

Developing a Robust Estimator for Remote Optical Erythema Detection

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Abstract: Introduction: Erythema is redness of the skin or mucous membranes, which is symptomatic for any skin injury, infection, or inflammation. In some cases, it can be indicative of certain medical conditions (e.g., nonblanchable erythema in Stage I pressure injuries), and its detection can facilitate intervention at an earlier timepoint. The most common and effective means of erythema detection is a visual inspection of the skin. However, in many cases (especially for people with darkly pigmented skin), erythema can be masked by melanin. Moreover, it would be useful to have an automated delineation and measurement of erythema using consumer-grade devices, e.g., smartphones. It would facilitate automated symptom detection and measuring healing progress in various settings, including the patient's home. Aims: This study aims to evaluate and compare several algorithms that can be used for automated erythema detection using a smartphone's camera in clinical settings. Methods: We have compared three potential estimators, which can be derived from an RGB image: a) $\log(R/G)$, b) $R-G$, and c) a^* channel in CIELAB color space. Here, R and G are red and green channels of an RGB image, respectively. Imaged skin was divided into two classes: erythema and non-erythema. The "erythema" class was seeded with pixels with $E > \text{mean}(E) + z * \text{st.dev}(E)$, where E is the value of the estimator for a particular pixel, z is a model parameter (z -score). The erythema cluster was then grown by gradually adding nearby regions with an estimator E closer to the estimator's mean of erythema cluster than the mean of the estimator for the normal skin area (K-Mean ($K=2$)). The segmentation algorithm was tested on a subset of labeled images from the Swift Medical proprietary wound imaging database. To evaluate algorithm performance, the results of segmentation were compared with ground truth, manually labeled images. To quantify results, sensitivity, specificity, and ROC curves were used. Results: We have found that all investigated estimators could provide reasonable sensitivity (>0.8) and specificity (>0.78). However, a^* based estimator offers slightly better performance (0.86/0.84). Discussion: The preliminary data shows that smartphone cameras can delineate erythema with reasonable sensitivity and specificity. Further studies are required to correlate the accuracy with the skin type (melanin concentration in the skin).

1 INTRODUCTION

Erythema is redness of the skin or mucous membranes caused by hyperemia in capillaries. It is symptomatic of any skin injury, infection, or inflammation. In some cases, it can be indicative of certain medical conditions (e.g., nonblanchable erythema in Stage I pressure injuries), and its detection can facilitate intervention at an earlier timepoint. For example, detecting a Stage I ulcer will allow timely intervention to prevent the ulcer's progression.

The most common and effective means of erythema detection is a visual inspection of the skin. However, for people with darkly pigmented skin, erythema can be masked by melanin. One specific benefit of a robust erythema detection algorithm is the development of an instrument for use by health care professionals to detect erythema. This can be useful in monitoring reactive hyperemia or detecting Stage I pressure ulcers in intensely pigmented subjects.

Several techniques have been proposed to increase the sensitivity and specificity of erythema detection. Tissue Reflectance Spectroscopy (TRS) is a non-invasive method of quantifying skin color. In

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particular, TRS has been used to characterize the presence of erythema due to reactive hyperemia or Stage I pressure ulcers (Hagisawa, 1994). While TRS is a data-collection technique, the absorption data have to be processed by an algorithm to detect and quantify the erythema. In Riordan et al. (Riordan, 2001), five different algorithms have been compared. The authors found that most algorithms demonstrated adequate validity across all subjects. However, spectroscopic techniques have certain limitations. Firstly, they are a single point measurement, which precludes them from providing additional clinical parameters, e.g., redness surface size, which can be used by dermatologists, allergologists, and other clinical specialists. Secondly, it may require contact with the skin, which is undesirable in many cases. Finally, they are labor- and time-consuming and require specialized equipment, which cannot be universally available.

With the proliferation of smartphones and improvements in their cameras, they have become standard tools for healthcare professionals to measure and document wounds and skin conditions. These measurements are remote and non-invasive. More importantly, they can be performed in any setting, including the patient's home. Thus, the ability to detect erythema using a smartphone can have a significant clinical value.

This study aims to evaluate and compare several estimators that can be used for automated erythema detection using a smartphone's camera.

Skin detection and tissue type analysis are fairly active research areas. Skin detection is important for many applications (e.g., automated screening for adult content detection). Tissue type analysis and classification are important for wound care applications.

These areas use multiple approaches, which typically fall into a) traditional image processing methods (e.g., Mukherjee et al. (Mukherjee, 2014)) or b) Machine Learning (ML) algorithms, and particularly deep neural networks (DNN) (e.g., Wang et al. (Wang, 2015)). In some cases (see, for example, Veredas et al. (Veredas, 2010) or Li et al. (Li, 2018)), hybrid methods are used.

Skin detection and segmentation are well performed using conversion into YCbCr color space (see Brancati et al. (Brancati, 2017)). In YCbCr space, skin colors for healthy skin are clustered in a compact area, which can be approximated by an oval (Hsu, 2002)).

Machine learning methods require labeled images. While Swift Medical has its own database of

labeled wound images, in our first proof of concept study, we did not use any ML approaches. The reason for this is the following. While wound tissue types (namely epithelial, granulation tissue, slough, and eschar) can be considered "absolute," i.e., their colors are independent of the color (tone) of the surrounding skin, erythema colors are "relative" with respect to the surrounding skin. Thus, wound tissue types are ideal candidates for the ML, and particularly for DNN-based algorithms. However, the "relativeness" of erythema colors makes it possible to apply traditional image segmentation techniques. Moreover, traditional methods can be useful to derive and quantify underlying physiological information.

While several attempts were made to develop and analyze such classifiers before (e.g., Roullot et al. (Roullot, 2005)), these studies were conducted in a well-controlled lab environment on healthy volunteers. While it is useful as a proof of concept and benchmarking, it is not clear how these classifiers will perform in real-life scenarios on patients with wounds, dressings, etc. This article aims to evaluate the performance of classifiers in a realistic setting on wound care patients.

The article is structured as follows:

First, we discuss several potential estimators, which can be derived from simple physiological considerations.

Then, we discuss the cluster segmentation algorithm to segment the erythema cluster.

Finally, we evaluate the estimators' performances.

2 METHODS

2.1 Estimators

We can try to select candidates for an erythema estimator based on simple physiological considerations. It is known that erythema is characterized by an elevated blood supply. Thus, one can expect that erythema will be accompanied by reduced reflectance in the green range of the spectrum (oxyhemoglobin absorption peaks) and approximately the same tissue reflectance in the red range of the spectrum (oxyhemoglobin absorption is small).

Based on these considerations, we can consider several potential candidates for estimators.

Diffey et al. (Diffey 1991) proposed $E_D = \log(R_{635}/R_{525})$. Here R_{635} and R_{525} are the reflectances of the skin at 635nm and 525nm, respectively. Based on this idea, we can start from the

following estimator based on red and green channel pixel values

$$E_D = \log \left(\frac{S_R}{S_G} \right) \quad (1)$$

Tronnier erythema index (Tronnier, 1969) is based on the difference between red and green reflectance at a control site and an erythematic area. Melanin compensation is achieved by comparing two sites. Based on these considerations, we can introduce another estimator:

$$E_T = S_R - S_G \quad (2)$$

Finally, we can take into account that in CIELAB color space (Lab color space): L^* is the lightness, which changes from black (0) to white (100), a^* changes from green (-) to red (+), and b^* changes from blue (-) to yellow (+). Taking into account that definition, we can transform the initial image from RGB to Lab color space and use a^* channel as an estimator:

$$E_L = a^* \quad (3)$$

2.2 Test Set

The estimators' performance was evaluated on the wound images from Swift Medical (Swift Medical Inc, Toronto, Canada) image repository. Swift's image repository consists of wound images taken by a proprietary Swift Skin and Wound system using iOS smartphone cameras. The image dimensions are 1077x808 and are in jpg format. 2000 images were cleared of personally identifiable information (PHI).

Subsequently, images were labeled using a browser-based image labeling platform (LabelBox) by a team of trained labelers and reviewed.

Tissues were labeled using the following categories: four types of wound tissue (epithelial, granulation, slough, and necrotic), maceration/erythema, normal tissue, a fiduciary object, and other (e.g., gloves, cloth). For the purposes of this pilot study, we manually went through the dataset and selected a much smaller subset, which contained the correct labeling of the erythema. In particular, we selected 18 images that a) contained erythema visually, and b) erythema was correctly labeled, and 20 images that a) does not contain erythema visually, and b) no erythema labels on the image. An example of an unlabeled wound image from the Swift Medical image repository is depicted in Figure 1.



Figure 1: An example of an unlabeled wound image from the Swift Medical image repository. The white/blue circle at the center is a fiduciary object.

2.3 Cluster Segmentation

Each intact skin area was segmented into two clusters: "normal" skin and erythema. Wound tissues, fiduciary objects, and others (gloves, cloth) were excluded from consideration (it was assumed that other methods could identify these classes).

The segmentation algorithm consisted of the following steps:

1. Find a "normal" skin cluster (manually or automatically)
2. Calculate mean $\overline{E_N}$ and standard deviation ($\sigma(E_N)$) for an estimator for all pixels within the "normal" cluster
3. Seed an erythema cluster (R) using the following algorithm

$$E > \overline{E_N} + z\sigma(E_N)$$

4. Grow the erythema cluster from seed points using the algorithm similar to (Roullot, 2005):
 - a. Compute C , which is the region of pixels adjacent to the current region R , obtained with morphological dilatation: $C = (R \oplus E_S) - R$ where \oplus represents a morphological dilatation with a 3x3 structuring element E_S
 - b. K-Mean ($K=2$) step. Compute C_2 , which is the region of pixels that have an estimator closer to the mean of R than the mean of the normal skin area: $C_2 = \{E - E_N\} > \{E - E_R\}$ where E_R is the mean estimator over the area R
 - c. Update $R : R = R \cup (C \cap C_2)$

5. Repeat step 4 until R has no new pixels
6. To improve the accuracy of the results, the noise was removed using open morphological operations on R .

Here the first term $\overline{E_N}$ is the mean of the estimator for the normal skin, $\sigma(E_N)$ is the standard deviation of the normal skin, z is a model parameter (z-score).

The segmentation algorithm was applied to all estimators under consideration.

2.4 Performance Evaluation

Labeled images were processed using the segmentation algorithm for each estimator under consideration and compared with the ground truth (manually labeled images).

If the algorithm identified a pixel as erythema, and it was labeled as erythema, then it was marked as true positive (TP).

If the algorithm identified a pixel as erythema, and it was not labeled as erythema, then it was marked false positive (FP). If a pixel was not identified as erythema; however, it was labeled as erythema, we assign it to false negative (FN). Finally, if a pixel was neither identified nor labeled as erythema, it was marked as a true negative (TN).

Thus, for each image, we can calculate sensitivity (true positive rate or $TPR=TP/(TP+FN)$) and specificity (true negative rate or $TNR=TN/(TN+FP)$).

To find an optimal performance, we assessed performance at different values of z-score and built ROC (receiver operating characteristic) curves.

3 RESULTS

To compare estimators' performance, we calculated sensitivity and specificity for several values of z (see Table 1) and plotted ROC curves (see Figure 2).

One can see that the a^* -based estimator provides the best prediction values. However, the performance

of diff ($R-G$) and $\log(\log(R/G))$ estimators follows it closely.

4 DISCUSSION

Here we presented a pilot evaluation of potential estimators, which can be derived from a regular RGB image. While all estimators demonstrated reasonable sensitivity and specificity, the a^* -based estimator outperformed the $\log(R/G)$ and $R-G$ estimators. Thus, transformation to another color space (namely, CIELAB) provides some benefits. It also should be noticed that results are relatively consistent in the wide range of z-score (at least $1 < z < 3$). It is a positive sign, which indicates that it is probably not a spurious finding.

The results are also in good agreement with findings reported by other groups (Rouillot, 2005).

A variety of factors can impact the accuracy of the proposed approach. Firstly, various smartphones have different color-correction mechanisms (auto white balancing, AWB). Thus, disabling AWB can be helpful to standardize colors. Secondly, the results may be influenced by ambient illumination. Finally, the comparison with ground truth can be problematic for dark skin tones (e.g., V and VI). For example, it is challenging to label erythema on dark skin. Other means (for example, induced erythema) have to be used instead of labeled images.

In future work, we plan to validate the algorithm by studying the induced erythema on volunteers. In particular, we plan to correlate algorithm performance with skin tone. We also plan to compare the performance of these estimators with CNN-based classifiers.

Table 1: Performance of estimators at several z-scores.

Estimator	log (R/G)		R-G		a*	
	Sensitivity	Specificity	Sensitivity	Specificity	Sensitivity	Specificity
Z=1.0	0.811	0.767	0.836	0.78	0.862	0.836
Z=1.5	0.806	0.783	0.836	0.78	0.861	0.842
Z=2.0	0.806	0.783	0.836	0.781	0.86	0.842
Z=3.0	0.807	0.786	0.727	0.817	0.859	0.844

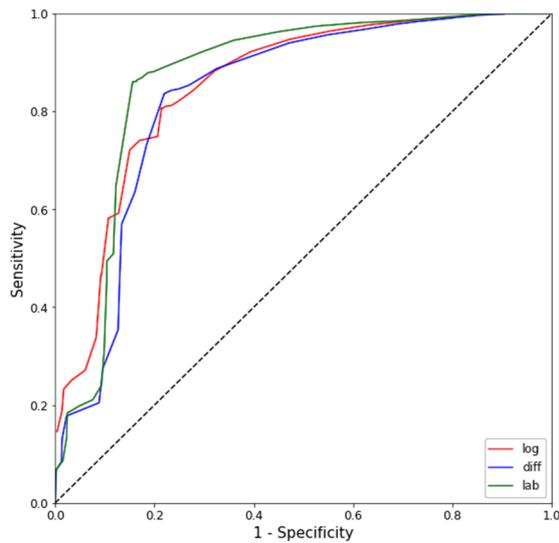


Figure 2: ROC curves for three estimators: R-G (blue curve), $\log(R/G)$ (red curve), and a^* (green curve).

5 CONCLUSIONS

We have analyzed the performance of several simple estimators for erythema detection in realistic settings. The preliminary data shows that smartphone cameras can delineate erythema with reasonable sensitivity and specificity. The approach can be implemented using an inexpensive imaging setup (e.g., smartphone) and can be used in any setting.

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