

FACULDADE DE ENGENHARIA DA UNIVERSIDADE DO PORTO

# Leitor automático para determinação do grupo sanguíneo por aglutinação

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# Abbreviations

LOG	Laplacian of Gaussian
DOG	Difference of Gaussians
JUDOCA	Junction Detection Operator Based on Circumferential Anchors
SIFT	Scale Invariant Feature Transform
GLOH	Gradient Location and Orientation Histogram
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
RBC	Red Blood Cell
USB	Universal Serial Bus
OpenCV	Open Source Computer Vision
WEKA	Waikato Environment for Knowledge Analysis



# Chapter 1

## Introduction

This chapter presents the project problem, as the context and motivation for this work.

### 1.1 Context

This project is developed as a preparation for the MSc Dissertation in Electrical and Computers Engineering scheduled to take place during the second semester of the current academic year. The aim of this project is to acquaint the student in the duties and requirements for the development of the dissertation.

### 1.2 Problem

In clinical laboratories, the gel test is a used method for ABO and Rh typing. ABO and Rh are blood type systems for blood classification based on the existence or lack of certain red blood cell (RBC) antigen antibodies. This test after a centrifugation step is usually carried by hand, where the test result is determined by a laboratory employee. This project aims to simplify this process by applying machine learning and computer vision techniques, with the purpose of reducing the chance of human error in repetitive tasks.

### 1.3 Objectives

The objective of this project is to build an automated system for ABO typing using machine learning and computer vision techniques. Despite replacing a Human factor with mathematics, the objective is not to completely eliminate a laboratory employee from the process, as every result should be validated. The final objective is to deploy a prototype in a clinical laboratory.

## **1.4 Report Structure**

This report is constituted by an introduction and four additional chapters. In the chapter 2 the literature review is presented along some related works. In the chapter 3 the practical problem is presented and framed in the computer vision context. In the chapter 4 the work plan and a description of the several tasks are presented. The final chapter 5 has a brief conclusion to the report.

## Chapter 2

# Literature Review

A problem of computer vision applied to the analysis of static images is, as described by Trier et al. in [2], usually divided in well defined processing steps. Starting with the digital acquisition of the image and its subsequent preprocessing, existing noise is reduced and the image is segmented to isolate its individual characteristics. The next step is to extract and store relevant and descriptive information from the segmented image, and then analyse this information with classification techniques. The process ends with a possible validation of the obtained results, so that wrong outcomes can be corrected. This chapter focuses in the segmentation and feature extraction steps of the problem of computer vision applied to the analysis of static images, providing some used known techniques.

### 2.1 Image Segmentation

Image segmentation is the process of grouping image pixels with similar characteristics into homogeneous regions. Formally, image segmentation can be defined by [3, 4]:

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^n S_i = F \quad \text{with} \quad S_i \cap S_j = \emptyset, \quad i \neq j. \quad (2.1)$$

Being  $F$ , in the equation 2.1, the set of all pixels of an image and  $P()$  the uniformity predicate defined on groups of neighbour pixels, then segmentation is the partitioning of the initial set  $F$  into smaller connected subset or regions ( $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n$ ). The uniformity predicate is  $P(S_i) = \text{true}$  for all regions ( $S_i$ ) and  $P(S_i \cup S_j) = \text{true}$ , when  $S_i$  is adjacent to  $S_j$ .

In computer vision, a good segmentation is essential to ensure good results in the recognition and analysis steps, as such different problems may require different segmentation methods or a combination of multiple methods. The various methods can be broken into measurement-space-based algorithms (e.g. level thresholding of histograms), pixel-similarity-based algorithms (e.g. region growing), pixel-difference-based algorithms (e.g. edge detection), and physics-based schemes [5].

### 2.1.1 Thresholding

In image segmentation, thresholding is one of the most simple methods to isolate image regions, specially when there is a distinct intensity difference between the object to extract and the image background. In the literature there is a vast number of implementations of thresholding(cite), categorized by Sezgin and Sankur [6] in six groups, according to the kind of information each one uses:

- **Histogram shape-based methods** — Image segmentation is achieved based on histogram properties, like analysing concavities [7], peak [8] and valley analysis [9] and shape-modelling thresholding [10];
- **Clustering-based methods** — The optimal threshold value is obtained using clustering techniques for example by iteratively determining the cluster mean [11] or minimizing the weighted sum of within-class variance [12]. Fuzzy clustering techniques have also been used in thresholding segmentation [13];
- **Entropy-based methods** — These methods rely on image entropy operations to determine the optimal threshold. These methods are divided by [6] into *entropic thresholding* [14], *cross-entropic thresholding* [15] and *fuzzy entropic thresholding* [16];
- **Object attribute-based methods** — The threshold selection is based in measures of similarity between the original image and its binary version, like image moments [17], edge fields [18] or shape compactness [19];
- **Spatial methods** — These class of algorithms utilizes gray value distribution but also dependency of pixels in a neighbourhood;
- **Local methods** — In these techniques the threshold is estimated for each pixel according to local image characteristics, like contrast [20] or mean and standard deviation [21, 22],

### 2.1.2 Edge Detection

Edge detection methods can be used as a segmentation tool to highlight image feature boundaries. These methods are usually divided in the literature in sequential and parallel techniques [3]. While in sequential techniques the decision that determines if a pixel represents an edge of a region is dependent in past decisions, in parallel techniques this decision is made based on the pixel in analysis and some of its neighbours. In theory, parallel techniques can be applied to every pixel in the image simultaneously. On the other hand, sequential approaches are dependent on the choice of a good initial seed and how previous decisions will influence the next pixel decision. Parallel approaches use contours detectors for image segmentation with no guarantee that the method result will be a closed region. There are multiple approaches to this problem and it has been shown that regions can be recovered from a contour detector [23, 24]. Early parallel approaches of edge detection respond to local changes in grey level or average grey level of the image. Roberts,

Sobel and Prewitt gradient operators, called first difference operators, and the Laplacian operator, a second difference operator, detect edges by convolving a grey-scale image with local derivative filters. Marr and Hildreth proposed the use of the zero-crossing segments of the Laplacian of Gaussian operator (LOG) for contour detection, or replacing the previous LOG operator by the Difference of Gaussians (DOG) operator for a fast approximation [25].

Canny defined an optimal edge detector method as an algorithm with the three main characteristics [26]:

1. **Good detection** — There should be a low probability of failing to mark real edge points, and low probability of falsely marking non-edge points;
2. **Good localization** — Points marked as edges by the operator should be as close as possible to the centre of the true edge;
3. **Single edge response** — The detector should only produce a single output in response to a single edge.

With these performance criteria Canny proposed a optimal edge detector by convolving the image with an optimal filter, that can be approximated by the first derivative of the Gaussian, and selecting the output maxima as the edges. For the two-dimensional scheme, the image is convoluted with the first order derivatives of the two-dimensional Gaussian. Computing the gradient of the smoothed image, the edges are then located at the maxima of the gradient modulus taken in the direction of the gradient.

Detection of lines, which correspond to local extrema of the grey level image, can also give valuable information in the position of image edges. Haralick [28] proposed an algorithm where lines occur at pixels having zero-crossings of the first direction derivative taken in the direction that maximizes de second directional derivative. Giraudan [29] proposed similar algorithm detecting a line at a negative local maximum of the second derivative of the image. In an analogous way, junctions can identify image corners and the orientations of the edges forming it. Rangarajan et al. [30] derive an optimal detector using Canny's criteria, that locates junctions formed by two linear symmetric edges. The junctions are then located at the local maxima output of the image convolution with twelve different masks that differ in orientation and angle. Elias and Laganière [31] propose an junction detection operator based on circumferential anchors (JUDOCA) that splits the process in and edge detection phase and an junction detection phase.

### 2.1.3 Region Operations

Region based approaches attempt to group pixels into homogeneous regions, clustering images features such as brightness, colour or texture. Region growing and splitting are two basic region operators. While the first starts from a initial point as the seed region and then expands to its homogeneous neighbours, the splitting approach uses the whole images as the initial region seed and then keeps splitting the region until it is homogeneous. Region merging is usually used after

these operators to join similar regions. One major drawback is the inherent sequential nature of these techniques.

Arbeláez et al. [24] identify three widely used algorithms of region segmentation: a graph-based region merging algorithm proposed by Felzenszwalb and Huttenlocher [32] which produces segmentations that are not too coarse and not too fine, despite making simple greedy decisions; the mean shift segmentation algorithm by Comaniciu and Meer [33] where regions are formed by grouping pixels whose convergence points are closer than a threshold  $h_s$  in the spatial domain and  $h_r$  in the range domain; the spectral graph theoretic framework of normalized cuts who partitions the image into regions of coherent texture and brightness [34, 35].

## 2.2 Feature Extraction

Feature extraction in image analysis is the process of translating image features to easily processable digital information. Some known techniques are based on shape attributes, contour, texture or local image descriptors. From the past discussed methods for image segmentation some can also be used as image descriptors, such as the image histogram, image edges or image blobs. Local descriptors can be considered a robust method for image representation that allows to identify objects or scenes even without previous image segmentation [36, 37]. These features do not need to translate directly into a object propriety, since the goal is to analyse their statistics.

### 2.2.1 Region Descriptors

Region descriptors are features extracted from segmented image regions. These features can be simple descriptors as region area and perimeter, shape circularity measurements [38], mean and median values of region pixels, shape eccentricity and elongatedness ratios or region moments.

Gianfranco and Yi proposed the use of region moments as invariant region descriptors [39]. Region moments were presented as descriptors based on an extension of the image moments concept. Region moments represent a statistical description of the region data which is a projection onto the space of polynomials with two variables. In [39] the authors present three scale and rotation invariant region moments descriptors: the first computes the central moments of the image features of a region; the second one is the set of the Hu's invariants [40] computed over every image feature; the third computes the radial moments of the image features.

### 2.2.2 Region Covariance

Tuzel et al. [41] proposed the use of the covariance of multiple region statistics as the region descriptor. The result is a low-dimensional covariance matrix that fuse multiple region features which might be correlated.

$$\mathbf{C}_R = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{k=1}^n (z_k - \mu)(z_k - \mu)^T \quad (2.2)$$



The covariance matrix of a region  $R$  is then given by  $C_R$ , in the equation 2.2, where  $\{z_k\}_{k=1\dots n}$  are the feature points inside  $R$  and  $\mu$  the mean of the points. In the paper, the authors also proposed an alternative nearest neighbour search algorithm adapted to the covariance features.

### 2.2.3 SIFT

Lowe presented scale the invariant feature transform (SIFT) as a procedure of transforming image data into scale-invariant coordinates relative to local features [42]. The process is divided in four major steps: 1) scale-space extrema detection – a difference-of-Gaussian function is used to identify potential interest points that are invariant to scale and orientation; 2) Key point localization – At each candidate location, a model is fit to determine location and scale. Key points are then selected based on measures of their stability; 3) Orientation assignment – One or more orientations are assigned to each key point location based on local image gradient directions. All future operations are performed on image data that has been transformed relative to the assigned orientation, scale, and location for each feature, thereby providing invariance to these transformations the features are invariant to image scaling and rotation, and partially invariant to change in illumination and 3D camera viewpoint; and 4) Key point descriptor – The local image gradients are measured at the selected scale in the region around each key point. These are transformed in to a representation that allows for significant levels of local shape distortion and change in illumination

Despite generating big descriptor sets, the cost of extracting these features is minimized by taking a cascade filtering approach, in which the more expensive operations are applied only at locations that pass an initial test.

The gradient location and orientation histogram (GLOH), by Mikolajczyk and Schmid [43] is proposed as an extension to the SIFT descriptor. The GLOH was designed to increase robustness and distinctiveness of the SIFT, also applying principal component analysis (PCA) to reduce the big descriptors size, as suggested by Ke and Sukthankar [44].



## Chapter 3

# Methodology

In clinical laboratories, the gel test is a used method for ABO and Rh typing. ABO and Rh are blood type systems for blood classification based on the existence or lack of certain Red Blood Cell (RBC) antigen antibodies. The proposed gel test by Lapierre et al. [45] uses microtubes filled with a mixture of gel, buffer, and reagents that are centrifuged with a suspension of RBCs. After centrifugation, in negative reagent reactions the RBCs pass through the gel and collect at the bottom of the microtube, whereas in positive reagent reactions they are dispersed throughout the length of the gel. This project aims to develop a prototype capable of automatically reading and determining a gel card test, sending and storing the result in the laboratory's digital system. In this system, the captured card's image, serial number, batch code and expiration date should be stored in a system report for later evaluation.

### 3.1 Gel Card

The gel cards studied in this project are developed by Bio-Rad Laboratories. The gel cards are designed for ABO forward test and the determination of RH1 (D) antigens. Each card has six gel microtubes, where five of them are impregnated with a reagent specific to the erythrocyte antigen to be determined. The remaining microtube is used as control signal for test validity. After centrifugation, non-agglutinated RBC are collected at the bottom of the microtube, while agglutinated RBC are dispersed throughout the length of the gel, being their position in the gel the intensity indicator of the reaction.

#### 3.1.1 Results Interpretation

The first three microtubes of the card, ABO1(A), ABO2(B) and ABO3(AB) as seen in image 3.2, are specific to the ABO grouping, which requires two complementary tests for complete validation. The forward test conducted with anti-ABO1(A), anti-ABO2(B) reagents and if necessary anti-ABO3(AB) reagent need to concord with the reverse test conducted with the A1, B reagent RBC and if necessary A2 and O reagent RBC. If this is not verifiable, and a discrepancy exists between the two tests, complimentary tests should be conducted before any ABO result.

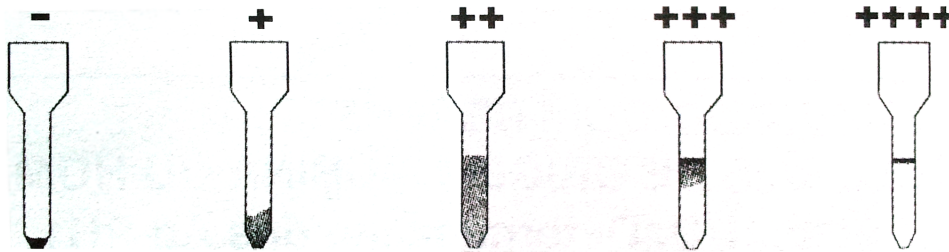


Figure 3.1: Test results for different strengths of reaction (from [1])

Groups	ABO Forward Test			ABO Reverse Test			
	Anti-ABO1 (A)	Anti-ABO2 (B)	Anti-ABO3 (AB)	A1	A2	B	O
A	+	-	+	-	-	+	-
B	-	+	+	+	+	-	-
AB	+	+	+	-	-	-	-
O	-	-	-	+	+	+	-

Table 3.1: Reagent result interpretation

A positive result in the fourth card microtube, RH1(D), indicates the presence of antigen RH1(D) on the surface of RBC. This gel card does not allow the detection of all D weak antigens, neither the detection of the phenotype RH1 partial category VI (DVI). For these cases, it is recommended an additional complementary test. A positive result in the fifth microtube RH1, 2, 3 (DCE) indicates the presence of antigen RH1 (D) and/or antigen RH2 (C) and/or antigen RH3(E) on the surface of the RBC.

## 3.2 Practical procedures

This project is divided in two development parts. The first part is regarded towards the image segmentation, feature extraction and classification problem, in order to identify the six microtubes in a gel card photography, extract meaningful and representative information and achieve a test result by means of data classification. This process should be completely autonomous, only requiring human intervention in test validation. In the second part of this project, the developed process should be implemented in the clinical laboratory's digital system.

### 3.2.1 Image Acquisition

For the image acquisition step different configurations will be studied. Being the size of the gel card a constant variable, as well the necessity to build an autonomous system, different situations of luminosity as well as the spatial positioning of the acquisition system will be studied trying to achieve the best optimal case. The acquisition is going to be performed by a digital camera, Microsoft® LifeCam Studio™, capable of acquiring images at a resolution of 1920 per 1080 pixels with a focal length starting in 10 centimetres up to infinity.

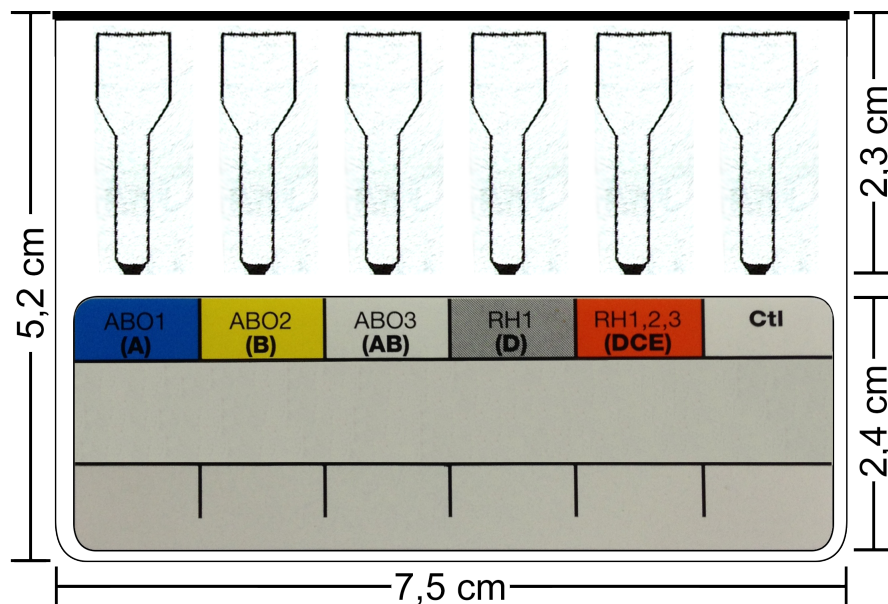


Figure 3.2: Gel card

The acquisition system requires an isolated container, with the purpose of reducing acquisition noise from external light sources. For this container, a support system is needed to keep the gel card in a fixed and predetermined space. This system will also need to support vertical rotation provided by a electric motor, to rotate the gel card into position facing the camera in both of its sides, one at a time.

Two systems will be studied, one where digital camera is connected to a computer by USB and the internal light and electric motor are controlled by existing physical switches in the container, and a second system where all components are connected to a microcontroller inside the container. In this case the computer connects to the microcontroller and issues actions to trigger the container components autonomously.

### 3.2.2 Software Development

The developed software of image analysis and classification will be in a desktop computer of the clinical laboratory, which will have access to a local server for image storage and a data base for record and classification purposes. The software will be developed in Java code using the JavaFX™ packages for building the user interface, this will ensure code compatibility between platforms. The project will be integrated with Open Source Computer Vision (OpenCV) library for the image analysis and feature extraction, using Waikato Environment for Knowledge Analysis (WEKA) software workbench for the data classification problem.

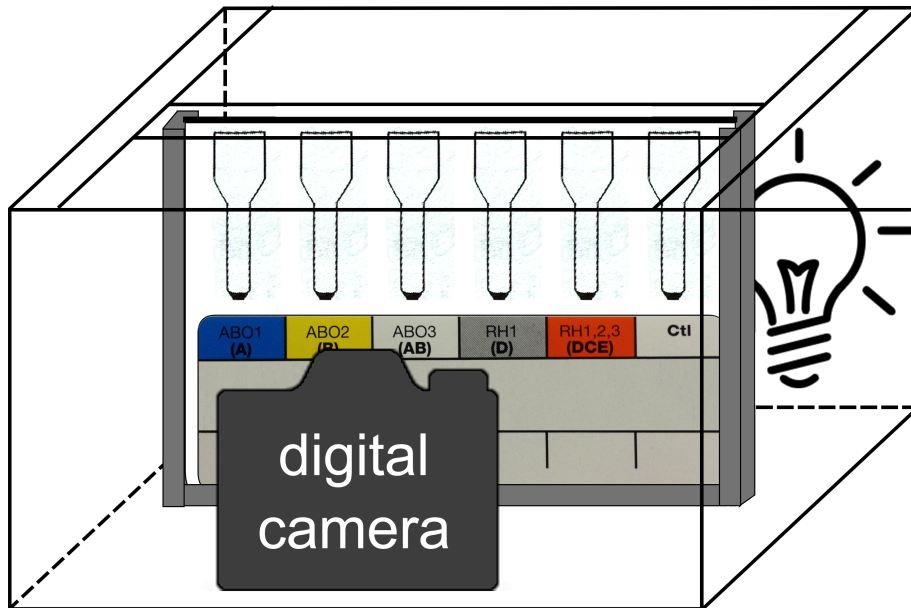


Figure 3.3: Image acquisition system

The user interface will have a screen region where the captured card image will be displayed, a smaller region to display the classification test result and a validation region where the user can evaluate the test result, fixing it.

# Chapter 4

## Work Plan

In this chapter the planned work schedule is presented, as some expected work tools. The work schedule is displayed as a Gantt diagram with a estimation in weeks for each phase.

### 4.0.3 Work Plan

In figure 4.1 is presented the Gantt diagram of the project work plan with the expected duration for each task. Each slot represents a week, being the indicated number the first day of said week.

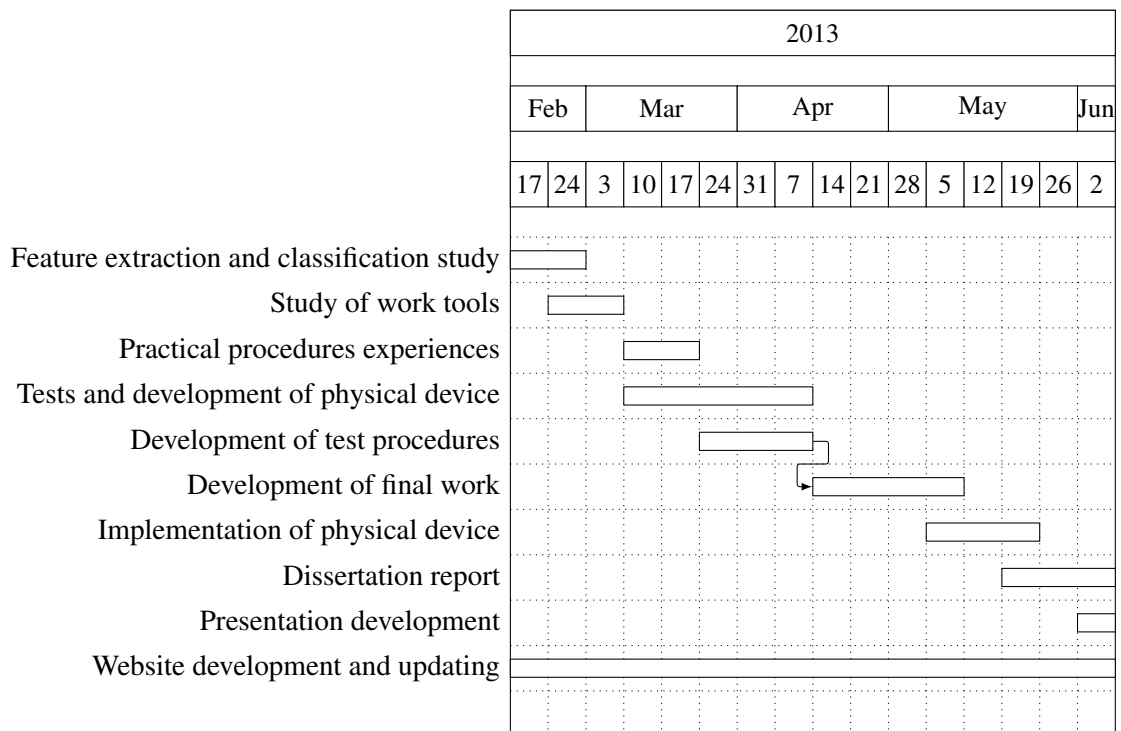


Figure 4.1: Gantt Chart

- **Feature extraction and classification study** — Being this project a computer vision problem, it is required the selection of two feature extraction and two classification methods for deeper understanding that are appropriate for solving the project goal;
- **Study of work tools** — It is required the study of the proposed work tools as well as an validation of their usefulness for the project goal;
- **Practical procedures experiences** — In this task it will be tested the proposed hardware for image capture and its responses to different light scenarios with the gel card;
- **Tests and development of physical device** — With the results of the previous task, the development of the physical device will start. Here the decision for a partially manual or fully automated system should be taken;
- **Development of test procedures** — Development of tests for the selected feature extraction and classification methods;
- **Development of final work** — Development of the final project, ready to be deployed in the clinical laboratory;
- **Implementation of physical device** — In this task the project will be integrated with the physical image capturing device;
- **Dissertation report and presentation development** — This final task is reserved for the writing of the dissertation report as well as developing the final project presentation;
- **Website development and updating** — This is a continuous task, starting from the first week, for the development of the project website as its continuous update.

#### 4.0.4 Work Tools

This project is going to be developed in the Java programming language, using the JavaFX™ packages for building the user interface. The ABO test data will be stored in a local database and the test images in a local server.

The project will also use the OpenCV library for the image analysis and feature extraction. For the data classification problem it will be studied the use of WEKA software workbench.



## **Chapter 5**

# **Conclusion**

This work was developed as a report for Preparation of the MSc Dissertation.

The literature review revealed that the subject in hand has well defined roots, with journals articles dating back to 1974. There is a good amount of literature in the three highlighted steps, image segmentation, feature extraction, and classification, being continually updated over the years. The literature review chapter also tries to present a global introduction to the subjects in study.

It was then presented in chapter three the problem in study with the proposed physical capturing device to be deployed in the clinical laboratory.

In the last chapter the work plan was discussed, giving approximate task duration as a brief description of what each one represents.



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