# Estimation of Informative Features in the Analysis of 2D Images of Bone Objects in Forensic

A. Doudkin Laboratory of the System Identification United Institute of Informatics Problems Minsk, Belarus

> Ya. Marushko Computer Vision Department Softarex Technologies Minsk, Belarus marushkoee@gmail.com

A. Voronov Laboratory of the System Identification United Institute of Informatics Problems Minsk, Belarus voronov@lsi.bas-net.by

L. Podenok Laboratory of the System Identification United Institute of Informatics Problems Minsk, Belarus podenok@lsi.bas-net.by V. Ganchenko Laboratory of the System Identification United Institute of Informatics Problems Minsk, Belarus ganchenko@lsi.bas-net.by

A. Inyutin Laboratory of the System Identification United Institute of Informatics Problems Minsk, Belarus avin@lsi.bas-net.by

Abstract—In this paper we propose an approach to solving the problems of extracting and evaluating information features from 2D images of bone fractures and bone objects for further successful classifying fractures. As parameters or features, the textural characteristics of Haralick, local binary patterns of pixels for 2D images, Gabor filters, Laws energy texture characteristics for 2D images are considered. The analysis carried out on basis of information content estimation to select the features that are most suitable for solving the problem of bone fractures classification. This paper also describes the experiments and experimental data.

## Keywords—bone objects, texture features, Haralick, local binary patterns

### I. INTRODUCTION

Bone fractures are becoming more common in our country. The majority of authors are only concerned about whether the bone is broken or not, with very few concentrating on the classification of bone fractures. There are different feature extraction methods that may be used to diagnose bone fractures. Textural parameters of grayscale digital images with different modality are used as features [1-3]. The grayscale representation is important because it preserves the structure, not the color, of the objects. The color of the object may change depending on the lighting, over time, due to other factors. There are a lot of imaging methods used in forensic and some of them are laser methods, photogrammetry, CT scaning, magnetic resonance imaging, multimodal imaging extends the applications of 3D digital imaging more by combining data acquired from different methods to form a single coupled model. There are only some papers devoted to the texture analysis of 2D images of bone objects for providing a preliminary decision support system. The main task of this paper estimate the possibility of using texture features in developing models that can automatically detect and classify fractures in human bones by decision support system.

#### II. DATA PREPARATION

The original images obtained from a camera with different resolutions contain the following elements: background, measurement tools and areas of interest (example in Fig. 1). For example Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 illustrate areas of interest on base images that have been selected. As you can see selected rectangular fragments containing 100 % of the fracture surface. The images have been converted to grayscale representation because the color of an object

essentially depends on its illumination and changes the texture of the objects surface areas of interest [4-17].



Fig. 1. Example of a base image.

All available original images were divided into two groups. The first group for analysis was formed such that selected areas of interest included not only images of fractures but also bone fragments without damage.



Fig. 2. Example of a base images from first group.

The second group for analysis contained only images of bone fragments with fractures (skull injuries).

#### III. FEATURE ENGINEERING AND ANALYSIS

The following groups of textural features were studied to distinguish between the types of bone damage from the first group:



Fig. 3. Example of a base images from second group.

- 13 features of Haralik based on adjacency matrices of brightness values [18-19];
- local binary pixel images (LBP) [19];
- Gabor filters [21];
- energy texture characteristics of Laws [21-22].

The following variants of LBP signs were used:

- radius=3, number of patterns=24;
- radius=5, number of patterns=40;
- radius=7, number of patterns=56.

The LBP name of a feature contains its parameters: lbp\_r<radius>\_h<template\_index>. After calculating the features in each pixel, a histogram of their results was compiled. This histogram is the result as a set of features. A total of 26 results of LBP histograms within a radius of 3 were collected; 42 LBP histogram within a radius values of 5; 58 LBP histogram measurements within a radius of 7.

The Gabor filters were applied under the following parametes: sizes of filter cores are 15, 21 and 31; rotation angles are  $0^{\circ}$ ,  $22^{\circ}$ ,  $24^{\circ}$ ,  $67^{\circ}$ ,  $90^{\circ}$ ,  $112^{\circ}$ ,  $135^{\circ}$ ,  $157^{\circ}$ .

The name of the filter characterizes its parameters: ks\_<kernel size>\_th\_<rotation angle>. As an estimation, the average value of the matrix obtained by filtering the image is used.

The following textural energy characteristics of Laws were used:  $L_NL_N$ ,  $E_NE_N$ ,  $S_NS_N$ ,  $L_NE_N$ ,  $E_NS_N$ ,  $L_NS_N$  where N are the dimensions of the base vector, the values of which can be taken from the pair [3, 5, 7]. As an estimation for Laws as well as for Gabor filters the average value of the matrix obtained by filtering the image is used.

There are at least two important reasons to get rid of unimportant features. The first one: the more data, the higher the computational complexity. If we work with train datasets, the size of the data is not a problem, but, for loaded production systems, hundreds of extra features will be quite tangible. The second reason is that some algorithms take non-informative features as a signal and overfit. There is statistical approaches for feature estimation but we used other one selection from modeling. The main idea is to use some model as an feature importance estimator: for example, we can use linear model with Lasso regularization or some tree based models (which have natural ability to compute feature importance). Then, based on received importance/weights we can choose some threshold and take features, that have importance above this value.

We estimate over 180 textural features. For estimation the information content of features used mathematical apparatus based on the statistical procedures ANOVA. ANalysis Of VAriance (ANOVA) - is a statistical model and estimation procedures used to analyze the differences among means. ANOVA based on the law of total variance. In its simplest form, ANOVA provides a statistical test of whether two or more population means are equal, and therefore generalizes the t-test beyond two means. In other words, the ANOVA is used to test the difference between two or more means - based on F-statistic [29] - class of statistical tests that calculate the ratio between values of the variance, such as the variance from two different samples, or the explained and unexplained variance using a statistical test; Recursive Feature Elimination (RFE) [23] based on L1 norm or Linear [24]. Support Vector Machines (SVMs) **SVMs** are supervised learning models associated with learning algorithms that analyze data for classification and regression analysis. In addition to performing linear classification, SVMs can efficiently perform a non-linear classification using what is called the kernel trick, implicitly mapping their inputs into high-dimensional feature spaces. The support vector clustering algorithm, applies the statistics of support vectors, developed in the support vector machines algorithm, to categorize unlabeled data. These data sets require unsupervised learning approaches, which attempt to find natural clustering of the data to groups and, then, to map new data according to these clusters.

The goal of Recursive Feature Elimination (RFE) is to select features by recursively considering smaller sets of features. The estimator is trained on an initial set of features, and the information content of each feature is determined by the coefficients of the model. Then the least informative ones are removed from the current feature set. This procedure is repeated recursively to reduce the set of features until the desired number of the most informative features is reached.

Linear models with L1 norm have sparse solutions: many of their coefficients have equal chances. When the goal is to reduce the data size for another use by the classifier, the non-zero coefficients are removed. The linear classifier SVM with the parameter C=0.01 was used as estimator.

The Extremely Randomized Trees (ExtraTrees) model implements a collection of trees that fit a set of randomized

 
 TABLE I.
 20 THE MOST INFORMATIVE FEATURES FOR IDENTIFYING SURFACE DAMAGE AND BONE FRACTURES

N⁰	Names of Features	Total score			
1	lbp_r3_h6	0.026883			
2	lbp_r5_h7	0.026713			
3	lbp_r3_h5	0.023050			
4	lbp_r7_h0	0.020107			
5	lbp_r5_h29	0.020078			
6	lbp_r3_h17	0.019377			
7	lbp_r7_h9	0.018229			
8	lbp_r7_h7	0.017201			
9	lbp_r5_h30	0.016604			
10	lbp_r3_h18	0.015955			
11	lbp_r5_h6	0.015771			
12	lbp_r7_h29	0.014985			
13	lbp_r7_h27	0.014879			
14	lbp_r7_h8	0.014655			
15	lbp_r3_h23	0.014529			
16	lbp_r3_h4	0.013667			
17	lbp_r7_h31	0.013111			
18	lbp_r7_h6	0.013103			
19	lbp_r3_h19	0.013058			
20	lbp_r7_h28	0.012983			

ANOVA		Linear		Extra		Random		Combined	
		SVM L1		Trees		Forest		Score	
Fea ture	Score	Fe atu re	Sco re	Fe atu re	Sco re	Fe atu re	Sco re	Fe atu re	Sco re
lbp_ r3_ h17	13. 64	L7 E7	0.0 010	lbp_ r3_ h5	0.0 28	lbp_ r7_ h7	0.0 37	lbp_ r5_ h7	2.47
lbp_ r3_ h18	12. 06	Vari ance	0.0 010	lbp_ r3_ h6	0.0 28	lbp_ r7_ h0	0.0 34	lbp_ r3_ h5	2.37
lbp_ r7_ h47	11. 98	L7 S7	0.0 023	lbp_ r5_ h7	0.0 24	lbp_ r3_ h5	0.0 32	lbp_ r3_ h18	2.33
lbp_ r5_ h29	11. 97	_	_	lbp_ r3_ h18	0.0 19	lbp_ r7_ h6	0.0 31	lbp_ r7_ h9	2.26
lbp_ r3_ h23	11. 39	_	_	lbp_ r3_ h17	0.0 18	lbp_ r3_ h18	0.0 3	lbp_ r3_ h6	2.23
lbp_ r5_ h33	10. 96			lbp_ r7_ h0	0.0 17	lbp_ r5_ h9	0.0 29	lbp_ r7_ h7	2.22
lbp_ r7_ h9	10. 72	_	_	lbp_ r7_ h31	0.0 16	lbp_ r7_ h9	0.0 28	lbp_ r3_ h17	2.20
lbp_ r3_ h6	10. 29	—		lbp_ r3_ h23	0.0 15	lbp_ r5_ h7	0.0 27	lbp_ r7_ h0	2.10
lbp_ r3_ h5	10. 26			lbp_ r7_ h47	0.0 15	lbp_ r3_ h6	0.0 27	lbp_ r5_ h9	2.04
lbp_ r5_ h7	10. 09	—		lbp_ r5_ h6	0.0 15	lbp_ r5_ h6	0.0 26	lbp_ r7_ h6	1.85

TABLE II. THE MOST INFORMATIVE FEATURES IDENTIFIED AT THE  $1^{\text{ST}}$  group

solutions on different subsamples of datasets and uses averaging to determine the accuracy of predictions and control overfitting. ExtraTrees at each level of the tree selects the criteria randomly [25].The random forest construction method implements a set of randomly constructed solutions. The random forest at each level of the tree selects the base criteria of the Gini criterion [26-27].

In the last two methods, 1000 trees were built. When comparing the data, both methods identified 55 features, but their originality was somewhat different, as shown in Table 1.

The results of the selection of the most informative features for surface damage and bone fractures are presented for the first group for analysis at the Table 1 or Table 2 and

TABLE III. The most informative features identified at the  $2^{\rm ND}$  group

ANOVA		Linear SVM L1		Extra Trees		Random Forest		Combined Score	
Fea ture	Score	Fe atu re	Sco re	Fe atu re	Sco re	Fe atu re	Sco re	Fe atu re	Sco re
lbp_ r5_ h33	24. 57	L7 E7	0.00 40	Corr elati on	0.0 13	lbp_ r7_ h5	0.01 85	lbp_ r5_ h34	2.78
lbp_ r5_ h34	23. 73	L5 L5	0.00 09	lbp_ r5_ h30	0.0 13	L7 L7	0.01 83	lbp_ r7_ h50	2.58
lbp_ r7_ h50	23. 38	L7 S7	0.00 07	lbp_ r5_ h31	0.0 12	lbp_ r5_ h6	0.01 82	lbp_ r5_ h33	2.55
lbp_ r3_ h17	22. 63	L7 L7	0.00 06	lbp_ r5_ h29	0.0 12	lbp_ r5_ h34	0.01 81	lbp_ r3_ h18	2.55
lbp_ r3_ h18	22. 33	_	_	lbp_ r7_ h45	0.0 11	Diffe renc eVar iance	0.01 81	lbp_ r5_ h6	2.50
lbp_ r7_ h51	22. 18	_	_	lbp_ r5_ h34	0.0 11	Corr elati on	0.01 79	lbp_ r7_ h5	2.43
lbp_ r5_ h6	21. 59	_		lbp_ r3_ h18	0.0 11	lbp_ r7_ h50	0.01 73	lbp_ r3_ h19	2.28
lbp_ r5_ h30	21. 55			Sum Aver age	0.0 10	lbp_ r5_ h33	0.01 66	lbp_ r7_ h51	2.28
lbp_ r5_ h35	21. 08			Sum Vari ance	0.0 10	Vari ance	0.01 56	lbp_ r3_ h17	2.25
lbp_ r7_ h48	20. 91	_	_	Mea sof Corr elati on	0.0 10	Mea sof Corr elati on	0.01 55	Corr elati on	2.25

Fig. 4. On this research set of 27 images of 13 bone objects, the most informative features are the LBP type with different radii. The results of the selection of the most informative features of superficial injuries and bone fractures are presented for the second group for analysis at the Table 3 and Fig. 5. A total of 181 features were studied using the tools described above (ANOVA, Linear SVMs, ExtraTrees, Random forests). For example, see Table 3, which present the most informative features for the second group of images for analysis.

On the set of 45 images of 6 bone objects, the most informative features were LBP-type features with different



Fig. 4. Total normalized estimates of the information content for all features of fractures and bones for the first group for analysis



Fig. 5. Total normalized estimates of the information content for all features of fractures and bones for the first group for analysis

radii and the Haralik Correlation texture characteristic. The results of the selection of the most informative features are presented.

The selected features make it possible to classify and quantify damage to bone objects based on their images, see Table 1. Testing of the software implementation of the method for automated selecting features of 2D highresolution images of bone objects useful for identifying damage was performed successfully on 72 images of 19 bone objects.

#### **IV. CONCLUSION**

The paper presents an experimental software package for 2D high-resolution bone image processing in part of selecting the most informative features for further classification. A complex algorithmic solution is proposed, which makes it possible to automate the feature selection for further bone image classification and analysis. As we see in paper the selected features can be useful for classification of bone images and have good practical prospects.

#### REFERENCES

- K. Moraitis, C. Spiliopoulou, Identification and differential diagnosis of perimortem blunt force trauma in tubular long bones, Forensic Science, Medicine, and Pathology, vol. 4, 2006, pp. 221 – 229.
- [2] N. Dempsey, S. Blau, Evaluating the evidentiary value of the analysis of skeletal trauma in forensic research: A review of research and practice, Forensic science international, vol. 307, 2020, pp. 110-140.
- [3] M. R. M. Aliha, et al. Fracture and microstructural study of bovine bone under mixed mode I/II loading, Procedia Structural Integrity, vol. 13, 2018, pp. 1488 – 1493.
- [4] T. Ojala, M. Pietikainen, and T. Maenpaa. Multiresolution gray-scale and rotation invariant texture classification with local binary patterns. IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence, 24(7):971–987, July 2002
- [5] T. Ojala, Matti Pietikäinen, and D. Harwood. Performance evaluation of texture measures with classification based on kullback discrimination of distributions. volume 1, pages 582 – 585 vol.1, 11 1994.
- [6] F. Aeffner, et al.: Introduction to digital image analysis in whole-slide imaging: a white paper from the digital pathology association. J. Pathol. Inform. 10(1), 1–17 (2019)
- [7] S.K. Zhou, et al.: A review of deep learning in medical imaging: imaging traits, technology trends, case studies with progress highlights, and future promises. Proc. IEEE 109(5), 820–838 (2021)
- [8] P. Brynolfsson Haralick texture features from apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC) MRI images depend on imaging and preprocessing parameters, Scientific reports, 2017, vol. 1., pp.1–11. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-04151-4.

- [9] I. Vrbik, et al.: Haralick texture feature analysis for quantifying radiation response heterogeneity in murine models observed using Raman spectroscopic mapping, Plos one., 2019., vol. 14., pp. 21-25
- [10] H.Y. Chai, et al.: Gray-level co-occurrence matrix bone fracture detection, WSEAS Transactions on Systems. – 2011. – T. 10. – № 1. – P. 7 – 16.
- [11] N. Bayramoglu, et al.: Adaptive segmentation of knee radiographs for selecting the optimal ROI in texture analysis, Osteoarthritis and cartilage, 2020, vol. 7, pp. 941 – 952. https://doi.org /10.1016/j.joca.2020.03.006.
- [12] L. Houam, One dimensional local binary pattern for bone texture characterization, Pattern Analysis and Applications, 2014, vol. 17, pp. 179 – 193.
- [13] L. Nanni, Survey on LBP based texture descriptors for image classification, Expert Systems with Applications, 2012, vol. 3, pp. 3634 – 3641.
- [14] W. G. Geraets, Fractal properties of bone, Dentomaxillofacial Radiology, 2000, vol. 3, pp. 144 – 153. DOI: 10.1038/ sj/dmfr/4600524.
- [15] J. Skrzat, Fractal dimensions of the sagittal (interparietal) sutures in humans, Folia Morphologica, 2003, vol. 2, pp. 119 – 122. PMID: 12866671.
- [16] R. S. Lu, Texture analysis based on Gabor filters improves the estimate of bone fracture risk from DXA images, Computer Methods in Biomechanics and Biomedical Engineering: Imaging & Visualization, 2018, vol. 4, pp. 453 – 464. DOI: 10.1080/21681 163.2016.1271726
- [17] I. Hacihaliloglu, et al.: Automatic adaptive parameterization in local phase feature-based bone segmentation in ultrasound, Ultrasound in medicine & biology, 2011, vol. 10, pp. 1689 – 1703. DOI: 10.1016 /j.ultrasmedbio.2011.06.006.
- [18] R.M. Haralick, Textural features for image classification, IEEE Transactions on systems, man, and cybernetics, 1973, vol. 6., pp. 610–621.
- [19] R. M. Haralick, On some quickly computable features for texture, Proc. Symp. Computer Image Processing and Recognition, Univ.Missouri, Columbia., 1972, vol. 2, pp. 12-21.
- [20] G. Feichtinger, Gabor analysis and algorithms : theory and applications., Boston: Birkhäuser, 1998.
- [21] K.I. Laws, Rapid texture identification. In Conf. Image processing for missile guidance, 1980, San Diego, USA, vol. 238, pp. 376-381.
- [22] A. D. Nasledov, Matematicheskie metody psihologicheskogo issledovaniya, SPb, 2008 (In Russian)
- [23] K. Max, and K. Johnson., Applied Predictive Modeling., New York, NY: Springer, 2018.
- [24] A. Ben-Hur, et al.: "Support vector clustering", Journal of Machine Learning Research., vol. 2, 2001, pp. 125–137.
- [25] P. Geurts, D. Ernst., and L. Wehenkel, Extremely randomized trees, Machine Learning, vol.63, pp.3-42, 2006
- [26] L. Breiman, Random Forests, Machine Learning, vol.45, pp. 5–32, 2001
- [27] J. Shlens, A tutorial on principal component analysis, Systems Neurobiology Laboratory, Salk Institute for Biological Studies, 2005