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A RESEARCH VISION

Development of machine learning models for binary quality classification and noise removal in Pap smear samples

Desarrollo de modelos de machine learning para clasificación binaria de calidad y eliminación de ruido en muestras de Papanicolau

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ABSTRACT

The subjectivity and agility in the review and quality classification of cervical cytology images represents a significant challenge due to the individual observer's criteria, as well as the high volume of samples requiring analysis. The project aims to develop two machine learning models; the first is a classification model that categorizes digitized samples as satisfactory or unsatisfactory. The MobileNet, VGG16, and Resnet50 architectures were compared, yielding better results with the latter, reaching a sensitivity of 0.93 for unsatisfactory samples. The second, a diffusion model for noise reduction where a UNet architecture with ResNet blocks was evaluated for images without noise and with added noise, and an unsharp mask was applied, achieving PSNR and SSIM metrics of 36 dB and 0.92 in noise-free images, and 31 dB and 0.72 in noisy images. The implementation of these models serves as a first step in the binary classification of cytological image quality and in improving the initial image quality.

RESUMEN

La subjetividad y la agilidad en la revisión y clasificación de calidad de imágenes de citología cervical representa un desafío importante debido al criterio individual del observador, así como al alto volumen de muestras que requieren análisis. El proyecto tiene como objetivo desarrollar dos modelos de machine learning; el primero es un modelo de clasificación que categoriza las muestras digitalizadas como satisfactorias o insatisfactorias, se compararon las arquitecturas MobileNet, VGG16 y Resnet50, arrojando mejores resultados con esta última, llegando a una sensibilidad de 0.93 las muestras insatisfactorias. El segundo, un modelo de difusión para reducción de ruido donde se utilizó una arquitectura UNet con bloques ResNet...

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1. Introduction

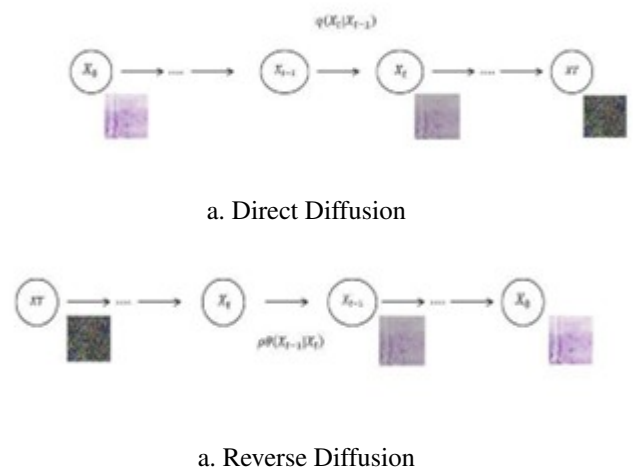
Cervical cancer is a common sexually transmitted disease caused by infection with the human papillomavirus (HPV) [1]. To world level It is the eighth cancer with the highest incidence, the ninth with the highest mortality and a prevalence in the last 5 years of approximately 50 cases per 100,000 people [2]; in Colombia it is the third most common cancer in women [3] One of the prevention methods is performing the Pap test for cervical cytology, which is the main screening test for cervical cancer, contributing to early detection. Review of Pap samples is performed manually using an optical microscope under the level of expertise and subjectivity of the examining pathologist, which can lead to false positives or false negatives, thus affecting the patient's diagnosis and treatment [4]. The impact of Artificial Intelligence (AI) in the health sector has been significant in the early detection of diseases and reducing the burden on professionals, through the implementation of machine learning models, for example, in [5] and in [6] They develop algorithms with neural networks to detect cervical cancer, demonstrating the capacity of AI in optimizing medical diagnoses. Training these models involves a large volume and variety of scanned whole slide images (WSI), which are susceptible to factors that can affect their quality from the capture stage to the digitization of the sample. The latter can be influenced by factors such as different types of scanners, out-of-focus areas, inappropriate color profile, and unrecognized slide identifier [7], which can affect the model's performance. Therefore, algorithms that operate without prior quality analysis could generate inconsistent results [8], as in [9] where it is obtained a larger area under the curve in the models that used high-quality images. In recent studies [10] They have made progress in classifying the quality of cytological images for the detection of cervical cancer, with a categorization of poor and good quality; in another study [6], developed a quality system for images of thin-layer liquid-based cervical cell smears, categorized as satisfactory and unsatisfactory. Other works [11], have improved images in cervical cytology, using methodologies such as histogram equalization to adjust contrast, noise filtering and edge detection. This highlights the need for WSI image quality control as part of the diagnostic process, enabling detection and improvement of quality. Therefore, in this research, two machine learning models were developed to classify images as satisfactory and unsatisfactory. Noise was subsequently removed only for those images previously classified as satisfactory. Finally, a sharpening mask was applied. This contributes to a broader project focused on the early detection of cervical cancer in partnership with the Universidad El Bosque and the Colombian League Against Cancer in Bogotá.

2. Diffusion Models

2.1. Mathematical basis

Diffusion models are generative models that operate under the principles of forward and reverse diffusion [12]. This process is based on the structure of Markov chains, where each step depends only on the previous step; in diffusion models, noise is added in the forward diffusion process, where each state t depends on $t-1$, and in the reverse process, noise is reversed, where each step $t-1$ depends on t the state. Thus, this process is based on conditional distribution, assuming a Gaussian distribution [13]. The following figure shows the diffusion model process:

Figure 1. Diffusion model process. Taken and modified from



The forward diffusion process takes the image and adds noise in a series of steps, taking into account the variance value, which defines the amount of noise added. Equations (1) and (2) present the single-step process and the complete.

$$q(x_{t-1}) = \mathcal{N}(x_t; \sqrt{1 - \beta_t}x_{t-1}, \beta_t I) \quad (1)$$

$$q(x_0) = \prod_{t=1}^T q(x_{t-1}) \quad (2)$$

Here represents the normal (Gaussian) distribution, the image at step t , is generated around the mean and variance I (1). In (2) represents the joint probability of the noisy images, the notation indicates the multiplication of probabilities of each individual step.

$$p_\theta(x_t|x_{t-1}) = \mathcal{N}(x_t; \sqrt{1 - \beta_t}x_{t-1}, \beta_t I) \quad (3)$$

$$p_\theta(X_t | X_{t-1}) := N(X_{t-1}; \mu_\theta(X_t, t), \Sigma_\theta(X_t, t)) \quad (4)$$

$p_\theta(x_{t-1} | x_t)$ represents the probability distribution of obtaining the previous image state x_{t-1} from the current

noisy image x_t during the reverse diffusion process. \mathcal{N} denotes a Gaussian normal distribution, where $\mu_\theta(x_t, t)$ is the mean predicted by the model at step t , and $\Sigma_\theta(x_t, t)$ represents the variance of the distribution. The joint probability of the reverse diffusion process is defined as:

$$p_\theta(x_{0:T}) = p(x_T) \prod_{t=1}^T p_\theta(x_{t-1} | x_t) \quad (5)$$

where $p(x_T)$ corresponds to the initial noise distribution and the product term represents the sequence of conditional probability distributions applied at each diffusion step.

2.2. Image quality assessment metrics

The mean square error (MSE), peak signal-to-noise ratio (PSNR), and structural similarity index (SSIM) were used as image quality assessment metrics. The goal was to find the lowest MSE value and the highest PSNR and SSIM values.

2.2.1. MSE

The MSE together with the PSNR have been traditional metrics used as efficiency criteria in image filtering processes [14]. MSE measures signal fidelity by comparing the difference between an original image and the same image filtered pixel by pixel. MSE is a metric that is sensitive to changes in squaring the differences. It is simple and inexpensive to calculate [15] although it does not measure the perception of the quality of the visual image [16]. The calculation of the MSE is given by:

$$[MSE]_{(x,y)} = 1/N \sum_{i=1}^N [(x_i - y_i)]^2 \quad (5) \quad (6)$$

N is the total number of pixels in the images, and N is the values of the i -th points of the two signals or images $x_i y_i$ [17].

2.2.2. PSNR:

It is based on the MSE [18], and refers to the ratio between the maximum possible power of a signal (original image) and the power of the noise (reconstructed image). It is expressed in decibels, where an appropriate range is between 30 dB and 40 dB [19]. When an image has the same dynamic range, PSNR does not provide additional information to that obtained with MSE [20]. The PSNR calculation is given by:

$$\text{PSNR} = 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{L^2}{\text{MSE}} \right) \quad (6)$$

L is the dynamic range of allowed image pixel intensities [20]

2.2.3. SSIM:

It measures three factors of images: luminance, contrast and structure.[21] In the process of removing noise from an image, changes to the structure of the image can be generated that are perceptible to human vision called structural distortions, and the work of this metric is this human function [17]. The SSIM range is from 0 to 1, where the highest values closest to 1 are sought. The SSIM calculation is given by:

$$Q = \frac{\sigma_{xy}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} \cdot \frac{2\bar{x}\bar{y}}{(\bar{x})^2 + (\bar{y})^2} \cdot \frac{2\sigma_x \sigma_y}{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2} \quad (7)$$

The first part is the structure component, where the numerator is the covariance between the image and , and the bottom part is the standard deviation. The second part is the luminance, which represents the average intensity values for each image, and the third is the contrast component. xy [17].

3. Methodology

The proposed methodology is shown in the following figure.

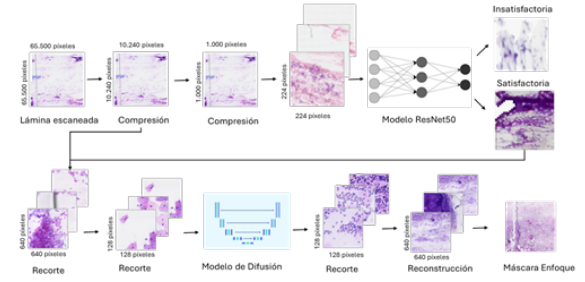


Figura 1: Methodology

3.1. Dataset and processing

For the visualization and cropping process of TIFF images, the TIAToolbox library in Python was used, which is focused on the analysis of pathological images **ref22**. Fifty cytology slides provided by the CITOMAP Cytology and Pathology Laboratory were selected. These samples were older than 5 years, so mounting the slides using synthetic resin (CYTORESIN) was required for proper cytology review by the cytologist and for the scanning process. The specialist reviewed the slides according to the 2014 Bethesda classification system, which is used for quality assessment and diagnosis. The samples were classified into two classes: satisfactory and unsatisfactory, taking into account factors such as fixation, staining, mounting, presence of endocervical cells, and presence of exocervical cells. The samples were then scanned by the University Foundation of Health Sciences (FUCS). It

should be noted that scan quality was included among the factors considered for the unsatisfactory class. This quality assessment was based on two variables: the number of white areas in the image and the percentage of blur. A sample was classified as unsatisfactory if it presented a hemorrhagic smear, inflammation, low cellularity, or poor scan quality. The samples were digitized using a MoticEasyScan scanner line and were initially stored in SVS format. However, as mentioned in **ref23**, this format is not compatible with some visualization software and its size is larger compared to other image formats. Therefore, TIFF format was selected for further processing. The scanned images had an original resolution of $65,500 \times 65,500$ pixels, a magnification of 40x, and a resolution of $5.3004 \mu\text{m}$ per pixel. To optimize storage and computational processing, the images were compressed using the Python PIL library, reducing their dimensions to $10,240 \times 10,240$ pixels, equivalent to approximately a 45 % reduction in file size. Initially, the images were compressed to $24,584 \times 51,600$ pixels using 1,024 processing blocks to avoid memory overflow problems. Subsequently, the final resolution of $10,240 \times 10,240$ pixels was obtained.

3.2. Quality classifier:

The VGG16, MobileNet, and ResNet50 architectures were evaluated, taking as reference the studies presented in **ref10** and **ref9**, where these architectures were implemented for medical image classification tasks. The referenced studies reported performance metrics of 99.5 % in sensitivity and precision for the first study, and an AUC of 99.9 % for the second study. The final layers of each architecture were customized to adapt the models to the binary classification task. Different layer configurations were tested, varying the number of trainable layers and the initial learning rate. Additionally, two callbacks were implemented during the training process. The first callback, `ModelCheckpoint`, was used to save the best model according to validation accuracy. The second callback, `ReduceLROnPlateau`, dynamically adjusted the learning rate during training. For the classifier model, 50 images with dimensions of $10,240 \times 10,240$ pixels were used. A preprocessing stage was performed in which the images were reduced to $1,000 \times 1,000$ pixels in JPG format. Subsequently, three crops of 224×224 pixels were extracted from each image to adapt them to the input size required by the evaluated architectures. This number of crops was selected to avoid ties between the two categories during model inference. A total of 150 image crops were obtained, distributed as 69 unsatisfactory samples and 81 satisfactory samples. For the training process, the dataset was divided into:

- 104 images for training
- 23 images for validation

- 23 images for testing

Data augmentation techniques were applied to all subsets, including rotations, translations, zooming, and horizontal flipping.

3.3. Probabilistic diffusion model for noise removal

For the diffusion model, images with dimensions of $10,240 \times 10,240$ pixels were taken, and cutouts with a size of 640×640 pixels were made in jpg format, generating 256 images per sheet, resulting in a total of 12,800 images for the final dataset. Taking into account the specifications of the diffusion model, 5 cutouts of 128×128 pixels were taken from each 640×640 pixel image, subsequently in the final output of the model a spatial reconstruction was performed to return the images to their original size. The code that was implemented for the model was taken from the GitHub repository [24] which is available under the MIT license.

3.4. Unsharp Mask

Unsharp masking was implemented to improve image sharpness, making the images appear clearer and more defined.

$$\text{enhanced image} = \text{original} + \text{amount} * (\text{original} - \text{blurred}) \quad (8)$$

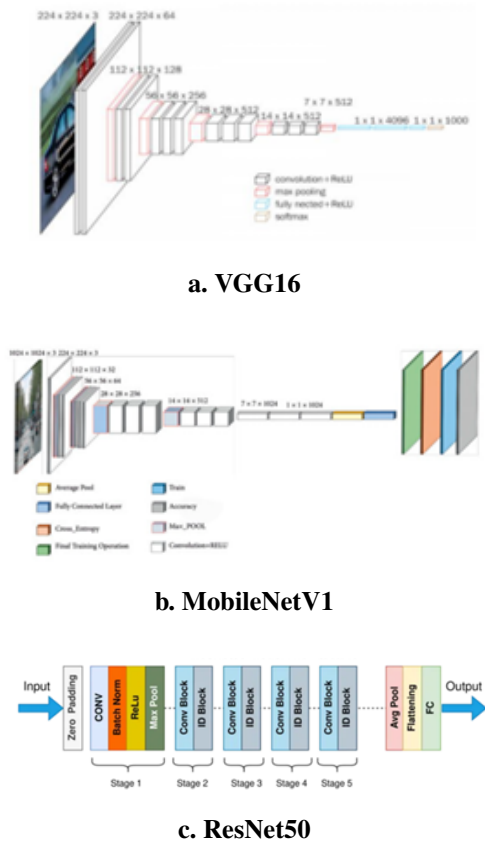
The process consists of taking the original image and calculating the difference between the original image and a blurred version of it. This difference is multiplied by the sharpening factor and then added back to the original image, resulting in a sharper image. For this purpose, the function `unsharp_mask` from the `skimage.filters` library was used **ref25**. This function receives two hyperparameters: `radius` and `amount`. The `radius` parameter determines the level of blur applied before edge enhancement, while the `amount` parameter controls the intensity of the sharpening effect.

4. Results

4.1. Classification model

For the selection of hyperparameters, the *Keras Tuner* methodology was implemented with the objective of obtaining the highest Recall value for the unsatisfactory class. This criterion was selected in order to reduce the number of false negatives, since an unsatisfactory sample incorrectly classified as satisfactory would be included in subsequent analyses

and incorporated into the dataset used to train the diagnostic model of the macroproject. Figure 2 presents the classical structure of each of the implemented architectures.



a. VGG16

b. MobileNetV1

c. ResNet50

Figura 2: Classical structure of the implemented architectures

In each of the related architectures, adjustments were made that allow the model to reduce overfitting and improve training efficiency. The classic VGG16 architecture contains 5 convolution blocks with 3×3 filters, increasing in number (64 to 512) per block and ReLU activations, each block has a MaxPooling layer, ending with 3 dense layers and a softmax layer. To adapt the training to the binary classifier, trainable layers were unfrozen, a GlobalAveragePooling2D layer was placed, an intermediate dense layer, a Dropout and the final layer adjusting to the output of 2 classes, as well as the optimizer learning rate. The classic MobileNetV1 architecture contains 28 depthwise separable convolutional layers with batch normalization and ReLU activations, a GlobalAveragePooling and Dropout layer, and a final Dense layer. Among the adjustments made for this architecture are the unfreezing of trainable layers, a Dropout layer, a Flatten layer, a final Dense layer, and a learning rate. The classic Resnet50 architecture starts with a 7×7 convolution layer and max-pooling, four stages of bottleneck re-

sidual blocks and finally a GlobalAveragePooling layer and a dense layer, as in the previous architectures, trainable layers were unfrozen, a GlobalAveragePooling2D layer was added, a Dropout, an intermediate dense layer and the final dense layer. The following tables list the results of each model trained with 90 epochs and the best hyperparameters, with the ResNet50 architecture performing best for the Recall of the unsatisfactory class with a value of 0.93.

| Architecture | Configuration | Thawed layers | Learning rate |
|--------------|--|---------------|----------------|
| ResNet50 | GlobalAveragePooling2D Dropout (0.4) Dense (64, activation='relu') Dense (2, activation='softmax') | 5 | Adam 0.0000494 |
| MobileNet | Dropout (0.4) Flatten Dense (2, activation='softmax') | 15 | Adam 0.00029 |
| VGG16 | GlobalAveragePooling2D Dropout (0.6) Dense (256, activation='relu') Dense (2, activation='softmax') | 15 | Adam 0.0000394 |

Cuadro 1: Better hyperparameters for architectures

| | | Precision | Recall | F1 score | # images |
|-------------|-------------------------|-----------|--------|----------|----------|
| VGG16 | Class 1: unsatisfactory | 0.91 | 0.70 | 0.79 | 492 |
| | Class 0: satisfactory | 0.74 | 0.92 | 0.83 | 451 |
| MobileNetV1 | Class 1: unsatisfactory | 0.85 | 0.83 | 0.84 | 492 |
| | Class 0: satisfactory | 0.82 | 0.84 | 0.83 | 451 |
| ResNet50 | Class 1: unsatisfactory | 0.75 | 0.93 | 0.83 | 492 |
| | Class 0: satisfactory | 0.90 | 0.65 | 0.76 | 451 |

Cuadro 2: Results

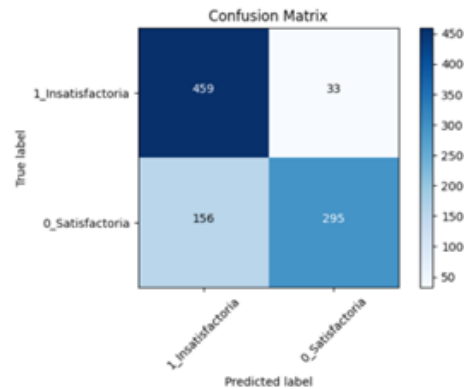


Figura 3: Confusion Matrix Best ResNet50 Model

4.2. Diffusion model

The model used was based on [24] where they take an adjusted HuggingFace model, which is based on a Classic UNet with advanced ResNet convolution blocks, time embeddings and linear attention. Table 3 shows the differences between Classic UNet and the implemented architecture:

| Component | UNet Classic | HuggingFace |
|--------------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|
| First Convolution | Conv 3x3 | Conv 7x7 |
| Block convolution | Conv + ReLU | ResNetBlock + SiLU |
| Time embeddings | Not applicable | If applicable |
| Linear attention | Not applicable | Linear care at each stage |
| Dimensionality reduction | Max Pooling 2x2 | 2D Stride 2 Convolution |
| Dimensionality increase | Up conv 2x2 | Transposed convolution |

Cuadro 3: Differences between UNet Classic and Hugging-Face Adjusted

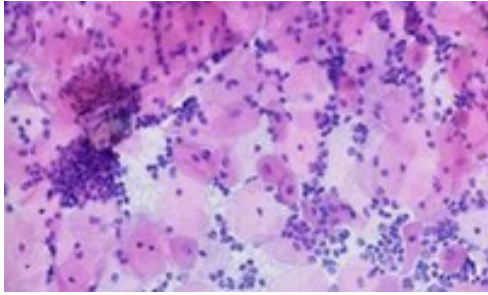
The implemented architecture uses ResNetBlock convolutional blocks with a SiLU activation function and linear attention. These blocks consist of two 3x3 layers with normalization, which gives the model greater ability to detail the image; linear attention gives more weight to more important areas of the image without consuming too much memory. SiLU activation is more advanced and smoother compared to ReLU, allowing the model to learn complex patterns in a more controlled manner. In the first convolution, unlike classic UNet, the model used an input with a 7x7 kernel. In the downsampling phase, a 2D convolution layer with stride 2 is used to extract features while reducing the resolution. The bottleneck (the lowest part) uses ResNetBlock blocks; in the upsampling phase, a transposed convolution is used, doubling the resolution along with the advanced blocks. The entire architecture uses a temporal embedding function to add information about the time step in the diffusion process so that the model knows how much noise has been added to the image at that step. This allows the model to learn to progressively reconstruct the image by appropriately removing noise based on the passage of time. In the training process, different dataset size values were used in a range from 100 to 6,000, however, due to computational resource limitations, the best result was obtained with 2,307 images of 128x128 pixels which were divided into 1,600 images for the training set, 402 for the validation set and 350 for the test set. To create the diffusion datasets, a series of transformations were performed on the training set, consisting of converting the image to a tensor with values ranging from 0 to 1, randomly adjusting the image’s brightness and hue, horizontally flipping the image, horizontally translating it, and scaling it. The objective of this was to enable the model to learn image characteristics independently of their variations. Gaussian noise level control was applied with variance ranging from 0 to 5e-3 in 1000 steps. For the test and test sets, the image was converted to a tensor and noise control was included. The model ran with 200 epochs, under a batch size of 32 for training and 64 for validation using the Google Colab Pro tool with an A100 GPU. The MSELoss loss function and an AdamW optimizer were used, the learning rate was adjusted at each step with a maximum value of 0.0005 and with a OneCycleLR cycle. For the model evaluation process, image reconstruction steps of 1, 5, 10, and 15 were used, and an average of the MSE, PSNR, and SSIM metrics was taken. In this process, the model was tested with

the original 640x640 images without added noise, and images with added Gaussian noise with a mean of 0 and variance of 0.01 and salt and pepper noise with a percentage of 0.01. A total of 128 images were used for each of the tests. This was done in order to evaluate what level of noise the model could eliminate and the optimal step for the process. Below are the results of each test performed:

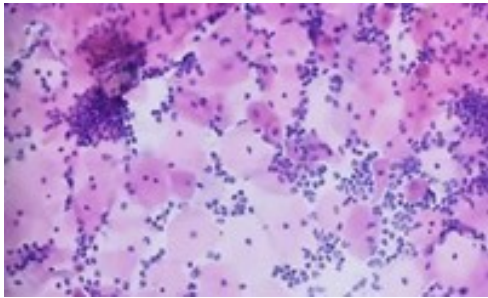
| Image | Step | MSE | Manual PSNR (dB) | SSIM |
|-----------------------------|------|-------|------------------|------|
| Original image | 1 | 27.61 | 34.99 | 0.90 |
| Original image | 5 | 25.20 | 35.52 | 0.91 |
| Original image | 10 | 22.06 | 36.11 | 0.92 |
| Original image | 15 | 15.57 | 37.29 | 0.94 |
| Image with Gaussian noise | 1 | 38.25 | 33.00 | 0.90 |
| Image with Gaussian noise | 5 | 37.83 | 32.89 | 0.90 |
| Image with Gaussian noise | 10 | 42.76 | 32.27 | 0.90 |
| Image with Gaussian noise | 15 | 48.97 | 31.55 | 0.83 |
| Image with noise SaltPepper | 1 | 43.12 | 31.87 | 0.62 |
| Image with noise SaltPepper | 5 | 42.90 | 31.88 | 0.60 |
| Image with noise SaltPepper | 10 | 43.58 | 31.79 | 0.56 |
| Image with noise SaltPepper | 15 | 47.16 | 31.41 | 0.49 |

Cuadro 4: Comparative metrics Diffusion Model

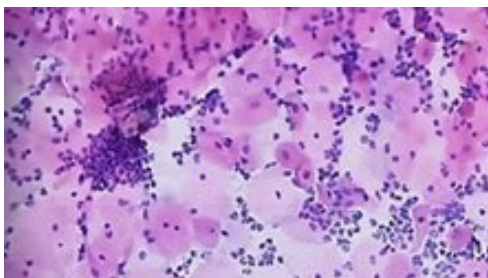
Given the obtained metrics, the discussions carried out with specialists, and the analysis of the processed images, it was concluded that step 15 was the optimal configuration since, although it removes a lower percentage of noise, it better preserves the characteristics of the images. To optimize image sharpness, an unsharp mask was applied at the selected step by varying the hyperparameters *radius* and *amount* using combinations of values of 1, 1.5, and 2. The combination of 1 and 1 provided the best visual perception for images without added noise, achieving MSE metrics of 21.9, PSNR values of 35.6 dB, and SSIM values of 0.92. For images with added Gaussian noise, the obtained metrics were 59.9 for MSE, 30.6 dB for PSNR, and 0.72 for SSIM. Regarding images with added salt-and-pepper noise, the unsharp mask test was not performed because the selected diffusion step did not demonstrate the best performance in noise removal. From this, it can be inferred that the model presented limitations because it was trained exclusively with Gaussian noise. Below is a fragment of an image processed by the diffusion model together with the unsharp mask.



a. Original image



b. MobileNetV1



c. ResNet50

Figura 4: Images without added noise processed by the Diffusion Model and Unsharp Mask

5. Conclusions

The two models deployed during the project were successfully developed, representing a significant advance in the selection and improvement of satisfactory images, contributing to the macro-project focused on cervical cancer detection. For the classifier model, the ResNet50 architecture proved to be the most suitable in terms of sensitivity to the unsatisfactory class compared to other architectures (VGG16 and MobileNet). The diffusion model based on the UNet architecture with ResNet blocks showed good results in noise removal, along with the application of an unsharp mask, which improved image sharpness. Two limitations were encountered

during the project: first, the computational capacity available to run the diffusion model with a training size greater than 2,500 images. Second, since the diffusion model was trained with Gaussian noise, it was not highly effective in removing salt-and-pepper noise. Finally, it is suggested that higher zoom levels be used for future work with cytological images to increase practical applicability. Coauthors: Carlos

Puentes-Morales, Andres Felipe Mendoza-Cardona, Sandra Janneth Perdomo-Lara, Alex-Campos

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