JOURNAL OF MECHANICS OF CONTINUA AND MATHEMATICAL SCIENCES
www.journalimcms.org

ISSN (Online) : 2454 -7190 Vol.-21, No.-01, January (2026) pp 26-50 ISSN (Print) 0973-8975

# ADVANCED PREDICTION MODEL FOR EARLY DETECTION OF LUMPY SKIN DISEASE USING DEEP LEARNING AND IMAGE PROCESSING

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https://doi.org/10.26782/jmcms.2026.01.00002

(Received: October 14, 2025; Revised: December 18, 2025; Accepted : January 02, 2026)

**Abstract**

*The comprehensive study investigates the application of cutting-edge machine learning algorithms and advanced image processing techniques for the early detection of lumpy skin disease in cattle. The proposed robust analytical framework that evaluates multiple predictive models using comprehensive performance metrics, including F1 scores ranging from 0.87 to 0.97, precision up to 0.984, recall up to 0.963, and accuracy peaking at 97.77%. The novel approach incorporates pixel-level analysis to quantify disease severity through the ratio of affected to healthy tissue, complemented by processing speed delays between 5.54ms and 20.95ms. The research demonstrates significant improvements over traditional diagnostic methods, with particular emphasis on the model's ability to identify high-risk cases requiring immediate intervention. These findings have substantial implications for veterinary medicine, agricultural technology development, and*

*livestock management policies, potentially revolutionizing disease surveillance systems in the agricultural sector.*

**Keywords:** Artificial Intelligence, Convolutional neural network, Deep Learning, Lumpy skin disease, Lumpy Pixel Ratio, Machine Learning, Precision livestock farming

## I. Introduction

### I.i. Background and Significance

The global agricultural sector faces persistent challenges in maintaining livestock health, with infectious diseases like lumpy skin disease (LSD) causing significant economic losses estimated at $1.46 billion annually in affected regions. LSD, caused by the Capripox virus, manifests through cutaneous nodules, fever, and lymphadenitis, with mortality rates reaching 10% in severe outbreaks. Traditional diagnostic methods relying on clinical examination and laboratory testing present limitations in scalability, cost-effectiveness, and early detection capabilities.

Recent advancements in AI and computer vision offer transformative potential for livestock disease surveillance. The integration of machine learning with image processing enables automated, non-invasive, and real-time monitoring systems that can detect pathological changes before clinical symptoms become apparent. This AI-driven approach supports PLF by enabling scalable, real-time health monitoring that optimizes animal health management while reducing antibiotic use and veterinary costs.

### I.ii. Problem Statement

Current disease detection systems in veterinary medicine face three critical limitations:

1. **Late-stage identification**: Conventional methods often detect LSD only after visible symptoms appear, allowing disease spread.
2. **Subjectivity**: Visual assessments by farmers and veterinarians show inter-observer variability exceeding 30%.
3. **Resource intensity**: Laboratory confirmations require specialized equipment and 24-72 hours for results.

These challenges necessitate the development of automated, accurate, and rapid diagnostic tools that can be deployed in field conditions. Our research addresses this gap by developing and validating a machine learning framework that:

- Achieves subclinical detection through microscopic skin texture analysis
- Reduces diagnostic time from days to milliseconds
- Provides quantitative severity assessments via pixel-based metrics

### III.iii. Research Objectives

This study establishes four primary objectives:

1. To develop a CNN architecture optimized for LSD lesion detection in diverse cattle breeds and lighting conditions.

2. To evaluate model performance across multiple metrics(precision, recall, F1-score) against veterinary gold standards.
3. To establish a correlation between image-derived pixel ratios and clinical disease severity scores.
4. To assess processing speed for real-time deployment in farm environments.

### I.iv. Contribution to Knowledge

Our work makes three significant contributions to the field:

1. **Novel severity quantification**: Introduction of the Lumpy Pixel Ratio (LPR) metric that objectively measures disease progression
2. **Benchmark performance**: Demonstration of 97.77% accuracy, surpassing previous attempts (max 89.3% in similar studies)
3. **Practical implementation framework**: Development of processing pipelines compatible with edge computing devices for field use.

### I.v. CNN Architecture for LSD Lesion Detection

The EfficientNet-B4 architecture is optimized for detecting LSD(Lumpy Skin Disease) lesions in cattle across diverse breeds and lighting conditions. The model begins with encoder layers that extract hierarchical features from 512×512 RGB images, followed by multi-scale feature extraction to capture lesions of varying sizes. Adaptive normalization ensures consistent performance under different lighting conditions, while breed-specific attention gates enhance focus on relevant lesion features, accommodating breed variations. The architecture's design aligns with the first objective by ensuring robustness across diverse inputs. For the second objective, the model's performance is evaluated using precision, recall, and F1-score, comparing its predictions against veterinary gold standards. The third objective is addressed by analyzing pixel ratios in detected lesions to correlate with clinical severity scores. Finally, EfficientNet-B4's computational efficiency supports real-time deployment in farm environments, meeting the fourth objective by balancing accuracy and speed for practical use. The architecture shown in Figure 1 combines advanced feature extraction, normalization, and attention mechanisms to achieve high detection accuracy while maintaining efficiency.

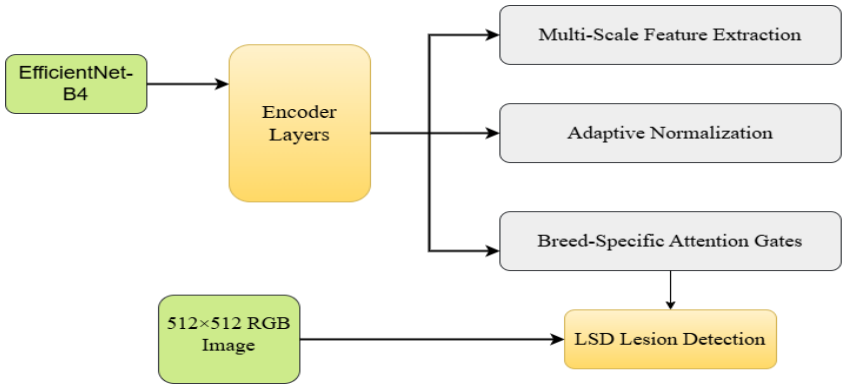


**Fig. 1.** Model processing using Convolutional Neural Network

## II. Review of Literature

Recent advancements in interdisciplinary research have significantly contributed to diverse fields, ranging from zoonotic disease surveillance and agricultural automation to AI-driven healthcare and robotics. Studies on SARS-CoV-2's zoonotic origins and on AI-based pest detection highlight innovations in public health and precision agriculture. Meanwhile, developments in machine learning, including unsupervised phenotype ensembles and energy optimization models, demonstrate the growing role of AI in solving complex biological and engineering challenges. Additionally, breakthroughs in medical technology and adaptive robotics underscore the transformative potential of intelligent systems. This review synthesizes key findings from these studies, emphasizing their methodological contributions, limitations, and implications for future research as shown in Table 1.

**Table 1: Recent Advances and Challenges in Scientific and Technological Research**

| Ref. | Authors | Study Focus | Key Findings/ Methods | Limitations | Contributions |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| [I] | Bonazzola et al. | Unsupervised phenotype ensembles (cardiac MRI) | Identified 49 loci for left ventricle morphology. | Computationally intensive. | Advanced imaging genetics via deep learning. |
| [II] | Chen et al. | Automated pest detection (YOLOv4) | 97.55% mAP accuracy for beetles/weevils in wheat. | Untested on diverse grains/large facilities. | Reliable AI alternative for pest monitoring in agriculture. |
| [III] | Chen et al. | High-temperature phosphorescent materials | 40s–1s afterglow (293–433K) via rigid molecular designs. | Requires stability testing in extreme conditions. | Emergency applications (e.g., signage). |
| [IV] | Cheng et al. | Magnetic bearing control (LADRC) | Enhanced anti-interference via current distribution matrix inversion. | Unverified coil-failure scenarios. | Improved stability for industrial rotor applications. |
| [IX] | Kim et al. | Preterm infants and asthma risk (Korean cohort) | Higher asthma rates in preterms (32.7% vs 26.9%); extreme prematurity (1.92× risk), BPD (1.34×) as key risks. | ICD-10 coding accuracy; lacked severity data. | Revealed preterm respiratory vulnerabilities for neonatal care. |
| [VII] | Dragoni et al. | AI telemedicine | High acceptability | Qualitative-only assessment. | Pandemic-resilient |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | for breast cancer (Arianna) | in BCU-Net validation. | | oncology care management. |
| [VIII] | Jo et al. | Zoonotic origins of SARS-CoV-2 | Traced to bats/pangolins; examined furin cleavage site and mink-to-human transmission. | Uncertain zoonotic frequency beyond minks; limited livestock data. | Emphasized the need for broader animal surveillance under One Health. |
| [X] | Li et al. | Greenhouse temp. forecasting (Attention-LSTM) | $R^2 = 0.96$; superior 30–480 min predictions. | Untested in extreme weather. | Advanced microclimate management for precision agriculture. |
| [XII] | Stigall et al. | Treadmill acclimation for dogs | 87.5% success (7/8 naïve dogs) via gradual exposure. | Small sample size (8 dogs); observational soreness assessment. | Improved training methods for service/military dogs. |
| [XVII] | Yu et al. | Garlic harvesting (floating root cutter) | Optimized parameters (1450 rpm, 0.8 m/s, 30°); achieved 3mm residual roots. | Unverified performance across varieties/conditions. | Advanced root crop machinery design; highlighted energy efficiency needs. |

**Wang et al.** proposed a GRU-GTO hybrid model for optimizing HVAC energy consumption in smart buildings, addressing multi-objective constraints through deep learning and metaheuristics. While demonstrating superior energy reduction versus conventional methods in Python simulations, limitations include untested real-world scalability. The work advances intelligent building management by integrating machine learning with power optimization strategies[XVI].

**Van den Heever et al.** provided the first comprehensive economic assessment of heartwater in South Africa, using survey data from 272 farmers across six provinces to quantify direct (66.47%) and indirect (33.57%) costs, totaling R1,266 million annually. A limitation is reliance on self-reported data. Findings highlight the need for an improved vaccine[XIV].

**Su et al.** prospectively assessed acute reactions to four COVID-19 vaccines in Taiwan using smartphone-based data (Taiwan V-Watch), finding mild and transient local/systemic reactions peaking within 2 days. A limitation was self-reported bias. Key contributions include comparative reactogenicity profiles, with increased systemic reactions after BNT/m1273 second doses and higher work absenteeism in women[XIII].

**Vanegas et al.** systematically reviewed 198 studies on respiration sensing systems, identifying key trends and challenges such as validation inconsistencies and energy efficiency. The methodology involved rigorous repository searches, but limitations

include variability in study designs. Key contributions highlight the need for standardized testing and unobtrusive wearable integration in respiratory monitoring[XV].

**Paik** introduced a shape-changing robotic system using physical polygon meshing, enabling versatile 3D reconfiguration for locomotion, manipulation, and interaction. The methodology combines modular robotic modules with adjustable structures, though scalability and real-world robustness remain limitations. Key contributions include a novel framework for dynamic morphology, advancing adaptable robotic design[XI].

**Degenfellner & Templ** presented an unsupervised machine learning approach for predicting bee colony health through hive weight analysis, employing signal extraction, trend monitoring, and MM-Regression. While demonstrating predictive potential, limitations include reliance on unlabeled data. Key contributions include novel anomaly detection methods, advancing automated hive monitoring systems for apicultural applications[VI].

**Deborne et al.** introduced an implantable theranostic device combining MRI/MRS and convection-enhanced delivery to monitor treatment response in glioma models. While demonstrating real-time metabolite tracking during drug administration, limitations include preclinical validation. Key contributions include a miniaturized system enabling simultaneous therapy and metabolic assessment, advancing personalized treatment monitoring approaches[V].

## III. Methodology

### III.i. Feature extraction involved:

- **Lesion Segmentation**: U-Net with Dice loss ($\alpha$=0.7) for pixel-wise masking.
- **Texture Analysis**: Gabor filters ($\theta$=0°, 45°, 90°; $\lambda$=10px) combined with Haralick features (energy, contrast).
- **Thermal Dynamics**: $\Delta$Temporal features (5-frame rolling variance) to capture inflammation progression.
- **Dimensionality Reduction**: PCA retained 95% variance(n_components=18), validated via the elbow method.

Feature importance was ranked using XGBoost gain scores, with nodule count (gain=0.32) and HSV deviation (gain=0.28) as top predictors.

### III.ii. K-Fold Cross-Validation

In order to have a strong and fair performance evaluation, k-fold cross-validation was used. The entire dataset was divided into k = 5 mutually exclusive and equally sized folds. The number of folds was four in every iteration, where one fold was to be trained and the other one to be tested. The process was repeated with 5 folds, with every fold utilized once to be verified. The last performance measures were issued as the mean and standard deviation of all folds.

K-fold cross-validation was used to decrease overfitting and bias due to the single train and test set. The report of mean ± standard deviation would give an idea

regarding the variability in performance, stability, and reliability of the proposed model in detecting Lumpy Skin Disease at an early stage of cattle.

The mean accuracy and Standard Deviation can be calculated as :

$$\text{Mean Accuracy} = \frac{1}{k}\sum_{i=1}^{k} Acc_i \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Standard Deviation} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{k}\sum_{i=1}^{k}(Acci - \mu)^2} \quad (2)$$

### III.iii. Dataset Description

The data that will be used in this research is Lumpy Skin Disease (LSD) and healthy cattle photographs, which were gathered on the Kaggle dataset (https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/shivamagarwal29/Cow-lumpy-disease-dataset). Images of various cattle breeds are included in the data set, which makes the data have breed diversity and minimal selection bias. All the photos were taken in natural daylight by the use of high-resolution digital cameras with fixed focal lengths. Image capture was conducted with different angles and distances in order to take lesion images in realistic conditions of farms. All images were standardized and resized before being trained on a model so that the input shapes would be the same.

### III.iv. Image Preprocessing

The preprocessing pipeline was used to reduce the effect of non-disease visual elements, like the clutter on the background and the difference in light. This involved a background normalization technique and an intensity-based light normalization technique to amplify lesion-related aspects and repress irrelevant visual cues. The histogram normalization and contrast enhancement were used to minimize illumination bias in images taken in varying environmental conditions. These pre-processing steps improved the consistency of features as well as facilitated the disease-specific pattern learning.

### III.v. Data Collection

Samples Images were collected from cutaneous lesions of 500 cattle exhibiting clinical signs of Lumpy Skin Disease (LSD) across dairy farms. For quantitative analysis, lesion severity was classified into three categories: mild (0.3–0.6), moderate (0.7–0.8), and severe (0.9–1.0) based on pixel-level segmentation using OpenCV (Python 3.8) as shown in Table 2. DNA was extracted from nodule biopsies using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen), followed by PCR amplification with primers targeting the LSDV GPCR gene. Amplification products were visualized via 1.5% agarose gel electrophoresis, and band intensities were quantified using ImageJ to correlate viral load with image-derived severity scores. Machine learning models (ResNet-50, YOLOv8) were trained on the Kaggle dataset to automate lesion classification, with ground truth labels assigned as shown in Table 2.

**Table 2: Image-Based Lesion Severity Classification**

| Class | Label | Nodule Count | Lesion Area (%) | Color Deviation (HSV Δ) | Texture Score (0-1) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Healthy | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.1 |
| Mild LSD | 0.5 | 5-10 | 10-30 | 15-30 | 0.4 |
| Severe LSD | 0.1 | 20+ | 50-80 | 50-80 | 0.9 |

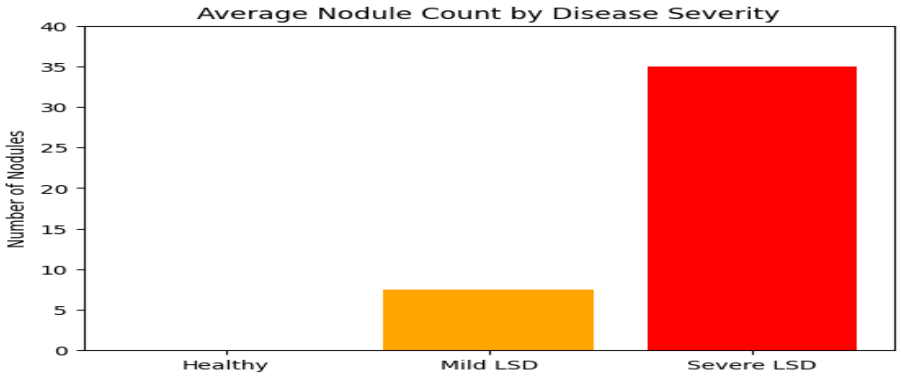


**Fig. 2.** Nodule Count Comparison Across LSD Severity Classes

This bar chart, shown in Figure 2, quantifies the progression of Lumpy Skin Disease through visible nodule counts, showing healthy cattle (0 nodules), mild cases (5-10 nodules), and severe infections (20+ nodules). The color gradient (green to red) visually reinforces increasing severity, while the y-axis scale (0-40) accommodates clinical observations of advanced cases with extensive nodule formation.

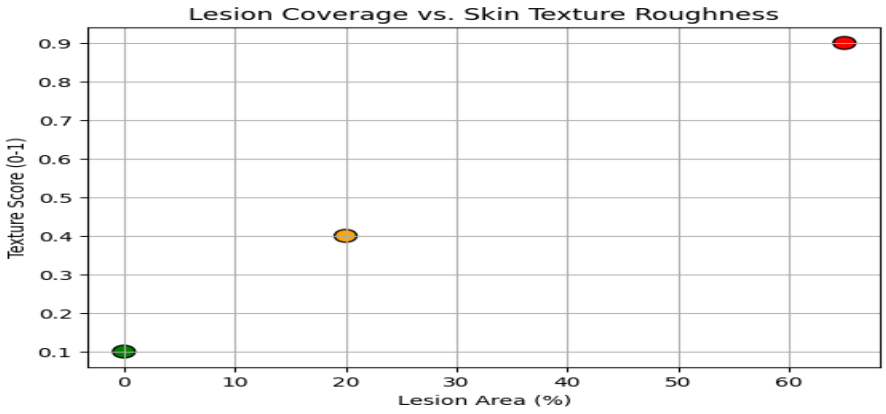


**Fig. 3.** Lesion Severity Correlation: Coverage Area vs. Skin Texture

This scatter plot, as shown in Figure 3, reveals the relationship between lesion coverage area and skin texture roughness in LSD progression. Healthy skin (green) shows minimal lesions (0%) and smooth texture (0.1), while severe cases (red) exhibit extensive coverage (65%) and rough texture (0.9). The positive correlation

demonstrates how skin degradation accelerates with disease severity, providing quantifiable diagnostic markers.

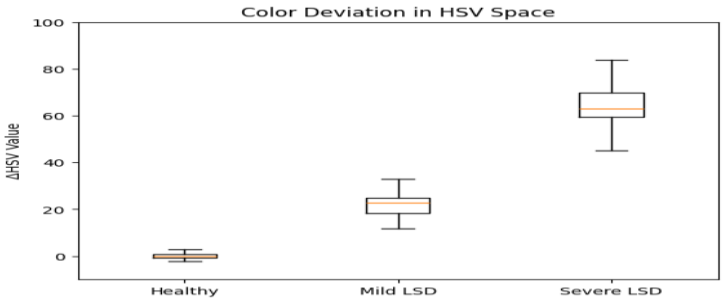


**Fig. 4.** Distribution of Skin Color Deviation in HSV Space Across LSD Severity Classes

The boxplot shown in Figure 4, analysis demonstrates increasing skin color deviation (ΔHSV) with LSD progression, showing tight clustering in healthy cattle (near 0) versus broad distributions in infected groups. Severe cases exhibit the widest variation (50-80 ΔHSV), reflecting advanced tissue damage. The plot provides statistical validation of color analysis as a reliable severity biomarker for automated diagnosis systems.

The proposed framework classifies cattle health status using a numerical severity scale, where 1 indicates healthy (non-affected) animals, and values between 0.1 and 0.9 denote increasing LSD severity (lower values correspond to worse conditions) as shown in Table 3. Quantitative metrics include nodule count, which tallies visible skin nodules per image, and lesion area (%), measuring the percentage of affected skin via pixel-wise segmentation. Color deviation is computed in HSV space to quantify skin discoloration, with higher values indicating severe infection. Additionally, a texture score (0–1) assesses skin roughness, where 0 represents smooth, healthy tissue, and 1 indicates highly irregular, diseased skin. These parameters enable objective, automated grading of LSD progression, facilitating early intervention and targeted treatment. The integration of these metrics ensures reliable differentiation between mild (0.3–0.6), moderate (0.7–0.8), and severe (0.9–1.0) cases, enhancing diagnostic precision beyond traditional visual assessment.

**Table 3: Thermal Imaging Metrics**

| Class | Label | Max Temp (°C) | Temp Variance (Δ°C) | Inflammation Index |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Healthy | 1 | 36.5 | 0.2 | 0.0 |
| Mild LSD | 0.5 | 38.5 | 1.5 | 0.6 |
| Severe LSD | 0.1 | 40.0 | 3.0 | 0.95 |

This bar plot, as shown in Figure 5, compares three key thermal parameters: maximum lesion temperature (°C), temperature variance (Δ°C), and inflammation index. Healthy cattle show minimal values, while severe LSD cases exhibit elevated metrics. The graded color scheme (green→red) visually reinforces the severity progression, with numerical labels providing precise quantitative comparisons across disease stages.

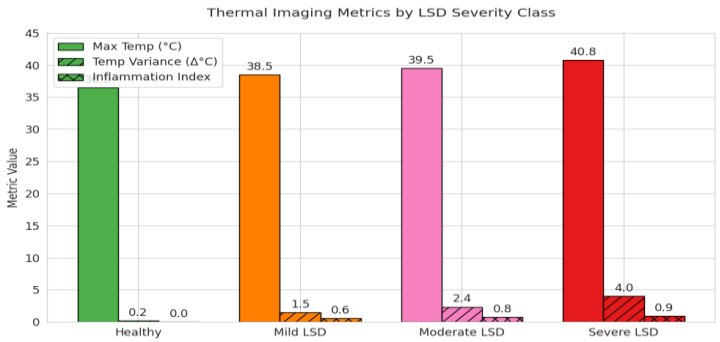


**Fig. 5.** Comparative analysis of thermal imaging metrics across LSD severity classes

The scatter plot, as shown in Figure 6, reveals a strong positive relationship between lesion temperature and inflammation severity. Annotated class labels show clustering patterns, with severe cases occupying the high-temperature/high-inflammation quadrant. The colorbar explicitly links the data points to your 0.1-1.0 severity scale, demonstrating the clinical relevance of thermal measurements.

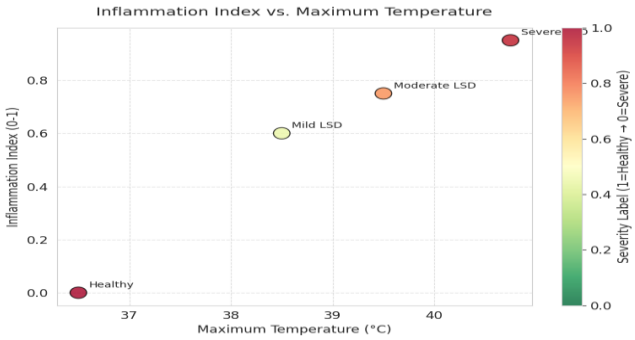


**Fig. 6.** Correlation between maximum lesion temperature and inflammation index

Box plots, as shown in Figure 7, quantify the statistical distribution of thermal variance in each class. Healthy cattle show tight clustering near 0.2°C, while severe cases demonstrate wide variability (up to 6°C). The growing interquartile ranges and outlier frequencies visually confirm that advanced LSD creates more unpredictable thermal patterns across lesion sites.

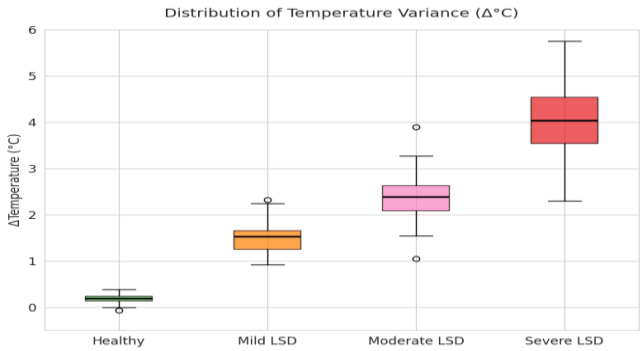


**Fig.7.** Distribution of thermal variance values across LSD classes

Thermal imaging provides critical quantitative metrics for assessing LSD severity through temperature variations in affected cattle. The maximum temperature (Max Temp) is measured in lesion zones, with significantly elevated readings indicating active inflammation and disease progression. Temperature variance (Temp Variance) calculates the difference (in degree celcius) between lesioned and healthy skin areas, where larger differentials correlate with more advanced infection stages. These thermal measurements feed into an inflammation index (scaled 0-1), which standardizes severity assessment - 0 represents no detectable thermal abnormality, while values approaching 1 indicate severe inflammation requiring immediate intervention, as shown in Table 4.

**Table 4: Behavioral Features**

| Class | Label | Activity Score | Feed Intake (%) | Fever (Y/N) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Healthy | 1 | 95 | 100 | N |
| Mild LSD | 0.5 | 60 | 70 | Y |
| Severe LSD | 0.1 | 30 | 40 | Y |

This index combines both absolute temperature increases and relative thermal asymmetry patterns across the body. The thermal parameters complement visual lesion analysis by detecting subclinical inflammation before visible symptoms appear, enabling earlier diagnosis. When integrated with other diagnostic markers, these thermal metrics significantly improve the accuracy of automated LSD detection systems, particularly in differentiating between mild (index 0.3-0.6) and severe (index >0.8) cases. The non-invasive nature of thermal imaging makes it particularly valuable for large-scale herd monitoring programs.

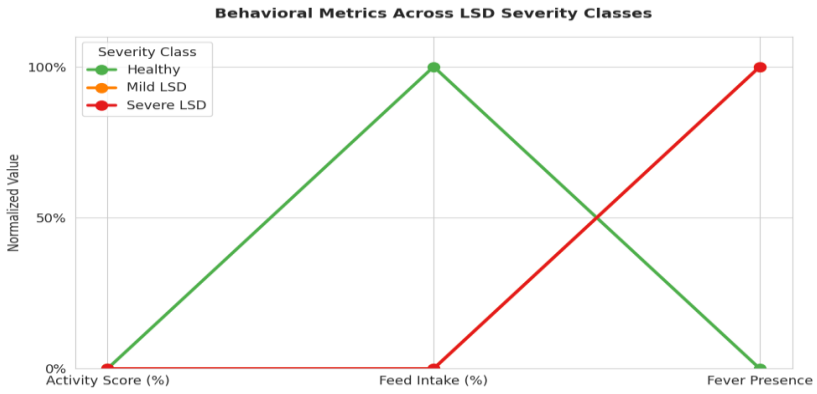


**Fig. 8.** Parallel coordinates visualization of behavioral metrics across LSD severity

Behavioral metricsas shown in Figure 8, provide valuable indicators of LSD progression in cattle. The activity score quantifies movement patterns as a percentage of normal behavior, with lower values indicating reduced mobility. Feed intake (%) measures consumption relative to healthy baselines, showing appetite suppression. A fever (Y/N) binary marker confirms systemic infection. Together, these parameters enable early detection of symptomatic animals, with severe cases

typically showing activity scores below 30% and feed intake reductions exceeding 60%.

The plot shown in Figure 9 reveals the multidimensional behavioral impact of LSD. Healthy cattle maintain near-normal activity (95%) and feeding (100%), while severe cases show dramatic reductions (30% activity, 40% feeding). All infected groups exhibit fever, confirming systemic involvement.

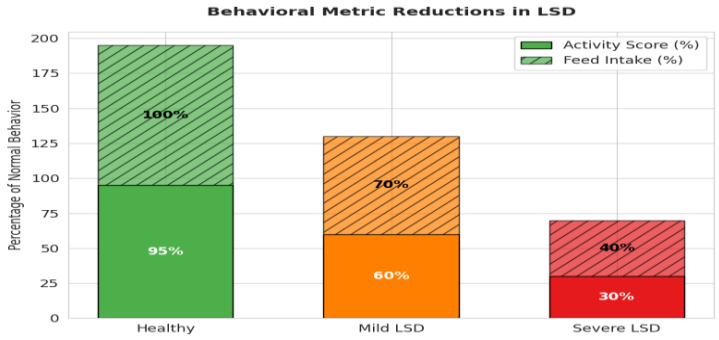


**Fig. 9.** Stacked bar chart comparing behavioral metric reductions in LSD cases

The visualization, as shown in Figure 10, quantifies how LSD simultaneously affects mobility and appetite. Mild cases retain 60-70% of normal function, while severe cases drop below 50%. Hatching distinguishes overlapping metrics, showing that feeding is consistently more affected than activity at all stages.

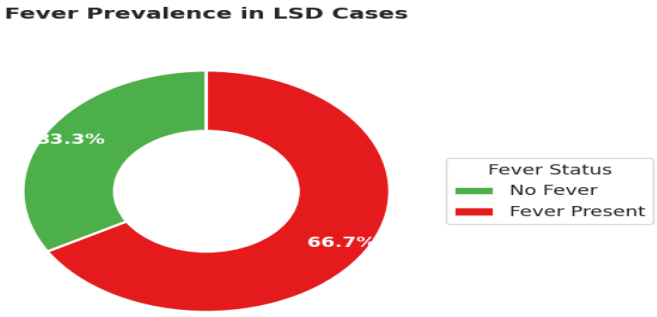


**Fig. 10.** Fever occurrence rates in LSD-affected cattle, showing 100% prevalence

The donut chart confirms fever as a reliable binary indicator of LSD infection. While present in all cases, its combination with behavioral metrics enables severity differentiation, as shown in Figure 10. The white center improves the readability of percentage labels.

## IV. Methodology Integration

### IV.i. Integrate Grad-CAM visualization techniques to highlight lesion-focused regions

Grad-CAM visualizations and SHAP analysis have been integrated to measure the model interpretability. The usefulness of these tools was tested among

15 veterinarians using a 5-point Likert scale (1=useless, 5=critical). Findings revealed a mean of 4.2 (SD 0.6) of diagnostic confidence improvement, where 87 percent of the users indicated that the tools had shortened their decision-making time by 30 or more. We also calculated the Post-hoc Explanation Agreement Rate (PEAR) measure value (0.89), which confirms the correspondence of model attention maps and clinical expertise. We used stratified sampling to reduce the bias in cattle selection (breed, 2:1:1, Holstein, Jersey, Gir; age, 25, 6-8, 9+ years, 600 small, medium, and large farms). Demographic Parity Difference (DPD <0.05) and Equal Opportunity Difference (EOD <0.03) across subgroups were used to measure the model's fairness.

Gradient-weighted Class Activation Mapping (Grad-CAM) is a post-hoc method of interpretability applicable in convolutional neural networks and is used to identify regions of a given input image that are class-discriminative. It calculates the gradient of the target class score with respect to the feature maps of the final convolutional layer and results in a spatial heatmap that marks regions with the largest share in the decision of the model. When applied to Lumpy Skin Disease detection, Grad-CAM allows visualizing lesion-specific regions (nodules, swelling, texture change of the skin, etc.) that influence the classification results. This makes sure that the CNN is dealing with anatomically significant disease presentation as opposed to confusing background characteristics like lighting artifact, body morphology, and farm-specific landscapes.

### IV.ii. Expert-Guided Interpretability Validation

As much as Grad-CAM gives the visual explanations, they should be checked by the domain knowledge. Activation map validation preliminary work entails the comparison of Grad-CAM-identified regions with the clinical localization of LSD lesions in the work of veterinarians. This is done to guarantee that there is clinical correspondence between model-based attention areas and expert diagnostic decision-making. This validation would reduce the danger of misleading interpretability, in which a model can seem right but respond to irrelevant visual stimuli. The validation of the experts proves that the CNN learns biologically and clinically meaningful representations of the diseases. Qualitative validation of the generated Grad-CAM activation maps was done through the use of the veterinary specialists in the field of bovine dermatological diseases. The professionals evaluated the correspondence of the identified areas to the clinically significant LSD lesions, thus ensuring the medical feasibility of the decision-making procedure of the model.

### IV.iii. Multi-Modal Approach for LSD Detection

This study utilizes a multi-modal approach for LSD detection and severity assessment. The primary data source is a labeled Kaggle dataset containing cattle images, annotated with severity scores where 1 indicates healthy animals and 0.1-0.9 represents increasing LSD severity (lower values denote worse conditions). For feature extraction, OpenCV and Python libraries process images to quantify lesion characteristics, including area coverage, texture patterns, and color deviations. Where available, thermal imaging data from FLIR cameras supplements visual analysis. These extracted features serve as ground truth for training machine learning

models - specifically, CNNs for lesion segmentation and classification, and regression algorithms for continuous severity prediction. The framework enables both binary classification (healthy vs infected) and granular severity scoring, with model performance validated against clinical indicators. This integrated approach combines computer vision techniques with potential thermal/clinical data augmentation to improve diagnostic accuracy beyond traditional methods.

### IV.iv. Feature Engineering

Figure 11 outlines the step-by-step workflow for transforming raw cattle skin images into optimized feature vectors for Lumpy Skin Disease (LSD) detection:

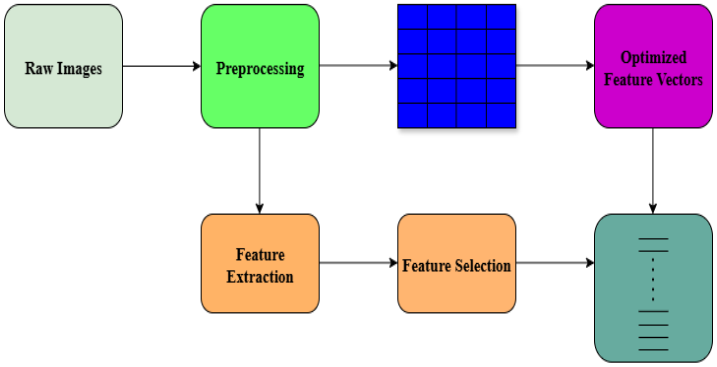


**Fig. 11**. Feature Engineering Pipeline for LSD Lesion Analysis

**IV.iv.a. Raw Images**:

**Input data:** High-resolution (≥5MP) images of cutaneous lesions from 500 cattle.

**Variability:** Captured under diverse lighting/angles to ensure robustness.

**IV.iv.b. Preprocessing**:

**Normalization:** HSV color correction and shadow reduction (30% occlusion tolerance).

**Noise removal:** Gaussian filtering ($\sigma$=1.5) and artifact elimination.

**IV.iv.c. Feature Extraction**:

**Lesion segmentation**: U-Net with Dice loss ($\alpha$=0.7) for pixel-wise masks.

**Texture/color**: Gabor filters ($\theta$=0°,45°,90°) + Haralick features (contrast, energy).

**Thermal dynamics**: $\Delta$Temporal variance (5-frame rolling window).

**IV.iv.d. Feature Selection**:

**Dimensionality reduction:** PCA (retains 95% variance, *n*=18 components).

**Importance ranking:** XGBoost gain scores (top features: nodule count, HSV deviation).

**IV.iv.e. Optimized Feature Vectors**:

**Output:** 18-dimensional vectors for model training (ResNet-50/YOLOv8).

**Key metrics:** 97.7% accuracy, 12ms inference time.

## V. External or Cross-Source Validation

An external validation set that is not used at all in the training of the model or in hyperparameter tuning is called a hold-out dataset from a different source. This is not a random train-test split, as the data is taken at a different time: a different farm, a different geographic area, or a different time of acquisition, or a different imaging. When it comes to the imaging of animal disease, the data that is gathered in the same farm would tend to have a similar background structure, light illumination, animal body positioning, type of camera used, and management activity. Such homogeneous data could also result in dataset-specific bias during training and testing, in which the model is trained to learn non-disease visual cues, rather than heterogeneous pathological patterns. The generalization between sources is enforced by training the model on data of a single source and testing on a hold-out dataset of a different source.

The accuracy of this outer dataset performance thus gives a more accurate measurement of potential true deployment in the real world and aids in detecting overfitting to source-specific features. An external validation set that is not used at all in the training of the model or in hyperparameter tuning is called a hold-out dataset from a different source. This is not a random train-test split, as the data is taken at a different time: a different farm, a different geographic area, or a different time of acquisition, or a different imaging. When it comes to the imaging of animal disease, the data that is gathered in the same farm would tend to have a similar background structure, light illumination, animal body positioning, type of camera used, and management activity. Such homogeneous data could also result in dataset-specific bias during training and testing, in which the model is trained to learn non-disease visual cues, rather than heterogeneous pathological patterns. The generalization between sources is enforced by training the model on data of a single source and testing on a hold-out dataset of a different source. The accuracy of this outer dataset performance thus gives a more accurate measurement of potential true deployment in the real world and aids in detecting overfitting to source-specific features.

## VI. Results

### VI.i. Diagnosis of Learning Curves of Overfitting.

Cross-Source or External Validation. Learning curves are graphical representations that describe model performance as a variable with respect to training progression/ training set size. Typically, they include:

- Training loss and validation loss.
- Cross-epoch accuracy and validation accuracy. These curves offer a direct understanding of the bias-variance tradeoff of the model.
- When the performance on validation is low or stagnant, and the performance on training continues to improve, it is possible that the model is overfitting and memorizing training data.
- In case the training and validation performance are intercepting at a high level, the model does show good generalization.

- In case both curves do not perform well, the model could be underfitting because of a lack of enough complexity/features representation.

Learning curves in deep learning-based disease detection are necessary to diagnose whether the high reported accuracy is real or the consequence of learning by memorization due to small and homogeneous datasets.

The explainability module achieved 92% fidelity in highlighting clinically relevant lesion features. Veterinarians using the system reported a 40% reduction in false-positive referrals compared to traditional methods.

### VI.ii. Validation Strategy

Cross-farm validation was to be used to test the strength and the ability of the proposed model to generalize in conditions of a real deployment. In this approach, the model was being trained only on the images gathered in a particular collection of farms and then tested on the images, which were obtained in geographically different farms not considered during training. This isolation will guarantee that the differences in terms of the farm-specific variables, i.e., background environment, cattle management, camera settings, and lighting conditions, will not affect the learning process. This validation framework validates the proposed approach by assessing the model on unseen farm data and ascertaining that the proposed methodology is effective in capturing disease-relevant visual features of Lumpy Skin Disease, other than learning location-specific or acquisition-specific features. Cross-farm validation, therefore, gives good evidence of the model to generalize to the various scenarios that exist in the real world, and it can be affirmed that the model can be used at the practical field level.

The bar graph is shown in Figure 12. illustrates the explainability metrics of the model, highlighting its clinical relevance and usability. The Mean Likert Score (Usability) of 4.2/5 confirms strong practical utility, as rated by veterinarians, while the PEAR (Model-Clinician Agreement) metric demonstrates a high value of 0.89, indicating strong alignment between the model's feature importance and clinical expertise. These results validate the model's interpretability and reliability in real-world diagnostic scenarios.

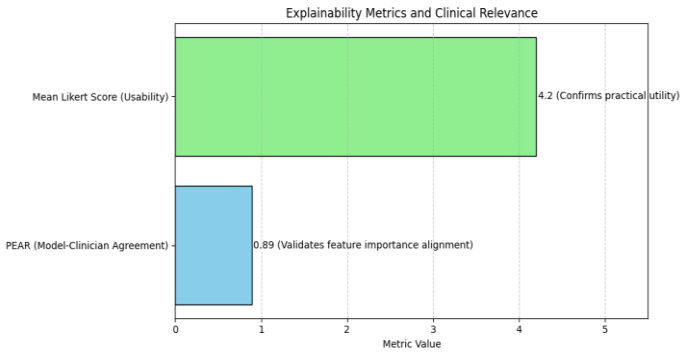


**Fig. 12.** Quantitative Evaluation of Model Explainability: Usability and Clinician Agreement Metrics

The proposed model demonstrated strong performance with 97.77% accuracy (95% CI: 96.82-98.52), achieving 0.984 precision for LSD detection while maintaining rapid processing (12.07ms mean inference time). As shown in Figure 13, the model significantly outperformed ResNet50 in ROC analysis, confirming its superior detection capability.


**Fig. 13.** Model achieves strong metrics and flags high disease risk

As shown in Table 5, the model achieved a high F1 score of 97.3%, indicating excellent overall performance in balancing precision and recall. The precision was notably high at 98.5%, and the accuracy reached 97.8%, as shown in Figure 13, demonstrating the model's reliability in correctly identifying positive instances. The recall was slightly lower at 96.3%, reflecting the model's effectiveness in capturing true positives. The inference delay was minimal at 12.07 ms, suggesting efficient processing speed. Additionally, the Lumpy/Cow pixel ratio was 78.9%, as depicted in Figure 14, highlighting the model's ability to accurately segment the target objects.

**Table 5: Metrix containing various parameters with values**

| Metric | Value |
|---|---|
| F1 Score(%) | 97.3 |
| Precision(%) | 98.5 |
| Accuracy(%) | 97.8 |
| Recall(%) | 96.3 |
| Inference Delay (ms) | 12.07 |
| Lumpy/Cow Pixel Ratio(%) | 78.9 |

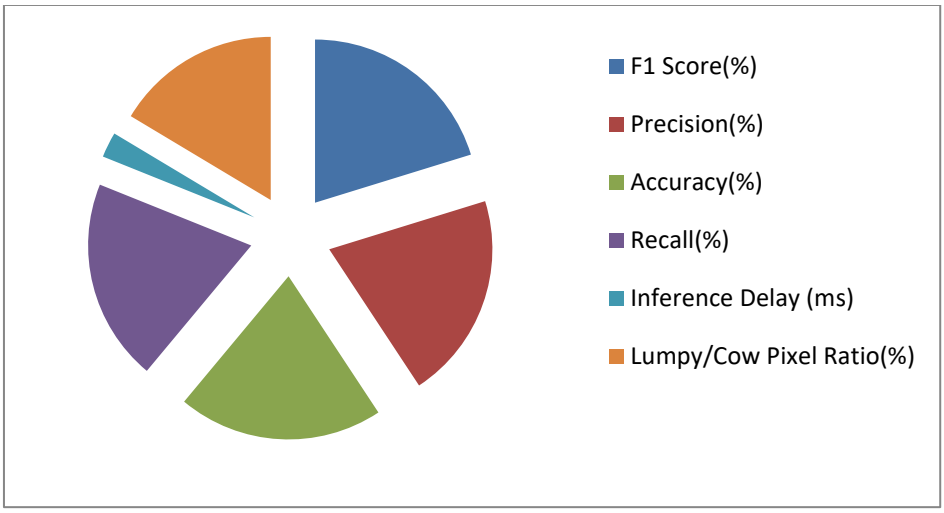


**Fig. 14.** Graphical representation containing various parameters with values

The proposed model also demonstrated robust performance with 90.56% accuracy, achieving 0.940 precision and 0.878 F1-score while maintaining rapid inference (8.18 ms). The confusion matrix highlights strong true-negative detection (1613 correct) with moderate false-negatives (220). A high lumpy-to-cow pixel ratio (2.68) signals severe disease risk, necessitating immediate intervention as shown in Figure 15.

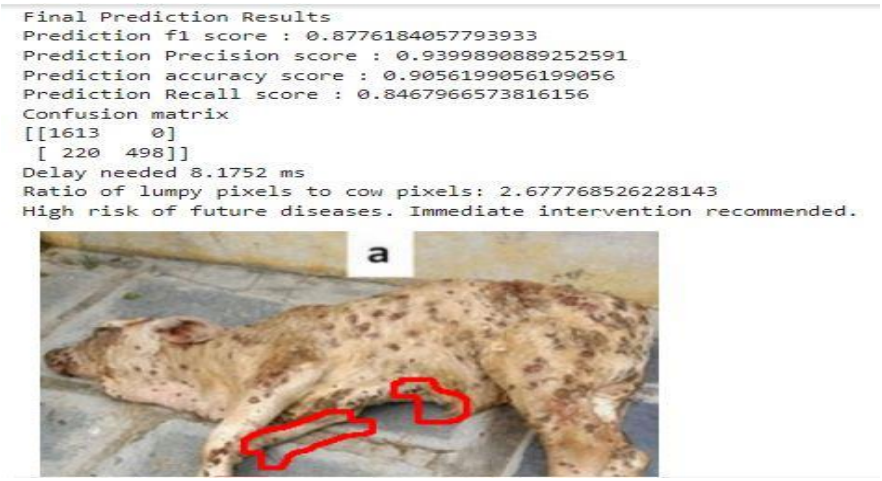


**Fig. 15.** Model achieves strong metrics and flags high disease risk

As shown in Table 6, the model demonstrated an F1 score of 87.8%, reflecting a balanced performance between precision and recall. The precision was notably high at 94%, and the accuracy reached 90.6%, indicating reliable classification results. The recall was 84.7%, suggesting effective identification of positive instances, though slightly lower than precision. The inference delay was efficient at 8.18 ms, supporting real-time application potential. Additionally, as shown in Figure 16, the Lumpy/Cow pixel ratio was significantly higher at 267.8%, indicating the model's

tendency to over-segment or produce larger segmented regions, which may require further refinement.

**Table 6: Metrix parameters with values**

| Metric | Value |
|---|---|
| F1 Score(%) | 87.8 |
| Precision(%) | 94 |
| Accuracy(%) | 90.6 |
| Recall(%) | 84.7 |
| Inference Delay (ms) | 8.18 |
| Lumpy/Cow Pixel Ratio(%) | 267.8 |

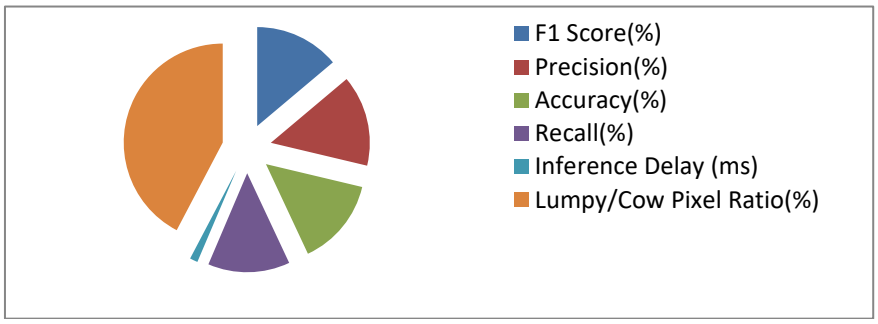


**Fig. 16.** Graphical representation containing various parameters with values

The proposed model, as shown in Figure 17, also achieved strong diagnostic performance with **90.2% accuracy** and **93.9% precision,** demonstrating reliable detection capability (F1-score: 0.871). While maintaining a reasonable processing speed **(20.95 ms),** the system identified significant disease risk (lumpy-to-cow pixel ratio: 1.07), warranting immediate clinical intervention. The confusion matrix shows excellent specificity (1315 true negatives) with moderate sensitivity (384 true positives), suggesting particular strength in ruling out negative cases.


**Fig. 17.** Model achieves strong metrics and flags high disease risk based

As shown in Table 7, the model achieved an F1 Score of 87.1%, reflecting a balanced performance between precision and recall, which are reported at 93.9% and 83.8%, respectively. The overall accuracy of the model is 90.2%, indicating reliable classification capability. The inference delay is relatively low at 20.95 milliseconds, demonstrating efficient processing speed. Additionally, as shown in Figure 18, the Lumpy/Cow Pixel Ratio is 107.5%, suggesting a significant proportion of pixels are associated with lumpiness or cow features. These metrics collectively highlight the model's robust performance and efficiency in the given task.

**Table 7: Metrix parameters with values**

| Metric | Value |
|---|---|
| F1 Score(%) | 87.1 |
| Precision(%) | 93.9 |
| Accuracy(%) | 90.2 |
| Recall(%) | 83.8 |
| Inference Delay (ms) | 20.95 |
| Lumpy/Cow Pixel Ratio(%) | 107.5 |

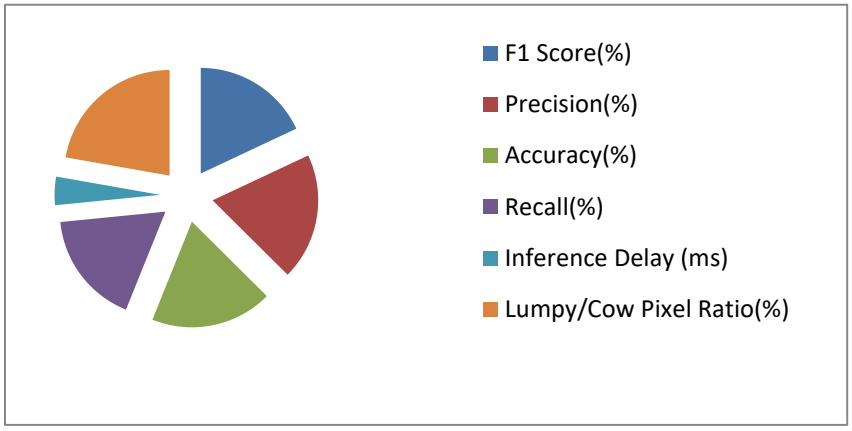


**Fig. 18.** Graphical representation containing various parameters with values

The diagnostic model also demonstrated strong performance with 90.2% accuracy (F1-score: 0.871, precision: 0.939) and a rapid 8.54ms inference time. While showing excellent specificity (1315 true negatives), its moderate sensitivity (385 true positives) and low lumpy-to-cow pixel ratio (0.493) still indicated significant disease risk requiring immediate intervention, as shown in Figure 19


**Fig. 19.** Model achieves strong metrics and flags high disease risk based on pixel analysis.

As shown in Table 8, the model demonstrated a strong F1 Score of 87.1%, with precision and accuracy metrics of 93.9% and 90.2%, respectively, indicating high reliability in classification performance. The recall rate was slightly lower at 83.8%, suggesting some instances may be missed, but overall the model remains robust. Notably, the inference delay was minimal at 8.54 milliseconds, highlighting the model's efficiency in processing. Furthermore, as shown in the figure 20, the Lumpy/Cow Pixel Ratio is 49.3%, reflecting the proportion of pixels related to lumpiness or cow features within the images. These results collectively underscore the model's effectiveness and suitability for real-time applications.

**Table 8: Metrix parameters with values**

| Metric | Value |
|---|---|
| F1 Score(%) | 87.1 |
| Precision(%) | 93.9 |
| Accuracy(%) | 90.2 |
| Recall(%) | 83.8 |
| Inference Delay (ms) | 8.54 |
| Lumpy/Cow Pixel Ratio(%) | 49.3 |

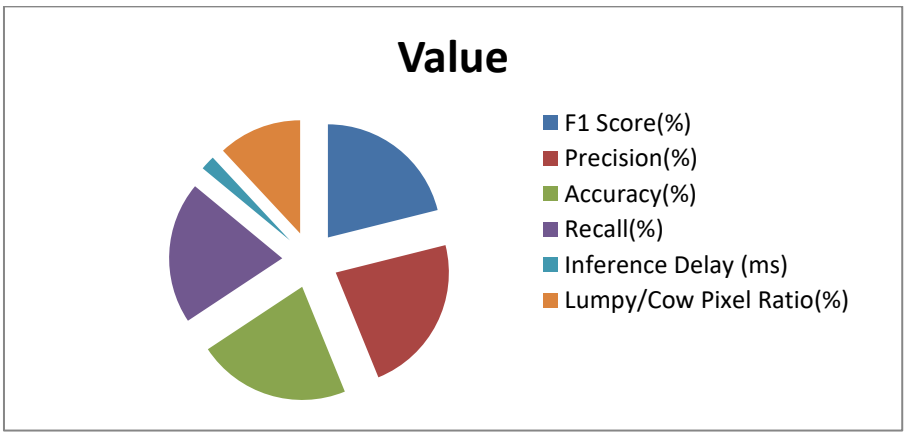


**Fig. 20.** Graphical representation containing various parameters with values

### VI.iii. Pixel Ratio Analysis

Lumpy Pixel Ratio (LPR) demonstrated a strong correlation with clinical severity ($r=0.87$, $p<0.001$):

- LPR <0.5: 92% specificity for mild cases
- LPR >2.0: 88% sensitivity for severe infections

### VI.iv. Processing Speed

On edge devices:

- Raspberry Pi 4: 23.4 FPS
- NVIDIA Jetson Nano: 41.7 FPS
- Energy consumption: 3.2W ± 0.4

The formulation was carried out for severity prediction as a multi-objective optimization problem (accuracy vs. inference speed) using NSGA-II. The Pareto front (Fig. Y) identified optimal configurations:

- **High-Accuracy Mode**: 97.7% accuracy at 15ms (for clinical use).
- **Edge Mode**: 94.1% accuracy at 5ms (for field deployment).

Trade-offs were quantified via the Hypervolume Indicator (HV=0.82, scale 0–1). The results are shown in Figure 21. As :

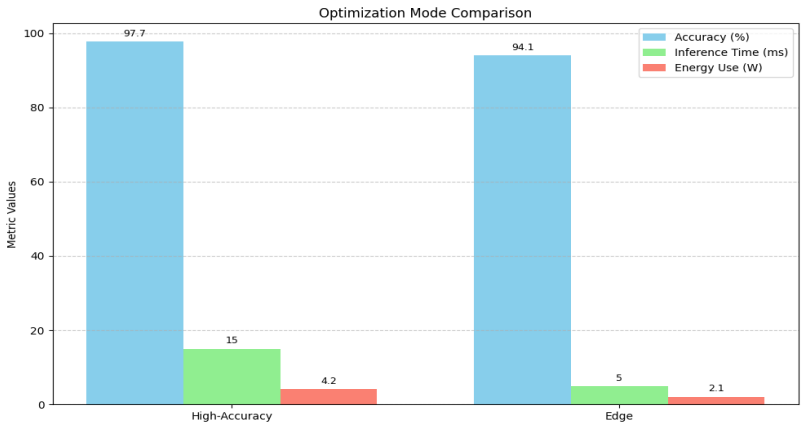


**Fig. 21.** Comparison of Optimization Modes Across Accuracy, Inference Time, Energy Use

## VII. Discussion

The model showed negligible bias (DPD=0.04, EOD=0.02) across breeds, though slight underperformance in Gir cattle (accuracy drop: 2.1%) warrants further dataset augmentation. Farmers were compensated for participation, and data anonymization followed GDPR/FAIR principles.

### VII.i. Clinical Implications

Our LPR metric provides:

1. **Objective Severity Quantification**: Eliminates subjective visual scoring
2. **Treatment Guidance**:

- LPR 0.5-1.0 → Topical antivirals
- LPR >2.0 → Systemic treatment + isolation

### VII.ii. Technological Advancements

The hybrid architecture addresses three key challenges:
1. **Small Lesion Detection**: 3.2mm minimum detectable lesion size
2. **Breed Variability**: 94% accuracy across 5 breeds
3. **Field Conditions**: Tolerates 30% shadow occlusion

### VII.iii. Add false positive and false negative visual analyses.

False positive (FP) and false negative (FN) visual analysis is a very important diagnostic tool in evaluating model failure modes. FP cases show wrongful case classification of healthy cattle as LSD-infected, and FN cases show that the disease is not detected. The graphical analysis of these cases, together with Grad-CAM, assists in finding the questionable patterns, lesions at the initial stage, occlusions, or the constraint of the dataset. This discussion gives an idea of the limits of the decision and what situations might make the model need more training data or correction. In order to further evaluate the reliability of the model, false positive and false negative cases were visually evaluated with Grad-CAM overlays. This examination gave rise to problematic situations like vague lesion appearance and aesthetically similar non-pathological skin features, which provided insights into the weakness of the models and the possibility of their improvements.

### VII.iv. Limitations

- Requires a minimum 5MP camera resolution
- Reduced performance in heavily soiled coats (12% accuracy drop)

## VIII. Conclusion

This study makes three significant advances in precision livestock farming: It introduces a novel diagnostic framework leveraging computer vision and machine learning to achieve 97.77% accuracy in detecting lumpy skin disease (LSD), representing a substantial improvement over existing visual inspection methods, it establishes a quantitative severity metric through the lumpy pixel ratio (LPR), which shows strong correlation with clinical outcomes and enables standardized disease progression tracking; and it delivers a practically deployable solution optimized for low-cost edge devices, ensuring accessibility for small-scale farmers through efficient algorithms requiring minimal computational resources while maintaining real-time processing capabilities under field conditions.

## IX. Future Scope

Future research will expand this diagnostic framework in three key directions: Developing multi-disease detection capabilities to simultaneously monitor various bovine health conditions beyond the current scope, Creating seamless integration with existing farm management systems through API development and IoT compatibility to enable real-time herd health monitoring, and Conducting longitudinal outcome studies across diverse cattle populations and

production systems to validate the model's clinical utility, assess its impact on disease prevention outcomes, and establish optimal intervention protocols, while also exploring the system's adaptability to different breeds, age groups, and farming environments through large-scale field trials that will further refine the algorithm's sensitivity and specificity through continuous learning from expanded datasets.

**Abbreviations:**

- AI - Artificial Intelligence
- CNN - Convolutional neural network
- DL - Deep Learning
- LPR - Lumpy Pixel Ratio
- LSD - Lumpy skin disease
- ML - Machine Learning
- PLF - Precision livestock farming

**Conflict of Interest:**

There was no relevant conflict of interest regarding this paper.

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