# **Supplemental Online Content**

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This supplemental material has been provided by the authors to give readers additional information about their work.

## **eFigure 1.** Curation Process for Generating the List of Possible Findings in AP Chest Radiographs



# Chest X-ray Lexicon Creation Process

#### **eFigure 2.** Vocabulary Expansion Process Used for the Chest Radiograph Lexicon Construction

*The current candidate for expansion is the concept 'linear density'. The unsupervised learning algorithm analyzes textual reports such as the one shown in column 1. The proposed candidates are shown in column 3. The accepted and rejected candidates are used to propose better candidates in the next iteration.*



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#### **eFigure 3.** Splitting Algorithm for Producing the Partitions for Training, Validation, and Testing in the Modeling Data Set

*(a) Unnormalized distributions. (b) normalized distributions. The modeling dataset has both AP and PA images reflecting ambulatory and inpatient data across two hospital sources (NIH, MIMIC).* 



#### **eFigure 4.** Prevalence Distribution of the Labels in the Comparison Study Data Set

*(a) The prevalence distribution of finding labels in the comparison study dataset. (b) The prevalence label distribution of AP chest radiographs in the NIH portion of the modeling dataset.* 



#### **eFigure 5.** User Interface Used by Radiologists for Building Consensus After Independent Read Discrepancies Were Catalogued

*The discrepant labels resulting from the independent reads of the radiologists (stage 1) are resolved through a video conference discussion to build consensus in stage 2 whose interface is shown in the figure.* **Consensus-building Interface** 



**eFigure 6.** Web-Based User Interface Used for Collecting the Reads from Radiology Residents on the Comparative Study Data Set



## Radiology Resident Read Collection

**eFigure 7.** Extent of Agreement With the Ground Truth for AI Algorithm and Radiology Residents on Labels in the Comparison Study Data Set With at Least 2.5% Prevalence *Some finding labels are ontological abstractions of underlying labels (marked with an \*).* 



**eFigure 8.** Preliminary Read Performance Differences of Radiology Residents and the AI Algorithm



Box Plots for AI Algorithm and Radiology Residents Performance

**eTable 1.** Finding Label Extraction From Reports Through Text Analytics *Column 1 shows the original text, and Column 2 lists the detected findings (both positive and negative).* 



#### **eTable 2.** Performance of AI Algorithm vs Radiology Residents Across Labels With at Least 2.5% Prevalence in the Comparison Study Data Set



**eTable 3.** Comparative Finding Label Recognition Performance Between Radiologists and AI Algorithm



Method	<b>Number</b>	Number of	Average image-based	Average image-	Average image-
	of Images	findings	<b>PPV</b>	based sensitivity	based specificity
Resident 1	399	72	$0.594$ [0.567, 0.621]	$0.688$ [0.662,0.716]	0.958 [0.955, 0.962]
Resident 2	399	72	0.722 [0.697,0.748]	0.743 [0.719,0.768]	0.975 [0.972, 0.977]
Resident 3	400	72	0.704 [0.678,0.731]	0.729 [0.704,0.754]	0.971 [0.968,0.974]
Resident 4	400	72	$0.648$ [0.623,0.674]	$0.685$ [0.659,0.711]	0.967 [0.964,0.969]
Resident 5	400	72	$0.743$ [0.714,0.766]	75.45 [0.729,0.780]	0.975 [0.972,0.977]

**eTable 4.** Variation in Read Performance Across Radiology Residents

#### **eAppendix 1.** Splitting Algorithm for Model Training

Here we provide additional details on the algorithm used for splitting the model dataset into training, validation and testing datasets. The goal of the splitting algorithm was two-fold: (a) ensuring the low incidence labels are still present in the training set in adequate numbers so that the model can be trained for these labels. (b) Ensuring the label distributions in the split datasets to be in a similar proportion to the original prevalence distribution so as to create the least sampling bias for testing. The splitting algorithm works by first sorting the distribution of labels by their frequencies of occurrences. Starting from the least frequent label, it then iteratively determines the size of the training, test, and validate sets of patients containing the target label so as to maintain the desired ratio of 70%,10%,20% for training, validation and test datasets. Once the number of patients in each split is determined per label, the assignment of the patients (and hence their images) is random. Note that since each image has multiple labels, each such split assignment per label covers other possible labels present in these images also maintaining their relative frequencies in the resulting distribution. The detailed algorithm is given below



We illustrate by an example. Suppose there are 100 images to be split and 2 possible labels (L1, L2) and assume each image comes from a unique patient for the purposes of this illustration. Suppose we have the following distribution.



To now split this in the ratios by starting with the lowest frequency and using the 70-10-20% ratios for train-validate-test, we get





As can be seen, the prevalence ratio has been maintained in the resulting splits. At the same time, the lower prevalence label (L1) has at least 53 training samples sufficient for training. A random sampling may not have ensured this since the overall dataset size is still small in this case (100) images), particularly when there are more labels per image.

#### **eAppendix 2.** Method of Threshold Selection for Finding Labels

Thresholding is required to convert the real-number prediction scores of the AI model to the binary scores of positives and negatives. Let  $\theta$  be a vector that contains all label thresholds. To compute the optimal thresholds, an objective function based on the image-based F1 score is used:

$$
L(\theta) = -\ln\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \text{F1}_{i}(\theta)\right)
$$

with  $F1_i$  the F1 score of image *i* and *n* the number of images. The F1 score is the harmonic mean of PPV and sensitivity, which is computed as:

$$
F1 = \frac{2TP + \epsilon}{2TP + FP + FN + \epsilon}
$$

where TP, FP, and FN are the true positives, false positives, and false negatives, respectively, computed between the ground truth and the binary AI scores after thresholding by  $\theta$ .  $\epsilon = 10^{-7}$  is used to handle the 0/0 situation when there are no positives in both prediction and ground truth. The optimal  $\theta$  can be computed by minimizing  $L(\theta)$  through an optimization algorithm. The derivative-free global optimization algorithm, ESCH, is used as it provided the best results in our tested algorithms<sup>1</sup>. By focusing on the positive occurrences of findings per image and minimizing  $L(\theta)$  we ensure that the network prediction has as few false positives while still enabling the detection of relevant findings.

1. C. H. da Silva Santos, M. S. Gonçalves and HEH-F. Designing Novel Photonic Devices by Bio-Inspired Computing. *IEEE Photonics Technol Lett*. 2010;22(15):1177-1179.

#### **eAppendix 3.** Measuring Deep Learning Model Performances for Multilabel Reads

In this appendix, we give further clarification on the choice of the performance measure used in the comparative study on machine and resident physician read performance.

Conventional approach to measuring performance:

Conventional approach is to report the performance on a per label basis and using the positive occurrence of a label:

Consider a set of images  $I = \{I_1, I_2, \ldots I_K\}$  and a label  $L_i$ :

 $P(L<sub>i</sub>)$  = Number of real positive cases in the data. So for a single label case, this implies the number of images in the dataset that are assigned this label  $L_i$ .

 $N(L<sub>i</sub>)$  = Number of real negative cases in the data. So for a single label case, this implies the number of images in the dataset that are not assigned this label  $L_i$ .

Then  $TP(L_i)$ =The number of *images* for which the machine also predicts the label  $L_i$  and the actual label is *also .*

Then  $TN(L_i)$ =The number of *images* for which the machine does not predict the label  $L_i$  and the actual *label is also not .*

And  $FP(L_i)$ =The number of *images* for which the machine predicts the label  $L_i$  and the actual label is not  $L_i$ .

Then label-based positive predictive value (PPV) or precision is defined per label  $L_i$  as

$$
PPV(L_i) = TP(L_i)/(TP(L_i) + FP(L_i))
$$
\n<sup>(1)</sup>

Label-based sensitivity is defined as

$$
Sensitivity(L_i)=TP(L_i)/P(L_i)
$$
\n(2)

And label-based specificity is defined as

$$
Specificity(Li) = TN(Li)/N(Li)
$$
\n(3)

Image-based approach to measuring performance:

For the radiology read problem, since we have to maintain high precision and recall for each image we are reading, we used the image-based positive predictive value (precision) and sensitivity (recall) by redefining the terms as follows:

Consider again the set of images  $I = \{I_1, I_2, \ldots I_K\}$  and the set of labels  $L = \{L_1, L_2, \ldots L_M\}$ .

Let  $P(I_i)$  = Number of labels actually occurring in the image  $I_i$ .

Let  $N(I_i)$  = Number of labels from the set L that are not occurring in the image  $I_i$ . Thus  $N(I_i) = L - P(I_i)$ 

Let  $TP(I_i)=$ The number of *labels* selected by the machine (or residents) for image  $I_i$  which belong to  $P(I_i)$ 

Let  $TN(I_i)=$ The number of *labels not* selected by the machine (or residents) for image  $I_i$  which belong to  $N(I_i)$ 

And  $FP(I_i)$ =The number of *labels* selected by the machine (or residents) for image  $I_i$  which belong to L but not  $P(I_i)$ 

Then Image-based positive predictive value (PPV) or image-based precision is defined per image as

$$
PPV(I_i) = TP(I_i) / (TP(I_i) + FP(I_i))
$$
\n<sup>(5)</sup>

Image-based sensitivity is defined as

$$
Sensitivity(I_i) = TP(I_i)/P(I_i) \tag{6}
$$

Image-based specificity is defined as

$$
Specificity(I_i) = TN(I_i)/N(I_i)
$$
\n(7)

Now averaging across the K images, we get

$$
Average PPV(I) = \frac{1}{\kappa} \sum_{i=1}^{K} PPV(I_i)
$$
\n(8)

$$
Average sensitivity(I) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^{K} Sensitivity(I_i)
$$
\n(9)

$$
Average specificity(I) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^{K} Specificity(I_i)
$$
\n(10)

The above equations 8, 9, and 10 were used in the paper and ANOVA test for comparing the performance used the above formulas for computing image-based specificity and sensitivity respectively. As can be seen, the above measure is less sensitive to prevalence of labels as the PPV and sensitivity are measured per image by normalizing with respect to the respective prevalence within the image itself. It is also a more appropriate measure for the preliminary read use case, where the goal is to flag as few incorrect findings per image while still not missing many relevant findings. Optimizing on individual label's sensitivity or specificity would introduce false positives that can cumulatively impact the per image decision making sufficiently for a large of images, with the net effect of reducing the overall preliminary read quality (in terms of misses or overcalls).