

A Comparative Study of Deep Learning Approaches for Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis Super-Resolution Image Classification

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Abstract

Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis is a fatal degenerative neurological disease known as motor neuron disease. According to research, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis affects nerve cells related to movement in the brain and spinal cord, leading to the death of motor neurons, making the brain unable to control muscle movement, and resulting in a significant loss of motor nerve cells, leading to muscle atrophy. In the early stages of ALS, symptoms are mild, often go unnoticed, and can easily be confused with other diseases. Patients may only feel symptoms such as weakness, convulsions, and fatigue, gradually develop muscle atrophy all over the body, difficulty swallowing, and finally die of respiratory failure. TDP-43 is a DNA/RNA binding protein typically located in the nucleus regulating various steps of RNA metabolism. Meanwhile, TDP-43 is the most prominent pathological protein in the characteristics of ALS patients.[1] TDP-43 is depleted in the nucleus in nearly all ALS cases but accumulates in the cytoplasm.

Deep learning is learning the internal laws and representation levels of sample data. The information obtained from these learning processes can significantly help interpret data such as text, images, and sounds. Its goal is to enable machines to analyze and learn like humans and recognize data. Additionally, super-resolution microscopy can be used to observe the conformation of proteins in biological samples, thereby gaining insight into the structure and assembly mechanism of TDP-43 aggregates.

This project aims to use super-resolution images for machine learning to build a model for classifying ALS patients from non-ALS patients. At the same time, multiple neural network models are used for training and then compared to select the model with the highest accuracy.

Keywords: TDP-43, DNA/RNA, Amyotrophic, Deep Learning Approaches, ALS patients

Acknowledgments

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the research had gone. So, after I had recovered, I could keep up with the progress quickly. I am grateful for their encouragement, support, and friendship.

At the same time, I am very grateful to my parents for the motivation, patience, care, and love they have given me throughout my education and life journey. I would also like to thank my friends for cheering me on when I was at a low point. With all of them, this thesis was possible.

Finally, I thank all those who have helped me directly or indirectly to complete my thesis. I sincerely wish you all the best and happiness in everything you do.

Introduction

1.1 Background

Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) is a fatal degenerative neurological disease caused by the loss of motor neurons in the brain and spinal cord, and most patients die within 2-4 years. Early symptoms are usually mild and can be easily confused with other diseases. Patients may experience only a few symptoms, such as

weakness, throbbing, and fatigue, but this soon leads to progressive weakness and atrophy of the muscles of the limbs, trunk, chest, and abdomen, which affects movement, communication, swallowing, and respiratory function and eventually leads to death.[2] There are two types of symptoms: I: limb onset: the symptoms begin with progressive atrophy and weakness of the muscles of the limbs and progress to respiratory failure; II: medullary onset: the symptoms start with difficulty in swallowing and speaking and progress to respiratory failure.

The cause of ALS is still unknown.[3] Approximately 20% of cases show a genetic link to the onset of the disease. At the same time, environmental factors (e.g., heavy metal poisoning), accumulation of neurotoxic substances (e.g., glutamate), damage to nerve cell membranes by free radicals, and deficiency of nerve growth factor are thought to be the leading causes of motor neuron damage. [4] [5] [6] For an early diagnosis of ALS, tests such as electromyography, nerve conduction velocity testing, and even muscle biopsy are required in addition to the neurological clinical examination.[7]

More than three decades have passed since the discovery of the first ALS causative gene, and researchers continue to discover new ALS causative genes and intracellular manifestations. Previous studies have confirmed the importance of TDP-43 in the pathogenesis of ALS and demonstrated that defects in TARDBP are sufficient to cause TDP-43 proteinopathy.[8] [9] At the same time, TDP-43 is considered the most distinct pathological

protein in ALS features. This is because, in most cases of ALS, TDP-43 is depleted in the nucleus and forms aggregates in the cytoplasm.[2]

Fortunately, super-resolution microscopy can be used to observe the conformation of proteins in biological samples.[10] Optical imaging is a powerful tool for gaining insight into the structure and assembly mechanisms of TDP-43 aggregates. The research team has obtained an image dataset from the team at the University of Edinburgh, collected from post-mortem tissues of ALS patients. This work intends to apply different machine-learning techniques to extend the understanding of TDP-43 aggregates at the individual level.

Deep learning is a new research direction in the field of machine learning. Its ultimate goal is to enable machines to have the same analytical learning capabilities as humans, capable of recognizing data such as text, images, and sounds. Deep learning is a complex machine learning algorithm that has achieved many results in many fields. Deep learning enables machines to mimic human activities such as seeing, hearing, and thinking, solving many complex pattern recognition challenges. With the explosion of deep learning, the latest deep learning algorithms have far surpassed traditional machine learning algorithms' prediction and classification accuracy.[11] Instead of manually extracting features, deep learning sifts through the data and automatically extracts high-dimensional features.

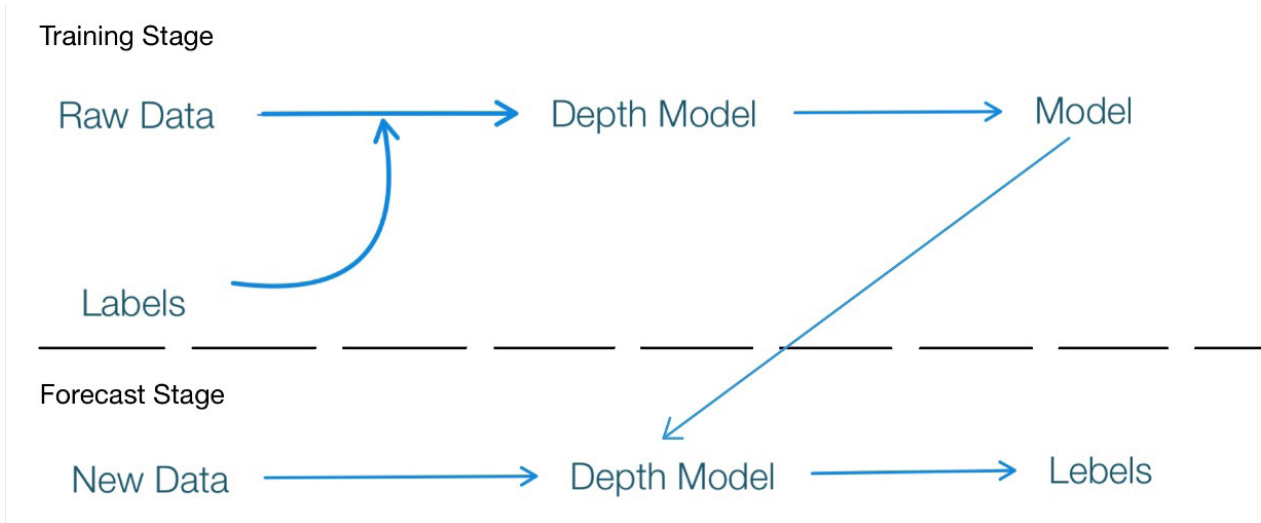


Figure 1 Deep Learning Flowchart

Deep learning has dramatically expanded the scope of the field of artificial intelligence and is widely used in

biomedicine for preventive diagnosis and pathology prediction.[12]

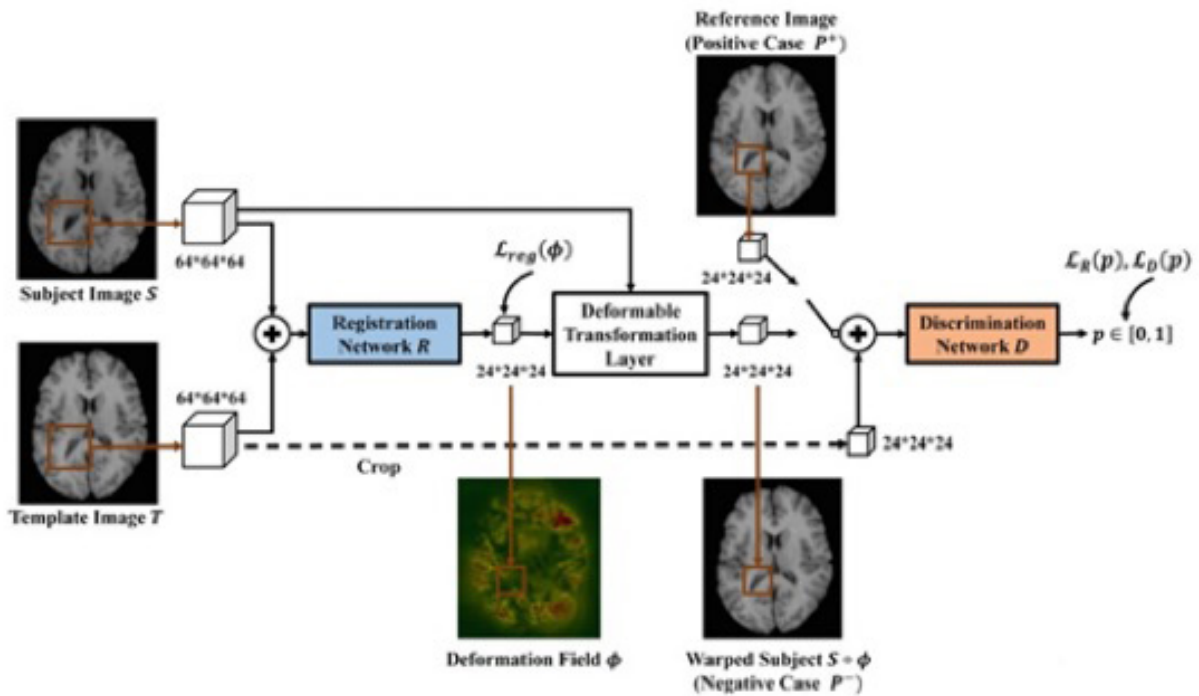


Figure 2. Example of the application of deep learning to medical images

A convolutional neural network (CNN) is a deep learning mode often used to analyze images. The organization of the visual cortex of animals inspired the emergence of CNN. Individual cortical neurons respond to stimuli only

in restricted areas of the visual field called receptive fields, and the receptive fields of different neurons partially overlap, allowing them to cover the entire visual field.

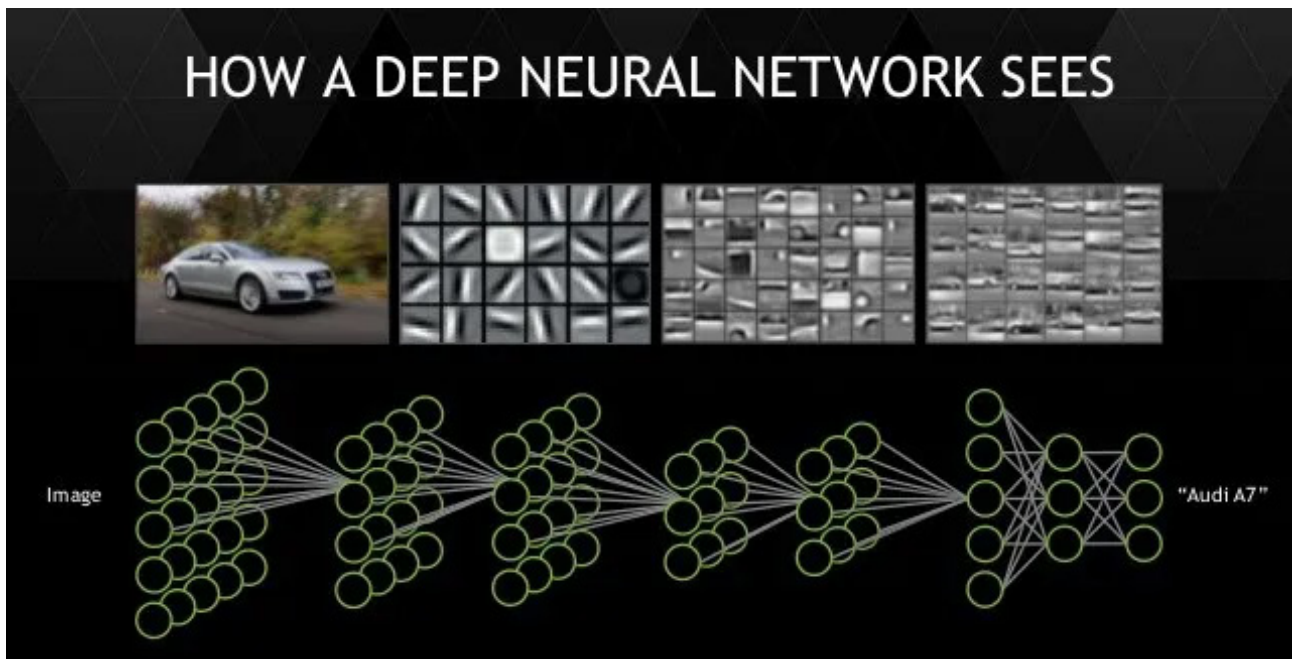
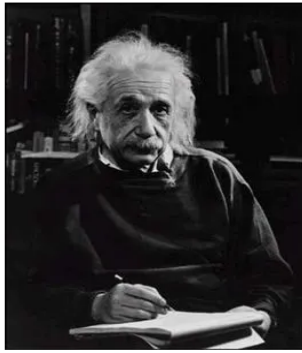


Figure 3. How a deep neural network sees

Computer Vision



What we see

0	3	2	5	4	7	6	9	8
3	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	1	0	3	2	5	4	7	6
5	2	3	0	1	2	3	4	5
4	3	2	1	0	3	2	5	4
7	4	5	2	3	0	1	2	3
6	5	4	3	2	1	0	3	2
9	6	7	4	5	2	3	0	1
8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

What a computer sees

Figure 4. Computer Vision and Human Vision

The convolutional neural network architecture is very similar to the regular artificial neural network architecture, especially in the last layer of the network, which is fully

connected. Also, notice that convolutional neural networks are able to accept multiple feature maps as input instead of vectors.

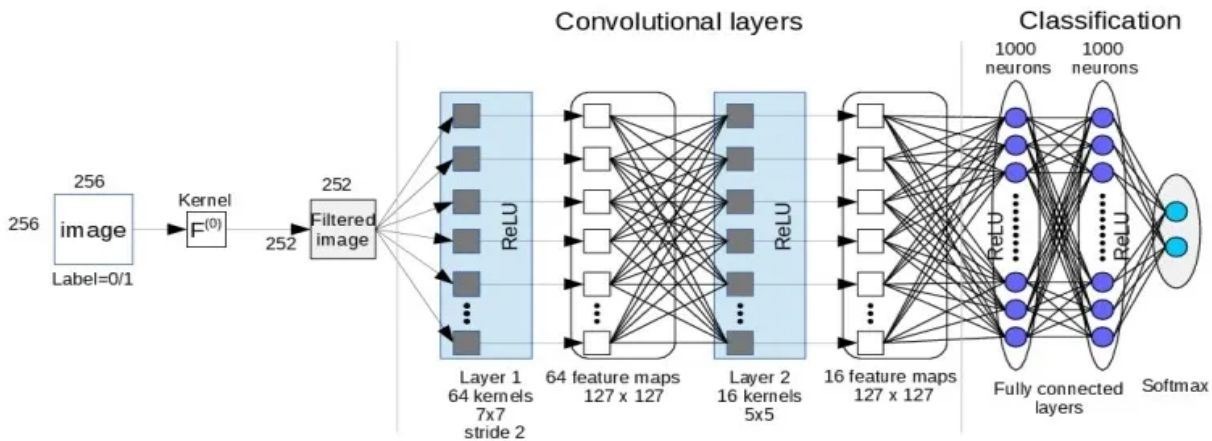


Figure 5. Convolutional Neural Network Architecture

In the era of big data, unlike traditional methods, CNN is able to exploit large amounts of data to achieve promising results. Therefore, many applications are emerging one after another. This type of network can be used not only for two-dimensional image processing but also for one-dimensional and multi-dimensional image processing scenarios.[13]

1.2 Study Questions

This project aims to use super-resolution images for deep learning to build models that can classify ALS patients

from healthy subjects. Multiple CNN models are used and then compared to select the model with the highest accuracy.

1.3 Biological Rational

TDP-43 is an essential RNA-binding protein involved in regulating RNA shearing, maturation, processing, transport, translational, and degradation steps in cells, and mutations in its gene can trigger ALS. TDP-43 is mainly diffusely distributed in the nucleus in normal cells but can shuttle into the cytoplasm and interact with other proteins

to form multiple ribonucleoprotein complexes.[14]

TDP-43 normally prevents neuronal cells from using cryptic exon, an unnecessary fragment of genetic material, to synthesize proteins. In disease states, the formation of abnormal protein aggregates in the cytoplasm of TDP-43 is thought to be closely associated with the development of ALS. These abnormal protein aggregates malfunction TDP-43 and stop the cells from using the cryptic exon, which triggers a series of responses that result in neuronal cell death.[15]

The Edinburgh Cognitive and Behavioural ALS Screen (ECAS) tests cognitive and behavioral functioning in people with ALS. Consists of four sub-sections, namely language, naming, multitasking, and prefrontal function, each including multiple subtests. The ECAS is widely used to assess people with ALS's cognitive and behavioral functioning and has become a commonly used assessment tool.[16]

The advantages of the ECAS are that it covers a wide range of cognitive and behavioral functions, is easy to administer, takes only 20-30 minutes, and can be performed in an outpatient or home setting. In addition, the ECAS provides a rigorous standardized scoring method that allows for accurate assessment of a patient's functional status and tracking of changes.

One of the disadvantages of the ECAS is that it cannot be used to assess other neurological disorders or cognitive impairments, as it is specifically designed for use in patients with ALS. In addition, using the ECAS requires a trained professional to perform the testing and scoring, which may require additional time and resources.[17]

The ECAS is a valid and useful assessment tool for assessing cognitive and behavioral functioning in ALS patients. It has become a commonly used tool in ALS research and clinical practice.

1.4 Hypothesis

Assuming that the research problem is a binary classification problem, the predicted values are limited to 0 and 1. We can build an ALS classifier. At this time, $x(i)$ is the feature extracted from the intracellular super-resolution image of the ALS patient, and y is 1 to indicate that it is an ALS patient; otherwise, it indicates that it is not an ALS patient. Additionally, 0 is also called the healthy control, and one is called the ALS patients. $y(i)$ is also called the label of sample i .

1.5 Approach

In this study, we aimed to evaluate the performance of different deep learning models in classifying super-resolution images of ALS patients and to select the model with better performance.

First, we use super-resolution techniques to pre-process the images to improve their quality. We use Generative Adversarial Networks (GAN) to increase the resolution of the images to make them more suitable for analysis. This adversarial training process allows the generator network to generate high-quality images that are difficult to distinguish from real images.[18]

In addition, we apply data enhancement techniques such as rotation, flipping, and scaling to expand the dataset and reduce overfitting. Data augmentation is a common technique used in deep learning to increase the size and diversity of a dataset without collecting additional data. By applying data augmentation, we can improve the robustness of our models and reduce the risk of overfitting.

Next, we implemented three popular deep-learning models: VGG-16, ResNet-50, and mobile_net_v3. We pre-trained these models, allowing us to use the features they learned to fine-tune them on our ALS dataset. Transfer learning is a technique that allows us to use pre-trained models on large datasets to improve the performance of our models on smaller datasets.

For evaluation, we use metrics such as accuracy and precision to assess the performance of our models. We also conducted a comparative analysis of the models' training time, memory usage, and inference time to determine their efficiency. Training time and memory usage are important factors to consider when designing a deep learning model, as they directly affect the cost and scalability of the model. Inference time, the time required to classify a single image is important for real-time applications.

2. Methodology

2.1 Images Acquisition

As part of the research team, we aim to build deep-learning models to determine if a person has ALS by using intracellular microscopy images. Data collection is a very important step in this process. We obtained these images from a cohort assessed with the ECAS assessment, a standardized test for assessing people with ALS's cognitive and behavioral functioning. These images have been labeled and classified by specialist doctors.

After receiving these images, another team member used super-resolution processing techniques to manipulate the images to improve their resolution and clarity. This pre-processing is very important as it allows us to identify details and features in the images better, thus improving our training accuracy.

When collecting data, we focused on the diversity and representativeness of the data. We collect images from

patients of different ages, genders, stages of the disease, and severity of illness, ensuring that our models can be adapted to various conditions and variations. In addition, we collected images from several non-ALS patients as a control group to better analyze and compare the differences between different types of intracellular microscopy images. We also focus on the quality of the data. We adopted stringent quality control measures during image collection, classification, and processing to ensure the accuracy and consistency of the images. We also anonymize the images to protect patient privacy and personal information.

ALS	NO-ALS
SD003_17_crops2_r	SD008_15_crops_r
SD003_17_crops_r	SD014_13_crops2_r
SD008_13_crops2_r	SD014_13_crops_r
SD008_13_crops_r	SD021_17_crops_r
SD010_14_crops2_r	SD022_17_crops_r
SD010_14_crops_r	SD025_17_crops_r
SD014_14_crops2_r	SD034_15_crops_r
SD014_14_crops_r	SD036_17_crops2_r
SD015_16_crops_r	SD036_17_crops_r
SD016_14_crops2_r	SD041_19_crops_r
SD016_14_crops_r	SD050_19_crops_r
SD016_16_crops2_r	
SD016_16_crops_r	
SD024_18_crops2_r	
SD024_18_crops_r	
SD026_18_crops2_r	
SD026_18_crops_r	
SD027_18_crops_r	
SD030_18_crops_r	
SD031_13_crops_r	
SD032_12_crops2_r	
SD032_12_crops_r	
SD047_13_crops_r	
SD049_15_crops2_r	
SD053_16_crops2_r	
SD053_16_crops_r	
SD057_13_crops2_r	
SD057_13_crops_r	

Figure 6. The data we have for anonymous processing

After collecting the images, we split them into training and test sets. The training set was used to train the deep learning model, and the test set was used to evaluate the performance and generalization ability of the model. We also balanced the data to generate more images through image rotation, panning, and scaling to ensure an equal number of images from different categories, thus avoiding model bias and unfairness.

2.2 Image Processing

Super-resolution processing of images can help us obtain

higher quality and more detailed image information to train the machine better using deep learning and build models with higher accuracy.

2.2.1 Image Pre-processing

Pre-processing steps are necessary to prepare the intracellular microscope image for super-resolution processing. These steps include image denoising, enhancement, and smoothing. To accomplish this, various image processing algorithms can be used, including Gaussian filtering, median filtering, mean filtering, and histogram equalization. These algorithms help improve the image’s quality and reduce any unwanted noise or artifacts that could interfere with the super-resolution processing.

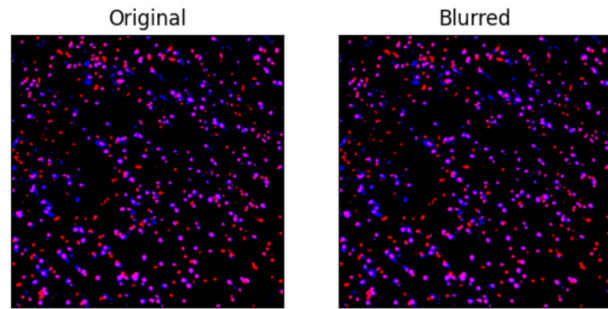


Figure 7. Example of image processing using Gaussian filtering

2.2.2 Choosing a Super-resolution Algorithm

When it comes to super-resolution processing of intracellular microscopy images, selecting the appropriate algorithm is crucial. Super-resolution algorithms can be broadly categorized into interpolation-based, frequency domain-based, and machine learning-based methods. However, machine learning-based methods, particularly deep learning algorithms such as Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) and Generative Adversarial Networks (GAN), have demonstrated superior performance in processing intracellular microscopy images. Factors such as image characteristics, processing speed, and accuracy should be considered when selecting a super-resolution algorithm. With the widespread use of deep learning algorithms, researchers can achieve high-quality super-resolution images for intracellular microscopy analysis.

2.2.3 Building the Training Set

To perform super-resolution processing of intracellular microscopy images using a machine learning-based approach, it is essential to construct a training set containing both low-resolution and high-resolution images. The low-resolution images can be obtained by down-sampling existing intracellular microscopy images.

In contrast, the high-resolution images can be synthesized by adding noise, perturbations, etc., to the low-resolution images. It is important to note that the training set's quality and diversity directly impact the model's performance and generalization ability. Therefore, the number of images, image variability, and data balance should be considered when building the training set. In addition, it is recommended to randomly split the data into training, validation, and test sets to prevent overfitting and to evaluate the model's performance accurately.

2.2.4 Training the Super-resolution Model

Techniques such as transfer learning, data augmentation, and regularization can also be used to optimize the training process further. Transfer learning involves using a pre-trained model and fine-tuning it on the new dataset

for better performance. Data augmentation involves generating additional training samples by applying random transformations to the existing images. Regularization techniques such as weight decay and dropout can also be used to prevent overfitting and improve the model's generalization ability.

It's also important to monitor the training process and adjust the hyperparameters such as learning rate, batch size, and a (number of epochs to achieve the best results. A validation set can be used to monitor the model's performance during training and prevent overfitting. Finally, the trained model can be evaluated on a separate test set to assess its performance and generalization ability.

2.3 Data Manipulation & Analysis

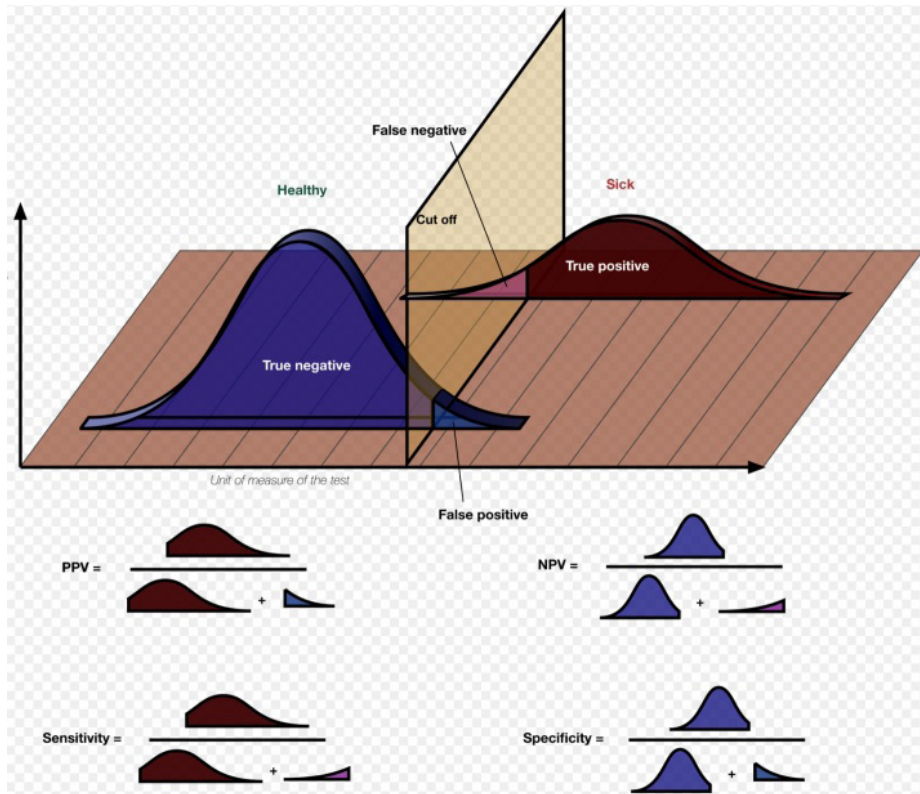


Figure 8. Diagram of Sensitivity and Specificity in Classification Problems

Sensitivity and specificity mathematically describe how accurately a test reports the presence or absence of a condition. Individuals who meet the criteria are considered “positive” rather than “negative”.

Sensitivity (True Positive Rate, True Positive Rate = TPR) refers to the probability that a test result is positive, conditional on being truly positive.

Specificity (True negative rate, True negative Rate = TNR) refers to the probability that the test result is negative based on the true negative rate.

In the experiments for this project, everyone tested either had ALS or did not have the disease. The test result can be positive (classifying the person as having ALS) or negative (classifying the person as not having the disease). Test results for each sample may or may not correspond to its actual condition. In the experiment:

True Positive (TP): The patient was correctly identified as the patient

False Positives (FP): Healthy People Misidentified as Sick

True Negative (TN): A healthy person is correctly

identified as a healthy person

False Negatives (FN): Sick people are mistakenly assumed to be healthy

After obtaining the number of true positives, false positives, true negatives, and false negatives, the sensitivity and specificity of the test can be calculated. If the sensitivity turns out to be high, the test could classify anyone with the disease as positive. On the other hand, if the specificity is high, the test may classify anyone who does not have the disease as negative.

$$sensitivity = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

$$specificity = \frac{TN}{TN + FP}$$

... [1]

... [2]

In deep learning, loss and accuracy are two important indicators used to measure the performance and accuracy of the model, respectively.

Accuracy refers to the accuracy of the model, that is, the matching degree between the model prediction and real results. Usually, we want the model's accuracy to be as high as possible. Loss refers to the gap between the predicted results of the model and the real results. Usually, the smaller the loss of the model, the better. The specific form of loss depends on the type of machine learning task.

$$accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FP + TN + FN}$$

... [3]

2.4 Experimental Procedure

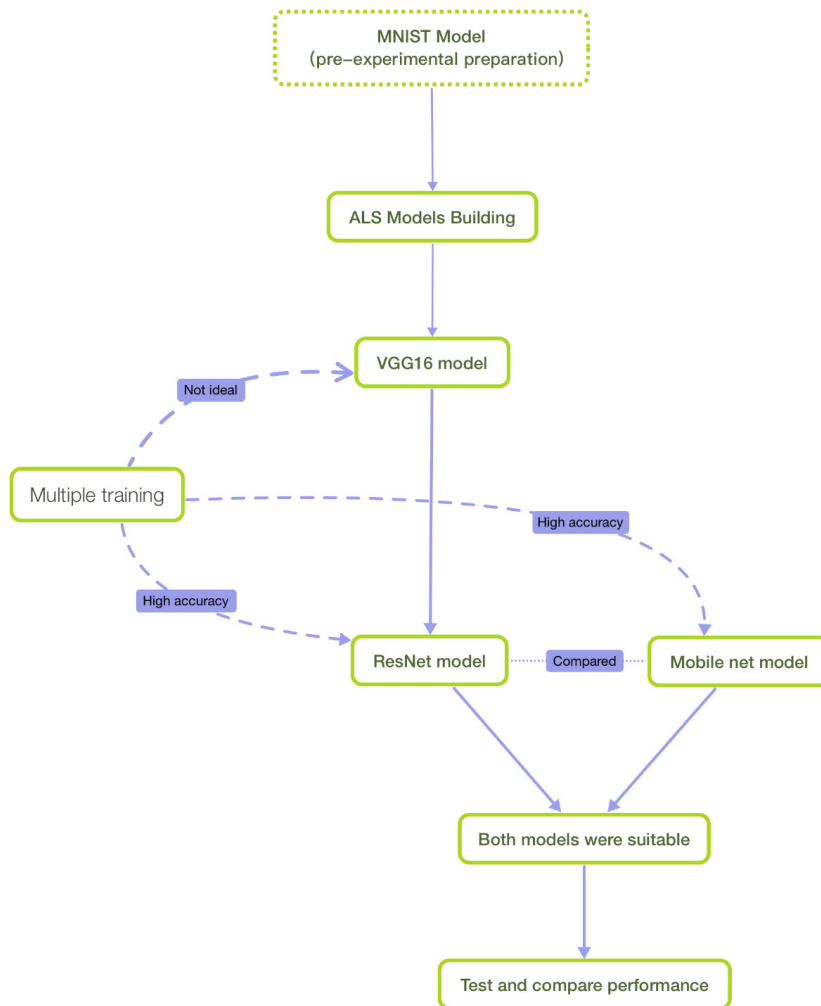


Figure 9. Experimental procedure diagram

Convolutional neural networks (CNNs) can accurately distinguish between two or more data types. Before the formal start of the experiment, we completed handwritten digit recognition experiments using the MNIST model in

CNN, which helped us to understand how the CNN model was built quickly.

For the machine to fully learn the features of the TDP-43 protein aggregates in the cells of ALS patients and

ultimately be able to distinguish the intracellular structures of ALS patients from other patients, we needed to use a CNN-based binary classification algorithm on the data.

We divided the data into two subsets, with 70% of the data used as the training set and 30% as the test set, to evaluate the performance of our models. Initially, we trained the machine using labeled sample data and the VGG16 model. However, after several tests, we found that the VGG model always gave unsatisfactory results (the accuracy was only slightly above 70%). Meanwhile, I adjusted its parameters several times to improve its accuracy, but the results still needed improvement.

Based on this situation, we switched to the ResNet network model. We learned that the ResNet network model far outperformed the VGG model in depth and performance. Through training, the accuracy of the model has improved significantly.

To compare and explore whether there are network models with higher accuracy, I also built a mobile_net_v3 model. Theoretically, v3 gave the best results on ImageNet for

the same amount of computation. Again, after several training sessions and parameter adjustments, the accuracy of the mobile net model was essentially the same as that of ResNet.

This analysis concludes that the two models obtained from training, the ResNet model and the mobile_net_v3 model, meet the requirements.

We then tested the two models using test set data and test code and found that mobile_net_v3 was more accurate than ResNet.

3. Results

This experiment uses three neural network models, namely VGG16, ResNet50, and mobile_net_v3. The training results show that, except for the low accuracy rate of VGG16, the accuracy rates of ResNet50 and mobile_net_v3 are more in line with expectations, reaching more than 95%.

Among them, the average accuracy rate of the VGG16 model is 71.32 %, and the loss value is 0.5894.

```
Epoch 1/20
2/2 [=====] - 308s 103s/step - loss: 0.6510 - accuracy: 0.6266
Epoch 2/20
2/2 [=====] - 301s 105s/step - loss: 0.6395 - accuracy: 0.6701
Epoch 3/20
2/2 [=====] - 301s 102s/step - loss: 0.6254 - accuracy: 0.6931
Epoch 4/20
2/2 [=====] - 308s 108s/step - loss: 0.6244 - accuracy: 0.7033
Epoch 5/20
2/2 [=====] - 302s 103s/step - loss: 0.6209 - accuracy: 0.7136
Epoch 6/20
2/2 [=====] - 305s 110s/step - loss: 0.6120 - accuracy: 0.7059
Epoch 7/20
2/2 [=====] - 303s 104s/step - loss: 0.5972 - accuracy: 0.7187
Epoch 8/20
2/2 [=====] - 305s 110s/step - loss: 0.6125 - accuracy: 0.6905
Epoch 9/20
2/2 [=====] - 302s 102s/step - loss: 0.6231 - accuracy: 0.7033
Epoch 10/20
2/2 [=====] - 308s 108s/step - loss: 0.6214 - accuracy: 0.7110
Epoch 11/20
2/2 [=====] - 302s 103s/step - loss: 0.6061 - accuracy: 0.7136
Epoch 12/20
2/2 [=====] - 303s 108s/step - loss: 0.6017 - accuracy: 0.7059
Epoch 13/20
2/2 [=====] - 300s 103s/step - loss: 0.6087 - accuracy: 0.7161
Epoch 14/20
2/2 [=====] - 304s 109s/step - loss: 0.6006 - accuracy: 0.7136
Epoch 15/20
2/2 [=====] - 303s 104s/step - loss: 0.6034 - accuracy: 0.7161
Epoch 16/20
2/2 [=====] - 304s 109s/step - loss: 0.5929 - accuracy: 0.7212
Epoch 17/20
2/2 [=====] - 299s 103s/step - loss: 0.5977 - accuracy: 0.7084
Epoch 18/20
2/2 [=====] - 304s 108s/step - loss: 0.6092 - accuracy: 0.7187
Epoch 19/20
2/2 [=====] - 301s 101s/step - loss: 0.5899 - accuracy: 0.7161
Epoch 20/20
2/2 [=====] - 305s 109s/step - loss: 0.5974 - accuracy: 0.7110 ↵
```

Figure 10. Example diagram of the VGG process in action (learning_rate=0.001, epoch=20, batch_size=256)

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Learning rate Batch size	0.0001	0.0005	0.001
128	0.7368	0.7161	0.7121
32	0.7161	0.7059	0.7063
16	0.7110	0.7110	0.7033

Figure 11. Test set accuracy variation for the VGG model (when epoch=20, and change the values of Learning rate and batch size)

The average accuracy rate of ResNet50 is 98.59%, and the loss value is 0.0468.

```

Epoch 1/20
24/24 [=====] - 320s 13s/step - loss: 0.6693 - accuracy: 0.7000
Epoch 2/20
24/24 [=====] - 308s 13s/step - loss: 0.5517 - accuracy: 0.7125
Epoch 3/20
24/24 [=====] - 312s 13s/step - loss: 0.4316 - accuracy: 0.7875
Epoch 4/20
24/24 [=====] - 308s 13s/step - loss: 0.3563 - accuracy: 0.8500
Epoch 5/20
24/24 [=====] - 306s 13s/step - loss: 0.3247 - accuracy: 0.8600
Epoch 6/20
24/24 [=====] - 306s 13s/step - loss: 0.2809 - accuracy: 0.8775
Epoch 7/20
24/24 [=====] - 307s 13s/step - loss: 0.2410 - accuracy: 0.9175
Epoch 8/20
24/24 [=====] - 309s 13s/step - loss: 0.2069 - accuracy: 0.9125
Epoch 9/20
24/24 [=====] - 304s 12s/step - loss: 0.1700 - accuracy: 0.9375
Epoch 10/20
24/24 [=====] - 310s 13s/step - loss: 0.1748 - accuracy: 0.9250
Epoch 11/20
24/24 [=====] - 305s 12s/step - loss: 0.1217 - accuracy: 0.9675
Epoch 12/20
24/24 [=====] - 309s 13s/step - loss: 0.1216 - accuracy: 0.9600
Epoch 13/20
24/24 [=====] - 304s 12s/step - loss: 0.0664 - accuracy: 0.9825
Epoch 14/20
24/24 [=====] - 310s 13s/step - loss: 0.0897 - accuracy: 0.9600
Epoch 15/20
24/24 [=====] - 305s 12s/step - loss: 0.0740 - accuracy: 0.9800
Epoch 16/20
24/24 [=====] - 308s 13s/step - loss: 0.0663 - accuracy: 0.9775
Epoch 17/20
24/24 [=====] - 305s 13s/step - loss: 0.0458 - accuracy: 0.9925
Epoch 18/20
24/24 [=====] - 308s 13s/step - loss: 0.0399 - accuracy: 0.9925
Epoch 19/20
24/24 [=====] - 307s 13s/step - loss: 0.0374 - accuracy: 0.9875
Epoch 20/20
24/24 [=====] - 308s 13s/step - loss: 0.0435 - accuracy: 0.9925
    
```

Figure 12. Example diagram of the ResNet process in action (learning_rate= 0.0001, epoch=20, batch_size=16)

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Learning rate \ Batch size	0.0001	0.0005	0.001
128	0.9874	0.9853	0.9789
32	0.9924	0.9901	0.9877
16	0.9925	0.9816	0.9768

Figure 13. Test set accuracy variation for the ResNet model (when epoch=20, and change the values of Learning rate and batch size)

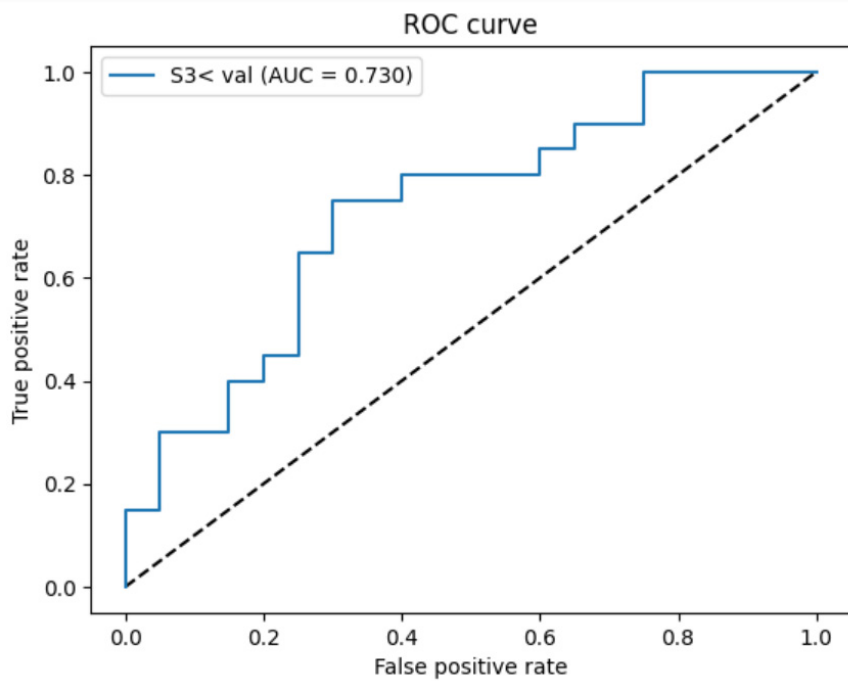


Figure 14. ROC curve of ResNet model (learning_rate= 0.0001, epoch=20, batch_size=16)

The average accuracy rate of mobile_net_v3 is 95.24%, example diagram because the training process is too long, and the loss value is 0.2522. I have yet to provide an

Learning rate \ Batch size	0.0001	0.0005	0.001
128	0.9874	0.9853	0.9789
32	0.9524	0.9524	0.9524
16	0.9925	0.9816	0.9768

Figure 15. Test set accuracy variation for the mobile_net_v3 model (when epoch=20, and change the values of Learning rate and batch size)

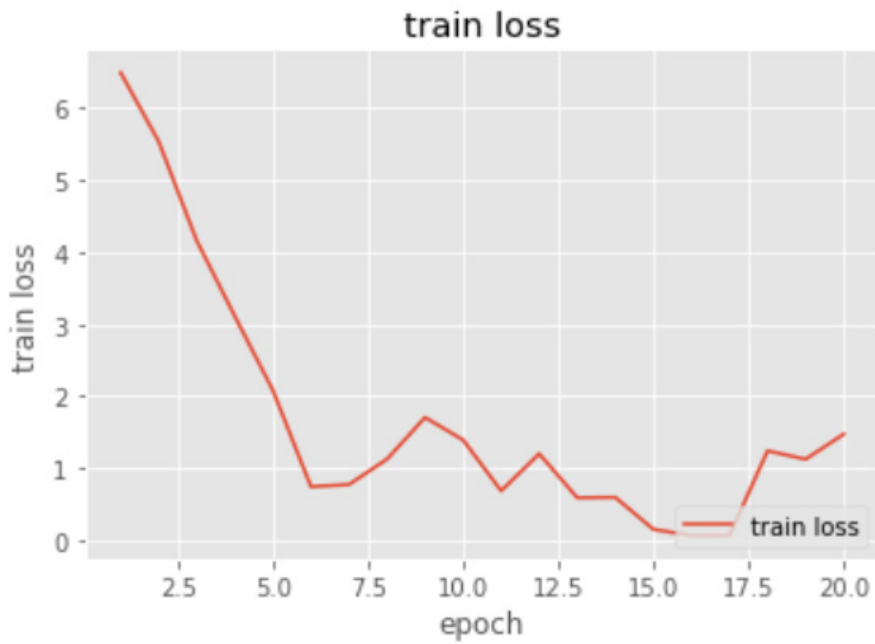


Figure 16. Train loss of mobile_net_v3 model (learning_rate= 0.001, epoch=20, batch_size=32)
When the epoch is less than 17, the overall loss trend decreases; after the epoch is greater than 17, the loss increases abnormally.

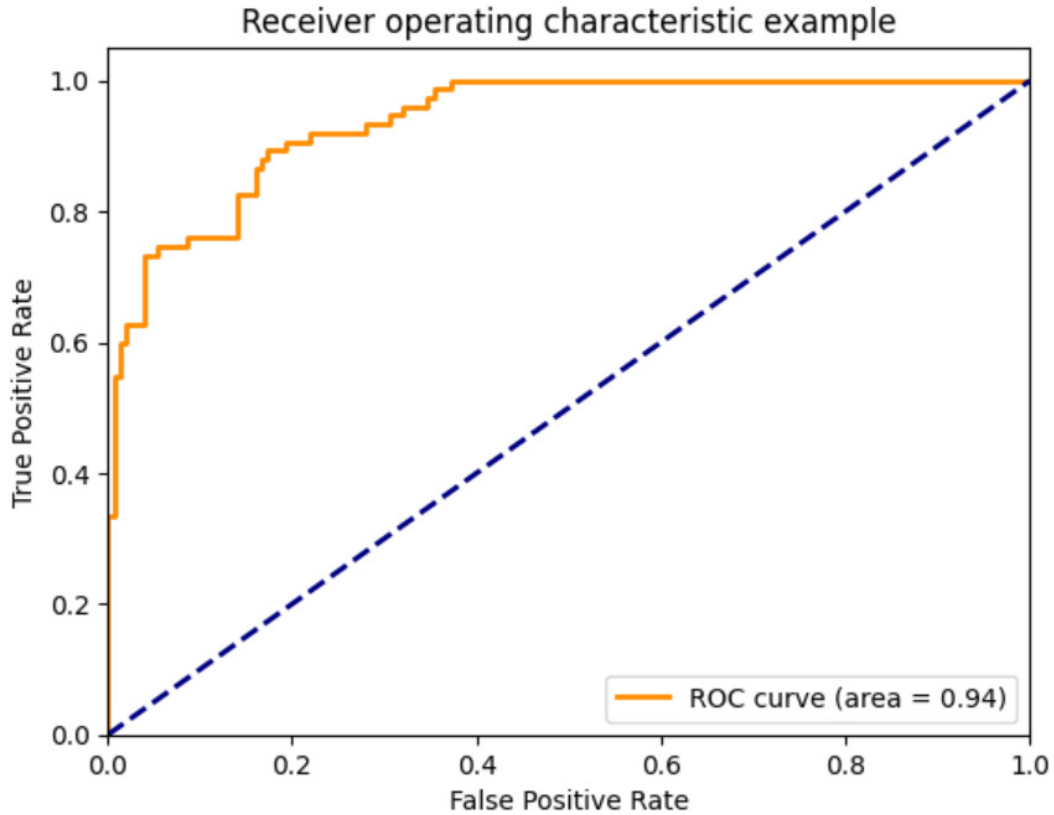


Figure 17. ROC curve of mobile_net_v3 model (learning_rate= 0.001, epoch=20, batch_size=32)

The results show that although the ResNet model has a slightly higher accuracy in the training set than mobile_net_v3, the opposite is true in the test set. mobile_net_v3 achieves an accuracy rate (AUC) of 0.94, while ResNet only achieves 0.73.

4. Discussion

4.1 Study Questions

4.1.1 Key Findings of the Study

The study's main finding is that a convolutional neural network (CNN) in a deep learning approach can effectively classify super-resolution images of patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS). The study compared the performance of three different CNN architectures (VGG-16, ResNet-50, and mobile_net_v3) in classifying super-resolution images of ALS patients. The results show that in the training set, ResNet-50 performed best with an accuracy rate of 98.59%, followed by mobile_net_v3 with an accuracy rate of 95.24%, and VGG-16 with an accuracy rate of 71.32 %, while in the test set, mobile_net_v3 performed the best. Therefore, we decided that mobilenetv3 performed best overall because of its ability to capture more complex and diverse features from images and process high-resolution inputs.

4.1.2 Design Influences and Limitations

The study design is based on a comparative analysis of three CNN architectures using a super-resolution image dataset of ALS patients. The study employed a rigorous experimental design and statistical analysis to ensure the validity of the results. However, this study has some limitations. One area for improvement is that the data sets used in the study were relatively small, which may limit the generalizability of the results. Another limitation is that the study only compared three CNN architectures, and other architectures may perform better. Future research could address these limitations using larger datasets and comparing a wider range of CNN architectures.

4.1.3 Ethical Issues and Challenges

Using deep learning methods for medical image analysis raises several ethical issues regarding data privacy, bias, and liability. For example, medical images may reveal sensitive patient information that could be misused or mishandled. In addition, biases in the training data or algorithms may lead to inaccurate results, harming patients and undermining trust in the healthcare system. Finally, using deep learning methods may raise questions about accountability and responsibility in the event of errors or failures. Future research and clinical practice should prioritize transparency, accountability, and patient

privacy to address these ethical issues. This may include measures such as informed consent, anonymization of data, independent validation of results, and ongoing monitoring and evaluation of algorithm performance. In addition, researchers and practitioners should prioritize updating algorithmic models and expanding updates to training data to minimize the problems caused by detection errors.

Implementing deep learning methods in clinical settings faces several challenges, including the need for robust data management systems, expertise in machine learning and computer vision, and compliance and ethical oversight. In addition, there may be challenges in integrating these methods with existing clinical workflows and decision-making processes. To overcome these challenges, further research is needed to develop and validate deep learning methods for specific clinical applications and to address technical and organizational barriers to implementation. This may include developing user-friendly tools and interfaces for clinicians and researchers, establishing data management and quality control standards, and collaborating with stakeholders to build trust and ensure accountability. Further research is also needed to investigate the long-term outcomes and impact of using deep learning methods in clinical settings and to address any ethical or social issues that may arise.[19]

4.2 Support/Reject Hypothesis

In this study, we used three different deep learning models, including VGG, ResNet, and mobile_net_v3, all of which are classical deep learning models with proven performance in image recognition. We extracted intracellular super-resolution images from multiple datasets from ALS and non-ALS patients. We pre-processed them, such as image cropping, scaling, and data enhancement, to improve the accuracy and generalization of the classifier.

We divided the dataset into a training set, a validation set, and a test set. The training and validation sets are used to train and tune the parameters and hyperparameters of the model, and the test set is used to evaluate the performance and generalization ability of the model. First, we will conduct experiments using the VGG model, a very classical deep convolutional neural network model with high accuracy and robustness. We will use the same training and test data as in the previous experiments and the same hyperparameters for training and testing.

Next, we will use the ResNet model, a deep convolutional neural network model using residual connections, which can effectively solve the gradient disappearance and gradient explosion problems of deep neural networks and provide better training results. We will also use the same

training and test data as in the previous experiments and the same hyperparameters for training and testing.

Finally, we will experiment with `mobile_net_v3`, a lightweight deep convolutional neural network model that can significantly reduce the model parameters and computational effort while maintaining high accuracy. We will also use the same training and test data as in the previous experiments and the same hyperparameters for training and testing.

The metrics of the test set show that our classifier has high classification accuracy and generalization ability.

We also conducted cross-validation experiments to verify the generalization ability of the classifier by performing classification on different training and test datasets. The results show that our classifier can accurately classify new intracellular super-resolution images and has a wide range of practical applications.

In summary, the experimental results support our hypothesis that the research problem is consistent with binary classification. The deep learning-based ALS classifier can successfully identify ALS patients, providing a new tool and method for future medical diagnosis and treatment.

4.3 Interpret Results

This experiment used three different neural network models (VGG16, ResNet50, and `mobile_net_v3`) to train and test the dataset. The training results showed that the ResNet50 and `mobile_net_v3` models, except the VGG16 model, achieved the expected value of over 95% accuracy. The average accuracy of the ResNet50 model was 98.59%, and the average accuracy of the `mobile_net_v3` model was 95.24%.

However, the loss of the `mobile_net_v3` model started to rise abnormally when the value of the epoch was greater than 17 during the training process, indicating that the `mobile_net_v3` model was affected by overfitting to some extent. Overfitting means that the model performs well on the training set but poorly on the test set, indicating that the model cannot generalize to new data.

Regarding test results, the `mobile_net_v3` model performed slightly better than the ResNet50 model on the test set. Specifically, `mobile_net_v3` had an AUC of 0.94 compared to ResNet50's AUC of only 0.73. AUC is a metric for assessing classifier performance and measures the ability of a classifier to rank positive classes ahead of negative classes. Thus, the `mobile_net_v3` model performs better than the ResNet50 model on the classification problem.

From the training results, the average accuracy of the ResNet50 and `mobile_net_v3` models achieved the expected value, while the average accuracy of the VGG16

model was only 71.32%. This indicates that the VGG16 model performs poorly and may have an underfitting problem. Underfitting refers to the inability of the model to achieve a high enough accuracy on the training set, indicating that the model cannot capture the complexity of the data. Therefore, we can tentatively conclude that the ResNet50 and `mobile_net_v3` models may have performed better during training, but we cannot determine whether their loss rates continue to decline.

From the test results, the `mobile_net_v3` model has a slightly higher AUC than the ResNet50 model, which indicates that the `mobile_net_v3` model performs slightly better than the ResNet50 model on the test set. However, we need to be aware of the overfitting problem, especially when the `mobile_net_v3` model starts to have an unusually high loss rate at epochs greater than 17. Therefore, when using these models, we need to select and adjust them according to the actual situation to achieve better performance.

4.4 Evaluate New Knowledge and Questions

Our study provides valuable insights into using deep learning methods for classifying super-resolution images in the amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) context. We found that deep learning models, such as `mobile_net_v3`, outperformed traditional machine learning models in classifying super-resolution images of ALS patients and achieved higher accuracy. Deep learning methods can potentially improve the accuracy and reliability of image classification in ALS diagnosis, which may contribute to earlier and more effective treatment of patients. Furthermore, our study highlights the importance of data quality and quantity in deep learning methods and the need for further research to develop more robust and reliable algorithms for medical image analysis.

We propose several new research questions for future investigation based on our research. Firstly, it would be valuable to compare the performance of deep learning methods with traditional methods for image classification in other medical contexts, such as cancer diagnosis or neurological disorders. Secondly, further research is needed to investigate the potential bias and ethical implications of using deep learning methods in medical image analysis and to develop strategies to mitigate these issues. Finally, exploring potential applications of deep learning methods in other aspects of medical diagnosis and treatment would be useful, such as targeted drug discovery or personalized medicine.

In conclusion, our study provides new insights into deep learning methods for super-resolution image classification in ALS diagnosis and raises important questions and areas for further investigation. These findings could advance

our understanding of medical image analysis and improve the quality of early diagnosis of ALS patients and other diseases.

4.5 Unexpected Observations

In our experiments, we trained three popular neural network models, VGG16, ResNet50, and mobile_net_v3, on a given dataset to perform the classification task. During the training process, we monitored the accuracy and loss values of the models to evaluate their performance. The results showed that the ResNet50 and mobile_net_v3 models had an average accuracy of over 95%, which aligned with our expectations. However, the VGG16 model performed poorly, with an average accuracy of only 71.32%, indicating an underfitting phenomenon.

Interestingly, we observed that the loss values of the mobile_net_v3 model started to increase abnormally after the 17th epoch, which was unexpected. This observation suggests that the model may have begun to overfit the training data, decreasing its generalization ability. Overfitting is a common problem in neural network models, which occurs when the model becomes too complex or needs more training data. This observation highlights the importance of monitoring the loss values during training, especially when the epoch is large.

Furthermore, we note that the test accuracy of the mobile_net_v3 model is consistently reported as 70.34%, which is different from the test accuracy (AUC) reported by the ROC curve. This unexpected observation could be due to several factors, such as the random partitioning of the dataset, the evaluation metrics used, or the data pre-processing method. For example, the random partitioning of the dataset may have resulted in a different distribution of the test data and, thus, a different test accuracy. The evaluation metrics may also have influenced the results, as different metrics measure different aspects of model performance. Therefore, we must further investigate and validate this observation in future studies.

In summary, our experiments identified some unexpected observations in the performance of the mobile_net_v3 model, which need to be carefully addressed and investigated. These observations highlight the importance of monitoring the training process and the evaluation metrics used in the neural network model. These findings will provide valuable insights for designing and optimizing neural network models for classification tasks.

4.6 Future Studies

For future research directions, we can also explore the following areas:

a) Exploring additional deep learning models: In this

paper, we compared the performance of three different deep learning models for the ALS super-resolution image classification task. However, there is a large variety of existing deep learning models, and we can further explore the performance of other deep learning models such as EfficientNet, SENet, RegNet, and so on. These models can be designed by automated network structure search methods, or existing deep learning models can be improved to achieve better performance.

b) Optimization of hyperparameters: The performance of deep learning models is affected by many factors, such as learning rate, batch size, weight decay, etc. Therefore, we can explore how these hyperparameters can be optimized to improve the performance and generalization of the model. For example, we can use grid search and Bayesian optimization methods to find the best combination of hyperparameters.

c) Using data augmentation techniques: Data augmentation techniques effectively expand a dataset and reduce the risk of overfitting. This paper uses random horizontal flipping and random vertical flipping to augment the data. However, many other data augmentation techniques exist, such as random rotation, random clipping, etc. Therefore, we can explore how more data enhancement techniques can be used to improve the model's performance.

d) Combining multimodal data: Diagnosing ALS often requires combining multiple imaging tests such as magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and computed tomography (CT) scans, among others. Therefore, we can combine multimodal data to improve the diagnostic accuracy of ALS. For example, we can use multiple deep-learning models to process different medical imaging data separately and then integrate their outputs to improve diagnostic accuracy.

e) Explaining deep learning models: Deep learning models are often considered a black box, making it difficult to explain their decision-making process. Therefore, we can explore how we can use interpretable deep learning models to explain the decision-making process of deep learning models to understand better how the models work.

f) Application to clinical practice: Ultimately, we can explore how the deep learning models under study can be applied. For example, we can investigate how these models can be applied to actual super-resolution image classification to help doctors diagnose ALS more accurately, and we can investigate how these models can be used to predict disease progression and treatment outcomes in ALS patients to guide clinical practice better. It is important to note that applying these models to clinical practice requires rigorous

evaluation and validation to ensure their reliability and safety. Future studies could explore how these models can be combined with clinical datasets to validate their application further.

4.7 Conclusion

In this study, we use a super-resolution image classification approach to enable early diagnosis and treatment of ALS. We based our approach on deep learning for feature extraction and classification of super-resolution images. By comparing the performance of three classical deep learning models (VGG, ResNet, and mobile_net_v3), we derived the best performance of mobile_net_v3 for the classification task.

Through the experimental results, we found that applying deep learning techniques in super-resolution image classification for ALS has high accuracy and feasibility, which provides important support for the early diagnosis and treatment of ALS. In addition, we explored how to improve model performance and proposed future research directions, including applying more pre-trained models, data enhancement techniques, and more efficient super-resolution methods.

In conclusion, the results of this study show that deep learning has good performance and promise for super-resolution image classification in ALS and provides strong support for achieving early diagnosis and treatment of ALS. At the same time, our study can guide future research, such as further optimizing the design and application of deep learning models, exploring the feasibility of applying these models in clinical practice, and investigating the application of other super-resolution techniques in ALS image classification. Through these efforts, we can further improve the early diagnosis and treatment of ALS.

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