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1 **Article Type:** Original article

2 **Article Title:** CLASSIFICATION OF BASAL CELL CARCINOMA IN EX VIVO
3 **CONFOCAL MICROSCOPY IMAGES FROM FRESHLY EXCISED TISSUES USING**
4 **A DEEP LEARNING ALGORITHM**

5 **Short Title:** Deep learning for confocal ex vivo images

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32 **Keywords:** *ex vivo* confocal microscopy, digitally stained purple and pink images, basal cell
33 carcinoma, convolutional neural network, deep learning

34 **Abbreviations Used:** BCC is Basal Cell carcinoma, MMS is Mohs Micrographic Surgery, AI
35 is Artificial Intelligence, EVCM is *Ex Vivo* Confocal Microscopy, ROC is Receiver Operator
36 Characteristic, AUC is Area Under the Curve, CNN is Convolutional Neural Network.

37 **ABSTRACT**

38 *Ex vivo* confocal microscopy (EVCN) generates digitally colored purple-pink images similar
39 to H&E, without time-consuming tissue processing. It can be used during Mohs surgery for
40 rapid detection of basal cell carcinoma (BCC); however, reading EVCN images requires
41 specialized training. An automated approach using a Deep Learning algorithm to BCC detection
42 in EVCN images can aid in diagnosis. 40 BCCs and 28 negative (“not-BCC”) samples were
43 collected at Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center to create three training datasets: 1) EVCN
44 image dataset (663 images), 2) H&E image dataset (516 images), and 3) a combination of the
45 two datasets. 7 BCCs and 4 negative samples were collected to create a EVCN test dataset
46 (107 images). The model trained with the EVCN dataset achieved 92% diagnostic accuracy,
47 similar to the H&E model (93%). The area under ROC was 0.94, 0.95, and 0.94 for EVCN,
48 H&E, and combination trained models, respectively. We developed an algorithm for automatic
49 BCC detection in EVCN images (comparable accuracy to dermatologists). This approach could
50 be used to assist with BCC detection during Mohs surgery. Furthermore, we found that a model
51 trained with only H&E images (which are more available than EVCN images) can accurately
52 detect BCC in EVCN images.

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62 INTRODUCTION

63 Basal cell carcinoma (BCC) is the most common skin cancer accounting for ~2 millions of
64 cases annually in the United States alone [Rogers et al. 2015]. Biopsy, followed by
65 histopathology, is the gold standard for diagnosis and subtyping of BCCs (as aggressive or non-
66 aggressive) for appropriate management — surgical treatment for aggressive tumors versus
67 topical treatment (non-surgical) for less aggressive BCCs. For aggressive or recurrent tumors,
68 especially those located in cosmetically sensitive sites such as the face, Mohs micrographic
69 surgery (MMS) is the treatment of choice with high cure rates [Van Loo et al. 2014]. However,
70 MMS is a tedious and time-consuming procedure as it involves careful removal of skin cancer
71 layer-by-layer. Each excised layer undergoes frozen sectioning and microscopic evaluation,
72 requiring up to 20-45 minutes. Often times multiple layers are removed to achieve complete
73 tumor clearance; thus, the entire surgical procedure may last for several hours [Keena and Que
74 2016], increasing patient’s waiting time, complications, and cost of the procedure. Additionally,
75 frozen sectioning can cause tissue destruction and create artefacts that may hinder the final
76 diagnosis.

77 To expedite the surgical procedure, various *ex vivo* optical imaging devices have been
78 developed [Bennàssar et al. 2013; Dalimier and Salomon 2012; Gareau et al. 2009; Karen et al.
79 2009]. These devices can rapidly image freshly excised tissues at “near-histopathological”
80 resolution, obviating the need for destructive and time-consuming tissue processing.

81 *Ex vivo* confocal microscopy (EVCN) is an emerging imaging technique that can evaluate
82 freshly (un-processed) excised whole-tissue samples without the need for tissue processing
83 (frozen sectioning). As there is no tissue processing involved, EVCN can image tissues rapidly
84 (less than a minute for a tissue measuring up to 2 cm), reducing the time for the Mohs surgery
85 and enabling real-time imaging in the surgical suite [Keena and Que 2016]. Furthermore,
86 EVCN creates digitally colored purple and pink images (similar to H&E images) by converting

87 fluorescence signal originating from the nucleus into purple color and reflectance signal from
88 the cytoplasm into pink color. These digitally colored images can be read by Mohs surgeons
89 trained in pathology [Mu et al. 2016]. Although EVCM has demonstrated an overall high
90 sensitivity and specificity (~ 90%) for detection of BCC [Gareau et al. 2009; Karen et al. 2009]
91 during MMS [Bennàssar et al. 2013], it is only been utilized in very few academic centers. We
92 believe that the integration of an automatic algorithm for the detection of BCC in EVCM images
93 could immensely aid Mohs surgeons, increasing adoption of this technology. Moreover, EVCM
94 technology may be useful for surgical pathologists and dermatologists to obtain faster results
95 from standard excisions [Bennàssar A et al. 2012; Debarbieux et al. 2015] or even for biopsies
96 of inflammatory skin lesions [Bağcı et al. 2019; Bağcı et al. 2021; Bertoni et al. 2018]. This
97 approach can achieve the goal of a real “bedside” pathology, similar to the ongoing integration
98 of this technique for assessment of non-dermatology specimens in surgical pathology
99 [Panarello et al. 2020].

100 Artificial intelligence (AI) is currently transforming healthcare [Hinton 2018]. A popular AI
101 technique for image classification is Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), a deep-learning
102 approach inspired from the human brain. In CNNs, inputs such as images go through several
103 layers of artificial “neurons” before an output is finally rendered such as the diagnoses of those
104 images. CNN algorithms are being used in radiology and pathology [Topol 2019] to classify
105 images as neoplastic or non-neoplastic and have shown a proficiency at par or even exceeding
106 human performance [Campanella et al. 2019]. Likewise, in dermatology, CNNs have reported
107 comparable performance to an expert dermatologist in skin cancer diagnosis using clinical
108 [Esteva et al. 2017; Fujisawa et al. 2019, Han et al. 2018] and dermoscopy images [Brinker et
109 al. 2019; Codella et al. 2016; Haenssle et al. 2018; Haenssle et al. 2020]. Recently, CNN has
110 also been applied successfully to reflectance confocal microscopy (RCM) images to classify
111 skin lesions [Kose et al. 2020, Wodzinski et al. 2019; Wodzinski et al. 2020, Campanella et

112 al. 2021]. However, to the best of our knowledge, CNNs have not been developed and tested to
113 diagnose skin cancers in digitally colored EVCM images.

114 The goal of this study was to develop and test the performance of CNN algorithms for detecting
115 BCC in digitally colored EVCM images obtained from freshly excised tissues from Mohs
116 surgery. For this study, 40 BCCs and 28 negative (“not-BCC”) skin tissue samples were
117 collected from 42 patients to create three different image datasets to train CNN models: 1) an
118 EVCM image dataset with 663 images, 2) an H&E image dataset with 516 images, and 3) a
119 combination of the two datasets (EVCM and H&E image datasets) with 1179 images. The
120 performance of these 3 trained models were evaluated and compared on a separate test set (not
121 used in training), which comprised of 97 EVCM images created using 7 BCCs and 4 negative
122 (“not-BCC”) skin tissue samples were from 11 patients.

123

124 **RESULTS**

125 **Patient demographics and lesion characteristics:**

126 A total of 53 patients were enrolled in the study. Mean age was 61 years (\pm 13, range 36-95
127 years); 64% (34/53) were males and 36% (19/53) females. Majority of the lesions, 63.3%
128 (50/79) were located on the head and neck. A total of 47 BCCs were imaged including 18
129 nodular BCCs (nBCCs), 11 superficial BCCs (sBCCs), 10 infiltrative BCCs (iBCCs), 8 mix-
130 subtype BCCs and 32 skin samples did not present BCC. Patient demographics and lesion
131 characteristics are detailed in the Supplementary Table S1.

132

133 **Model performance:**

134 The main outcome measures were sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value (PPV), and
135 negative predictive value (NPV) (Table 1 and Supplementary Figure S1).

136 The model trained with the EVCM dataset (EVCM model) achieved 92% diagnostic accuracy,
137 similar to the H&E model (93%). Compared to the H&E model, the EVCM model had a higher
138 sensitivity (96% vs. 93%) but lower specificity (89% vs. 92%). The combined model had the
139 lowest diagnostic accuracy (86%) with a high specificity (92%; similar to H&E model) but the
140 lowest sensitivity (78%). Area under the curve (AUC) of receiver operating characteristics
141 (ROC) for diagnostic dichotomous classification was calculated for each the three training
142 datasets (Figure 1). The AUC was 0.94, 0.95, and 0.94 for EVCM, H&E and combination
143 trained models, respectively.

144

145 **Gradient maps:**

146 Gradient maps created with Grad-CAM [Selvaraju RR, 2016] highlighted important regions in
147 red color in the images for predicting the presence/absence of tumor after all the three trainings.
148 Figure 2 shows gradient map examples of a true positive (TP), a true negative (TN), a false
149 positive (FP), and a false negative (FN) tissue sample. For the TP example, the algorithm
150 identified even small BCC nodules (asterisks) as important areas for BCC prediction, while not
151 taking the hair follicle (arrow) as an important region. Likewise, for the TN example, sebaceous
152 gland was correctly identified as an important region within the image for the negative
153 prediction for tumor. We had a very few images with false positive and false negative results.
154 For FP example, sebaceous glands (arrowhead) and eccrine ducts (star) were detected as
155 important for BCC detection. On the other hand, a FN example where BCC nodules (asterisks)
156 were not considered important and the algorithm prediction was no-BCC.

157

158 **DISCUSSION**

159 BCC is the most common skin cancer worldwide [Leiter et al. 2014]. Although, BCC has a low
160 metastatic potential it can be locally invasive causing extensive tissue damage and loss of

161 regional function [Nehal and Bichakjian 2018]. MMS is a specialized surgical procedure
162 capable of achieving complete clearance of BCC, while maximizing normal tissue preservation,
163 making it a preferred treatment for recurrent BCCs and BCCs located on cosmetically sensitive
164 and functionally challenging sites, such as the face [Jain et al. 2017]. However, MMS is not
165 only a time-consuming surgery (due to frozen section analysis) but it is also an expensive
166 procedure that requires an extensive laboratory set-up and specialized surgeons and technicians.
167 *Ex vivo* confocal microscopy (EVCN) is an emerging imaging technique that generates
168 digitally colored purple and pink images similar to H&E, without any time-consuming tissue
169 processing [Mu et al. 2016; Schüürmann et al. 2019]. It can be used during Mohs surgery
170 (MMS) for rapid detection of residual basal cell carcinoma (BCC); however, reading EVCN
171 images requires specialized training. An automated approach to BCC detection in EVCN
172 images can aid in diagnosis.

173 Currently, AI is being implemented extensively in the field of dermatology and pathology for
174 the automated diagnosis of skin cancers and non-neoplastic lesions (psoriasis, atopic dermatitis
175 and onychomycosis) [Han et al. 2018] in clinical and dermoscopy images using CNN, a deep-
176 learning algorithm [Esteva et al. 2017, Schüürmann et al. 2019]. In our study we used CNN for
177 detection of BCC in EVCN images. CNN was first used in skin cancer detection by Nasr-
178 Esfahani et al. (2016) for the diagnosis of melanoma. They trained the algorithm with a small
179 dataset of 170 clinical images from melanocytic lesions. Similar to our study, the authors used
180 augmentation methods such as random rotation, and resizing of the images to increase the
181 number of images (from 170 original images to 6120 images) in the training dataset, which
182 yielded a sensitivity of 81% and a specificity of 80% in the diagnosis of melanoma.

183 CNNs has been applied to non-invasive *in vivo* imaging technique such as reflectance confocal
184 microscopy (RCM). Wodzinski et al. (2019) reported an accuracy of 91% in the diagnosis of
185 BCC in RCM images. Recently, Campanella et al. (2021) developed a deep learning model to

186 automatically detect BCC in RCM images acquired from lesions clinically equivocal for BCC
187 and compared the results with the RCM expert readers. The proposed model achieved an area
188 under the curve (AUC) for the receiver operator characteristic (ROC) curve of 89.7%, which
189 was on par with the expert readers. We achieved similar results with 92% diagnostic accuracy
190 for detection of BCC in EVCM images using EVCM training dataset. The use of H&E images
191 to train deep-learning algorithms has been extensively used in pathology. Towards this end,
192 Campanella et al. (2019) reported an accuracy above 98% in the diagnosis of BCC in
193 conventional H&E stained images. On the contrary, we achieved a diagnostic accuracy of 93%
194 with H&E-trained model for the detection of BCC in EVCM images. This difference in
195 diagnostic accuracy could be attributed to the differences in the type of images used for the
196 training and testing datasets in our study i.e. H&E images trained model was tested on EVCM
197 image dataset compared to the use of only H&E images in the training and testing datasets in
198 their study. Another reason could be the use of a relatively larger number of images (9,962)
199 used to train their model.

200 Our study demonstrates CNN's high-level performance in classifying BCC in EVCM images.
201 Even with the use of freshly discarded tumor margins in this study, which typically has less
202 tumor burden than the central tumor de-bulk tissue, we achieved a high sensitivity and
203 specificity in the diagnosis of BCC in EVCM images, which is at par with dermatologists'
204 reported level in the literature [Gareau et al. 2009; Karen et al. 2009; Mu et al. 2016]. The
205 highest sensitivity value of 96% was obtained when the CNN was trained with EVCM images,
206 whereas the specificity decreased to 89%. Our results showed the best accuracy with H&E-
207 trained model, which could be attributed to the better and sharper image quality of H&E images
208 compared to digitally-colored EVCM images. Because we demonstrated that H&E images can
209 successfully train CNNs to diagnose BCC in EVCM images, one can collect a large dataset
210 comprising of only H&E images to train such a model (as H&E images are more readily

211 available than EVCM images). Due to large number of images used in the H&E training dataset,
212 less time-consuming weakly supervised CNN training could be used [Campanella et al. 2019]
213 instead of the completely supervised training used in our study.

214 Although the combined (H&E and EVCM training dataset) model improved the specificity of
215 BCC detection in EVCM images, it had the lowest diagnostic accuracy and sensitivity
216 compared to the other two models (EVCM and H&E models). It is possible that the model
217 trained with the combined dataset may not have had sufficient training time (i.e., number of
218 epochs), which can be explored in future work.

219 Furthermore, the gradient map created in this study could be combined with the model
220 prediction to aid surgeons in the real-time diagnosis and also as a teaching-training tool for
221 novices [Campanella et al. 2021].

222 Our study had some limitations. First, while our dataset covered all the common subtypes of
223 BCCs, it had an overall small size samples of each subtype, which could not represent all the
224 morphological appearance of BCCs encountered in clinical practice. Also, this study did not
225 include analysis on pigmented BCCs, which may be important to be tested in future studies.

226 Secondly, the algorithm has yet to be tested in actual clinical practice. Also, for imaging with
227 the EVCM device, we used freshly discarded surgical margins from Mohs surgery, which often
228 has less tumor burden than the central de-bulk tissue. Even with the smaller tumor burden in
229 these samples our algorithm achieved high diagnostic values; thus, we anticipate better results
230 using de-bulk specimens with higher tumor burden. Lastly, all the images were acquired at a
231 single institution, which does not account for the variability in staining protocols and tissue
232 processing. Thus, our results should be further validated on EVCM images acquired from
233 various centers (multi-centric study).

234 In conclusion, we present the results of a deep-learning algorithm in classifying BCC in EVCM
235 images. The various models developed could diagnose BCC in digitally colored purple and

236 pink EVCM images which was at par with reported dermatologists' accuracy in the literature.
237 Furthermore, we found that a model trained with only H&E images (which are more available
238 than EVCM images) can accurately detect BCC in EVCM images. Training deep-learning
239 technology with H&E images to diagnose EVCM images expands the possibility our approach
240 to be generalized to diagnose a variety of skin lesions (neoplastic and non-neoplastic) in excised
241 tissues. Ultimately, deep-learning models could be integrated in existing EVCM devices to aid
242 Mohs surgeons in identifying BCCs automatically. Prospective and larger scale studies are
243 needed to validate this technology in real clinical practice.

244

245 **MATERIAL AND METHODS:**

246 **Tissue sample collection and image acquisition:**

247 All the tissues used for creating the training and test datasets were collected at Memorial Sloan
248 Kettering Cancer Center (NY, USA) under institutional review protocols (IRBs #17-078 and #
249 08-066) approved by Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center Ethics Committee and after
250 written, informed consent from patients.

251 ***a) Tissue sample collection and image acquisition for EVCM images:***

252 Freshly discarded whole tissues samples (excised *en face* tumor margins) were collected
253 consecutively from BCC cases undergoing Mohs surgery under a prospective IRB protocol (#
254 08-066). These samples were dipped in 0.6 mM acridine orange dye (a fluorescent dye) for 20
255 seconds and immediately placed on a commercial EVCM device (Vivascope 2500; Caliber ID,
256 Rochester, NY, USA) for imaging [Jain et al. 2017]. The tissue was similarly oriented as for
257 the frozen sectioning, which enabled an *en face* view of the entire tissue. Digitally-colored
258 purple and pink images were acquired by combining signals from the fluorescent and
259 reflectance channels, respectively (Supplementary Figure S2). First, we acquired an overview
260 image, covering the entire tissue (measuring up to 2 cm in maximum diameter) section. Then

261 we acquired multiple smaller sized zoomed-in images (within the overview image) of BCC
262 tumors and normal surrounding skin structures such as sebaceous glands, hair follicles,
263 epidermis, and eccrine ducts.

264 ***b) Tissue sample collection and image acquisition for H&E images:***

265 Under another IRB approved protocol (#17-078), a Dataline search was performed to identify
266 lesions with a histopathology confirmed diagnosis of BCC. We retrieved routine histopathology
267 H&E stained slides from these lesions from the Department of Dermatopathology. The glass
268 slides were then digitized using Aperio AT2 slide Scanner (Leica Biosystems, Nussloch,
269 Germany) in the Dermatology research lab. Similar to EVCM image acquisition, we acquired
270 multiple H&E images at various magnifications (2x, 8x,10x) from BCC tumors and normal
271 surrounding skin structures (sebaceous glands, hair follicles, epidermis, and eccrine ducts).
272 On average, we acquired 24 images (ranging from 1 to 49 images) of varied sizes measuring
273 ~1200x600 pixels to ~12000x12000 pixels per tissue sample using EVCM and H&E images.

274

275 **Image Labelling:**

276 The H&E and EVCM images were analyzed for the presence or absence of BCC by a
277 dermatologist (MSM) and a pathologist specialized in optical imaging techniques (MJ). Each
278 image was labelled as “BCC” and “not-BCC” and used to create training and test datasets (see
279 below).

280

281 **Dataset Creation:**

282 ***Training Datasets:***

283 **1. EVCM training dataset:** A total of 663 digitally stained purple and pink EVCM
284 images (190 “BCC” images and 473 “not-BCC” images) were obtained from 14 fresh

285 BCC tissues (5 nodular BCC, 4 infiltrative BCC, 3 superficial BCC, and 2 infiltrative-
286 nodular BCCs) and 15 negative (“not-BCC”) controls normal skin tissues.

287 **2. H&E training dataset:** A total of 516 H&E images (170 “BCC” images and 346 “not-
288 BCC”) were obtained from 26 H&E stained slides of BCC (11 nodular BCC, 4
289 infiltrative BCC, 6 superficial BCC, 3 infiltrative-nodular and 2 superficial-nodular
290 BCC), and 13 negative (“not-BCC”) controls normal skin tissues.

291 **3. Combined EVCM and H&E training dataset:** A total of 1,179 images, which was
292 created by combining all 516 images from the EVCM database and all 663 images from
293 the H&E dataset.

294 **Test Dataset:** The CNN models built using the above three training datasets were tested on a
295 new set of 107 EVCM images (45 BCC and 62 normal images) obtained from 7 BCCs and 4
296 normal skin tissue samples that were not previously shown to the algorithm. Images artifacts
297 were introduced for both training and testing sets to simulate real conditions. Composition of
298 the training and test datasets are detailed in Table 2. Example images from the training and test
299 datasets can be seen in Figure 3.

300

301 **CNN Architecture:**

302 In this study, we trained and evaluated ResNet50 (Residual Neural Network) [He et al. 2016],
303 a type of CNN, using both EVCM and H&E images. Unlike a standard CNN architecture, a
304 ResNet architecture can handle greater number of hidden layers (higher model complexity),
305 allowing for the extraction of more complex patterns and features. We used 181 hidden layers
306 in our ResNet. We integrated Transfer Learning in our CNN to improve the efficacy of feature
307 extraction. Transfer Learning stores knowledge gained from another problem and applies it to
308 a different problem [Pan and Yang, 2010]. In this case, we used a CNN model pre-trained with
309 the popular ImageNet dataset (which includes images from a large number of categories,

310 including animal, plant, and objects but not medical images) and applied its knowledge to train
311 our BCC-detection models.

312 The distribution of images labelled as “BCC” and “not-BCC” were imbalanced because we
313 used different number of images per class within each training dataset (Table 2). Images in each
314 class were augmented, increasing the total number of images to 10000 per class. To perform
315 data-augmentation, synthetic copies were created by applying image transformation methods
316 such as random rotation, shifting, and resizing [Wodzinski et al. 2020]. To speed up model
317 training time and reduce model complexity, all input images were resized to 300x300 pixels
318 [Wodzinski et al. 2019]. A total of 20 epochs (number of complete passes through a training
319 dataset) were used to train each of the models. A schematic of the methodology is shown in
320 Figure 4.

321 The dataset was divided in three different subsets (training, validation and testing) in order to
322 avoid the overfitting. The training and validation subsets were used to train the CNN and the
323 testing subset was only used to see how well the model performs on unseen data. Besides, we
324 also used Dropout Regularization [Liang et al. 2021] to reduce overfitting. Dropout works by
325 probabilistically removing, or “dropping out,” inputs to a layer, which may be input variables
326 in the data sample or activations from a previous layer. It has the effect of simulating a large
327 number of networks with very different network structure and, in turn, making nodes in the
328 network generally more robust to the inputs.

329

330 **Gradient maps:**

331 Gradient maps were created with Grad-CAM [Selvaraju RR et al. 2016]. Grad-CAM is a
332 technique for visual explanation of CNNs that highlights the regions of the input that are
333 “important” for the prediction in a particular CNN model. Grad-CAM determines the weight
334 for each of CNN feature maps to compute the weighted sum of the activations and then up

335 sampling the result to the image size to plot the original image with the heatmap, highlighting
336 the important regions (red color) for the model prediction. A subset of gradient maps is shown
337 in Figure 2.

338

339 **Statistical analysis:**

340 All statistical analyses was performed in R (v4.03) [R Core Team, 2020]. The ability to
341 discriminate the classes (“BCC” or “not-BCC”) inferred by the model was used to generate
342 ROC curves with 95% intervals, using the package “pROC” (version 1.17.0.1) [Robin et al.
343 2011]. ROC curves and 95% confidence intervals for sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive
344 and negative predictive values, and accuracy measures were generated.

345

346 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

347 The deep learning model that was trained to generate the presented results and the code is
348 available at <https://github.com/boxyware/confocal-ex-vivo>.

349

350 **CONFLICT OF INTERESTS**

351 The authors declare none.

352

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356

357

358 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS STATEMENT**

359 Conceptualization: MSM, MJ. Data curation: MSM, MLC, MM, UH, MJ. Resources: AR, EL,

360 CJC, NK. Software: MLC. Formal Analysis: MLC. Results analysis: MSM, MJ, MLC, JJPR.
361 Writing – original draft: MSM. Writing – review & editing: MSM, MLC, JCS, JPR, MJ.

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577 **TABLES**

578

579 **Table 1.** Comparison of the performance of trained models for diagnosis of BCC in the EVCM
 580 images

Training Dataset	Results of BCC detection in EVCM images- Metrics (CI 95%)				
	Sensitivity	Specificity	PPV	NPV	Accuracy
EVCM TRAINING	0.96 (0.88-1)	0.89 (0.80-0.97)	0.86 (0.75-0.97)	0.96 (0.91-1)	0.92 (0.86-0.98)
H&E TRAINING	0.93 (0.85-1)	0.92 (0.84-1)	0.89 (0.8-0.99)	0.95 (0.87-1)	0.93 (0.87-0.98)
EVCM + H&E TRAINING	0.78 (0.65-0.91)	0.92 (0.84-1)	0.87 (0.76-0.99)	0.85 (0.76-0.94)	0.86 (0.79-0.93)

581 Abbreviations: CI= confidence interval, PPV= positive predictive value, NPV =negative
 582 predictive value. Bold fonts indicate highest accuracy results.

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Table 2. Samples and images used for creating training and test datasets.

Training datasets	N° of Tissue Samples and their diagnosis		Total N° of images/dataset	N° of BCC positive and negative images
1. EVCM TRAINING DATASET	14 BCCs	5 nBCC (35.7%) 4 iBCC (28.6%) 3 sBCC (21.4%) 2 inBCC (14.3%)	663	“BCC” 190 (28,7%)
	15 normal (“not-BCC”) skin samples			“not-BCC” 473 (71,3%)
2. H&E TRAINING DATASET	26 BCCs	11 nBC (42.3%) 4 iBCC (15.4%) 6 sBCC (23.1%) 3 inBCC(11.5%) 2 snBCC (7.7%)	516	“BCC” 170 (32,9%)
	13 normal (“not-BCC”) skin samples			“not BCC” 346 (67,1%)
3. COMBINED EVCM + H&E TRAINING DATASET (Datasets 1 and 2)	40 BCC and 28 normal (“not-BCC”) skin samples 1,179 images: 360 “BCC” images and 820 “not-BCC” images			
Test-set	N° of Tissue Samples and their diagnosis		N° of images	N° of BCC positive and negative images
EVCM TEST SET	7 BCCs	2 sBCCs (28.6%) 2 nBCCs(28.6%) 2 iBCCs (28.6%) 1 snBCC(14.3%)	107	45 “BCC” (44,4%)
	4 normal (“not-BCC”) skin samples			62 “not-BCC” (53,6%)

601 Abbreviations: BCC= basal cell carcinoma, nBCC=nodular BCC, sBCC= superficial BCC,
602 iBCC= infiltrative BCC, inBCC= infundibular BCC, snBCC= superficial and nodular BCC.

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608 **FIGURES**

609 **Figure 1. Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) Curves obtained using:** (a) EVCM-
610 trained model, (b) H&E-trained model, and (c) combined (EVCM+H&E) trained model. The
611 95% CI bounds of the ROC curve were calculated via bootstrapping. The proposed algorithm
612 achieves an AUC of 94.4%, 95.7% and 93.8%, respectively. The shaded ellipse represents the
613 95% CI area for the estimate of the sensitivity and specificity of the algorithm calculated via
614 bootstrapping.

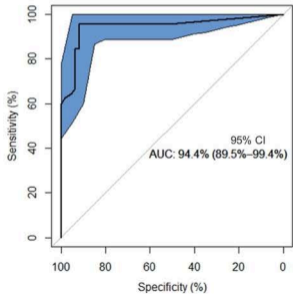
615 **Figure 2. Gradient Map: Left: EVCM images and Right: Gradient maps.** (a) True positive
616 (TP) example of a BCC with small tumor nodules (asterisks). High prediction attributes over
617 the tumor nodules in the Gradient map. Note, that a hair follicle (arrow) in the same field was
618 not considered “important” for the prediction by the algorithm. (b) True negative example of
619 an area with no-BCC, where a sebaceous gland (arrowhead) was identified “important” region
620 for negative prediction. (c) False positive (FP) example where eccrine glands (star) and
621 sebaceous gland (arrowhead) were detected as important for the prediction of tumor. (d) False
622 Negative (FN) example, where BCC tumor nodules (asterisks) were not considered important
623 by the algorithm for tumor detection. Note, this BCC tumor nodule has an extensive cystic
624 degeneration in the center (dashed arrow), which could have resulted in the false prediction in
625 this case. Color scalebar: Red color, high attribution and blue color low attribution for a given
626 prediction by the algorithm. Scale bars: a, b, c, d) 200 μ m.

627 **Figure 3. Images used to create training and test datasets:** EVCM images (upper and lower
628 panel: Training and Test datasets): Purple and pink digitally colored EVCM images of: (a, i)
629 nodular BCCs, (b, j) superficial BCC, (c, k) infiltrative BCC, and (d, l) normal (“not-BCC”)
630 skin tissue with epidermis (arrow) and pilosebaceous gland (arrowhead). Conventional H&E-
631 stained images (middle panel) of a: (e) a nodular BCC, (f) a superficial BCC, (g) an infiltrative
632 BCC, and (h) normal (“not-BCC”) skin tissue with epidermis (arrow) and hair follicles

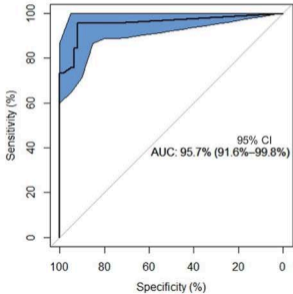
633 (arrowheads). BCCs are shown with an asterisk. Scale bars: a, b, c, e, i, j) 100 μm and d, f, g,
634 h, k) 200 μm .

635 **Figure 4. Experimental workflow:** a) Tissue acquisition, imaging and datasets generation, and
636 b) CNN model used in this study. A ResNet50 of 181 hidden layers and pretrained with
637 ImageNet was used on “BCC” and “not-BCC” labelled images. Abbreviations: BCC= Basal
638 Cell Carcinoma.

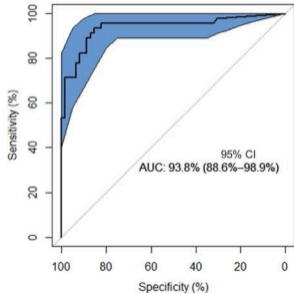
a. EVCM TRAINING



b. H&E TRAINING



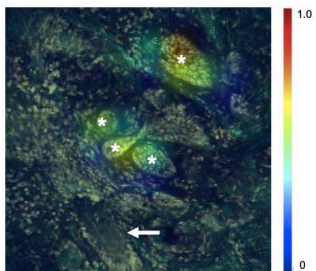
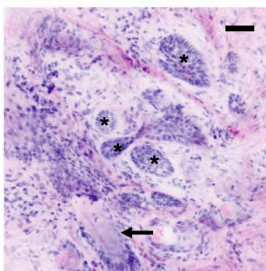
c. EVCM + H&E TRAINING



a. TP

EVCM IMAGE

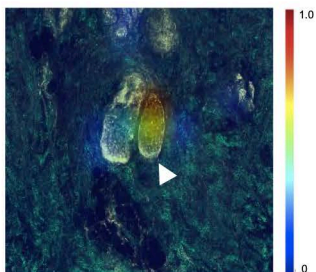
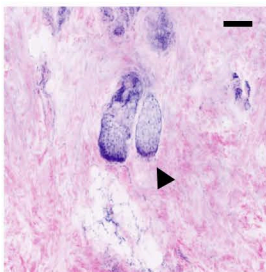
GRADIENT MAP



b. TN

EVCM IMAGE

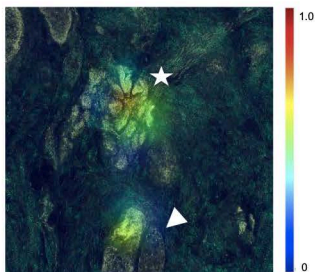
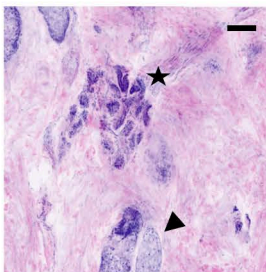
GRADIENT MAP



c. FP

EVCM IMAGE

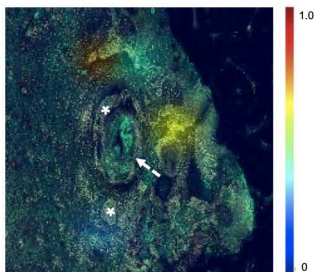
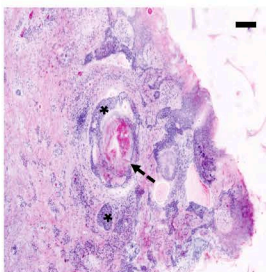
GRADIENT MAP



d. FN

EVCM IMAGE

GRADIENT MAP



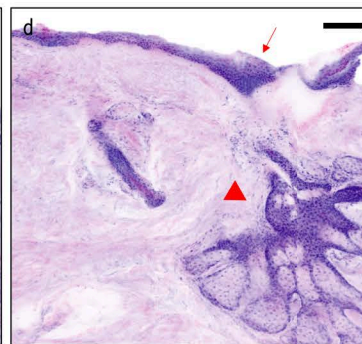
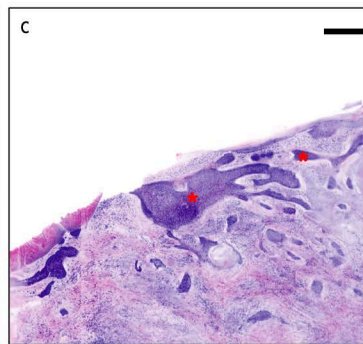
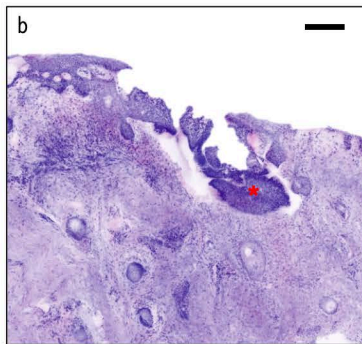
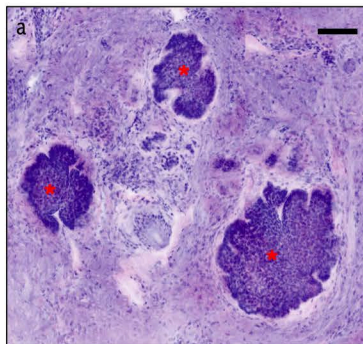
NODULAR BCC

SUPERFICIAL BCC

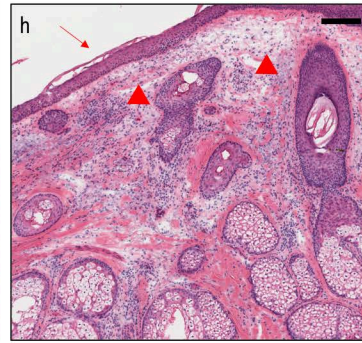
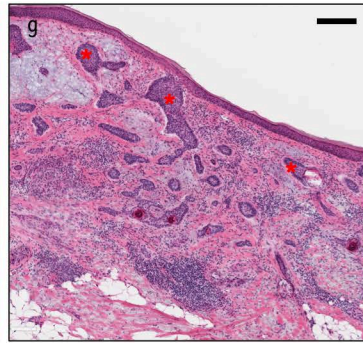
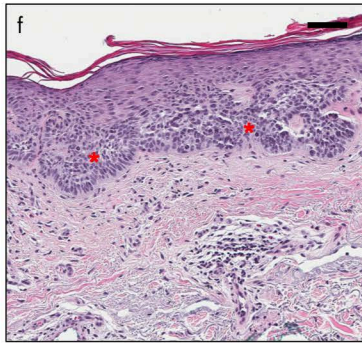
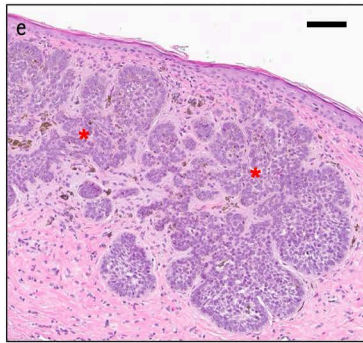
INFILTRATIVE BCC

NEGATIVE

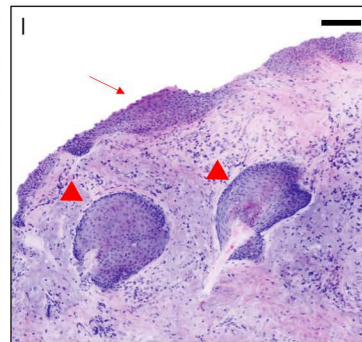
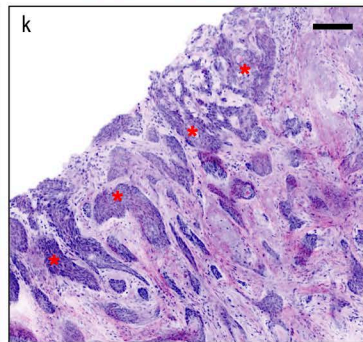
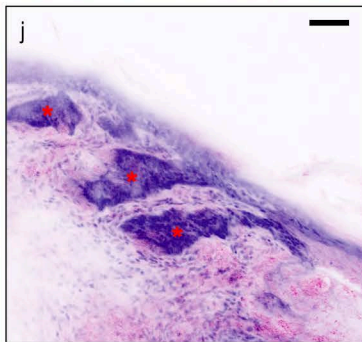
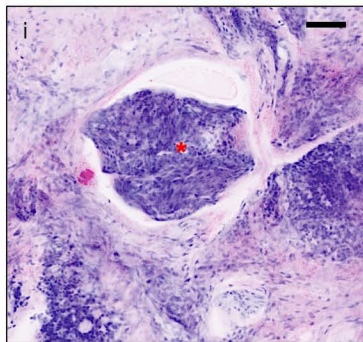
EVCM
TRAINING

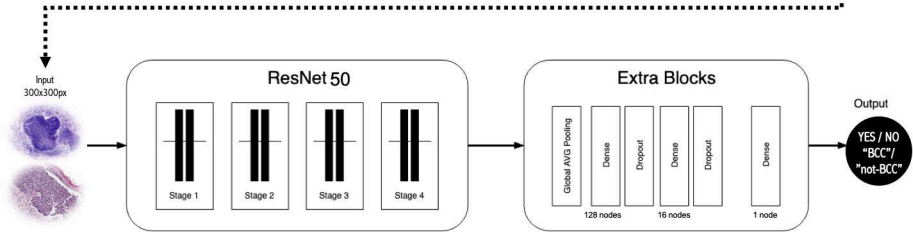
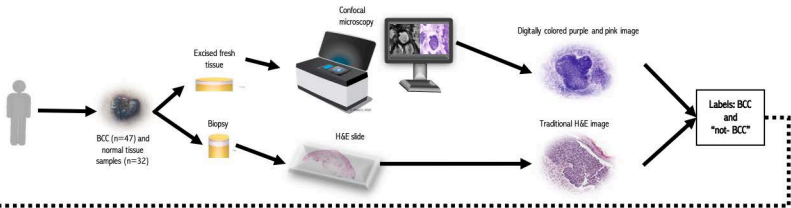


H&E
TRAINING



EVCM
TEST

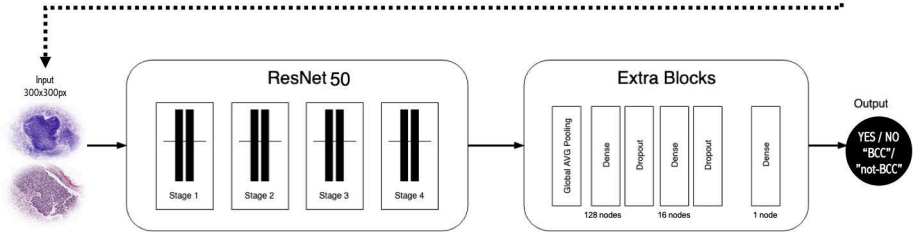
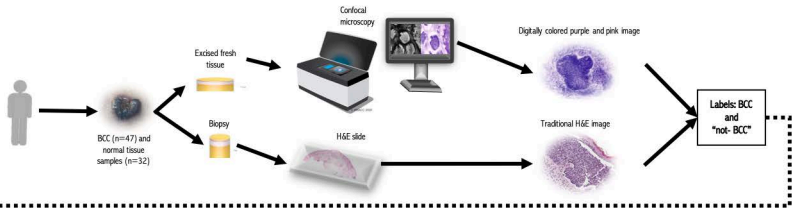




Supplementary Table 1. Summary of patient's demographic data and lesion location

Variable	Total (53 patients/79 lesions)
Age, mean (SD), y*	61 (13)
Sex, %(n)	
Male	64% (34/53)
Female	36% (19/53)
Diagnosis, n(%)	79 lesions
BCC	47 (59.5%)
Nodular	18 (22.8%)
Superficial	11 (13.9%)
Infiltrative	10 (12.6%)
Mix-subtype	8 (10.1%)
“Not-BCC”	32 (40.5%)
Location, n(%)	79 lesions
Head and neck	50 (63.3%)
Upper extremities	8 (10.1%)
Trunk	15 (19%)
Lower extremities	6 (7.6%)

Abbreviation: SD, standard deviation



1 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

2 **Supplementary Figure 1. Algorithm's performance in each separate category with three**
3 **different trainings.**

4

5 **Supplementary Figure 2. EVCM image acquisition:** a) Purple and pink digitally colored
6 EVCM image of a nodular BCC (yellow boxed area and arrows) acquired from a freshly excised
7 whole-tissue obtained from Mohs surgery. EVCM images tissues simultaneously in
8 fluorescence and reflectance mode, where fluorescence signal from nucleus is converted to
9 purple color (b) and reflectance signal from cytoplasm and collagen is converted to pink color
10 (c) to generate a combined purple and pink image (d), resembling conventionally H&E- stained
11 image. Scale bars: a) 400 μm and b, c, d) 200 μm .

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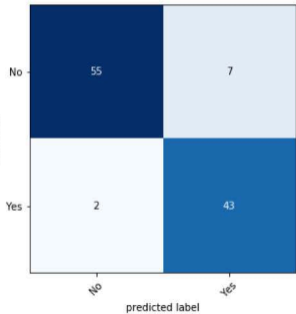
13 **Supplementary Table 1. Summary of patient's demographic data and lesion location**

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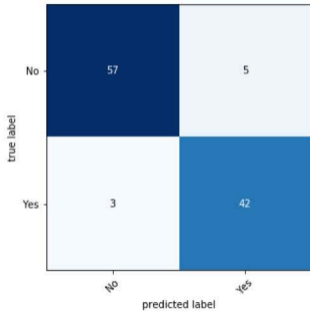
15 **Supplementary Video 1. Steps involved in EVCM image acquisition.**

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a. EVCM TRAINING



b. H&E TRAINING



c. EVCM + H&E TRAINING

