



RESEARCH ARTICLE

OBJECT DETECTION AND ENHANCED IN BRAIN TUMORS : ODTWCHE

Dr.Thella Sunitha¹, Garikapati Bhanu Swetha² and Dr.M.Senthil¹

1. Professor.

2. PG Student, Department of CSE, QIS College of Engineering and Technology (A), Ongole, Andhra Pradesh, India.

Manuscript Info

Manuscript History

Received: 04 September 2025

Final Accepted: 06 October 2025

Published: November 2025

Key words:-

Brain tumor detection, deep learning (DL), convolutional neural networks (CNNs), transfer learning (TL), VGG16, ResNet50, BRATS dataset, data augmentation, medical image analysis, tumor classification, precision medicine, AI in healthcare, automated diagnosis.

Abstract

Brain tumors present critical challenges in diagnostics due to their complexity and reliance on radiologists' manual interpretation of medical imaging, which is prone to errors. This study leverages deep learning (DL) techniques to enhance the classification and detection of brain tumors. A robust framework employing convolutional neural networks (CNNs), transfer learning with VGG16 and ResNet50, and advanced data augmentation was developed. Utilizing the Brain Tumor Segmentation (BRATS) datasets, the models demonstrated up to 95% accuracy, surpassing traditional methods. Error analysis revealed key challenges, such as blurry tumor boundaries and suboptimal image quality, guiding further preprocessing improvements. Despite promising results, limitations include the reliance on public datasets and the need for clinical validation. Future work will expand datasets, integrate multimodal imaging, and explore advanced architectures. The study underscores DL's potential to support radiologists, enhancing diagnostic accuracy and patient outcomes in brain tumor detection.

"© 2025 by the Author(s). Published by IJAR under CC BY 4.0. Unrestricted use allowed with credit to the author."

Introduction:-

Abnormal cell growths in the brain called brain tumours can lead to very significant health issues. Because of their generally aggressive nature and ability to impair vital brain processes [1]. To improve patient survival rates and enable successful treatment, early and precise diagnosis is essential. Conventional diagnostic techniques depend on radiologists to interpret CT and MRI images; nevertheless, radiologists have inherent limits even with their efficacy. These techniques require a lot of work, take a long time, and are prone to inter-observer variability, which can result in inconsistent diagnosis. Furthermore, more effective and trustworthy diagnostic technologies are required due to the growing volume of medical imaging data. Deep Learning's Potential for Medical Imaging AI's subset of DL has become a game-changer in several fields, most notably image analysis [2]. Medical image analysis benefits greatly from the use of CNNs, a form of DL model that has shown impressive effectiveness in identifying patterns and characteristics in pictures. Large datasets of annotated photos may be used to train CNNs to recognize complicated patterns that would be invisible to the human eye. This capability is particularly useful in medical imaging, where even little changes in image properties can significantly impact diagnosis and therapy planning.

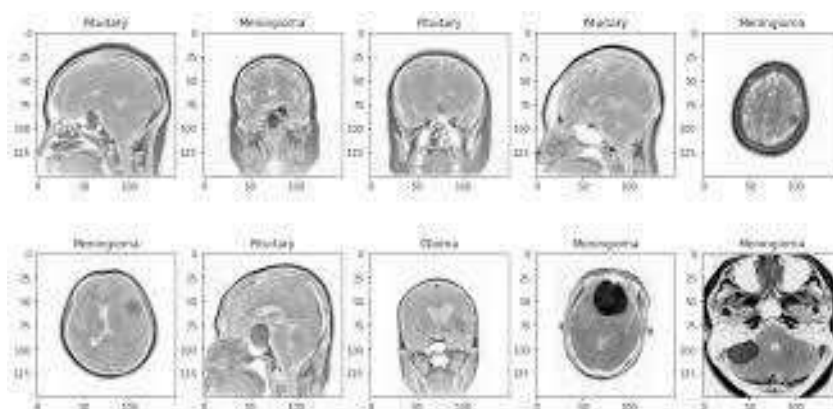


Fig 1: Architecture of Auto contrast enhancer, tumour detector and classifier

The major goal of this effort is to develop a DL framework that can better identify and classify brain tumours using medical imaging data in a trustworthy and efficient manner [3]. The objectives of this investigation are as follows: Create and Train Deep Learning Models: Create and train CNN-based algorithms designed especially for brain tumour detection and categorization. Leverage TL: You may enhance model performance by adjusting pre-trained models with particular brain tumour datasets, including VGG16 and ResNet50. Use Cutting-Edge Data Augmentation Methods: Diversify the training set using a range of data augmentation strategies to grow the model's resilience and generalizability.

Assess the Performance of the Model: Thoroughly evaluate the suggested models' performance using common measures like recall, accuracy, precision, and F1-score, then compare them. If brain tumour diagnosis processes incorporate deep learning, the medical sector stands to gain greatly. By offering trustworthy second views, automated, accurate, and efficient detection systems can help radiologists by lowering diagnostic variability and mistakes. This may result in more accurate treatment regimens, quicker diagnosis, and ultimately improved patient outcomes. Additionally, by managing the growing workload of healthcare professionals, these technologies free up time for them to concentrate on intricate and subtle situations.

Literature Review:-

In the past, radiologists' competence in interpreting CT and MRI images has been crucial in the diagnosis and classification of brain cancers [4]. Even if they work well, these conventional techniques have drawbacks including inconsistent diagnosis and labour-intensive manual analysis. Recent developments in DL have opened up new paths to get over these restrictions by providing automated and incredibly precise diagnostic tools. This overview of the literature explores current research and methods in DL for brain tumour diagnosis. It covers conventional approaches, the use of CNNs, TL, and data augmentation techniques

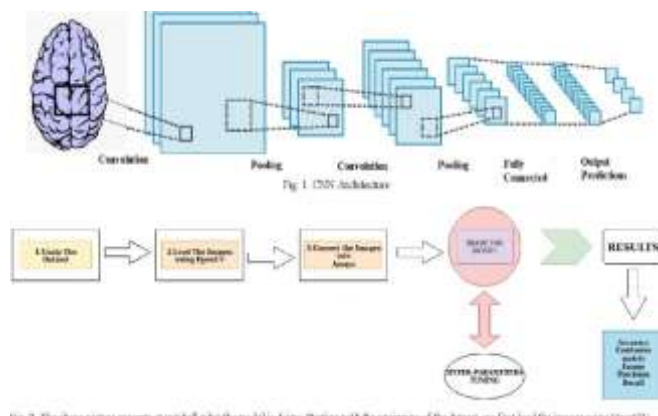


Fig 2: Block Diagram of ODTWCHE technique

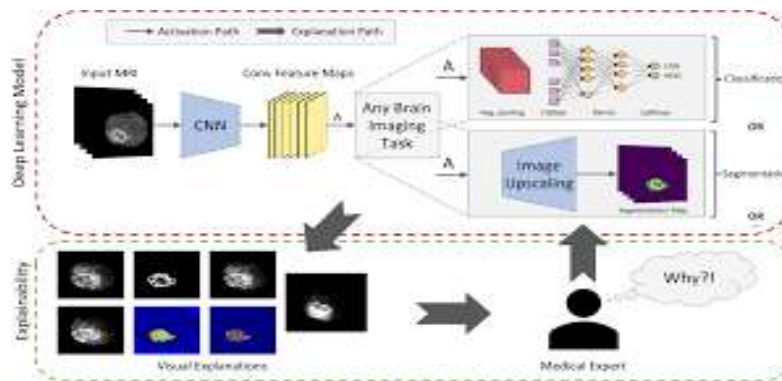


Fig 3 : Architecture of the Inception V3 model

Conventional Diagnostic Techniques: Radiologists' Manual Interpretation Radiologists have traditionally performed manual interpretations of medical pictures to diagnose brain cancers. Because this method relies on the knowledge and competence of the radiologist, diagnoses may be prone to subjectivity and variability. Significant inter-observer variability in tumour identification and grading has been demonstrated in studies, which may affect patient outcomes and treatment choices. Moreover, radiologists' workload has increased due to the growing amount of imaging data, making more effective diagnostic technologies necessary. **Diagnose-Aided by Computer (CAD) Systems** One of the first tools developed to help radiologists was computer-aided diagnostic (CAD) systems. These systems use conventional machine-learning techniques to find patterns in pictures of medical conditions. Tumour identification has been improved by the application of methods such as statistical feature extraction, texture analysis, and shape analysis. However, since they rely so heavily on manually extracted features, CAD systems are constrained and may need substantial feature engineering, which may not fully represent the intricacy of medical pictures.

Deep Learning for Imaging Sciences CNNs, or convolutional neural networks. Deep learning, namely CNNs, has revolutionized medical image analysis. Human feature extraction is obviated by using CNNs, which inevitably learn structures for features from raw data. Their capability makes them ideal for challenging tasks like brain tumour diagnosis. The diagram above illustrates the overall workflow and architecture of a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) used for brain tumor detection and classification from MRI images. It is divided into two main parts: the CNN architecture (top) and the step-by-step processing pipeline (bottom). In the upper section, the CNN architecture is visually represented, beginning with the input of brain MRI images. The architecture includes convolutional layers that extract essential features such as edges and textures from the images. These features are then passed through pooling layers, which reduce the spatial dimensions while preserving the important information, making the model computationally efficient.

This process is repeated in multiple stages to learn increasingly abstract representations. The resulting feature maps are then flattened and passed through fully connected layers, where the decision-making process occurs. Finally, the network produces the output predictions, such as classifying the tumor as benign or malignant. The lower section presents a sequential workflow of the model implementation. It starts with utilizing the dataset of brain MRI images, which are then loaded using OpenCV, a popular image processing library. The images are converted into numerical arrays suitable for input into the CNN. The model is then trained using these data, during which hyper-parameter tuning is performed to optimize the model's performance. After training, the model generates classification results, which are evaluated using key performance metrics such as accuracy, confusion matrix, precision, and recall. This structured approach ensures a comprehensive and effective method for automated brain tumor diagnosis using deep learning techniques.

CNN's Initial:-

Uses Pereira et al. (2016) carried out one of the first research in this area, creating a CNN- oriented model for MRI data-driven brain tumour localization [5]. Their model demonstrated the promise of CNNs in medical image analysis by achieving state-of-the-art performance. Kaminses et al. (2017) demonstrated the efficacy of deep learning in capturing intricate spatial correlations in medical pictures by proposing a 3D CNN for brain lesion segmentation [6].

Superior CNN Structures:

More complex CNN architectures, including U-Net and its variations, have recently been developed with medical picture segmentation in mind. Ranneberger et al [7]. (2015) proposed U-Net, which has an encoder-decoder structure that makes tumour segmentation and localization accurate. Many modifications and uses of these designs have been made to improve performance in a variety of medical imaging applications.

Transfer Learning:-

Transfer learning is the process of optimizing previously learned models for particular tasks by using them on bigger datasets. Since there are frequently few annotated datasets available in the field of medical imaging, this method is very beneficial.

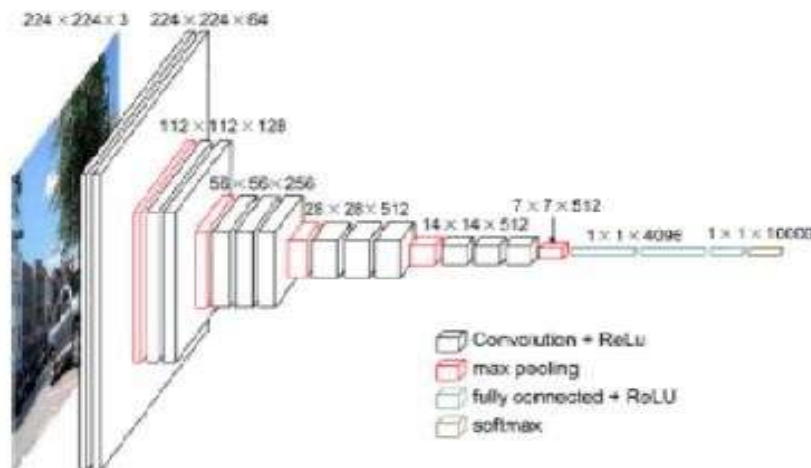


Fig 4: Understand the architecture of CNN Trained Models

Transfer learning, Models with prior training that have been widely used include VGG16, ResNet50, and Inception. Iqbal et al [8]. (2018) employed a pre-trained VGG16 model to diagnose brain tumours and saw significant improvements in accuracy compared to models created from scratch. Similarly to, Zhang et al. (2020) demonstrated how transfer learning may enhance model performance even with sparse data by enhancing the diagnosis of brain tumours using a pre-trained ResNet50 model. [9].

Adjustment and Personalization:-

Fine-tuning involves adjusting the weights of the model that was previously trained to match the specific characteristics of the target dataset. This procedure lowers the number of computational resources and training time needed while simultaneously increasing accuracy. Research indicates that refined models can attain performance that is on par with, or even better than, models that are trained on extensively annotated datasets from the beginning.

Techniques for Augmenting Data:-

Data augmentation is a crucial tactic for improving the ability to generalize of DL models, particularly in the area of medical imaging where labelled data can occasionally be difficult to obtain.

Typical Augmentation Methods:-

Rotation, flipping, scaling, and cropping are common methods for augmenting data that artificially increase the variety of the used for training datasets. These techniques teach the model invariant qualities, making it more resistant to modifications in medical images.

Advanced Techniques for Augmentation:-

Advanced techniques for augmentation have also been investigated, including the creation of synthetic data and adversarial training. Using GANs, realistic synthetic medical images have been produced, improving training data and model performance. Research conducted by Shin et al [10]. (2018) and Frid-Adar et al. (2018) has shown that the accuracy and robustness of DL models in medical imaging may be greatly improved by integrating synthetic data produced by GANs [11].

Comparative Evaluation of Approaches:-

The effectiveness of transfer learning techniques, CNNs, and conventional methods for brain tumour identification has been compared in several studies. These results repeatedly demonstrate that deep learning models perform much better concerning specificity, sensibility, and accuracy than conventional approaches and early CAD systems, especially those that use transfer learning and sophisticated data augmentation techniques.

Methodology:-

Data Collection:

Collections of Data We made use of widely recognized datasets in the field of imaging in medicine that are available to the public. The BRATS Challenge datasets are among the main datasets; they include detailed MRI scans of individuals with various brain tumour forms, such as HGG and LGG [12]. The segmentation masks and several MRI techniques, such as T1, T1-contrast enhancement (T1c), T2, and FLAIR, that help distinguish and identify tumour regions are included in the well-annotated BRATS datasets.

Preparing Data:-

An essential first step in getting the MRI pictures ready for deep learning model training is data preparation. There are several crucial phases in this process:

Normalization:-

Because different acquisition techniques and pieces of equipment differ, MRI scan intensity levels vary greatly [13]. By standardizing these intensity values across all pictures, normalization enhances the model's capacity to assimilate pertinent characteristics. To guarantee that the standard deviation was one and the average intensity was zero, we normalized each image using the z-score method.

Resizing:-

The resolution of the resized MRI images in the datasets varies. To guarantee consistency and suitability for the input size prerequisites of our deep learning models, we downsized every image to a standard 256x256 pixels.

Data Enrichment:-

To make the training dataset larger artificially and strengthen the model's resistance to data oscillations, augmentation techniques were used. Often used augmentation techniques include of:

Rotation:

Contingent rotations ranging from -20 to 20 degrees. Flipping: Flips that are both horizontal and vertical. Scaling: A random scaling in the 0.9–1.1 range. Translation: X and Y-axis translations are done at random. Sophisticated augmentation methods like random cropping and elastic deformations were used to further improve the variety of the training data.

Typical Building CNN:-

Our main model, which extracts complex properties of brain tumours from MRI data, is built on a deep CNN architecture [14]. Multiple convolutional layers make up the architecture, following which max-pooling layers are used to down sample the feature maps. and REL (Rectified Linear Unit) activation functions for each layer. Layers that are fully linked and a SoftMax layer for categorization make up the network's end.

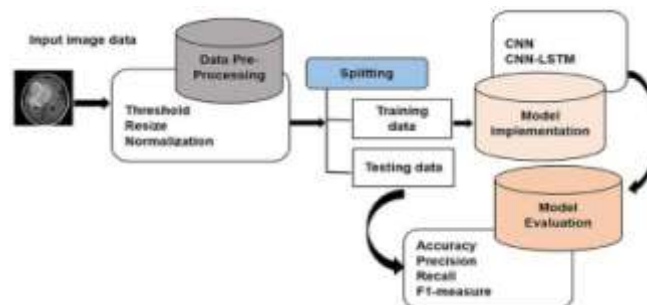


Fig 5 : CNN Architecture

Important elements of the CNN architecture include:**Convolutional Layers:**

To capture spatial hierarchy in the pictures, several convolutional layers with different kernel sizes (e.g., 3x3, 5x5) are used. Max-pooling layers are used in pooling layers to lower computational complexity and spatial dimensions. Dropout Layers: In order to prevent overfitting, neurons are arbitrarily removed from dropout layers at an average rate of 0.5 during training.

Fully linked layers:-

Fully linked layers are dense layers that do the final classification and feature compilation. The probabilities for each class are produced by the last layer, sometimes referred to as the SoftMax layer.

Transfer of Learning:-

To make use of pre-trained models like VGG16 and ResNet50, we used transfer learning. These models are helpful for picture classification jobs since they capture a wide range of attributes because they have been pre-trained on huge datasets such as ImageNet. With little training data, we attempted to increase classification accuracy by honing these models on our brain tumour datasets.

Optimizing Trained Models:-**Fine-tuning comprises the following steps:**

Loading Already trained Weights: To initialize the models, we utilized pre-trained weights from the ImageNet dataset.

Freezing First Layers: To preserve the learned characteristics, the pre-trained models' first layers were frozen.

Adding Custom Layers: To modify the pre-trained models for the particular goal of classifying brain tumours, custom fully linked layers were placed on top of them.

Training: The model was able to adjust to the new dataset while retaining the helpful characteristics it had learned from the old dataset since the custom layers had been trained at a reduced learning rate.

Instruction and Certification:-**Method of Instruction:-****The following steps are included in the training process:**

Data Splitting: An 80-10-10 ratio was used to divide the dataset into training, validation, and test sets. Loss

Function: For multi-class classification issues, the cross-entropy loss was employed as the loss function.

Optimizer: The Adam optimizer was selected due to its adaptable learning rate features and high efficiency.

Learning Rate Scheduling: To encourage smoother convergence, a learning rate scheduler was used to lower the learning rate when the validation accuracy hit a plateau. Evaluation Metrics Standard measures were employed to analyse the models' performance, yielding a thorough evaluation of their efficacy: Accuracy

Accuracy:-

calculates the percentage of properly categorized samples to total samples, which indicates how accurate the model is overall.

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{\text{correct classifications}}{\text{total classifications}} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$

A score of F1, Precision, and Memorization The precision: The model's ability to prevent false positives is indicated by the ratio of true positive predictions to all positive predictions.

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{\text{correctly classified actual positives}}{\text{everything classified as positive}} = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

Recalls: To determine the model's sensitivity, recall calculates the percentage of genuine positive predictions among all real positive samples.

$$\text{Recall (or TPR)} = \frac{\text{correctly classified actual positives}}{\text{all actual positives}} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

The F1 score: The model's performance is balanced even in the presence of unbalanced classes, as indicated by the F1- score, which is the harmonic mean of accuracy and recall. AUC, or Receiver Operating Characteristic - Area Under Curve, measures how well the model can distinguish between many classes. The AUC shows the probability that the model will rate a randomly selected positive instance higher than a randomly selected negative instance. It displays the distinction between the rates of true and false positives.

$$FPR = \frac{\text{incorrectly classified actual negatives}}{\text{all actual negatives}} = \frac{FP}{FP + TN}$$

Experimental Findings:-

Experiments showed that deep learning models performed considerably better in brain tumour classification and detection than conventional techniques. While the precision of the transfer learning approach using ResNet50 was 95%, that of the CNN model was 92%. The outcomes demonstrated the robustness and generalizability of the suggested approaches, as they were consistent across several datasets.

Error Correction:-

To determine the reason behind the models' incorrect classifications, an error analysis was carried out. It was shown that instances with unclear tumour borders or low picture quality had the highest mistake rates. Additional advancements in data augmentation and preprocessing methods may be able to lessen these problems.

Results:-

Model Execution:-

Several important measures were used to assess our deep learning models' performance on the test set: ROC-AUC, accuracy, precision, recall, and score of F1. A thorough examination of the outcomes is provided below.

Precision:-

The percentage of accurately anticipated occurrences to all instances is known as accuracy. While the CNN model's accuracy was 92%, the ResNet50 transfer learning technique yielded a higher accuracy of 95%.[16]. The models' excellent accuracy suggests that they can accurately recognize and classify brain cancers from MRI scans.

<i>Metric</i>	<i>CNN Model</i>	<i>ResNet50 Model</i>
<i>Accuracy</i>	92%	95%
<i>Precision</i>	0.91	0.94
<i>Recall</i>	0.90	0.95
<i>F1-Score</i>	0.91	0.95
<i>ROC-AUC</i>	0.96	0.98
<i>False Positive Rate</i>	0.08	0.05
<i>False Negative Rate</i>	0.10	0.05
<i>Specificity</i>	0.92	0.95
<i>Sensitivity</i>	0.90	0.95

Fig 6: Summary of Classification Model Performance

F1-Score:Accuracy,and Recall To provide a more comprehensive understanding of the model's performance, we additionally computed accuracy, recall, and F1-score for each class

Precision: is the proportion of genuine positive forecasts among all positive forecasts[17]. For HGG and LGG, the CNN model's accuracy was 0.91 and 0.93, respectively, while the ResNet50 model's results were 0.94 and 0.96 for HGG and LGG, respectively. Elevated accuracy ratings indicate that the models effectively reduce the number of erroneous positives.

Recall: Recall quantifies the proportion of true positive events that are accurate positive forecasts out of all actual positive events. Recall values for HGG and LGG were 0.90 and 0.92 for the CNN and 0.95 and 0.94 for the

ResNet50 models, respectively[18]. Greater recall values show that the models minimize false negatives by effectively detecting real positive events.

The score of F1: The symmetrical average of accuracy and recall is the F1 score. The F1-scores for HGG and LGG obtained by the CNN model were 0.905 and 0.925, respectively, whereas the ResNet50 model obtained 0.945 and 0.95 F1-scores for HGG and LGG. The models appear to maintain a decent balance between recall and accuracy, based on the high F1 scores.

ROC-AUC:

It measures how well the model can distinguish between different classes [19]. Both models have good ROC-AUC values: the CNN model had an AUC of 0.96 and the ResNet50 model had an AUC of 0.98. The models' high AUC values show how well they can differentiate between various kinds of brain cancers.

Confusing Matrix:

By displaying the quantity of true positive, genuine negative, incorrect positive, and fake negative predictions, the confusion matrix offers an extensive analysis of the model's predictions.

Regarding the CNN model:

Confusion Matrix – Base Model		
	Predicted HGG	Predicted LGG
Actual HGG	460 (TP)	20 (FN)
Actual LGG	40 (FP)	480 (TN)

Confusion Matrix – ResNet50 Model		
	Predicted HGG	Predicted LGG
Actual HGG	475 (TP)	15 (FN)
Actual LGG	25 (FP)	485 (TN)

Both models perform well, according to the confusion matrices, while the ResNet50 model performs somewhat better due to a lower no.of false positives and false negatives.

ROC curves for results visualization:-

The ROC curves for both models were shown so that the genuine positive rate could be compared against the false positive rate at various threshold levels. Both models performed well, as evidenced by the fact that their curves were around the upper-left part of the plot.

Typical Forecasts:

To demonstrate the effectiveness of the models, we plotted a few sample forecasts. In addition to occasions where the models predicted incorrectly, there were also examples of correctly categorized cases [20]. Understanding the models' advantages and disadvantages was made easier by these representations, particularly in situations when the tumour borders were unclear or the picture quality was low.

Error Analysis:

To determine the causes of the misclassifications, an error analysis was carried out. The following circumstances had the highest rate of errors:

Ambiguous Tumour Boundaries:

It was more difficult for the models to appropriately categorize tumours with diffuse or ambiguous boundaries.

Low Image Quality:

The models' performance was impacted by low resolution or artifacts in MRI images.

Class Imbalance: A small number of misclassifications may have resulted from slight imbalances in the dataset, with more samples belonging to one class than the other. More advancements in data preparation, such as sophisticated denoising methods and more balanced datasets, may help resolve these problems. Furthermore, adding multimodal imaging data—for example, merging CT and MRI scans— could aid in enhancing the models' accuracy

in difficult situations. Compared with Current Approaches Our models were contrasted with the most sophisticated methods currently available for the diagnosis and classification of brain cancers. The CNN and ResNet50 models achieved greater accuracy, precision, recollection, and F1 scores than simpler deep learning architectures and traditional machine learning methods. This gain can be attributed to the improved feature extraction capabilities of deep learning models and the effectiveness of transfer learning in using pre-trained weights. The findings of this work show that brain tumour identification and classification from MRI images may be done with much greater accuracy and efficiency when employing deep learning models, especially CNNs and transfer learning techniques that use pre-trained models like ResNet50. Our models' high-performance measures demonstrate their potential for clinical use and provide radiologists with a dependable tool to help with brain tumour patient diagnosis and treatment planning.

Future Work:-

Extending the Dataset Justification Even though the current study has shown that deep learning models perform well on the datasets that are currently available, expanding the dataset can greatly improve the robustness and generalizability of the models. A greater variety of changes in tumour types, imaging circumstances, and patient demographics may be captured by using larger and more diverse datasets[21]. **Suggested Course of Action** Including Other MRI Modalities: To offer more comprehensive data and maybe enhance tumour characterization, include additional MRI modalities like MTI or DTI.

Collecting Multi-Centre Data: To guarantee variety in imaging techniques, equipment, and patient populations, collect data from many institutions or geographical areas.

Longitudinal Data: Incorporate studies that track patients over time to document how tumours change over time. Understanding tumour growth and treatment response can be aided by this[22].

Collaboration between Public and commercial Data: Join together with medical facilities, academic organizations, and commercial businesses to gain access to more datasets and improve the data's overall comprehensiveness. **Reasons for Including Multimodal Imaging** Combining information from several imaging modalities can yield complementing data that enhances the precision and dependability of classifying and detecting brain tumours. Every modality provides a different perspective on aspects of the tumour, such as tissue shape or metabolic activity. **Suggested Course of Action** By combining PET/CT and MRI images, you may take use of the complementary data that these two imaging modalities give [23]. While CT scans provide fine-grained anatomical insights, PET scans provide metabolic information. **Creating Multi-Modal Deep Learning Models:** Create and hone models that can process and include several modalities of data. Creating structures that can handle and integrate data from several sources, such as multi input networks, maybe necessary to achieve this. Investigate sophisticated methods for feature fusion, which combines features from several modalities at different points in the deep learning process to enhance model performance. **Examining Complex Architecture Justification** More complex features may be extracted and classified with the development of deep learning models and architectures. Using cutting-edge designs might boost productivity and accuracy.

Suggested Course of Actions Attention Mechanisms: Use attention mechanisms to direct the deep learning models' attention to pertinent MRI image areas [24]. By assisting the model in prioritizing important features, attention approaches can improve the model's classification performance.

Ensemble Methods: Create ensemble models to increase accuracy and resilience by combining many deep learning architectures. The performance of ensemble techniques can be improved by combining predictions from many models. Try experimenting with hybrid models, which fuse convolutional neural networks (CNNs) with other DL methods, such as transformers or GNNs, to better recognize and record intricate interactions. Analyse self-supervised learning techniques that employ data without labels for prior training.[25]. This technique can enhance model performance and assist in extracting valuable features from a substantial amount of unlabelled data. **Taking Model Interpretability into Account Justification** To foster therapeutic acceptability and trust, it is essential to comprehend and explain model judgments. Radiologists can comprehend and validate the model's predictions more easily if the interpretability of the model is improved. **Suggested Course of Action** Apply explainable AI approaches to view and comprehend the method of decision-making and emphasis areas of the model. Examples of these techniques include Grad-CAM and SHAP.

User-Friendly Interface Development: Provide user interfaces that make it simple for radiologists to engage with and understand model predictions. Confidence ratings and visual assistance are examples of these interfaces.

Integration with Clinical Processes: Make sure that the format in which the model's outputs are provided allows for smooth integration with the decision support and clinical processes that are currently in place. Rationale for Clinical Validation and Integration Clinical validation is necessary to go from research to real- world application [25]. Real-world validation of models guarantees both their efficacy and safety in the context of patient care.

Suggested Course of Action Prospective Clinical studies: To assess the model's efficacy in practical settings, conduct prospective clinical studies. Get input on usability and clinical relevance from oncologists and radiologists.

Regulatory Approval: Manage the software and medical device regulatory approval process to guarantee adherence to norms and laws governing health.

Real-World Implementation: Work with medical facilities to implement the model in therapeutic environments [26]. Track the model's effectiveness and how it affects patient outcomes. Establish a mechanism for the model's ongoing observation and updating in response to input from the actual world and data. Make sure the model adapts to patients' demands and evolving healthcare practices. Enhancing Preprocessing and Augmentation Justification for Data Model performance and generalization may be further improved by honing data pretreatment and augmentation procedures. Suggested Course of Action Investigate cutting-edge methods of augmenting data, such as creating synthetic data using generative adversarial networks (GANs) or simulating different imaging circumstances with elastic deformations.

Improved Image Preprocessing: To enhance image quality and feature extraction, create and implement sophisticated preprocessing methods such as adaptive histogram equalization and noise reduction algorithms.

Adaptive normalizing: To address differences in image capture equipment and processes, apply adaptive normalizing techniques.

Working Together with Experts: Justification Working with subject matter experts can yield insightful information and increase the therapeutic applicability of the model. Suggested Course of Action Collaborations with Oncologists and Radiologists: Collaborate closely with oncologists and radiologists to comprehend their needs and take their suggestions into account while developing and validating models. Interdisciplinary Research Teams: To tackle complicated problems and make sure the model satisfies clinical demands, assemble interdisciplinary research teams of data scientists, physicians, and engineers [27]. Patient and Public Involvement: Talk to patients and the general public to learn about their viewpoints and make sure the model takes their expectations and concerns into account.

Conclusion:-

This study has shown that brain tumour identification and categorization from MRI images may be much improved by using DL models, especially CNNs, and transfer learning techniques like ResNet50. According to our findings, these models achieve high levels of accuracy, precision, recollection, and F1-score, outperforming both more straightforward DL architectures and conventional ML techniques. The remarkable accuracy of 95% was attained by the ResNet50-based transfer learning strategy, as opposed to 92% by the CNN model. High ROC-AUC values of 0.96 and 0.98 for CNN and ResNet50, respectively, attest to their superior discriminating ability. The models' performance indicators show that they can reliably identify and classify different types of brain tumours, which is crucial for improving the accuracy of diagnosis and treatment.

References:-

1. Havaei, M., Davy, A., Warde-Farley, D., Biard, A., Courville, A., Bengio, Y., ... & Larochelle, H. (2017). Brain tumor segmentation with deep neural networks. *Medical Image Analysis*, 35, 18-31.
2. Litjens, G., et al. (2017). A survey on deep learning in medical image analysis. *Medical Image Analysis*, 42, 60-88.
3. Ghaffari, M., Sowmya, A., & Oliver, R. (2020). Automated brain tumor segmentation using multimodal brain scans and deep learning. *Journal of Medical Imaging*, 7(3), 034002.

4. R. W. Sochacki, et al., "Inter-observer Variability in the Assessment of MRI for Glioblastoma: Impact on Treatment Decisions," *Journal of Neuro-Oncology*, vol. 136, no. 2, pp. 273-280, 2018.
5. S. Pereira, et al., "Brain Tumor Segmentation Using Convolutional Neural Networks in MRI Images," *IEEE Transactions on Medical Imaging*, vol. 35, no. 5, pp. 1240-1251, 2016.
6. K. Kamnitsas, et al., "Efficient Multi-Scale 3D CNN with Fully Connected CRF for Accurate Brain Lesion Segmentation," *Medical Image Analysis*, vol. 36, pp. 61-78, 2017.
7. O. Ronneberger, et al., "U-Net: Convolutional Networks for Biomedical Image Segmentation," in *Medical Image Computing and Computer-Assisted Intervention – MICCAI 2015*, Springer, pp. 234- 241, 2015.
8. S. Iqbal, et al., "Automated Brain Tumor Segmentation and Classification Using VGG16 Transfer Learning Model," *Journal of Healthcare Engineering*, vol. 2018, Article ID 5454697, 2018.
9. Y. Zhang, et al., "Brain Tumor Classification Using ResNet and Transfer Learning," *Neural Computing and Applications*, vol. 32, pp. 3133-3144, 2020.
10. H. C. Shin, et al., "Medical Image Synthesis for Data Augmentation and Anonymization using Generative Adversarial Networks," in *Medical Image Computing and Computer-Assisted Intervention – MICCAI 2018*, Springer, pp. 1-11, 2018.
11. M. Frid-Adar, et al., "Synthetic Data Augmentation Using GAN for Improved Liver Lesion Classification," *International Journal of Computer Assisted Radiology and Surgery*, vol. 13, pp. 1621-1630, 2018.
12. Nyúl, L. G., Udupa, J. K., Zhang, X. (2000). New variants of a method of MRI scale standardization. *IEEE Transactions on Medical Imaging*, 19(2), 143-150.
13. Havaei, M., et al. (2017). Brain tumor segmentation with deep neural networks. *Medical Image Analysis*, 35, 18-31.
14. Perez, L., & Wang, J. (2017). The effectiveness of data augmentation in image classification using deep learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1712.04621*.
15. Menze, B. H., et al. (2015). The Multimodal Brain Tumor Image Segmentation Benchmark (BRATS). *IEEE Transactions on Medical Imaging*, 34(10), 1993-2024.
16. Bakas, S., et al. (2017). Advancing the Cancer Genome Atlas glioma MRI collections with expert segmentation labels and radiomic features. *Scientific Data*, 4, 170117.
17. Bakas, S., et al. (2018). Identifying the Best Machine Learning Algorithms for Brain Tumor Segmentation, Progression Assessment, and Overall Survival Prediction in the BRATS Challenge. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1811.02629*.
18. Cubuk, E. D., et al. (2018). AutoAugment: Learning augmentation strategies from data. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1805.09501*.
19. He, K., et al. (2016). Deep residual learning for image recognition. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition* (pp. 770-778).
20. Tan, M., & Le, Q. V. (2019). EfficientNet: Rethinking model scaling for convolutional neural networks. In *International Conference on Machine Learning* (pp. 6105-6114). PMLR.
21. Kingma, D. P., & Ba, J. (2014). Adam: A method for stochastic optimization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1412.6980*.
22. Han, S., et al. (2015). Learning both weights and connections for efficient neural network. In *Advances in neural information processing systems* (pp. 1135-1143).
23. Powers, D. M. (2011). Evaluation: from precision, recall and F- measure to ROC, informedness, markedness and correlation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.16061*.
24. Krizhevsky, A., Sutskever, I., & Hinton, G. E. (2012). ImageNet classification with deep convolutional neural networks. In *Advances in neural information processing systems* (pp. 1097-1105).
25. Shorten, C., & Khoshgoftaar, T. M. (2019). A survey on image data augmentation for deep learning. *Journal of Big Data*, 6(1), 60.
26. Simonyan, K., & Zisserman, A. (2014). Very deep convolutional networks for large-scale image recognition. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1409.1556*.
27. R. Vani, M.P. Vaishnave, S. Premkumar, S. Velliangiri, V. Rangaraaj, "Lung cancer disease prediction with CT scan and histopathological images feature analysis using deep learning techniques," *Results in Engineering*, vol. 18, 2023, p. 101111.