

# Enhancing Image Segmentation: A Novel Grow Cut Algorithm with Advanced Cellular Automata

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## I. INTRODUCTION

Over the last decades, a lot of research has been done in the field of computer vision. Image processing algorithms have been developed, aiming to “translate” the actual content of an image, from a matrix of binary values, into meaningful information, from a human point of view. The computer cannot understand and interpret the content of an image by its own. Besides generic image transformation algorithms - like noise removal, color filtering, and pattern recognition – there is a more challenging direction of study: image segmentation and its applications in a semantic context – translating the picture into semantically meaningful, classifiable content. Such algorithms are useful for search engines, robots (automated driving, interaction etc.), medical research and others.

Image processing is a method of converting a physical image into a digital representation and extracting the most important information possible. An image is often regarded as one of the most effective methods of data transport. The extraction of meaningful information from images is a prominent area of application in digital image technology. Image segmentation is done through image processing to help us comprehend the process. The technique of dividing a image into multiple pieces is termed the segmentation of an image, so that it is straightforward to explain and examine. Segmentation is the process of dividing a digital image into several sub images or subdivisions, or pieces or segments.

Segmenting an image using various segmentation algorithms is one of Image Processing's primary uses. The method is frequently utilized in medical image processing, facial recognition, and pedestrian detection, among other applications. A digital image is divided into sections with varying degrees of naturalness in order to conduct an analysis of those parts. image segmentation algorithms enable the separation of distinct objects within an image. Researchers have created a variety of image segmentation approaches to smoothen the images and make them easier to evaluate. This article presents a survey of the literature and describes the algorithms for the most extensively used fundamental image segmentation methods, along with their merits and limitations. One of the most critical challenges that the computer vision group is now dealing with is semantic segmentation. Semantic segmentation is a high-level action that can help to create more diversified scenarios. The challenge of scene understanding has been underlined by the rising use of digital cameras and processing capability. Driverless cars, human-computer interaction, virtual reality, and information and entertainment technologies are all included. Deep learning has significantly improved the efficiency of semantic segmentation. Example showing semantic segmentation is shown in Fig. 3.1

- 1) From coarse to fine parsing, semantic segmentation is a natural step.
- The root might be found in classification, which produces a forecast for a whole input.
- The next step is identification and localization. This information includes classes as well as their physical location.
- By labelling each pixel with the class of its encompassing item or region, semantic segmentation may provide fine-grained predictions.

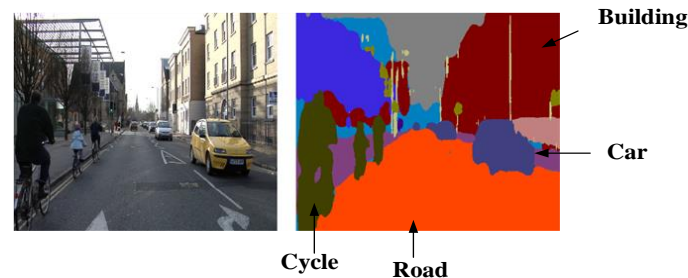


Figure 1 Example of semantic segmentation

Color image segmentation is defined as *a process of extracting from the image domain one or more connected regions satisfying uniformity (homogeneity) criterion which is based on feature(s) derived from spectral components*. Segmentation algorithms take an image as input and compute a set of regions, built according to specific similarity/dissimilarity criteria. The resulted regions must form an optimal split of the whole image. What exactly is meant by “optimal” depends on multiple criteria and is still an arguable fact. Depending on the application and the area of study, segmentation approaches can take into account similarity criteria based on color, texture, shape, brightness (or, eventually, a combination of these).

The ultimate goal of segmentation is, in any case, to transform numeric or binary data into meaningful content from the human perceptual point of view. Here we get to the notion of *image understanding*. One popular use of such technology would be image search. At this time, search engines are unable to actually use image information to retrieve best results. Image searches are actually textual searches: the engine looks for websites containing the search term and fetches images embedded in those pages. Other method is search by image tags, which is the same thing – manually tagging images requires a lot of time and labor, is prone to errors and exhaustive on large image databases.

There are multiple technically approaches to segmentations. Four main types of segmentation are defined. They refer to the actual processing of the image file in terms of relevant units:

- Pixel based segmentation – pixels are taken into account separately, one by one, and features such as color, brightness, intensity are considered at pixel-level. Based on this analysis, the pixels are grouped using clustering algorithms, such as K-means, Nearest Neighbor, Hierarchical trees and others.
- Area based segmentation – usually working on groups of pixels (also called *superpixels*). Such methods reduce computational time for large images, because instead of checking millions of pixels, the algorithm checks only hundreds or thousands. Same features are considered, excepting this time sets of pixels are taken as a whole and extended/trimmed according to average/median values of various features for all pixels in the region. It can also use clustering algorithms.
- Edge based segmentation – an edge is defined by a high dissimilarity between two sets of pixels over one or many criteria. It can split objects that have high intensity/texture/color variation or light glare.
- Physics based segmentation (or semantic segmentation) – it is a sort of combination of all the above, with the final purpose to detect actual objects, despite any color or intensity inner variation. It's the trickiest of all, requires a lot of data analysis (for object shape/position matching and recognition) and machine learning algorithms. It's computationally expensive, but the great advantage is its capacity to learn, thereby including artificial intelligence.

In other words, *semantic segmentation* is called so not only because it splits an image into semantically meaningful parts, but also considering its methodology. Semantic algorithms do not necessarily look only at contours, gradient difference, contrast, brightness and so on, it rather combines all of these, compares predefined patterns or multiple images containing the same object, looks for *content*, *shapes*, *objects* instead of *mathematical similarities*.

Most of actual and future applications of semantic segmentation are intelligent systems - vehicle recognition, animal detection, movement detection, scene parsing, medical intelligent devices (for surgery, pattern detection and so on). Below there's a basic example of how it works:



Figure 2 Input And Output of A Semantic Segmentation Algorithm

Until now, there's no efficient algorithm that works for types of objects, but there are some approaches that work pretty well on certain subclasses or in particular areas of study. First difficulties usually come from light variations and shadows, glare, highlights, changes in material, color and texture (such as clothing). Another problem is that a 3-dimensional object looks different from various angles, positions, is sensitive to light changes. Objects in some classes differ so much from each other that there's no good pattern for them – for example human bodies. Others – like sky and clouds – don't even have a fixed pattern, color or shape. Clouds themselves can look very differently: some are thick, rounded, with a well-defined shape and contour, while others are thin, shapeless, slightly transparent, with fuzzy edges and variable density. Also, to say the sky is always blue is a very trivial assumption, which can be used only as a starting point to image understanding algorithms.

To overcome these, an expensive training step is usually required, using multiple images and machine learning algorithms. Depending on the complexity of training step and the available ground-truth data, the implementation can either only separate distinct objects from each other or also label them. In the first case, some implementations do not require training.

More accurate methods use *object recognition*, which means that the algorithm looks for certain objects of interest and identifies them, ignoring the rest of the image and treating it as a whole. The process requires a more complex training step, with images featuring the desired objects in various positions, lights, angles. Multiple patterns are defined and stored into a database, then successively applied and matched. In the left image of Figure 2, distinct objects have been detected and labeled accordingly. This is segmentation, with a labeling that indicates machine learning has been involved. In the second one, only two objects have been “spotted”: the person (“me”) and the bag. The background has been ignored, because the algorithm is required to identify only objects of interest. This is object recognition. In terms of plain segmentation, it is not very precise – only a box fitting the object is displayed, not an accurate contour. Image segmentation is an essential process in computer vision, crucial for breaking down images into manageable segments for analysis. This technique is foundational for applications ranging from object recognition to medical imaging, yet it lacks a universally accepted method for algorithm selection and comparison. Segmentation's core challenge is its ambiguity in definition, reflecting the complexity of mimicking human pattern recognition.



Figure 3 – Semantic Segmentation Vs. Object Detection

Techniques vary, with some focusing on localized feature extraction through text retrieval, directly influencing the success of object identification within images. The choice of segmentation algorithm is critical, affecting the overall outcome and necessitating a tailored approach for each specific application. Among the plethora of methods, the enhanced graph cut technique stands out, enabling precise foreground and background differentiation through labeling and segmentation. This research assesses its effectiveness, using performance metrics as a comparative tool, underscoring the importance of methodical evaluation in advancing the field. Despite the availability of numerous methods, the complexity of segmentation algorithms often poses a barrier to their practical application, highlighting the need for continued innovation and simplification in this domain.

## II. RELATED WORKS

**In Bhandari, A., Koppen, J. & Agzarian, M (2020)**

A new area called radiomics was born as a result of the development of quantitative picture analysis, which has been used to predict clinical outcomes. Glioblastoma multiform, a type of brain tumor, is an increasing focus of research (GBM). Analysis of this pathology begins with the segmentation of tumors. Inconsistencies in manual segmentation are common because observers' interpretations differ. To address this problem, the idea of automated segmentation has been floated. Machine learning pipelines modelled on the biological process of neurons (called nodes) and synapses have been of interest in the literature. Convolutional neural networks (CNNs) are one example. The role of CNNs in the segmentation of brain tumors is investigated firstly by looking at CNNs from an educational perspective and carrying out a literature search to determine an example pipeline. [1].

**Jin KH, McCann MT, Froustey E, Unser M (2017)** According to the findings of this study, it is possible to solve inversion problems using a deep convolutional neural network (CNN). Regularized iterative algorithms have dominated inverse problem solving in the previous few decades. The high computational costs of the forward and adjoint operations and the difficulty in picking hyper parameters make these approaches challenging to implement, even if their results are good. When the forward model's normal operator ( $H^*H$ , where  $H^*$  is the adjoint of forward imaging operator ( $H$ ) takes the form of a CNN as a starting point, we can say (filtering followed by point wise nonlinearity). Our preferred method for solving normal-convolutional inverse problems is direct inversion using



a CNN. For example, if a problem is phrased incorrectly, straight inversion might result in artefacts, which can be eliminated via multiresolution decomposition and residual learning. Parallel beam X-ray computed tomography in synthetic phantoms and real experimental sonograms have shown that the proposed network performs well for sparse view reconstructions (down to 50 views). Iterative reconstruction with total variation regularized outperforms the recommended network for more realistic phantoms and can recreate a picture of size 512 by 512 in less than one millisecond on the GPU. [2].

**Yamashita R, Nishio M, Do RKG, Togashi K (2018)** Radiologists are among those who are taking an interest in CNNs, a class of artificial neural networks that has gained prominence in many computer vision tasks. By employing several building pieces, including as convolution layers, pooling layers, and fully linked layers, CNN can automatically and adaptively learn spatial hierarchies of information. An overview of CNN concepts and their application to various radiological tasks is presented in this review paper, as well as the challenges and future prospects of CNN in radiology. Small datasets and over fitting are also discussed in this article, as well as ways to mitigate them when using CNN for radiological jobs. To maximize CNN's potential in diagnostic radiology and help radiologists perform better and provide better treatment to their patients, it's critical that you understand its principles, advantages, and limitations. [3].

**Angulakshmi M, Lakshmi Priya GG (2017)** For example, white matter (WM), grey matter (GM), and cerebrospinal fluid can all be automatically segmented from the rest of the brain tumor (CSF). The variety in tumour segmentation shapes, locations, and sizes makes segmentation difficult. Images from positron emission tomography (PET), computer tomography (CT), and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) can provide information on metabolic and psychological processes as well as images with a high level of detail (MRI). More accurate brain tumour segmentation can be achieved using multimodal imaging techniques (such as PET/CT and PET/MRI) that incorporate information from many imaging techniques. Automatic brain tumour segmentation methods for MRI, PET, CT, and other imaging modalities are discussed in detail in this article. There are various approaches and strategies that are addressed in this article. They include their working principles, advantages, limitations, and future difficulties. [4].

**Best B, Nguyen HS, Doan NB et al (2019)** The prognosis for a patient with a glioblastoma (GB) or one of its variations is dismal. The most common cause of death (COD) is cancer, however a considerable number of deaths are attributed to other conditions. An in-depth look at all of the symptoms of COD gives a clear picture of how severe the condition really is. Patients with cranial GB and its variations were searched in the SEER-18. Age, gender, race, marital status and the characteristics of the tumour were gathered as well as the details of the therapy and follow-up procedures. There was a group A (death linked to this cancer diagnosis) and then a group B (no death due to this cancer diagnosis) (death attributed to causes other than this cancer diagnosis). There were 36,632 deaths (94 percent) in group A from 1973 to 2013 and 2,324 deaths (59 percent) in group B during that time period (Table 1). There was a substantial difference between the two groups in terms of age, ethnicity, marital status, frontal/brain stem/ventricle tumour sites, and radiation use. Group B was found to have significant independent predictors for age >60, male gender, race, unmarried status, tumour site, and no radiotherapy. Co-morbidities in group B include cardiovascular disease, pneumonia and influenza, cerebrovascular illness, accidents, and unpleasant effects.[5].

**Mikołajczyk A, Grochowski M (2018)** For Machine Learning (ML), Deep Neural Networks (DNN) and Deep Learning, Deep Learning (DL) is the fastest-growing area today (DNN). The Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) are the primary tool for image analysis and classification among numerous DNN structures nowadays. Deep neural networks and their accompanying learning algorithms face significant hurdles, despite their enormous successes and promising future. Machine learning is plagued by the problem of insufficient training data or a lack of class balance in datasets, which we have addressed in this paper. So-called "data augmentation" is one technique to address this issue. To aid in image categorization, we examined and contrasted a variety of data enhancement techniques, including rotation, cropping, zooming, histogram-based algorithms, Style Transfer, and Generative Adversarial Networks, as well as representative examples from each. A new method of data augmentation, based on visual style transfer, was then introduced. Using this technology, new images of excellent quality can be created by combining the content of a base image with the appearance of another. A neural network's efficiency can be improved by pre-training it using the newly-created images. The proposed technique is tested on three medical case studies: skin melanomas diagnosis, histological pictures, and breast MRI scans analysis, using image

classification to make a diagnosis. Data shortage is a major issue in these kinds of situations. Finally, we address the merits and cons of the methodologies that are being analysed in detail (PDF) Using more data to improve the depth of learning in picture categorization [6].

**Chang K, Beers AL, Bai HX et al (2019)** Glioma burden quantification using MRI is the foundation for assessing therapy response. Automated segmentation of abnormal FLAIR hyper intensity and contrast-enhancing tumour using a deep learning algorithm was developed in this study. This approach quantifies tumour volumes using the Response Assessment in Neuro-Oncology (RANO) criteria (AutoRANO). This study included patients from two different groups. First, 843 patients with low or high-grade gliomas underwent preoperative MRIs at four different institutions, and then 713 patients with newly diagnosed glioblastomas underwent postoperative MRI visits at a single institution, each with two pretreatment "baseline" MRIs. With intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC) of 0.986, 0.991, and 0.977, respectively, on a cohort of postoperative GBM patients, the autonomously generated FLAIR hyper intensity volume and contrast-enhancing tumour volume and AutoRANO were highly repeatable for the double-baseline visits. ICC values for preoperative FLAIR hyper intensity, postoperative FLAIR hyper intensity, and postoperative contrast-enhancing tumour volumes, respectively, ranged from 0.915, 0.924, and 0.965 for manual and automated tumour volume measurements. For FLAIR hyper intensity volume, contrast-enhancing tumour volume, and RANO measurements, ICCs for comparing manually and automatically calculated longitudinal changes in tumour burden were 0.917, 0.966, and 0.850 respectively. Even in complex post-treatment scenarios, our automated method shows potential utility, but further clinical trials are needed before broad adoption.[7].

**Isensee F, Kickingereder P, Wick W, Bendszus M, Maier-Hein KH (2017)** Brain tumors must be quantified in order to make informed clinical decisions. As laborious, time-consuming, and subjective as manual segmentation can be, it is also extremely difficult to address using automatic segmentation methods. A convolutional neural network (CNN)-based segmentation technique is presented in this publication, which is our most recent attempt. Inspired by the popular U-Net, our network architecture has been fine-tuned to improve brain tumour segmentation performance. Over fitting is avoided because to the implementation of a dice loss function and considerable data augmentation. Using the BraTS 2017 validation set, our technique outperforms the current state of the art on the total tumour, tumour core, and enhancement tumour Dice scores of 0.896, 0.797, and 0.732, respectively, and gets excellent Dice scores on the test set (0.858 for whole, 0.775 for core and 0.647 for enhancing tumor). A random forest regressor and multilayer perceptron are trained on tumour sub region shape characteristics to participate in the survival prediction sub challenge. On the test set, our technique has a mean square error of 209607 and a precision of 52.6% with a Spearman correlation coefficient of 0.496. [8].

**Perkuhn M, Stavrinou P, Thiele F et al (2018)** In order to compare a deep learning-based automatic glioblastoma tumour segmentation algorithm to a ground truth, manual expert segmentation, and to assess the quality of the segmentation results across heterogeneous acquisition protocols of routinely acquired clinical magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) examinations from multiple centers, this study had two main objectives. We used preoperative MRI scans (T1, T2, FLAIR, and CE T1) from 15 different institutions to gather data on 64 patients with a primary diagnosis of GB. A deep learning model built on Deep Medic, a multilayer, multistate convolutional neural network for detecting and segmenting tumour compartments, was used to process all images. The outcomes of automatic and manual segmentation were compared for the total tumour, necrosis, and CE tumour. One hundred percent of the time, the entire tumour and CE tumour sections were accurately identified; ninety-one percent of the time, necrosis was properly identified. An interrater variability-comparable level of segmentation accuracy was attained for both the total tumour (mean DSC,  $0.86 \pm 0.09$ ) and the CE tumour (DSC,  $0.78 \pm 0.015$ ). Tumor necrosis had a DSC of  $0.62 \pm 0.30$ . There were no relationships between the resolution and the segmentation accuracy of the individual tumour compartments, for example, in our experiments. The quality of automatic segmentation was shown to be unrelated to the volume of interest attributes, as was also discovered (surface-to-volume ratio and volume). Based on routine clinical data, it was found that the approach provided for the automatic segmentation of GB was reliable and accurate in all tumour compartments, which is comparable to interobserver variability. The clinical relevance of segmentation accuracy increases for necrotic compartments should guide future investigation. Our proposed approach is a viable building block for automatic tumour segmentation to enable radiologists or neurosurgeons in the preoperative reading of GB MRI images and the identification or classification of primary GB.[9].

**Arunachalam M, Royappan Savarimuthu S (2017)** Tumor detection in brain images is a challenging undertaking since abnormal and normal regions look alike. An automatic detection and segmentation of brain tumours is proposed in this research. Classification and improvement are part of the system's planned components. Shift-invariant shearlet transform (SIST) is employed to improve the brain imaging. For the multiresolution transform, the spatial domain augmented image is transformed into a multiresolution image using the non subsampled contourlet transform (NSCT). The texture features from the GLCM, Gabor, and DWT are extracted using the estimated subband of the NSCT transformed picture to extract texture characteristics. Using feed forward back propagation neural networks, these extracted features are trained and classed as either normal or glioblastoma brain images. Classified glioblastoma brain images are then processed using K-means clustering to isolate the tumor's location. The proposed approach has a sensitivity of 89.7 percent, a specificity of 99.9 percent, and an accuracy of 99.8 percent. [10].

**Hasan SMK, Linte CA (2018)** Despite the availability of current medical image processing technologies, detecting and segmenting brain cancers from MRI scans remains a difficult undertaking. Even glioblastoma can still be diagnosed via manual segmentation by neuroradiologists. Due to the low precision and accuracy of this method and the time it takes to complete a task, more robust and automated approaches are required. U-Net deep convolutional neural networks have been utilised extensively in the segmentation of biomedical images. Although the BRATS 2015 dataset proved that this model was able to produce desirable results, the output only showed limited accuracy and robustness in a number of scenarios, despite the use of a pixel-wise segmentation map of the input picture as an auto-encoder. Our goal was to make the U-net model more robust for tumour segmentation by replacing the de-convolution component with an up-sampled version of the Nearest-Neighbor method and using an elastic transformation for data augmentation on the training dataset. BRATS 2017 MR dataset from the MICCAI 2017 grand challenge was used to train the proposed Nearest-Neighbor Re-sampling Based Elastic-Transformed (NNRET) U-net Deep CNN framework. Based on the Dice similarity coefficient (DSC) and Intersection over Union (IoU) performance metrics, the framework was tested on 146 patients and outperformed the traditional U-net model.[11].

Sundararajan R SS, Venkatesh S, Jeya Pandian M (2019) Deep learning has shown promising results in evaluating photos of cancer tumors, but the lack of big annotated datasets diminishes its significance. Image segmentation and classification are used in the proposed medical image processing system. Medical professionals in the field will use it. The semantic level classification and segmentation network approaches are used to classify the Brain tumour images. This includes the use of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) to learn about training and testing data (CNN). When compared to the segmentation-based classifier currently in use, the CNN-based classifier yields better detection accuracy. Using a deep convolutional neural network, the automated system will assist the medical picture analyst in identifying a patient's brain tumour in this project (CNN). An MRI scan of the brain was used to get this image. Network classification is performed using data from a tumor-free patient's imaging collection. Using a collection of tumour-infected pictures, a patient's image is compared to the dataset to distinguish between a non-tumorous sample, a lower grade glioma, and a glioblastoma. Images are segmented using the Watershed method and classified using the CNN. At this point, the system will determine whether or not the image of a patient's brain has any tumor-affected areas and then identify the tumor-affected regions and distinguish between low-grade glioma and glioblastoma [12].

**Albadawy EA, Saha A, Mazurowski MA (2018)** The use of convolutional neural networks (CNNs) to segment brain tumors is common. Cross-institutional training has been shown to improve the performance of CNNs. The Cancer Imaging Archive dataset had 44 glioblastoma (GBM) patients from two different institutes. To provide a foundation of truth, the photos were manually annotated by outlining each tumour component. It was necessary to train three CNNs for each patient: (a) one trained using data from the same institution that was used in the test data, (b) one trained using the other institution and (c) one trained utilizing data from both institutions. Dice similarity coefficients and Average Hausdorff indices were used to evaluate the performance of the trained models. Automatic segmentation and the ground truth. The effectiveness of various approaches was evaluated through the use of a 10-fold cross-validation scheme. After training the model on data from a different institution, the model's performance considerably dropped (P less than 0.0001) compared to training the model on data from the same institution (dice coefficients: 0.680.19 and 0.590.19, respectively). The tendency of segmentation of the tumour and its components continued. In a multi-institutional scenario, the performance of

CNNs is strongly influenced by the data used for training. Understanding the underlying causes of this phenomenon necessitates additional in-depth research [13].

**Chang J, Zhang L, Gu N et al (2019)** Glioblastomas, the most fatal type of brain tumour, are frequently diagnosed and evaluated by doctors using magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). Convolutional neural networks (CNN) have been used in autonomous brain tumour segmentation and have been proven helpful and efficient, although standard one-path CNN architecture with convolutional layers and max pooling layers has limited receptive fields that represent the local context. An old-school CNN mentality can overlook global context information that could be valuable to viewers. A two-pathway model with separate average and maximum pooling layers is presented in this work. The non-linearity dimensions of the input data are added to the input layers by using  $1 \times 1$  kernels. Last but not least, in order to improve prediction accuracy, we combine the CNN architecture with a fully connected CRF(FCRF) model as a mixed model. The mixture model enhanced segmentation and labelling precision in our tests [14].

Havaei M, Davy A, Warde-Farley D et al (2017) In this research, we offer a neural network-based technique for automatically segmenting brain tumours (DNNs). Glioblastomas (both low and high grade) seen in MR images are tailored to the proposed networks. Tumors of this type can appear anywhere in the brain, and their size, shape, and contrast are virtually limitless. For these reasons, we're looking at a machine learning solution that makes use of a flexible, high-capacity DNN while still being incredibly efficient. Model options that we've found essential to achieving competitive performance are discussed in this section. Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), which are DNNs tailored to image data, are the focus of our research. It is our intention to show how a new CNN architecture can be applied to computer vision. At the same time, our CNN makes use of both local and more global contextual features. The final layer of our networks is a convolutional implementation of a fully connected layer, which provides for a 40-fold speed increase over typical CNN implementations. To address the issue of tumour label imbalance, we offer a two-phase training technique. A cascade architecture is also investigated, in which the output of a basic CNN is used as an extra source of information by an additional CNN. On the basis of the 2013 BRATS test data, our architecture outperforms the existing state of the art and is 30 times faster than it was previously reported. [15].

### III. PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

When Image segmentation, a critical component of image processing, plays a vital role in various applications, including medical imaging and computer vision. It facilitates the extraction and analysis of specific objects from an image, supporting intermediate vision tasks like silhouettes and object tracking, as well as advanced applications such as recognition and image indexing. Despite advancements, fully automatic segmentation remains elusive, with no guaranteed outcomes. This has led to a preference for semi-automatic systems, allowing users to tackle complex segmentation tasks with minimal effort.

Recent developments have introduced potent interactive algorithms, particularly those based on graph cuts and random walks, offering significant improvements in segmentation quality and user efficiency. Among these, a new interactive cellular automaton-based segmentation method shows promise, capable of handling complex segmentation tasks, supporting multi-label segments, and allowing for parallel implementation. This method is fully interactive, providing users with control over the segmentation process, enabling real-time adjustments and corrections.

Interactive tools like MagicWall and Smart Paint illustrate the evolution of segmentation techniques. MagicWall segments based on color statistics, while Smart Paint employs a hierarchical approach for region-based segmentation, enhancing user interaction. Similarly, Smart Scissors and Graph Cut algorithms demonstrate the power of boundary-based and combinatorial optimization techniques in segmentation, respectively.

GrabCut, an extension of Graph Cut, iteratively refines segmentation by incorporating user inputs, demonstrating the potential for user-guided adjustments in complex segmentation scenarios. In medical imaging, where the characteristics of images significantly differ from standard images, specialized segmentation methods are crucial. Techniques like Watershed transformations and the Random Walker algorithm are tailored to address the unique challenges of medical image segmentation, offering robust solutions against weak boundaries and enabling multi-label segmentation.



Interactive Region Growth represents a classic approach, where user input directly influences the growth of segmented regions, highlighting the significance of user interaction in refining segmentation results. This method, along with the proposed cellular automaton-based approach, underscores the shift towards more interactive and user-controlled segmentation processes.

The cellular automaton-based method stands out for its adaptability and efficiency, supporting multi-labelling and allowing users to influence segmentation dynamically. It exemplifies the trend towards methods that not only automate segmentation but also integrate user feedback to enhance accuracy and adaptability. Ulam and von Neumann introduced Technical Basic cellular automata by Ulam and von Neumann. As a result, the models of many dynamic systems, including image denotification and edge detection are employed in various applications. A mobile device is supported by a grid of  $p \in P \subseteq Z^m$ , generally a discrete algorithm in time and space. A (bidirectional, deterministic) cellular automaton is threefold:

$$T = (H, M, \delta)$$

where  $H$  is an unspecific *state set*,

$M$  is the neighbourhood system, and

$\delta: H^M = H$  (rule). In accordance with neighbourhood state  $t$  at the time of the preceding step  $t$ , this function calculates cell status in the time step of  $t+1$ .

Where  $M$  are the von Neumann and Moore neighbourhoods:

$$M(p) = \{q \in Z^m: \|p - q\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^m |p_i - q_i| = 1\}; \text{ (Von)} \quad (4.1)$$

$$M(p) = \{q \in Z^m: \|p - q\|_\infty = \max_{i=1,m} |p_i - q_i| = 1\}; \text{ (Moore)} \quad (4.2)$$

The cell state  $H_p$  is triplet  $(l_p, \theta_p, C_p)$  where

$l_p$  = label of the current cell,

$\theta_p$  = strength of current cell and cell feature vector

$C_p$ , = cell feature vector of defined image. Also assume that  $\theta_p \in [0,1]$

As digital image is array of  $k \times m$  pixels in two dimensional. So unlabelled image with cellular automaton in which cellular space  $P$  is defined by the  $k \times m$  array with initial states for  $\forall p \in P$  are set to:

$$l_p = 0, \theta_p = 0, C_p = RGB_p;$$

where  $RGB_p$  is the three-dimensional vector of pixel's  $p$  color in RGB space.

The ultimate objective is to assign a potential  $K$  label to each pixel. The seed cell labels are established properly when the user initiates the segmentation by defining the segmentation seeds, while their strength is determined by the strength of the seed. This establishes the cellular automaton's initial state.

Updating iteration  $t+1$  having cell labels  $l_p^{t+1}$  and strengths  $\theta_p^{t+1}$  as follows:

**Code 1** Code 1 Automata evolution rule

```
// For each cell.....
for  $\forall p \in P$ 
// Copy previous state
 $l_p^{t+1} = l_p^t$ ;
 $\theta_p^{t+1} = \theta_p^t$ ;
// neighbors try to attack current cell
for  $\forall q \in N(p)$ 
if  $g(\|\vec{C}_p - \vec{C}_q\|_2) \cdot \theta_q^t > \theta_p^t$ 
 $l_p^{t+1} = l_q^t$ 
 $\theta_p^{t+1} = g(\|\vec{C}_p - \vec{C}_q\|_2) \cdot \theta_q^t$ 
end if
```

end for  
end for  
where  $g$  is a monotonous decreasing function bounded to  $[0,1]$ ,

$$g(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{\max \|\vec{C}\|_2};$$

We can utilise biological metaphor to provide an intuitive explanation for the above pseudocode. Pixel-labeling can be treated as the growth and the fight for  $K$  bacterial dominance. The bacteria begin to spread out and strive to occupy the entire image from the seed pixels. Therefore, we termed the "**Grow Cut**" approach. The rules of development and competition in bacteria are obvious: every cell strives to 'assault' its neighbours at every discrete time step. The assault force is determined by the cell strength of the attacker, the distance, and the distance between the  $C_q$  and  $C_p$  functional vector of the attacker and of the defender. The defending cell is 'conquered' and its label and strength are modified if the assault is stronger than defensive strength. The upshot is that the most powerful germs occupy the nearby locations and are gradually being disseminated across the image. The process proceeds until automatically converges into a stability in which cell states change.

The basic arrangement is fairly simple and yet may be segmented with excellence. The resulting segment limit can, however, be jagged in some images. If it's a problem to collect tiny detail from the border (i.e. in healthcare applications), it can be acceptable or even necessary but it can be an undesired artefact to edit a general high resolution image graph. We suggest an expansion of the automata to attain a smoother limit.

Two additional conditions modify the local transition rule. First of all, the cell, which has too many enemies, is not able to assault its neighbours by foes ( $p$ ) as T1 is. The second: the enemy's cell ( $p$ ) — T2 — is forced into the weakest enemy, irrespective of the strength of the cell. The number of the enemies shall be

$$enemies^t(p) = \max_{l=1,k} \left( \sum_{q \in N(p), l_q^l \neq l_p^t} 1 \right)$$

This is the most encountered segmentation job in image processing. All of the terms above are also true for the labels  $K > 2$ .

This is done with 'object' and 'background' pins. The initial labels and intensities of each seed pixel are defined by every paint stroke of the brush. The automatic evolution begins when the initial seeds are set. The first, unfulfilled user labelling is typically enough to automatically finish the entire segmentation, but never always. During the calculation of the cell labels, the user can monitor progress and, if necessary, correct and steer the labelling process interactively.

With each paint stroke the states of the pixels underneath change with automatic development changes. This approach permits regions of interest to be extracted by means of simple mouse strokes from complicated backdrops. Note that it is not only possible to alter this after the segmentation is completed but also in the centre of the segmentation calculation. The fact that seeds do not necessarily provide hard segmentation restrictions is a major difference from approaches based on graph cutting. In other words, user brush strokes do not just need to designate the areas of firm background, but can instead continually alter the pixels, for example "more foreground" or "a bit more background."

In summary, image segmentation has evolved from simple automatic methods to sophisticated interactive systems that blend algorithmic precision with user control. These advancements facilitate more accurate, efficient, and user-friendly segmentation, essential for the diverse and growing demands of image processing applications.

#### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The research focuses on refining the image segmentation process through an enhanced GrowCut algorithm, implemented in MATLAB with a graphical user interface. This study particularly examines the segmentation of flower images against various backgrounds, showcasing the algorithm's applicability in diverse scenarios. The methodology unfolds through key steps: selecting the input image, designating foreground and background pixels, creating label images, and executing the segmentation using the improved Grow Cut algorithm.

**Database and Implementation:** Utilizing a database of flower images set against different backgrounds, the study demonstrates the segmentation process through a series of figures, illustrating each step from input selection to the final segmented output. This process is replicated across images with varying complexity levels to evaluate the algorithm's robustness.

**Algorithmic Process:** The segmentation journey begins with the user defining object (foreground) and background seeds using a color-based watershed method, enhancing the initial segmentation. Subsequently, these regions are refined through the Grow Cut algorithm, incorporating an innovative neighborhood system for cellular automata, leading to automatic edge correction. This step is pivotal in reducing user interaction time and enhancing boundary precision.

**Mathematical Framework:** The research delves into the mathematical underpinnings of the segmentation process, detailing the neighborhood systems (von Neumann and Moore) and defining the cellular state with labels, strengths, and functional vectors. The initial states for unlabeled and seed pixels are meticulously set, guiding the algorithm's progression.

**Comparative Analysis:** A critical component of the research is the comparative analysis, contrasting the improved Grow Cut with traditional methods. This comparison is quantified in terms of execution time, precision, recall, and the time taken for various approaches, including ground-truth and conventional scribbles. The results underscore the efficiency and effectiveness of the enhanced Grow Cut, particularly when juxtaposed with the original algorithm and other existing methods.

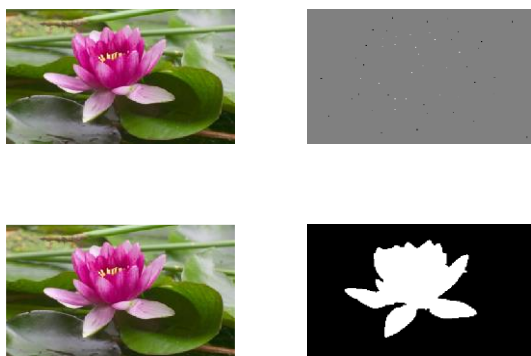


Figure 4. Output of Segmentation Using Improved Grow Cut Algorithm



Figure 5 Output of Segmentation of Complex Backgrounds

**Experimental Results:** The results highlight the enhanced Grow Cut algorithm's superiority in speed and accuracy. Tables detailing performance metrics—execution times and precision-recall values—

demonstrate the algorithm's advantages over its predecessors. Specifically, the proposed method shows significant time reductions and improved accuracy, evident in the segmentation of images with complex backgrounds.

**Conclusion and Impact:** The research concludes that the improved Grow Cut algorithm marks a significant advancement in interactive image segmentation. By integrating color-based watershed partitioning and an innovative cellular automata approach, the algorithm achieves finer segmentation with minimal user intervention. The experimental results, particularly in the context of complex background images, affirm the method's potential to enhance various applications in image processing, offering a promising direction for future investigations in the domain.

Table 1  
Comparison with Existing Work

| Image Number | Original Grow Cut | Proposed method without edge correction | Proposed method edge correction |
|--------------|-------------------|---|---------------------------------|
| 1)           | 18.953 s          | 0.266 s                                 | 0.516 s                         |
| 2)           | 18.828 s          | 0.234 s                                 | 0.547 s                         |
| 3)           | 13.567 s          | 0.187 s                                 | 0.515 s                         |
| 4)           | 14.694 s          | 0.203 s                                 | 0.469 s                         |

Table 2  
Precision, Recall and Time

|  | Prec. | Recall | Time     |
|--|-------|--------|----------|
| Ground-truth                                     | —     | —      | ~ 3600 s |
| Conventional scribbles (after the 1st iteration) | 85%   | 76%    | 2389 s   |
| Bounding box by sphere (after 3 iterations)      | 92%   | 90%    | 251 s    |
| Label transfer by SIFT flow (after 3 iterations) | 88%   | 92%    | 1019 s   |

This research proposes a novel interactive image segmentation algorithm based on the Grow Cut of two different scale graphs. Watershed algorithm based on color information has been used to partition the image into a lot of different regions which will be the cells of the cellular automata. Then the Grow Cut algorithm is performed on this region-scale graph. Finally edge correction based on Grow Cut of pixel-scale graph is used on the boundary of the segmentation result. Comparative studies with the Grow Cut methods have been done and experimental results demonstrated that the proposed method outperforms Grow Cut method both on running time and correctness of segmentation.



## V. CONCLUSIONS

The research embarked on refining the image segmentation process by introducing an enhanced GrowCut algorithm, skillfully implemented in MATLAB with an intuitive graphical user interface. Focusing on flower images set against varying backgrounds, the study meticulously demonstrated the algorithm's versatility and effectiveness across different scenarios. The methodological approach was systematic, encompassing the selection of input images, designation of foreground and background pixels, creation of label images, and the application of the improved GrowCut algorithm for segmentation. The database comprised a diverse collection of flower images, each set against backgrounds of varying complexity, serving as a testbed to showcase the algorithm's adaptability and robustness. Through a series of illustrative figures, the study detailed every phase of the segmentation process, from initial image selection to the final segmented output, offering a clear visualization of the algorithm's performance across different image types. The segmentation process initiated with users defining object and background seeds using a color-based watershed method, which significantly enhanced the initial segmentation quality. This was followed by the application of the GrowCut algorithm, which introduced a novel neighborhood system for cellular automata, culminating in automatic edge correction. This innovative step was crucial in minimizing user interaction time while improving the precision of segmentation boundaries. Delving into the mathematical foundations, the research elaborated on the neighborhood systems employed (von Neumann and Moore) and elucidated the cellular state's composition, comprising labels, strengths, and functional vectors. The meticulous setting of initial states for unlabelled and seed pixels was instrumental in steering the algorithm's course, showcasing the depth of thought invested in the algorithm's design. A pivotal element of the study was the comparative analysis, where the enhanced GrowCut algorithm was juxtaposed with traditional methods. This comparison, articulated through execution times, precision, recall, and time metrics for various approaches, highlighted the enhanced GrowCut's superior efficiency and effectiveness. The results, particularly when compared with the original GrowCut and other conventional methods, underscored the improvements in speed and segmentation accuracy achieved by the proposed algorithm. Experimental outcomes further emphasized the algorithm's supremacy in terms of speed and accuracy. Performance metrics, presented in detailed tables, illustrated the algorithm's edge over its predecessors. Notably, the proposed method showcased significant reductions in execution time and enhancements in accuracy, particularly in segmenting images with complex backgrounds. The culmination of this research underscored a significant leap in interactive image segmentation. By amalgamating color-based watershed partitioning with an advanced cellular automata framework, the enhanced GrowCut algorithm delivered refined segmentation results, necessitating minimal user intervention. The empirical findings, especially concerning complex background images, attested to the algorithm's potential to augment various image processing applications, heralding a promising avenue for future exploration in the field. In essence, the study not only presented a novel algorithmic contribution to image segmentation but also laid down a comprehensive framework for evaluating segmentation effectiveness across diverse scenarios. The profound impact of this research is anticipated to extend beyond academic realms, influencing practical applications in image processing, medical imaging, and beyond, paving the way for more intuitive, efficient, and accurate image segmentation solutions in the future.

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