

# Quantifying Racial Bias in SpO<sub>2</sub> Measurements Using a Machine Learning Approach

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**Abstract:** This paper investigates the racial biases in pulse oximetry, focusing on the importance of noninvasive peripheral oxygen saturation (SpO<sub>2</sub>) measurements in classifying patient race and ethnicity. Using the publicly available BOLD dataset, our study applies various machine learning models to quantify the extent of bias in SpO<sub>2</sub> readings. Initial analysis revealed significant inaccuracies for individuals with darker skin tones, highlighting broader health disparities. Further exploration with machine learning models assessed SpO<sub>2</sub> as a predictive marker for race, uncovering that conventional oximetry may underestimate hypoxemia in non-White patients. Notably, the XGBoost model demonstrated superior performance, achieving baseline accuracy of 58.08% across the dataset with all races and 72.60% for only black and white patients included, while consistently identifying SpO<sub>2</sub> as a significant factor in these disparities. Our findings demonstrate the necessity for recalibrating medical devices to enhance their reliability and inclusivity, ensuring equitable health outcomes.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Pulse oximetry is a critical, noninvasive method used to measure peripheral oxygen saturation (SpO<sub>2</sub>) in a patient's blood (Harskamp et al., 2021). It is essential for making immediate clinical decisions in various healthcare settings, especially in intensive care units when managing patients with respiratory conditions (Valbuena et al., 2022). However, the reduced accuracy of pulse oximeters for individuals with darker skin tones has been known for decades, perpetuating structural racism in healthcare (Jamali et al., 2022).


Pulse oximeters function by emitting light through the skin and measuring the light absorption of oxygenated and deoxygenated hemoglobin at two different wavelengths (Webster, 1997). This measurement is affected by skin pigmentation, which can interfere with the light absorption and scattering, leading to less accurate readings for individuals with darker skin tones (Feiner et al., 2007) (Keller et al., 2022) as depicted in Fig. 1. Studies have shown that pulse oximeters tend to overestimate oxygen saturation levels in Black patients (Fawzy et al., 2022). For instance, Black patients experiencing respiratory failure had a


notably higher likelihood of occult hypoxemia, with an odds ratio of 2.57 (Valbuena et al., 2022), compared to White patients.

The persistent underdiagnosis of hypoxemia in Black patients is probably due to design flaws in the technology, yet there has been a collective decision to accept this miscalibration despite existing evidence (Valbuena et al., 2022). The impact of these inaccuracies extends beyond individual patient care, contributing to broader health disparities. Inaccurate SpO<sub>2</sub> readings can lead to mismanagement of oxygen therapy, delayed treatment, and ultimately poorer health outcomes for minority patients.

Therefore, it is important to demonstrate the prevalence of this bias in existing medical records and work towards a solution in the technology used to take SpO<sub>2</sub> measurements. In this study, we aim to quantify the racial bias in SpO<sub>2</sub> measurements by training machine learning (ML) models on patient data to predict race. Specifically, we evaluate the contribution of SpO<sub>2</sub> to the predictive performance of these models using feature importance metrics and performance evaluation scores. By analyzing how strongly SpO<sub>2</sub> contributes to race predictions, we can quantify the extent of the bias and demonstrate its impact on model outcomes.

The organization of this paper is as follows. Sec-

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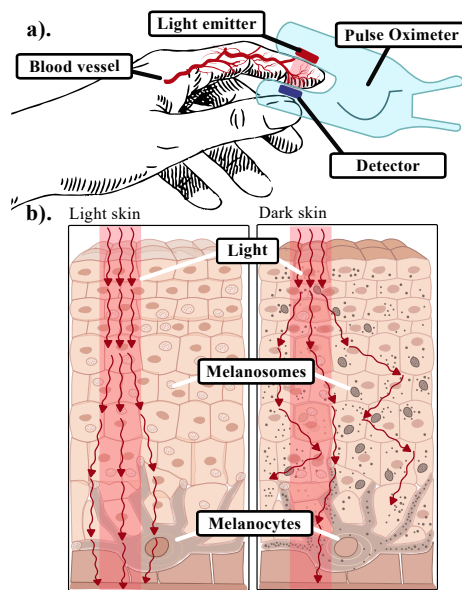


Figure 1: a). Pulse oximeter placement. b). Melanin in melanosomes—produced by melanocytes—affects signal accuracy, especially in darker skin, which has larger and more numerous melanosomes. Traditional oximetry inadequately accounts for how light scatters in different skin types, often leading to calibration biases towards lighter skin.

tion 2 elaborates on the methodologies used to assess  $\text{SpO}_2$  as a predictive marker for race, including various ML models and the preprocessing of the dataset. Following that, Section 3 presents our findings, discussing the results obtained from the analysis of  $\text{SpO}_2$ 's effectiveness in predicting race. Finally, in Section 4, we provide concluding remarks along with future work.

## 2 METHODOLOGY

### 2.1 Dataset Overview

The BOLD (Matos et al., 2023), is a blood-gas and oximetry linked dataset designed to investigate the relationship between  $\text{SpO}_2$ , measured noninvasively via pulse oximeters, and arterial blood gas measurements such as arterial oxygen saturation ( $\text{SaO}_2$ ). This dataset integrates data from three extensive Electronic Health Record (EHR) databases; MIMIC-III (Johnson et al., 2016), MIMIC-IV (Johnson et al., 2023), and eICU-CRD which focuses on ICU patients (Pollard et al., 2018). The BOLD dataset categorizes individuals according to standardized racial and ethnic classifications to examine disparities in pulse oximetry accuracy (Matos et al., 2024).

Key variables include  $\text{SpO}_2$ ,  $\text{SaO}_2$ , race, and other interpersonal parameters such as age, gender, and underlying health conditions. The dataset comprises 49,099 pairs from 44,907 patients and includes a total of 142 features. Demographics include admission age, sex, and race/ethnicity. Vital signs, laboratory test values, and Sequential Organ Failure Assessment (SOFA) scores are also included.

### 2.2 Preprocessing

The following preprocessing steps were taken to prepare the dataset for ML analysis.

#### 2.2.1 Identifying and Removing Outliers

The algorithm searched for outliers in columns (features) for values that fell significantly outside of the normal range. For example, in the pH column, many data entries were off by factors of 10 due to incorrect placement of the decimal point.

This was corrected by looping through the values and dividing them by 10 until they fell within the acceptable range of 0-14. For other features, such as 'BMI', the algorithm searched for BMI data entries greater than a threshold value (in this case, 50) and delete those patient entries from the dataset.

#### 2.2.2 Handling Unknown Values

To maintain data integrity and ensure reliable modeling, predictors with more than 50% missing values, considered substantial and often concentrated in specific features rather than randomly distributed across all variables, were removed. This approach minimizes the risk of introducing artificial patterns through excessive imputation without sufficient underlying information (Kuhn et al., 2013). For numerical columns, missing values were filled based on skewness: if greater than 0.5, the median was used; otherwise, the mean was used. For categorical data, we filled with the mode of the respective columns.

For the 'Race/Ethnicity' column, entries listed as 'Unknown' and categories with insufficient data, such as 'More Than One Race' and 'Native Hawaiian / Pacific Islander' as seen in Fig. 2, were deleted.

After these preprocessing steps as shown in Fig. 3, the dataset was left with the following distribution of race/ethnicity:

- White: 36212
- Black: 4556
- Hispanic or Latino: 2075
- Asian: 855
- American Indian / Alaska Native: 362

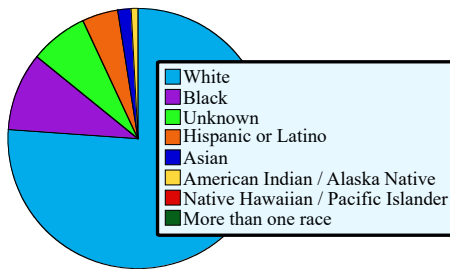


Figure 2: Initial Race/Ethnicity Value Counts.

### 2.2.3 Label Encoding

Each categorical feature was assigned a numerical value using the Scikit-learn library's `LabelEncoder` tool.

### 2.2.4 Reducing Bias

The initial dataset had a significant imbalance in the 'Race/Ethnicity' column, with the White race being overrepresented as depicted in Fig. 2. To correct this, we employed the Synthetic Minority Oversampling Technique (SMOTE) (Chawla et al., 2002), which generates synthetic data points for the minority classes to balance the dataset. However, before applying SMOTE, we reduced the number of 'White' entries to 5,000 through random sampling. After this reduction, SMOTE was applied to generate additional data entries for the other races and ethnicities, resulting in a balanced training dataset.

## 2.3 Machine Learning

After preprocessing, we selected several ML models (Decision Tree Classifier (DTC), Random Forest Classifier (RFC), XGBoost Classifier, K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN), Logistic Regression, and a Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP) neural network with default layers as provided by the `sklearn` library) which were trained to predict race by examining various features, including SpO<sub>2</sub> and SaO<sub>2</sub>. To ensure the reliability and stability of our results, we implemented 5-fold cross-validation. Preliminary analysis showed consistent variability across the five folds, suggesting that increasing the number of folds (e.g., to 10) would not significantly improve performance estimates. Therefore, 5-fold cross-validation provided a balanced and efficient evaluation approach.

After cross-validation, the models were trained on the entire resampled training set and tested on the test set to evaluate their performance. Subsequently, we extracted the 25 most important features from the Permutation Feature Importance (PFI) analysis and conducted training and testing with the same model

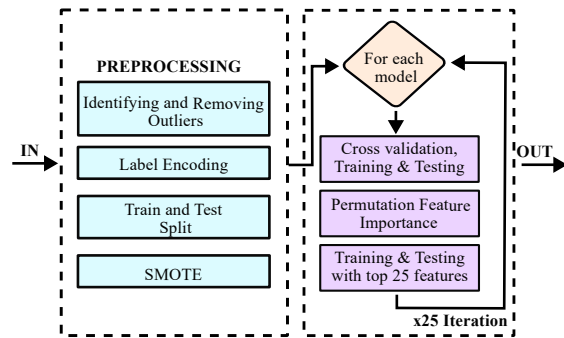


Figure 3: Process flowchart of the algorithm.

to assess information loss. For each classifier, we conducted the training, testing, PFI analysis, training and testing with the selected features for 25 iterations which can be seen in Fig. 3. This approach was taken to mitigate the effect of randomness and to observe the standard deviation of the rankings.

## 2.4 Permutation Feature Importance

PFI process involves shuffling the values of a feature and observing how the model's performance changes. A significant drop in performance indicates that the feature is important. Rankings are assigned based on the decrease in model accuracy, with higher rankings indicating greater importance.

To evaluate the importance of each feature, including SpO<sub>2</sub>, we used PFI across different models. By comparing the importance rankings of SpO<sub>2</sub> in various classifiers, we can assess the extent of its influence on the model's predictions and identify potential racial bias in SpO<sub>2</sub> measurements.

## 3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We initially evaluated the performance of ML models using all racial groups but achieved low accuracy since race does not indicate a unique skin color for certain races. Therefore, we narrowed our analysis to only Black and White races to better understand the correlation between race and SpO<sub>2</sub>.

### 3.1 Overall Performance

Table 1 summarizes the performance metrics of various classifiers used in our study to predict race/ethnicity based on SpO<sub>2</sub> and other features. The table presents the baseline accuracy, accuracy with 25 top-ranked selected features, and the ranking of SpO<sub>2</sub> for each model. The results are averaged over 25 iterations as explained in Subsection 2.3, and the

Table 1: Comparison of Performance Metrics - All Races/Ethnicities.

Models	Baseline Accuracy	Feature Accuracy*	Ranking of SpO <sub>2</sub>	Standard Deviation
XGBoost Classifier	0.5808	0.5586	5.36	0.70
Random Forest Classifier	0.5261	0.5304	24.40	25.25
Neural Network	0.4627	0.4456	13.40	10.52
Logistic Regression	0.4078	0.3698	66.48	12.14
DTC	0.4000	0.4020	9.80	4.27
KNN	0.2444	0.2880	66.20	23.52

\*presents the accuracy with selected features.

standard deviation of SpO<sub>2</sub> rankings is also provided to indicate the variability in its importance across the models.

The XGBoost demonstrated the highest overall performance, closely followed by the RFC. This indicates that ensemble methods such as XGBoost and RFC are highly effective for this classification task. In contrast, the KNN exhibited the lowest accuracy, highlighting its struggles in discerning patterns. This limitation of KNN can be considered a result of its inability to consider minority classes and the weight of data points (Uddin et al., 2022).

When selecting the top 25 features for training and testing, all classifiers except Logistic Regression and KNN included SpO<sub>2</sub> among the selected features through PFI. However, a drop in accuracy was still observed across models except DTC and KNN.

Based on Table 1 for all races, the PFI analysis reveals interesting trends. Models with higher accuracies also recognize the importance of features such as SpO<sub>2</sub>. However, high-accuracy models often cannot position SpO<sub>2</sub> correctly, indicated by a higher standard deviation, except for the XGBoost. XGBoost not only achieved the highest accuracy but also ranked SpO<sub>2</sub> correctly with the lowest standard deviation, indicating a consistent ranking of SpO<sub>2</sub> across iterations. In contrast, RFC and KNN had the highest standard deviations, reflecting greater variability in the importance of SpO<sub>2</sub>.

Overall, the results underscore the challenge of predicting race/ethnicity based on SpO<sub>2</sub> and other features. This difficulty is reflected in the generally lower accuracies observed. Subsequently, we will focus on the prediction of Black and White races specifically, as racial bias in SpO<sub>2</sub> measurements is related to skin color differences (Jamali et al., 2022) and not racial differences directly. Focusing on these races would help reveal this potential bias since the skin color differences are more pronounced between these two races.

### 3.2 Focused Analysis: Black and White Races

In this subsection, we utilize the same models specifically to predict the race between Black and White. The outcomes of this focused analysis are encapsulated in Table 2 that includes baseline accuracy, accuracy after selecting the top 25 features, the ranking of SpO<sub>2</sub> for each model, and the standard deviation of SpO<sub>2</sub> rankings.

The findings indicate that the accuracies for predicting Black and White races are generally higher than those for predicting all races. Moreover, the SpO<sub>2</sub> rankings are elevated, and the standard deviations are reduced, suggesting that SpO<sub>2</sub> has emerged as a more significant feature in this context. As illustrated in Table 2, XGBoost model outperformed other ML models, achieving the highest accuracy and the lowest standard deviation in SpO<sub>2</sub> ranking.

To determine whether the top-ranked features identified by XGBoost are meaningful, we conducted a detailed review of these features. The top-ranked feature is 'bmp\_creatinine', representing measured creatinine levels. This ranking is understandable given that Black patients tend to have higher serum creatinine concentrations than non-Hispanic White patients (Delgado et al., 2024) and, according to the third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, overall mean creatinine levels were highest among non-Hispanic Blacks (Jones et al., 1998). The second-ranked feature, 'region', correlates with U.S. census regions—Midwest 34.5%, Northeast 8.4%, South 34.6%, or West 22.4%—highlighting the non-uniform racial diversity across these regions according to United States 2010 and 2020 Census (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020). The third ranked feature is 'admission age'. Research on potential racial disparities in age at preventable hospitalizations concluded that Blacks were hospitalized more than 5 years earlier than Whites for both chronic and acute conditions (Biello et al., 2010).

The fourth-ranked feature is SpO<sub>2</sub>, which this pa-



Table 2: Comparison of Performance Metrics - Black &amp; White.

Models	Baseline Accuracy	Feature Accuracy*	Ranking of SpO <sub>2</sub>	Standard Deviation
XGBoost Classifier	0.7260	0.7155	3.84	0.37
Random Forest Classifier	0.7051	0.7050	4.16	1.72
Logistic Regression	0.6850	0.6853	8.88	1.64
Neural Network	0.6526	0.6749	3.80	1.26
DTC	0.6230	0.6157	6.88	6.66
KNN	0.5832	0.5941	12.72	5.60

\*presents the accuracy with selected features.

per aims to prove is related to race. As evident from the ranked features, the highest-ranked ones are already recognized within the scientific community for showing racial disparities and have well-documented racial inequities, with SpO<sub>2</sub>'s relation to race being as significant as those discussed. The ranking continues with measured blood urea nitrogen levels, measured mean corpuscular volume, measured mean corpuscular hemoglobin, and measured calcium levels.

SaO<sub>2</sub>, ranked ninth, is considered the gold standard for oxygenation status. Given that SaO<sub>2</sub> is typically measured through invasive blood gas analysis and is not affected by skin color, its high ranking in the feature importance suggests that race-related information might be carried through its correlation with SpO<sub>2</sub>. This indicates that the model may be leveraging the relationship between these features to capture race data indirectly. To further explore this observation, additional analysis on the SaO<sub>2</sub> - SpO<sub>2</sub> pairs was conducted (see Section 3.3). This inclusion aligns with findings from a cohort study across four NHS Hospitals (Bangash et al., 2022), which revealed that the differences between SpO<sub>2</sub> and SaO<sub>2</sub> varied by ethnicity, with this variance being more pronounced among Black versus White individuals. This difference led to 8.7% of Black patients and 6.1% of White patients, who were classified as normoxic based on SpO<sub>2</sub>, actually being hypoxic when measured against SaO<sub>2</sub> (Bangash et al., 2022), supporting a similar conclusion in our study.

### 3.3 Additional Analysis on SaO<sub>2</sub> - SpO<sub>2</sub> Pairs

To further elucidate the effect of SpO<sub>2</sub> on race prediction, we conducted additional analyses by examining accuracies: i) after excluding SpO<sub>2</sub>, ii) excluding both SpO<sub>2</sub> and SaO<sub>2</sub>, iii) excluding only SaO<sub>2</sub>, and iv) including delta SpO<sub>2</sub> (the difference between SpO<sub>2</sub> and SaO<sub>2</sub>) while excluding both SpO<sub>2</sub> and SaO<sub>2</sub>. Performed using the XGBoost model, Table 3 presents the results of these analyses.

The results indicate that the exclusion of SpO<sub>2</sub> and

Table 3: Accuracy Variations with Different SpO<sub>2</sub> Configurations.

Configuration	Accuracy
Baseline (All Features)	0.7260
Without SpO <sub>2</sub>	0.7012
Without SpO <sub>2</sub> and SaO <sub>2</sub>	0.6934
Without SaO <sub>2</sub>	0.7158
With Delta SpO <sub>2</sub> (SpO <sub>2</sub> - SaO <sub>2</sub> )	0.7294

SaO<sub>2</sub> features results in a slight decrease in accuracy, highlighting the contribution of these features in predicting race/ethnicity. The introduction of delta SpO<sub>2</sub> (the difference between SpO<sub>2</sub> and SaO<sub>2</sub> while excluding both SpO<sub>2</sub> and SaO<sub>2</sub>) marginal improvement in the accuracy, suggesting that the difference between these two measurements provides additional valuable information as mentioned in (Bangash et al., 2022). When delta SpO<sub>2</sub> is added and both SpO<sub>2</sub> and SaO<sub>2</sub> are excluded, there is no loss of information, which implies that the racial bias is not stored in the individual measurements but in the differences between them. These findings highlight the impact of SpO<sub>2</sub> and SaO<sub>2</sub> on the performance of the XGBoost model and suggest that differences in these measurements may contribute to racial biases in clinical settings.

## 4 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, our study quantifies the racial bias present in SpO<sub>2</sub> measurements using machine learning models applied to the BOLD dataset. By training various classifiers to predict race using SpO<sub>2</sub> and other parameters, we evaluated the importance of SpO<sub>2</sub> as a predictive feature and demonstrated its contribution to race prediction, particularly when focusing on Black and White patients. Our initial analysis, which included all racial groups, revealed generally lower accuracies across machine learning models, highlighting that race itself is not the primary driver of these disparities. Instead, the key source

of bias stems from skin color differences, which are most distinctly observed between Black and White populations. This insight led us to narrow our focus to these two groups, allowing a clearer quantification of bias.

The XGBoost classifier achieved the highest accuracy, reaching 72.60% when predicting race using SpO<sub>2</sub> and other parameters, with SpO<sub>2</sub> consistently ranking as a top predictive feature and showing minimal variability across iterations. When SpO<sub>2</sub> was excluded from the model, accuracy dropped from 72.60% to 70.12%. Additionally, introducing delta SpO<sub>2</sub>, the difference between SpO<sub>2</sub> and SaO<sub>2</sub>, slightly improved accuracy to 72.94%, indicating that the bias arises not only from individual SpO<sub>2</sub> or SaO<sub>2</sub> values but from their interrelation. Our findings reinforce existing clinical evidence showing that Black patients are more susceptible to undetected hypoxemia when SpO<sub>2</sub> is used as the sole diagnostic tool. While our analysis demonstrated the ability of machine learning models to detect and quantify bias through feature importance analysis, we emphasize that SpO<sub>2</sub> discrepancies cannot be fully addressed without more granular data, such as direct skin color measurements. These insights suggest that race serves as a reasonable surrogate for skin color in current datasets, but future datasets must incorporate explicit skin pigmentation data to enable more precise corrections.

For future work, we propose exploring more robust solutions beyond race-based corrections. Devices such as transcutaneous oxygen monitors, like the prototype wearable developed by Vakhter et al., measure oxygen diffusion directly through the skin, bypassing the bias introduced by skin pigmentation (Vakhter et al., 2023). Integrating data from such devices with pulse oximetry could provide a more accurate and skin-independent assessment of oxygen saturation. However, in our current dataset, we lack specific skin color information, preventing the implementation of skin-specific corrections. As a result, in our ongoing work, we will continue to use race as a surrogate for skin color as a proof of concept to demonstrate the potential effectiveness of machine learning-based corrections (Karli and Unluturk, 2024).

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