishes patients, the researchers have implemented the second step of the deep learning tool Koc et al.[2020].

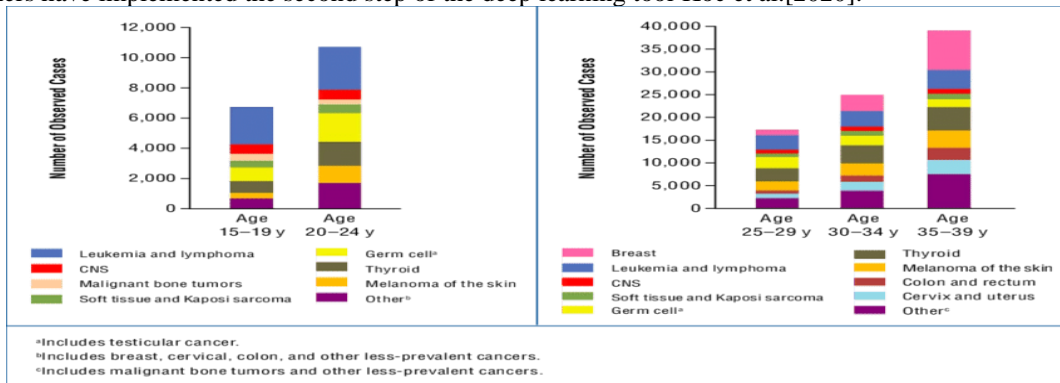


Figure 1. Adolescents and young adults are affected by common cancer forms. CNS = central system of the nerves. Reproduced; Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results, with permission from the National Cancer Institute. A teenage and young adult cancer snapshot.

With this thorough introduction of the contribution of deep learning to the diagnosis of cancer, the review makes an enormous contribution to examine various aspects of the general methods for the application of cancer diagnosis in section 2 and section 3. Section 4, accompanied by Section 5, addresses applications to use deep learning in the diagnosis of cancer.

2. DEEP LEARNING IN MEDICAL APPLICATIONS

2.1 Medical imaging and deep learning integrated key areas

New instruments can encourage medical imaging technology and machine learning, which can personalise and optimise patient outcomes. For highly detailed imaging studies, technological innovation and powerful computer technology give suppliers opportunities to capture a fast-growing portion of the market[2]. Deep learning can analyse massive quantities of clinical and imaging data to uncover patterns in the interplay of study and long-term results. In addition to setting guidelines for purchases, deep learning software will reduce the trillions of expensive low-value testings each year by producing information on the need for and the avoidance of tests.

It may be difficult to take easy and full physical structure pictures of certain classes, including children, obese people and persons with physical impairments and even people with anxiety, dementia or claustrophobia. Customized imaging approaches with machine learning help would ensure that clinicians will reduce patient burden while obtaining the information needed for diagnosis and treatment. The insight into the imaging scanner itself can

help to tailor imaging studies to the needs of the individual patient. An AI-driven library is being incorporated directly into the imaging machines by a medical consortium to diagnose pneumothorax in patients with trauma as quickly as possible. It increases the interpretation accuracy by matching image studies with current research and studies and connects patients with appropriate treatment. It can make educated decisions by using deep learning to scan for providers with decision help in millions of pages of academic literature.

Radio-genomics is a relatively new field that aims to relate imaging studies to gene expression, in particular for cancer patients. Through the incorporation of genomics research into imaging, clinicians can identify cancers even more accurately and offer patients a personalised treatment based on their genetic and clinical data. 3D printing will also manufacture highly personal implants and reproduce complex structures in the body so that surgeons can thoroughly examine them or rehearse a detailed procedure. The more complex the image, the more accurate and complete the 3D image can be. Non-invasive processes that require realistic imagery for clinicians are interventional oncology, external beam radiation therapy and centric echo. Deep learning can support images that can be administered in real-time while protecting stable detection structures.

The optimal radiation therapy dose for cancer patients can be difficult for clinicians to reliably assess. Machine learning software offers clinical decision support that accurately tests dosages and schedules treatments in order to ensure that patients receive accurate treatment for their needs. Theranostics are a mixture of preventive and operative devices in a clinical study while radiotracers are chemical radioactive elements which can be traced to detect chemical reactions at decay rates. Radiotracers can be used for tracking the metabolism of drugs or the activities of biological processes, for example, to give researchers an insight into a drug's behaviour. Tools for the monitoring of theranostic molecular radiotracers need to learn extensively to analyse the massively large volumes of data. In the next few years, there will possibly be major growth in this area of exploration. Precision therapies seek to produce greater outcomes at lower costs, but many firms are now grappling with consumer knowledge to understand how their decisions affect the bottom line. Deep learning can play a key role in taking core business and financial analytics into a new field of in-depth understanding.

2.2 Cancer defence biology

Although cancer protease dysregulation has been known since the 1940s, new recognition has opened up the way to cancer treatment facilities with protease operation. The different roles of proteases in the cancer microenvironment, including the involvement of metalloproteinases, cathepsins and tissues, have been extensively studied [Kallikreins Rakesh et al.[2012]; Dudani et al.[2018]]. Cell growth is regulated by signalling pathways and growth factors affected by protease action. Numerous matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) like MMP2, MMP9 and MMP14 affect the bioactivity of TGF- β , which may increase cancer growth. Other proteases such as ADAM10 (Disintegrin and metalloproteinase) and ADAM17, leading in cancer cells, can be used to modulate the bioactivity and availability of EGFR. These sheddases are important for several signalling procedures as controllers of the cell surface ligands. Kallikrein-related peptidases (KLKs) including KLK2 are also regulated for growth factors.

Cathepsin B (CTSB) thus plays a crucial role in lysosomal catabolism, which is necessary for cell replication. These cathepsins seem to have many cancer-dependent roles: for example, Ctsb Knockout mice significantly delayed the growth of cancer across several cancers but the toxin has no apparent effect on a melanoma model. Furthermore, the removal of Ctsb from a mouse model of breast cancer led to Ctsz activity, which could cause phenotypes. Cathepsins have been stochastically deleted and related compensatory mechanisms revealed. The complex association of multiple proteases with their substances in the development of cancer is a cautionary lesson against targeting a single protease, or not directly hitting a family of proteases.

2.2 Survival and death

Cancer cells primarily control pathways to prevent cell death by protease-mediated signalling. The modulation and degradation of the Fas ligand by MMP7 and ADAM10 will, for example, inhibit caspase-mediated apoptosis. Likewise, CTSS is non-regulated, leading to higher cell survival and decreased clinical performance, despite ionising radiation. The angiogenic switch is important to ensure successful transfer of metabolites or growth nutrients if cancers are to progress from mystic lesions with a diameter of between 1-2 millimetres. MMP9 is an important initiator of angiogenesis by regulating the solubility of VEGF. Like MMP9, CTSS can produce proangiogenic fragments, but antiangiogenic characteristics are associated with other complicated sections. The relationship is influenced by the degradation of tissue metalloproteinase inhibitors by cathepsins and the dissolution of the volume by MMPs (cysteine protease inhibitors). Similarly, KLKs regulate the angiogenesis by destroying the extracellular matrix and stimulating MMPs with either pro- or anti-angiogenic consequences.

2.3 Metastasis and invasion

The growth of cancer cells in various sites by degradation of ECM is arbitrated by various proteases, such as MMPs, cathepsins, kallikreins and other serine proteases. UPA plays an important role in extracellular degradation of matrix, along with its receptor and plasminogen, by partly activating MMPs. These invasion control functions can be performed through several processes: KLK1 activates MMP2 and MMP9 while KLK2, KLK4 and KLK15 activate uPA. Consistent inflammation can be protumorigenic by signalling to stromal and immune cells. TNF- α activity is based on the ADAM17 activation. Proinflammatory cytokine. MMP8 level increases inflammation in particular through the development of PGP (N-acetyl Pro-Gly-Pro) and the attraction of neutrophils to infection sites. Cathepsins and legume were affected by tissue inflammation when formed by cancer immune cells.

2.4 Immune evasion

Proteases have multiple roles to protect cancers against immune surveillance and destruction. Processing cytokine like CCL8 and CXCL11 decreases immune cell recruitment. ADAM17 can inhibit the natural killer cytotoxicity of cancer cells by removing major histocompatibility complex class I surface proteins. Dipéptidyl peptidase 4 also truncates the chemokine CXCL10 and decreases trafficking in cancer lymphocytes. The contribution of protease to cancer pathogens is obviously extremely difficult. The cell types present at the cancer site and proteolytic micro-environmental remodelling further influence regulatory layers. The fact that many proteases may play an important role in the same biological process implies redundancy and that not all cancers may share a similar proteolytic profile. It is therefore difficult to identify target proteases to assess biomarker or therapeutic approaches and to identify signatures containing multiple proteases.

2.5 Types of cancer

Breast Cancer

Cancer of the breast starts as cells develop in the breast. These cells normally help to avoid cancer, which can be seen on an x-ray or felt lump. Cancers are malignant if cells grow or spread (metastatize) into the surrounding tissues of the system to reliably assess if a person is suffering from breast cancer by analysing biopsy images. Cancer is malignant cancer. Earlier studies revealed that breast cancer is the most common type of cancer in women and accounts for around one third of newly diagnosed cancers. Since people's existence is at problem, the algorithm had to be highly exact. Mortality rates of breast cancer are also high, reflecting a total of 17% of deaths from cancer. It is essential to accurately identify and determine the early stage of breast cancer to reduce the death risk. Mammography has until now been the most useful method for screening the general population. However, the radiologist's ability to accurately identify and diagnose a breast lesion is challenging and accurate solely on the basis of mammography results which lead to many false positive tests and other tests.

Lung cancer

Lung cancer, the most prevalent cancer in both men and women, is a major global burden of disease. There are reports that indicate approximately 221 200 new cases of lung cancer, which constitutes 13% of all cancer diagnoses in 2015. About 27 per cent of all deaths from cancer include death from lung cancer. Lung nodules must be examined and closely monitored for certain purposes, since they may be at an early stage. Early detection will increase the survival rate for 5 years in patients with lung cancer by about 50 percent. Because of the ability to create three-dimensional (3D) chest images, the most effective measure of lung nodule detection is computed tomography (CT).

In the laboratory, computer processing was widely used in order to diagnose the lung nodule diagnostics. The CAD procedure for lung cancer can be split into a protective system and diagnostic system (often referred to as "CADe") (often referred as CADx). The CADe procedure differentiates the claimant nodules from nodules or nodules detected in the previous phase (i.e., normal anatomic structures). The CADx method aims at finding knots in malignant knots. Since malignancy is very much associated with the geometrical scale, shape and appearance, the benign and malignant pulmonary nodules can be differentiated by good features like size, shape and growth rate. This makes it possible to measure the efficiency of a certain CADx Device with regard to diagnosis, speed and elastomer materials. In recent years, neural networks have begun to tackle traditional AI in any vital task, which is republished as "deep learning." They understand expression. Describe pictures. Profound learning not only accelerates the critical task but also improves computer accuracy and CT image output identification and classification.

Brain cancer

Developing abnormal groups of cells inside or near the brain tends to initiate brain cancer. Anomalous cells proceed unexpectedly and affect the health of the patient. The research is mainly focused on brain imaging, care, and management with diagnostic approaches for doctors, radiologists and health specialists. Brain imaging analyses are considered to be imperative because brain cancers such as brain cancer are lethal in developed countries and cause substantial deaths. A variety of imaging tools and procedures have been used to manage and treat a brain tumour. The segmentation is the fundamental stage in image processing techniques and is used to extract the infected brain tissue region from MRIs. Stacked Denoising Autoencoders and Convolutional Boltzmann System have more depth-learning-based techniques to segment, identify and predict the effects of cancer. CNNs perform better among all deep learning strategies for image segmentation, classification and prediction.

Skin cancer

Skin cancer is a widespread disease that is dangerous. In the United States alone about 5.4 million new cases of skin cancer are detected per year. The global numbers are similarly worrying. New melanoma cases diagnosed annually from 2008 to 2018 show a 53 percent spike from latest research. The death rate is expected to rise in the next decade. The survival rate is below 14% when it is diagnosed in final stages. However, if skin cancer is diagnosed at an early stage, the survival rate is approximately 97 percent. This means that skin cancer is diagnosed early. A dermatologist typically takes a series of steps, starting with a naked eye examination of suspected lesions, dermoscopic treatment and then biopsy. It takes time and can advance the patient into later stages. In addition, successful diagnosis is subjective depending on the clinician's skill. When diagnosing skin cancer properly, the best dermatologist has been found to be less than 80% accurate. Besides these barriers, inadequate qualified dermatologists are available worldwide in public health care.

Prostate cancer

Prostate cancer is the most common form of cancer in males. In 2017, it was the third leading cause of death from cancer for men. While prostate cancer is the most prevalent form of cancer, due to the slow progression of the disease, the survival rates are high when diagnosed at the beginning stages. Thus, effective monitoring and early detection is the key for improving patient survival. Clinical methods for diagnosing clinically significant prostate cancer (PCa) are commonly approved, consisting of prostate specific antigen examination, automated rectal inspection, trans-rectal ultrasound, and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). However, PSA screening results in over-diagnosis and unnecessarily expensive and painful needle biopsies. Multiparametric MRI, which is primarily based on diffusion-weighted imaging, has increasingly evolved to become standard treatment for prostate cancer in radiological conditions in the range of 0.69 to 0.81 for PCa detector radiologists. Radiologists have established a systematic approach to PI-RADS v24 image analysis but problems remain with an inter-observer variability in the use of PI-RADS. Lollini et al.[2015];Koul et al.[2019].

3. DEEP LEARNING STAGES

Computer vision is one of the most frequent and common applications for deeply-learned cancer detection algorithms. Although it is not the only in-depth cancer learning application with images, structured data with common supervised problems can also be found. It is the most popular application to detect cancer Sekaran et al.[2018]; Mittal et al.[2019]; Kumar et al.[2020]. There are three stages in cancer diagnosis:

Pre-Processing

The first step of pre-processing in the detection process is to enhance the quality of an image, which can further be used by removing the unwanted image detail, called image noise.. Raw image images contain distortions. If this question is not correctly dealt with, there are several inaccuracies in the classification. This preprocessing must be done due to the poor contrast of hair, skin contours and black frames in relation to inconsistencies among skin lesions and healthy skin environments, irregular borders and skin objects. A widespread selection of filters can be used to minimise Gaussian noise, speckle noise, noise from Poisson and salt and pepper tone, including median, mid, adaptive, Gaussian and adaptive winker. A pattern implies that hairs in it can cause misclassification, for example, just as injury. The image noise can be reduced or modified by performing pre-processing tasks such as contrast adjustment, vignetting, colour correction, image smoothing, hair removal, normalisation and translation. The right mix of pre-processing tasks allows greater precision. The images of cancer MRI are converted into a grayscale and then modified with smoothing. The extraction of the skull is also performed on brain MRI images using a brain extraction technique and brain tissue removal from other parts of the skull.

Calculated tomography features to diagnose lung cancer are standardised using X-ray equipment and converted into grayscale images with normalisation and noise reduction technique. These images are converted into binary images and the undesirable portion is subsequently removed. Preprocessing for breast cancer requires unique cancer delineations from the past, breast removal and pectoral stimulation. Breast cancer mammograms contain a variety of sounds such as the rectangular, higher label, low-intensity label and tape pieces. Transrectal ultrasound (TRUS) images with low intrinsic noise and low image quality are obtained for the diagnosis of prostate cancer. Thus, mammogram labels, orientation and segmentation are achieved. The preprocessing module used for interference and artifact suppression consists of

- a) tree-structured nonlinear filtering (TSF);
- (b) Directional wavelet transformation (DWT); and
- (c) tree-structured wavelet transformation (TWT).

Image Segmentation

Segmentation is called dividing the input picture into domains where the necessary data can be obtained for further study. The separation of an area of interest (ROI) from the frame sense is basically a segmentation. The part of the image we want is ROI. The lesion part is required in cancerous images to extract the characteristics from the diseased part. Segmentation can be split into four main classes:

- (i) Segmentation based on the threshold;
- (ii) Segmentation based on the region;
- (iii) Pixel segmentation; and
- (iv) Segmentation based on the model.

The process of Ostu, maximum entropy, local and global thresholds and histogram based thresholds includes threshold-dependent segregation. The segmentation of the seed area and the extension of the seed area are examples of area-based segmentation. In the segmentation pixel class, Fuzzy c-means clustering, artificial networks and the Markov field method are some of the approaches. The parametric deformable model of model-based segmentation, e.g. level sets. The following methods of image segmentation exist: histogram thresholding, adaptive thresholding, gradient flow vector, recognition, clustering and creation of statistic regions, bootstrap processing, active contours, tracking learning, edge detection, fuzzy-C mean clustering, probabilistic modelling, sparse coding, background hypergraphy, cooperative detection. There are a few other techniques accessible. These methods have been used in hybrid versions to increase the precision of the method by combining two or more of them.

Post-Processing

Post-processing is the following task for the capture of characteristics, after the pre-processing and image segmentation phases. To this end, the most common after-processing methods are opening and closing activities, removal of islands, land fusion, boundary extension and sweating. Some of the function extraction techniques used is: Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Wavelet Packet Transform (WPT), Grey Level Co-occurrence Matrix (GLCM), Fourier Power Spectrum (FPS), Gaussian Derivative Kernels, and Features of Decision Boundaries.

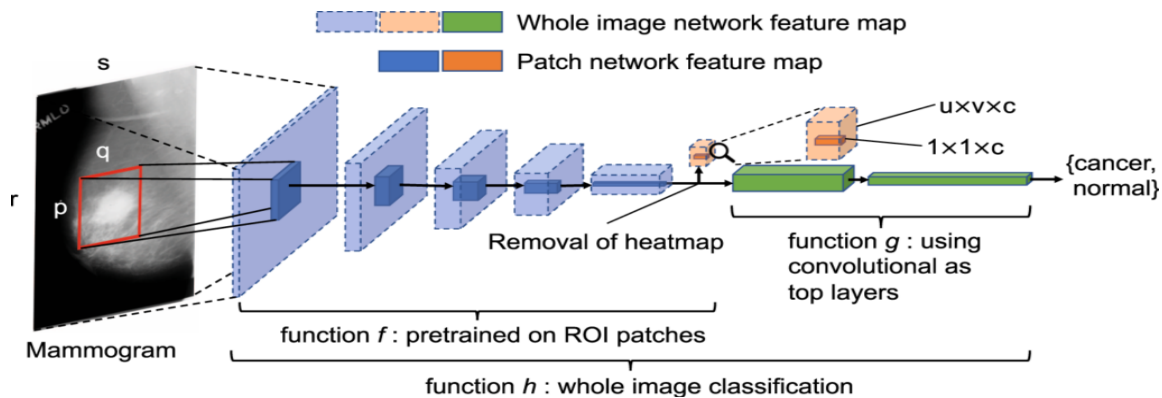


Figure 2. Diagnosing cancer using deep learning

The approach uses deeper neural networks to identify images, widely known as deep learning. These deep neural networks have a shape that makes it possible to treat images fairly efficiently. These are CNN or the so-called neural networks of convolution. Neural networks can obtain what are known as activation maps. In order to make a prediction, this is simply a series of heat maps describing the areas in which the model is based. In the previous image, green is seen in the areas in which the model was designed to determine that this picture is not carcinogenic.

The areas that it was focused on to test are shown in red as being carcinogenic. This allows the expert to see the sections which the model assumes are relevant directly in the prediction.

4. APPLICATION AND RESEARCH DIRECTIONS IN FIGHTING CANCER

4.1 Data on gene expression cancer detection

Because of its wide area and complexity, data on gene expression are very difficult to use for cancer detection. This makes it difficult. Scientists may use deep learning to extract meaningful features from genetic expression data and, in turn, identify breast cancer cells. The tool for detecting breast cancer has also been used to eliminate genes that are considered useful for cancer detection, as well as potential positive biomarkers of cancer. Because of its wide area and ambiguity, data on gene expression are very difficult to use for cancer detection. Scientists were able to use deep learning for the collection of meaningful characteristics from gene expression data which enabled breast cancer cell grading in its turn. They also used the breast cancer detection technique to eliminate genes considered useful for the prediction of cancer, and possible beneficial biomarkers for cancer.

4.2 Deep neural networks with cancer classification

The CNN achieves the same efficiencies as all the experts tested in the classification of skin cancer. The Google CNN framework has shown Google's ability to reliably identify deadline skin cancers with clinicians and potentially extend the reach of diagnosis beyond clinics to facilities that have expanded as mobile access is growing globally.

4.3 Segmentation of tumours

Deep learning used in MR pictures for brain tumours segments, in which more accurate outcomes were achieved than doctors' manually segmented brain tumours that are vulnerable to movement and visual error. Depth learning can accurately discern benign from malignant breast tumours in ultrasound shear-wave elastography, providing more than 93% precision for over 200 patient elastograms.

4.4 Diagnosis of histopathology

With the introduction of personalised medicine, diagnostic procedures need to be based on reliability and precision equally, thereby increasing the workload and the problem of histopathology (microscopic examination of the tissue to study disease manifestations) in the diagnosis of cancer. Deep learning is used to enhance the efficiency of histopathological slide study, minimising the workload for pathologists and improving diagnostic objectivity.

4.5 Tracking tumor development

Deep learning may be used to measure the size of treatment tumours and to classify new metastases that may be missed. The more patient CT and MRI scans the deep learning algorithm reads, the more reliable the deep learning technology can become. Google Research also works hard to build deep learning devices that are explicitly able to complement pathologists' workflow. They also used images to learn deep algorithms to recognise breast cancers, which have spread to the surrounding lymph nodes, like Google Net. The algorithm achieved a localisation score of 89%, which meant 73% precision for pathologists.

4.6 Prognosis detection

Forecast suggests the seriousness or progression of the cancer stage and hence the likelihood of survival. Staging cancer systems are important but have limitations to predict the patient's prognosis. Deep learning was used to create a prediction model for the prognosis of patients undergoing care for gastric cancer (i.e. gastrectomy). Deep learning displayed superior predictive survival powers compared to other prediction models Ali et al.[2017]; Xue et al.[2017]; Zhu et al.[2020].

5. CONCLUSION

Cancer is the world's leading cause of death. Researchers and doctors are met with challenges in treating cancer. It is estimated that 96,480 deaths from skin cancer, 142,670 deaths from lung cancer, 42,260 deaths from breast cancer, 31,620 deaths from prostate cancer and 17,760 deaths due to brain cancer in the US in 2019. Early cancer detection is the highest priority for saving many lives. Visual examination and manual procedures are commonly used for these types of cancer diagnosis. This manual analyses of medical images take high time and are very vulnerable to errors. We explore in this paper, which includes cancer diagnostics, the usual phrases used by doctors, as well as the aspects of deep learning in cancer diagnosis. The last section of this manuscript offers applications and recommendations for study to demonstrate that profound learning models have been used effectively for different forms of cancer.

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