**On-line Supplement to "Text Categorization Models of High Quality Articles in Internal Medicine" Y. Aphinyanaphongs, M.S. I. Tsamardinos, Ph.D. A. Statnikov, M.S.** 

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### **Section 1: Mathematical Descriptions of Learning Methods**

# 1. Log frequency wih Redundancy [1]

The number of occurrences of term  $w_k$  in document  $t_i$  is denoted by  $f(w_k, t_i)$  and  $f(w_k) = \sum_i f(w_k, t_i)$  is the number of occurrences of term  $w_k$  in the whole document collection. The vector of logarithmic type frequencies of document  $t_i$  is defined by:

$$
\mathbf{l}_{i} = (\log(1 + f(w_{i}, d_{i}), \dots, \log(1 + f(w_{i}, d_{i})))
$$
.

The weights of each term  $w_k$  are defined by:

$$
r_{k} = \log N + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{f(w_{k}, d_{i})}{f(w_{k})} \log \frac{f(w_{k}, d_{i})}{f(w_{k})}
$$

where  $f(w_k, d_i)$  is the frequency of occurrence of term  $w_k$  in document  $t_i$  and N is the total number of documents in the collection. The weights are combined into a vector for the whole document collection:

$$
\mathbf{r}=(r_1,...,r_n)
$$

The final scheme used is defined by:

$$
\mathbf{X}_{i} = \frac{\mathbf{l}_{i} * \mathbf{r}}{\left\| \mathbf{l}_{i} * \mathbf{r} \right\|_{L_{2}}}
$$

where the " $*$ " corresponds to multiplication of vectors, and  $L_2$  refers to the normalization of the vector multiplication.

### 2. Naïve Bayes [2]

 The Naïve Bayes classifier for text classification [3] is a model that estimates the probabilities of the class  $c_j$  given the terms **w** by using the training data to determine parameters. The classification can be described as:

$$
C_{learned} = \underset{c_j \in C}{\text{argmax}} \ P(c_j \mid w_1, w_2, w_3, ...)
$$
 (0.1)

where *C* is the set of classes,  $c_j$  is one class in the set of classes,  $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2, ..., w_n)$  is the vector composed of individual words, and  $C_{\text{learned}}$  is the max a posteriori class as predicted by the Naïve Bayes classifier. Bayes theorem can be used to rewrite the expression as

$$
C_{learned} = \underset{c_j \in C}{\text{argmax}} \frac{P(w_1, w_2, w_3, \dots | c_j) P(c_j)}{P(w_1, w_2, w_3, \dots)}
$$
  
= 
$$
\underset{c_j \in C}{\text{argmax}} P(w_1, w_2, w_3, \dots | c_j) P(c_j)
$$
 (0.2)

where  $P(c_j) = \frac{N_c}{N}$ ,  $N_c$  is the number of documents in the category, and N is the total number of documents are before.

Because the denominator scales each category equally, it is left out. In order to solve this final equation, the term  $P(w_1, w_2, w_3, \dots | c_j)$  would have to be estimated. This estimate would require very large datasets to calculate accurately. A simplifying assumption is made that each term is conditionally independent given the class value. The final equation becomes

$$
C_{learned} = \underset{c_j \in C}{\text{argmax}} \ P(c_j) \prod_i P(w_i | c_j) \tag{0.3}
$$

where  $P(w_i | c_j)$  is often estimated using

$$
P(w_i \mid c_j) = \frac{1 + N_{ij}}{T_c + T}.
$$
\n(0.4)

 $T_c$  is the total number of words in all training examples whose target values is c,  $N_{ij}$  is the number of times word *i* occurs within documents of class *c*, and T is the total number of words in the training data.

 For the text categorization task, the simplifying assumption is that the probability of any word occurring in a document is independent of whether it occurs once one knows the document class. This assumption does not hold for all possible document sets. Nevertheless, this assumption is made to make the calculations of probabilities tractable. The results to date have proven to be good even when the independence assumption is violated [3- 5]. Domingos and Pazzani give theoretical explanation for the good performance. Specifically, they show that the classifier can have optimal performance under zero-one loss for many target functions even though it may be sub-optimal under a squared error loss function [6].

3. Boostexter (AdaBoost.MR) [7]

Adaboost.MR is defined as follows:

- 1. Given  $(\mathbf{d}_1, c_1), ..., (\mathbf{d}_m, c_m)$  where  $d_i \in X, c_i \in \{-1, +1\}.$
- 2. Initialize distribution  $D_1(i, l_0, l_1) = \frac{\sum (m \cdot |i_1|)^2 i_1 |j_1|}{2}$  if  $l_0 \notin l_i$  and  $l_1$  $1^{t, t_0, t_1}$  $1/(m \cdot |Y_i| \cdot |Y - Y_i|)$  if  $l_0 \notin Y_i$  and  $(i, l_0, l_1) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{(\frac{m}{l_0} + l_1 + l_2)}{l_0} & \text{if } l_0 \neq l_1 \text{ and } l_2 \neq l_3 \end{cases}$  $D_1(i, l_0, l_1) = \left\{ \frac{1/(m \cdot |Y_i| \cdot |Y - Y_i|)}{Q} \text{ if } l_0 \notin Y_i \text{ and } l_1 \in Y_i \right\}$  $\overline{\mathcal{L}}$ .
- 3. For count  $t = 1..T$ :
	- a. Train the weak learner using distribution  $D_t$ .
	- b. Get weak hypothesis  $h_i: X \times Y \to R$
	- c. Choose  $\alpha_i \in R$
	- d. Update:

$$
D_{t+1}(i, l_o, l_1) = \frac{D_t(i, l_o, l_1) \exp\left(\frac{1}{2} \alpha_t (h_t(x_i, l_o) - h_t(x_i, l_1))\right)}{Z_t}
$$

where  $Z_t$  is a normalization factor so that  $D_{t+1}$  is a distribution.

## 4. Output final hypothesis

$$
f(x,l) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \alpha_t h_t(x,l)
$$

 The goal of Adaboost.MR is to find a function that minimizes the number of misorderings so that the labels in Y are ranked above the labels not in Y. The function fails to rank  $l_1$ above  $l_0$  for a crucial pair  $l_0, l_1$  if  $f(x, l_1) \le f(x, l_0)$ .

The algorithm denotes the weight for instance  $\mathbf{d}_i$  and the pair  $l_0, l_1$  by  $D_i(i, l_0, l_1)$ . The distribution is zero except for triples  $(i, l_0, l_1)$  for which  $l_0, l_1$  is a crucial pair.

The weak learner has the form  $h_t: X \times Y \to R$ . In the Boostexter implementation, it is a one-level decision tree that outputs predictions for the article being in the class based on the word being present or absent.

## 4. Support Vector Machines [8]

For a binary classification problem with data points **x** with labels  $y \in \{1, -1\}$ , the equation for the separating hyperplane is:

$$
\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} - b = 0 \tag{0.5}
$$

where  $w$  is a vector perpendicular to the separating hyperplane, and  $b$  is a constant. The quadratic classification rule for a linear, soft margin support vector machine is to solve the quadratic program:

$$
\min_{w,b} \quad \frac{1}{2} \|w^2\| + C \sum_{i} \xi_i
$$
\n
$$
s.t. : \quad y_i(w \cdot x_i + b) \ge 1 - \xi_i, \ \forall x_i
$$
\n
$$
\xi_i \ge 0
$$
\n(0.6)

where minimizing  $\min \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2 + C \sum_i \xi_i$  maximizes the margin between the supporting planes with a cost C applied to the summation of the Euclidian distance of any misclassified training examples  $\xi$ 

 Quadratic programming techniques are used to solve this problem. Using Lagrange multipliers and duality [9], the quadratic problem becomes:

$$
\min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} y_i y_j \alpha_i \alpha_j x_i \cdot x_j - \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i
$$
\nwhere 
$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i \alpha_i = 0, \alpha_i \ge 0, i = 1, ..., m
$$
\n(0.7)

As discussed the linear problem solution is extended to the linearly non-separable case by mapping the input space to (so called) "feature" space via a mapping ("kernel") function so that the classes are linearly separated in feature space. The modification of the Lagrangian equation is to introduce a kernel represented by *K*.

$$
\min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} y_i y_j \alpha_i \alpha_j K(x_i, x_j) - \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i
$$
\nwhere 
$$
\sum_{i=1}^{l} y_i \alpha_i = 0, C \ge \alpha_i \ge 0, i = 1, ..., m
$$
\nand 
$$
K(x_i, x_j) = \theta(x_i) \cdot \theta(x_j)
$$
\n(0.8)

Some common kernels used include polynomial, RBF, and 2 layer neural network kernels. The polynomial kernel used in this work is

$$
K(x_i, x_j) = (x_i \cdot x_j + 1)^d
$$
 (0.9)

As discussed previously, addition of kernel modifications allows non-linear solutions by mapping to a feature space where features are linearly separable.

### **Section 2: Additional Experiments**

### Conversion to Boolean Queries

The black box nature of our methods prevents a direct conversion of the generated models to Boolean queries. In [10], we have explored a feature selection/ decision tree conversion method and compared the performance of the resulting Boolean queries to the treatment and etiology models created in this study.

 The Boolean queries were generated through a combination of feature selection and decision trees in the treatment and etiology categories. First, we applied SVM and Markov Blanket based feature selection algorithms [11]. Then, with the resulting feature sets from each algorithm, we applied decision trees using the gini index of diversity to rank the relevant features. For the treatment category, the important words for methodological classification were "publication type randomized controlled trial" at the top node with "publication type meta analysis" and "treatment" as second level nodes. Similarly for etiology, the top node is the stemmed title word "title\_mortal," and the second level nodes are "mh\_Risk Factors" and "95." The decision trees do not perform as well as the polynomial SVM models presented in this paper [12].

 These decision trees are easily extendable for use in Boolean based search engines such as PubMed [10]. The example tree for the treatment category is illustrated in Figure 1. The triangles are decision nodes. The left branch corresponds to the word being absent, and the right branch to the word being present. The leaf values indicate the probability of a high quality article. Each leaf is a possible query to a Boolean based search engine. For example in Figure 1, the Boolean query of the rightmost leaf is "randomized controlled trial" [PTYP] OR "treatment" [WORD].

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 We used the same procedure for generating Boolean queries for the etiology category. In contrast to the relatively small treatment Boolean tree, the etiology tree is complex with depths up to 7 levels (Figure 2 and labels in Table 1). Nevertheless, the method to generate Boolean queries was the same. Sometimes the Boolean query process we outlined here returns simple trees and query sets and other times (depending on the complexity of the target function) more complex query sets.

### **Section 3: Ranked Retrieval Effectiveness Supplement**

 Ranked retrieval effectiveness curves are a novel method of comparing learning method performances and illustrating recall and precision metrics. The curves show recall and precision percentages limited to the first *N* returned articles. We chose an *N* of 100 articles because most information seekers are unwilling to look beyond the first 100 documents for relevant results [13].

 The first graph shows the recall at X returned documents. The curve gives a user an indication of the number of high quality articles out of all high quality articles in the corpus that are returned in the set of documents. The recall curve is monotonically increasing, and the best retrieval method has, in general, the steepest slope. The curve will eventually converge to 100% recall when all high quality articles are in the returned set.

 The second graph shows the precision at X returned documents. The graph shows the percentage of high quality articles in X returned documents. The precision curve is *not* monotonically decreasing, but does eventually converge to 0 as the proportion of ACP- to ACP+ returned articles increases at lower ranks. In general, the best retrieval method will retain the highest precision as more documents are returned (i.e. the flattest slope). Both recall and precision ranked retrieval graphs are specific to this corpus and are a method to compare the learning methods.

 Figures 3 and 4 show the recall and precision ranked retrieval effectiveness graphs for each learning method in each category. The curves were averaged over all crossvalidation sets in each category.

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 For the recall graphs in Figure 3, the polynomial SVM performed the best in most categories, except in treatment where the linear and polynomial SVMs perform comparably. In the treatment and etiology tasks, inspecting the top 100 gave 58% (44 out of 76 articles) and 56% (23 out of 41 articles) recall respectively. In the sample size limited prognosis and diagnosis categories, the top 100 gave 38% (6 out of 15 articles) and 67% (13 out of 20 articles) respectively. Considering the size of the returned article sets, the high recall percentages in the first 100 articles were promising. This ranked retrieval recall analysis was further shown at 50 articles returned in Table 2.

 For the precision graphs (Figure 4), the linear and polynomial SVMs performed similarly across all categories. The precision graphs are sensitive to the priors for high quality articles in each category. In the prognosis and diagnosis categories where the priors are low, the precision rapidly fell as more articles were inspected. Inspecting 100 documents, for the prognosis category, 1 out of 20 documents, and similarly, for the diagnosis category, 1 out of 10 articles were high quality. In etiology and treatment where the priors are high, 1 out of 2 articles and 1 out of 4 articles were high quality respectively.

 A natural next step in analyzing the top ranked articles is to inspect the false positives and see if they match the ACP inclusion criteria. In this paper, we do not address this analysis. A more thorough analysis of the actual ranked articles would be an interesting extension to this work.

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Table 1: Map for node values of etiology tree in Figure 2.

|                  |                        | <b>Recall At</b>            | <b>Recall At</b>             | <b>Total Positive Articles</b> | <b>Total Articles in Each</b> |
|------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Category         | <b>Learning Method</b> | <b>50 Articles Returned</b> | <b>100 Articles Returned</b> | In Each Set                    | <b>Set</b>                    |
| <b>Treatment</b> | Linear SVM             | 36% (27 articles)           | 58% (44 articles)            | 76                             | 3157                          |
|                  | Polynomial SVM         | 35% (27 articles)           | 58% (44 articles)            | 76                             | 3157                          |
| <b>Etiology</b>  | Linear SVM             | 34% (14 articles)           | 50% (20 articles)            | 41                             | 3157                          |
|                  | Polynomial SVM         | 36% (15 articles)           | 56% (23 articles)            | 41                             | 3157                          |
| <b>Prognosis</b> | Linear SVM             | 33% (5 articles)            | 38% (6 articles)             | 15                             | 6988                          |
|                  | Polynomial SVM         | 33% (5 articles)            | 38% (6 articles)             | 15                             | 6988                          |
| <b>Diagnosis</b> | Linear SVM             | 55% (11 articles)           | 63% (13 articles)            | 20                             | 6988                          |
|                  | Polynomial SVM         | 56% (11 articles)           | 67% (13 articles)            | 20                             | 6988                          |

Table 2 – Ranked Retrieval Performance at 50 and 100 returned articles







Table 4 – Journals Reviewed by the ACP journal club and used in this study [14].



Table 5: Feature Sets with and without MeSH terms/publication types AUC.



Figure 1: Treatment Category Decision Tree

Words are processed according to the algorithm in the Section 3 of the main paper. All words are stemmed. The terminal nodes are labeled with the predicted value for that node based on the training items.



Figure 2: Etiology Category Decision Tree.

Words are processed according to the algorithm in the Section 3 of the main paper. All words are stemmed. The terminal nodes are labeled with the predicted value for that node based on the training items. The label for each node is located in Table 6.



Figure 3 – Ranked Retrieval Effective Curves – The comparison to the query filters is not shown in these graphs due to the limited range of the x-axis. Refer to Table 2 for comparison to the number of returned documents at a given recall level.



Figure 4 – Precision Retrieval Effectiveness Curves. Depiction of how precision changes as the number of documents returned changes.

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