# Leveraging digital media data for pharmacovigilance

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#### Abstract

*The development of novel drugs in response to changing clinical requirements is a complex and costly method with uncertain outcomes. Postmarket pharmacovigilance is essential as drugs often have under-reported side effects. This study intends to use the power of digital media to discover the under-reported side effects of marketed drugs. We have collected tweets for 11 different Drugs (Alprazolam, Adderall, Fluoxetine, Venlafaxine, Adalimumab, Lamotrigine, Quetiapine, Trazodone, Paroxetine, Metronidazole and Miconazole). We have compiled a vast adverse drug reactions (ADRs) lexicon that is used to filter health related data. We constructed machine learning models for automatically annotating the huge amount of publicly available Twitter data. Our results show that on average 43 known ADRs are shared between Twitter and FAERS datasets. Moreover, we were able to recover on average 7 known side effects from Twitter data that are not reported on FAERS. Our results on Twitter dataset show a high concordance with FAERS, Medeffect and Drugs.com. Moreover, we manually validated some of the under-reported side effect predicted by our model using literature search. Common known and under-reported side effects can be found at<https://github.com/cbrl-nuces/Leveraging-digital-media-data-for-pharmacovigilance>*.

#### 1 Introduction

Pharmacovigilance is the practice of monitoring effects of FDA approved drugs. It is the science and activities related to detecting, assessing, understanding and preventing the adverse effects of drugs. The study of pharmacovigilance has been recently widened to deal with herbal, traditional and complimentary medicines, blood related products, medical devices and vaccines<sup>[1](#page-8-0)</sup>.

Drugs are extensively studied (*in vitro* experiments, *in vivo* experiments and clinical trials) before they become available to the public for general use. However, it is evident that drugs in clinical trials are monitored for their side effects under controlled conditions e.g. ethnic diversity, patient age group, dosage and duration. The general and flexible use of these drugs, particularly in less regulated regions like Africa and South Asia is likely to produce previously unobserved side effects and introduce new risks. Post-market pharmacovigilance is required as clinical trials involve limited number of patients, making it difficult to cover broader patterns and trends of drugs. Patient groups such as pregnant women and children are often excluded from clinical trials due to concerns of teratogenicity and ethical issues yet these drugs are often prescribed to such patient groups once available in the market<sup>[2,](#page-8-1)3</sup>. Moreover, these patient groups are also active web and social media users<sup>[4](#page-8-3)</sup>. Previous studies show that it is highly likely that FDA approved drugs will show adverse reactions due to several known and yet to be discovered off-targets<sup>[5,](#page-8-4)6</sup>.

Current pharmacovigilance efforts have room for improvement as numerous approved drugs have been withdrawn from the market due to their adverse events. One famous example is of Thalidomide, which was introduced in late 1957 and was widely prescribed as a safe treatment for morning sickness and nausea. Children of pregnant women on Thalidomide prescription showed congenital abnormalities that caused severe birth defects<sup>[7](#page-8-6)</sup>. Thalidomide was removed from the market in most countries in 1965. Nevertheless, it continued to be used for the treatment of leprosy, and in more recent years, its indications have been extended to a much wider range of medical conditions<sup>[8](#page-8-7)</sup>. Despite being allowed only under strict supervision and specialist advice, between 1969 and 1995, 34 cases of thalidomide embryopathy were registered in leprosy endemic areas in South America by the Latin American Collaborative Study of Congenital Malformations<sup>[9](#page-8-8)</sup>.

There is an emerging trend in people to use social media and websites to reach out to doctors and pharmaceutical com-panies<sup>[10](#page-8-9)</sup>. Similarly, health-care professionals and patients are discussing the adverse experiences related to medicinal products using the digital media platforms<sup>[11](#page-8-10)</sup>. Some studies have explored the use of social media data for pharma-covigilance<sup>[12–](#page-9-0)[14](#page-9-1)</sup>. Nikfarjam *et al.* tagged mentions of drug side-effects in social media posts from Twitter and online health community DailyStrength<sup>[15](#page-9-2)</sup>. Similarly Cocos *et al.* developed a deep learning based method for labeling ADRs

in Twitter posts<sup>[16](#page-9-3)</sup>. These studies were helpful in identifying the mentions of ADRs, however, downstream analysis is required to perform qualitative analysis on these ADRs<sup>[15,](#page-9-2)16</sup>. Freifeld *et al.* evaluated the level of concordance between drug side-effects from Twitter data and adverse events (AE) reported in the FAERS<sup>[17](#page-9-4)</sup>. They provided the correlation by system organ class between adverse event (AE) in Twitter and consumer report, but did not perform any quantitative analysis for actual AEs and do not provide any mechanism to control false positives. MacKinlay *et al.* investigated the ADR surveillance by analyzing tweets and evaluated their methodology against the reports in the FAERS database<sup>[18](#page-9-5)</sup>. Smith *et al.* presented a method to compare ADRs mentioned in social media with FAERS, drug information databases (DIDs), and systematic reviews[19](#page-9-6). Even though some studies have started analysing social media data for augmenting pharmacovigilance efforts, but existing studies (i) do not account for unstructured nature of the data on the social media platforms appropriately, (ii) fail to quantify the quality of data from social media, and (iii) fail to control for the high noise in such data platforms.

In this study, we try to overcome the above mentioned limitations by (i) compiling a large phrasal ADR lexicon that is specific for ADRs, descriptive in nature and wherein the phrases representing the same ADR are grouped together using semantic similarity based hierarchical clustering, ii) comparing the ADRs found from Twitter with three reporting systems: FDA's AERS (FAERS)<sup>[20](#page-9-7)</sup>, MedEffect<sup>[1](#page-1-0)</sup> and Drugs.com<sup>[2](#page-1-1)</sup>; iii) using a classification model followed by a statistical model to filter out possible noise and false positives.

We used our lexicon to mine the ADRs reported on Twitter for 11 drugs (Alprazolam, Adderall, Fluoxetine, Venlafaxine, Adalimumab, Lamotrigine, Quetiapine, Trazodone,Paroxetine, Metronidazole and Miconazole). We were able to recover a significant number (approximately 50 on average) of known side effects of each drug from Twitter and predict the under-reported side effect of the 11 drugs in our dataset. Our results suggest that Twitter data shows a high concordance with FAERS (approximately 43 side effects on average) and other reporting systems and can be used as an additional source for enhancing pharmacovigilance practices. Our study will help the drug regulatory agencies and pharmaceutical companies in performing post-market pharmacovigilance using publicly available digital media data.

## 2 Methods and Techniques

## 2.1 Data Collection and preprocessing

We shortlisted 11 drugs for which significant data was available on Twitter (Table [1\)](#page-2-0). Drugs are marketed under different names (Fluoxetine is also marketed as Prozac, Prozac Weekly, and Sarafem), therefore we have used a list of all the alternate names by augmenting brand names from Drug.com in the list compiled by Sarkar A, et al.<sup>[21](#page-9-8)</sup>. Moreover, data from Twitter does not follow language rules and can have spelling and grammatical errors (Xanax can be written as xanaxx and xnaax). Therefore, all alternate names of the drugs and their common misspellings were used to collect the data from Twitter using tweepy<sup>[3](#page-1-2)</sup> and twitterscraper <sup>[4](#page-1-3)</sup> APIs.

Apart from Twitter data, we also used the reviews data available at Drugs.com, FAERS and MedEffect. For Drugs.com we used the data compiled by Graber et al.<sup>[22](#page-9-9)</sup>. For collecting FAERS's data, we used the openFDA<sup>[20](#page-9-7)</sup> "drug adverse" event" API to download all the available files of Drug Adverse Events data using a python scraper. Similarly we also collected the ADRs reported on MedEffect for these drugs. From both Twitter and online reviews datasets redundant records were removed, followed by the application of stemming and lemmatization. The number of unique tweets and reviews found for each drug can be seen in the Table [1.](#page-2-0)

## 2.2 Data Classification

We only used tweets containing at least one drug name and an ADR. Due to the unstructured nature of the Twitter data, we need to define the context of the tweets. For example:

*(i) I had xanax and it caused me anxiety*

*(ii) Can Xanax cause anxiety?*

<span id="page-1-1"></span><span id="page-1-0"></span><sup>1</sup>https://www.canada.ca/en/health-canada/services/drugs-health-products/medeffect-canada/adverse-reaction-database.html <sup>2</sup>https://www.drugs.com/

<span id="page-1-2"></span><sup>3</sup>http://www.tweepy.org/

<span id="page-1-3"></span><sup>4</sup>Available: http://www.tweepy.org/

<span id="page-2-0"></span>

	<b>Twitter Data</b>		<b>MedEffect Data</b>	<b>Drugs.com Data</b>	<b>FAERS</b> Data	
Drug names	<b>Tweets extracted</b>	<b>Tweets filtered</b>	<b>Tweets classified</b>	<b>Reviews for</b>	<b>Reviews for</b>	<b>Reviews for</b>
	on drug names	on side effect	as "Health"	each drug	each drug	each drug
Alprazolam	290.212	95,683	15,047	1.885	1.373	30.979
Adderall	604.213	119.190	31.266	1.018	358	6.423
Fluoxetine	342,010	93.537	10.526	1.355	1,500	22,927
Venlafaxine	50.053	16.144	4.836	4.661	316	5.856
Adalimumah	70,253	26.433	3.893	77.177	697	300,859
Lamotrigine	39,946	13.149	3.932	3.435	1.065	37,067
Ouetiapine	77.596	22.929	8.332	13.979	1.454	26.468
Trazodone	4.064	7.478	3.414	3.141	716	1.147
Paroxetine	106.139	34.539	5.644	8.450	1.347	32,033
Metronidazole	53.254	16.032	1.923	5.084	1.262	9.450
Miconazole	33.115	8.226	326	50	1.255	6.526

Table 1: Shows the data collected from Twitter, MedEffect, Drugs.com and FAERS for 11 different drugs.

In the first tweet it is being portrayed that the user had anxiety after having Xanax, we categorized such tweets as "Health", whereas in the second tweet a question is being put. It might be possible that drug name and side effect may co-occur in the same tweet but in different context therefore we categorized such tweets as "Non-Health". In order to reduce the false positives, we removed the tweets falling in the category of "Non-Health". The manual classification of thousands of tweets is a tedious task, so we converted this into a classification problem. From the collected Twitter data set, 2, 500 random health related tweets were manually annotated as "Health" and 2, 500 non-health tweets were were manually annotated as "Non-Health".

For training the machine learning models on the manually annotated data, we extracted features that capture the semantics and contextual information. To accomplish this we used two pre-trained word2vec models. One from "Dis-tributional Semantics Resources for Bio-medical Text Processing" by Pyysalo et al. (2013)<sup>[23](#page-9-10)</sup>, trained on Wikipedia, PubMed and PMC and the second by *Godin et al.* trained on over 400 million Twitter microposts<sup>[24](#page-9-11)</sup>. We also used Term Frequency Inverse Document Frequency (tf-idf) features, that is a term weighting scheme representing the important of a word is in a corpus<sup>[25,](#page-9-12) [26](#page-9-13)</sup>. We only used the data that is classified as "health" for further analysis (as shown in Table [1\)](#page-2-0).

### 2.3 Tanimoto Coefficient

In order to infer the value of occurrence of a particular side effect in a drug, we calculated the tanimoto coefficient " $\sigma$ " of a drug with each side-effect.

$$
\sigma = \frac{D_i \cap S_j}{D_i \cup S_j}
$$
  
\n
$$
D_i \cup S_j = f(D_i) + f(s_j) - (D_i \cap S_j)
$$
\n(1)

where  $D_i$  represents the name of a drug and  $S_i$  represents the side effect. i is iterated over the 11 drugs in the dataset and j is iterated over the 21, 550 side effect groups.  $f(D_i)$  and  $f(S_i)$  represent the number of tweets that contain drug  $D_i$  and side effect  $S_i$  respectively. The tanimoto coefficient  $\sigma$  has a range between 0 and 1, where 0 represents lowest similarity and 1 represents highest similarity.

#### 3 Results and Discussion

#### 3.1 Lexicon Compilation

In our previous study, we compiled a large phrasal ADR lexicon from FAERS (containing 20,285 phrases) and au-tomatically clustered the phrases representing the same ADRs<sup>[27](#page-9-14)</sup>. In this study, we expanded this lexicon by adding additional phrasal ADRs from MedEffect<sup>[5](#page-2-1)</sup> and CHV<sup>[6](#page-2-2)</sup>. In order to compile a list of only ADRs, we filtered the CHV phrases by excluding the concepts with UMLS IDs that were not listed in SIDER<sup>[28](#page-9-15)</sup> (following the approach of Azadeh Nikfarjam *et al.*<sup>[29](#page-9-16)</sup>). We grouped the ADRs together that had the same UMLS IDs to obtain 4, 101 phrasal ADR groups.

<span id="page-2-1"></span><sup>5</sup>https://www.canada.ca/en/health-canada/services/drugs-health-products/medeffect-canada/adverse-reaction-database.html

<span id="page-2-2"></span><sup>6</sup>http://consumerhealthvocab.chpc.utah.edu/CHVwiki/

We added these ADR groups and 11, 956 ADRs from MedEffect to the lexicon from FAERS. We had a total of 34, 392 unique groups<sup>[7](#page-3-0)</sup> and our goal was to iteratively merge the groups representing similar ADRs.

## 3.2 Lexicon Clustering

Results from our previous study showed that nine different algorithms can be used for the automatic clustering of the phrasal ADR lexicon<sup>[27](#page-9-14)</sup>. Here, we used Silhouette Coefficient to determine the number of clusters for our lexicon<sup>[30](#page-9-17)</sup>. Higher Silhouette Coefficient scores represent a model with better defined clusters. For all nine clustering algorithms, we computed Silhouette Coefficient for the values of k (number of clusters) ranging from 50 to 34, 300 with an increment of 50. All nine clustering algorithms have the highest Silhouette Coefficient around 21, 550 (Figure [1a](#page-3-1)), so we chose 21, 550 as the value of k (number of clutters).

<span id="page-3-1"></span>

Figure 1: (a) "silhouette coefficient score" of nine clustering algorithms. All clustering algorithms have the highest silhouette coefficient around 21, 550 (b) "cophenetic correlation coefficient" of nine clustering algorithms, "Average min distance Average" algorithm has highest score of 0.54. We selected "Average min distance Average" as a clustering algorithm with  $k=21,550$  (number of clusters).

We used cophenetic correlation coefficient, a measure of how good a dendrogram preserves the pairwise distances between the original data points, to select the best performing clustering algorithm $31$ . A good clustering has cophenetic correlation close to 1. We computed cophenetic correlation for all nine clustering algorithms and "Average min distance Average" algorithm obtained the highest score of 0.54 (Figure [1b](#page-3-1)). Therefore, we selected "Average min distance Average" as an algorithm to cluster the phrases representing the same  $\text{ADRs}^8$  $\text{ADRs}^8$ . This clustering scheme uses the average of min distance to compute the semantic similarity between two phrases and "average" as linkage criteria $^{27}$  $^{27}$  $^{27}$ .

### 3.3 Annotation and Noise Removal

In order to automate the annotation process, we constructed different models to classify the tweets/reviews into "health" or "non-health" classes based on our manually annotated dataset of 5, 000 tweets (see methods for details). We performed k-fold cross validation of different machine learning classifiers for selecting the best model using two different features: (1) tf-idf along with word2vec trained on twitter and (2) tf-idf along with word2vec trained on Wikipedia, PubMed and PMC. The MLPClassifier using tf-idf and word2vec trained on twitter outperformed other models (Table [2\)](#page-4-0). Deep learning models were not used due to the limited annotated training data available in this study. Our results also suggest that as more data is fed to the classifiers, their performance increases significantly.

<span id="page-3-0"></span><sup>7</sup>https://github.com/cbrl-nuces/Leveraging-digital-media-data-for-pharmacovigilance/blob/master/Data/FDA-CHV-and-MedEffectsideeffectlist.csv

<span id="page-3-2"></span><sup>8</sup>https://github.com/cbrl-nuces/Leveraging-digital-media-data-for-pharmacovigilance/tree/master/Data/side-effect-clusters

<span id="page-4-0"></span>

Table 2: K-fold cross validation of different machine learning classifiers: MLPClassifier (MLP), XGBClassifier (XGB), KNeighborsClassifier (KNN), RandomForestClassifier (RF), DecisionTreeClassifier (DT) using two different types of features (1) tf-idf and word2vec trained on twitter and (2) tf-idf and word2vec trained Wikipedia, PubMed and PMC. On the basis of reported precision or positive predictive value (PPV), recall or true positive rate (TPR) and F1 score (F1), MLPClassifier turned out to be the best performing classifier using tf-idf and word2vec trained on twitter.

<span id="page-4-4"></span>

Table 3: Shows the number of known ADRs found from twitter and other three reporting systems (FAERS, MedEffect and Drugs.com). "# of known" represents the total number known ADRs in our compiled lists of known side effects. "Twitter", "FAERS", "MedEffect", and "Drugs.com" represent number of ADRs found from Twitter, FAERS, MedEffect and Drugs.com respectively that are also in the compiled lists of known side effects. "Tw+FA" represent number of common known ADRs found from Twitter and FAERS. "Common" represent number of common known ADRs found from Twitter, MedEffect, Drugs.com and FAERS. "RMSE Tw+FA", "RMSE Tw+Med" and "RMSE Tw+Drugs" represents Root-Mean-Squared-Error (RMSE) between the tanimoto coefficient scores  $(\sigma)$  of Twitter-FAERS, Twitter-MedEffect and Twitter-Drugs.com respectively.

## 3.4 Analysis on Cleaned Data

We compiled the lists of known side effects and indications of each drug from WebMD<sup>[9](#page-4-1)</sup>, Drugs.com<sup>[10](#page-4-2)</sup> and Medline- $Plus<sup>11</sup>$  $Plus<sup>11</sup>$  $Plus<sup>11</sup>$ . After filtering the "Health" tweets we calculated the tanimoto coefficient " $\sigma$ " for each drug on the tweets and reviews dataset. Indications of each drug were removed from our results. While the remaining results are either known side effects, possible under reported ADRs or false positives. Table [3](#page-4-4) shows the number of known ADRs found from twitter, FAERS, MedEffect and Drugs.com. On average 43 ADRs for each drug are shared between twitter and FAERS datasets. Root-Mean-Squared-Error (RMSE) between the tanimoto coefficient scores  $\sigma$  of all common ADRs between Twitter and FAERS datasets was 0.014, thus demonstrating a high level of agreement between the results from Twitter and FAERS. Similar results were found between Twitter and MedEffect dataset and between Twitter and Drugs.com dataset (Table [3\)](#page-4-4). Moreover, Twitter was able to recover on average 7 known side effects that were not reported in FAERS. This supports the fact that digital media sites such as Twitter could be used to augment the current pharmacovigilance efforts.

In order to show how good twitter results are in recovering the known side effect as compared to other reporting systems, we used the known side effect list to get the top ten known side effect for each drug on the basis of tanimoto

<span id="page-4-1"></span><sup>9</sup>https://www.webmd.com/

<span id="page-4-2"></span><sup>10</sup>https://www.drugs.com/

<span id="page-4-3"></span><sup>11</sup>https://medlineplus.gov/

coefficient. It can be seen from the Figure [2](#page-5-0) and Table [4](#page-6-0) that the top 10 known side effects found from Twitter are also reported on other reporting systems (FAERS, MedEffect and Drugs.com) with high tanimoto coefficient scores  $\sigma$ . This shows that the data from twitter is meaningful and it can be used along with the current ADR reporting systems.

<span id="page-5-0"></span>

Figure 2: The tanimoto coefficient score ( $\sigma \times 100$ ) of the top 10 known side effects found from twitter that are also reported on other reporting systems (FAERS, MedEffect and Drugs.com) for four drugs (a) "Alprazolam", (b) "Adderall", (c) "Venlafaxine" and (d) "Adalimumab"

## 3.5 Comparison with previous studies

Sarker *et al*<sup>[14](#page-9-1)</sup> assessed the possibility of utilizing social media as a resource for prescription medication abuse and they reported "weight loss" as a common abuse of "Adderall". Our study finds similar results with  $\sigma$  of 0.0008 and 0.0012 on Twitter and FAERS dataset respectively. Smith *et al.*[19](#page-9-6) developed a method to compare ADRs mentioned in social media with those in traditional sources and their results showed that "headache" was reported with relatively high index values on FAERS and Drug Information Databases. Our results also show that "headache" was reported on Twitter, FAERS and Drugs.com with  $\sigma$  of 0.0152, 0.0072 and 0.0012 respectively. Chavant *et al*<sup>[32](#page-9-19)</sup> showed that the occurrence of "memory disorders" reported for "Alprazolam" and "Fluoxetine" in the French PharmacoVigilance Database (FPVD) are 14 and 16 respectively. Our methodology also showed "memory disorders" ADR with high  $\sigma$  values for "Alprazolam" (Twitter = 0.0009, FAERS = 0.0109, MedEffect = 0.0087, Drugs.com = 0.0057) and "Fluoxetine" (Twitter =  $0.0001$ , FAERS =  $0.0006$ , Drugs.com =  $0.0013$ ).

O'Connor *et al*[13](#page-9-20) evaluated the viability of Twitter as a source of ADR mentions and its potential value for pharmacovigilance. They reported a list of drugs with their most common adverse reactions and the most frequent adverse effects extracted from the Twitter data using their automated system. We also reported the tanimoto coefficient " $\sigma$ " score of these ADRs. It can be seen in Table [5](#page-7-0) that our method is able to recover most of the ADRs reported by their method with significantly high scores. Our analysis showed several under-reported side effects for the drugs in our dataset. Some of the unknown side effects predicted by our methodology and previously reported by case studies have been listed in Table [6](#page-7-1) along with a sample tweet and/or online review from our datasets.

For Prozac it has been an active debate for the past three decades whether it causes aggressive behaviour in subjects or not<sup>[33](#page-9-21)</sup>. Our results from the Twitter ( $\sigma = 0.0026$ ), FAERS ( $\sigma = 0.0013$ ) and Drugs.com ( $\sigma = 0.005$ ) suggest that certain patients do experience increase in aggressiveness after taking Prozac. Another side effect for Prozac that had a relatively high tanimoto coefficient for both Twitter ( $\sigma = 0.0096$ ) and Drugs.com ( $\sigma = 0.0164$ ) is having unusual dreams. Several studies have previously reported this side-effect for Prozac<sup>[34,](#page-9-22) [35](#page-9-23)</sup>. Upset stomach had a  $\sigma$  of 0.004 for Twitter, 0.001 for FAERS and 0.008 for Drugs.com data. This side effect has been reported in a study on preschool and high school children<sup>[36](#page-9-24)</sup>.

<span id="page-6-0"></span>

Table 4: The tanimoto coefficient score ( $\sigma \times 100$ ) of top known side effect found from twitter that are also reported on other reporting systems e.g FAERS, MedEffect and Drugs.com.

<span id="page-7-0"></span>

Drug Brand/	<b>Adverse Effects Found in</b> <b>Tweets (Score)</b>	<b>Documented Adverse</b> Effects (no order)	<b>Adverse Effects Found in Tweets</b> (Frequency) reported by O'Connor et al	
<b>Generic Name</b>	by our method	reported by O'Connor et al		
Seroquel/ Ouetiapine	weight gain $(8.38)$ , psychosis $(1.82)$ , dry mouth $(0.40)$ , increased appetite (0.30), restless leg syndrome $(0.14)$ , sleep paralysis $(0.14)$ , abnormal dreams (0.02)	somnolence, dry mouth, headache, dizziness, asthenia, constipation, fatigue	somnolence (22.2%), abnormal dreams $(9.6\%)$ , feel like a zombie $(8.1\%)$ , weight gain $(6.6\%)$ , restless leg syndrome $(6.6\%)$ , increased appetite (5.9%), sleep paralysis $(2.9\%)$ , dizziness $(2.2\%)$ , psychosis $(2.2\%)$ , tremors $(2.2\%)$	
Effexor/ venlafaxine	insomnia (2.09), withdrawal syndrome $(0.47)$ , dry mouth (0.34)	nausea, headache, somnolence, dry mouth, dizziness	withdrawal syndrome (21.3%), insomnia $(11.1\%)$ , headache $(4.3\%)$ , malaise $(4.3\%)$ , abnormal dreams $(4.3\%)$ , nausea $(3.4\%)$ , shaking $(3.4\%)$ , fatigue $(3.4\%)$	
Paxil/ Paroxetine	weight gain (14.03), feel sick $(2.27)$ , insomnia $(1.96)$ , depression (2.18), withdrawal syndrome $(0.16)$	nausea, somnolence, abnormal ejaculation, asthenia, tremor, insomnia, sweating	withdrawal syndrome $(27.7\%)$ , weight gain $(12.8\%)$ , depression $(8.5\%)$ , headache $(6.4\%)$ , somnolence $(6.4\%)$ , allergic $(6.4\%)$ , feel sick $(6.4\%)$ , emotional $(6.4\%)$	
Prozac/ Fluoxetine	anxiety (3.14), feeling ill $(2.21)$ , insomnia $(1.85)$ , suicidal thoughts (0.86), abnormal dreams (0.0003), withdrawal syndrome (0.03)	nausea, headache, insomnia, nervousness, anxiety, somnolence	somnolence (22.2%), withdrawal syndrome $(8.9\%)$ , feeling ill $(8.9\%)$ , abnormal dreams $(6.7\%)$ , suicidal thoughts $(6.7\%)$ , tremors $(6.7\%)$ , allergic reaction $(4.4\%)$	
Lamictal/ Lamotrigine	insomnia (1.62), feel sick $(1.49)$ , back pain $(0.15)$ , joint pain $(0.05)$	vomiting, coordination abnormality, dizziness, rhinitis, dyspepsia, nausea, headache, diplopia, ataxia, insomnia, fatigue, back pain	insomnia (17.9%), rash (12.8%), lethargy $(7.7\%)$ , joint pain $(5.1\%)$ , feel like a zombie $(5.1\%)$ , feel sick $(5.1\%)$	
Humira	feel sick $(1.83)$ , joint pain $(0.96)$	upper respiratory infection, rash, headache, sinusitis, accidental injury	somnolence $(24\%)$ , feel sick $(8\%)$ , palpitations $(8\%)$ , ache/pains $(8\%)$ , joint pain $(4\%)$ , headache $(4\%)$ , rash $(4\%)$ , respiratory disorder $(4\%)$	
Trazodone	insomnia (14.09), hangover effect (0.80), dry mouth (0.38), withdrawal syndrome (0.23)	somnolence, headache, dry mouth, dizziness, nausea	somnolence (24.3%), abnormal dreams $(16.2\%)$ , hangover effect $(8.1\%)$ , headache $(5.4\%)$ , insomnia $(5.4\%)$ , withdrawal syndrome $(5.4\%)$	

Table 5: The tanimoto coefficient score ( $\sigma \times 100$ ) of ADRs found from twitter by our method that was previously reported by O'Connor *et al*<sup>[13](#page-9-20)</sup>.

<span id="page-7-1"></span>

Table 6: Unknown side effects predicted by our methodology that have been previously reported by case studies.

For Xanax, we predicted heart burn as one of the under-reported side effects with  $\sigma$  of 0.002 for Twitter, and 0.0003 for FAERS. A previous clinical trial reported heart burn in more than 30% of the patients<sup>[37](#page-9-25)</sup>. Similarly, we predicted talkativeness as another under-reported side effect for Xanax. A previous case study has reported increased talkative-ness in an elderly patient with a history of anxiety, mood disorders, and hypothyroidism<sup>[38](#page-9-26)</sup>. Similarly, a previous study supports our results on Adderall induced memory loss ( $\sigma = 0.0008$  for Twitter data and  $\sigma = 0.0002$  for FAERS  $data$ <sup>[39](#page-9-27)</sup>. A complete list of under-reported side effects that were found for the 11 drugs across all platforms can be found at [https://github.com/cbrl-nuces/Leveraging-digital-media-data-for-pharmacovigilance.](https://github.com/cbrl-nuces/Leveraging-digital-media-data-for-pharmacovigilance)

## 4 Conclusion

Conducting clinical trials of drugs is expensive and has its own restrictions on patient groups and drug usage. Moreover, manual annotation of the data is a tedious and time consuming task. Digital data (social media and online reviews) can help in reducing the cost of pharmacovigilance efforts and can help in gathering unknown side effects of drugs. This research work provides the groundwork for augmenting current pharmacovigilance efforts. We constructed several classifiers to automatically annotate health related tweets. We were able to recover several known side effects for the 11 drugs in our dataset using social media and online reporting system. Some of the predicted side effects have already been reported by previous studies, therefore lending validity to our findings.

We filtered the tweets on a vast ADRs lexicon and then removed the possible false positives using a classifier. The data available on Twitter is without any specific medical focus and suffers from high false positives. Such false positives get very low tanimoto coefficient score due to large volume of tweets and can be removed by our methodology. Moreover, it is important to distinguish false positives from novel ADRs. This currently requires manual efforts. Our approach could highlight possible under-reported ADRs, however, subsequent manual examination by experts is required to confirm these ADRs.

The unknown side effects found by our model are the possible under reported ADRs that were not present in the list of known ADRs and need further clinical validation. In future we plan to improve the quality and quantity of data annotation and use the similar pipeline to identify the indication/symptoms of infectious diseases such as COVID-19 reported on digital media.

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