

Mini Course

Fundamentals of Medical AI

Part 03

From Decision Making to Decision Support

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and

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Agenda

- 00 Reflection – follow up from last lecture
- 01 Medical Action = Decision Making
- 02 Can AI help doctors to make better decisions ?
- 03 Human Information Processing
- 04 Probabilistic Decision Theory
- 05 Example: P4 Medicine
- 06 Example: Case Based Reasoning
- Conclusion

Overview

Primer on Probability & Information

Part 1 Theory

Part 2 Practice

01 Introduction to Medical AI and
Machine Learning for Health

05 Methods of Explainable AI

02 Data, Information
and Knowledge

06 Social, Ethical and
Legal Aspects of Medical AI

03 Human Decision Making and AI
Decision Support

07 Project: Bringing AI into
medical workflows

04 Causal Reasoning and
Interpretable AI

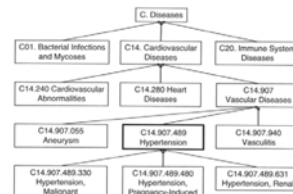
08 Presentation of the
developed concepts

Written Exam

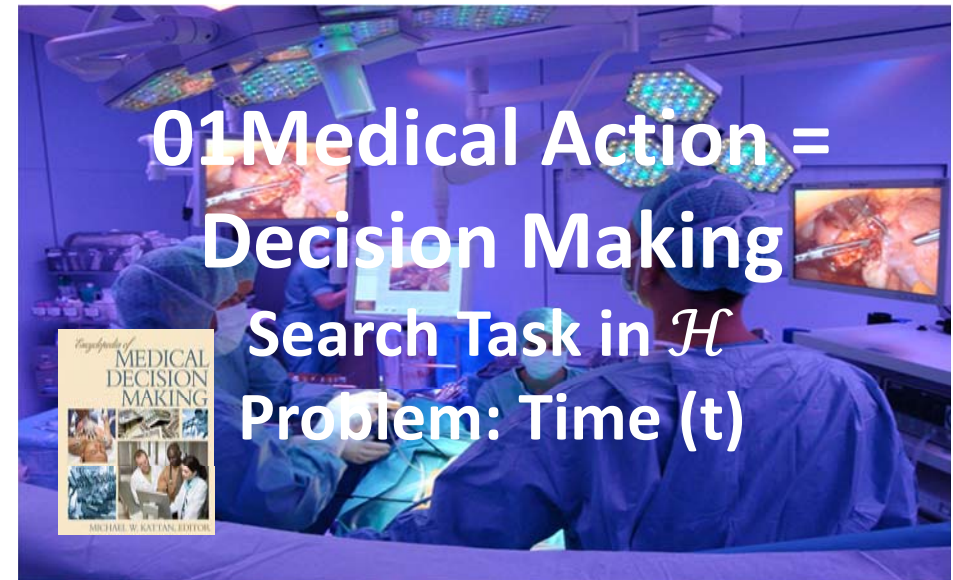
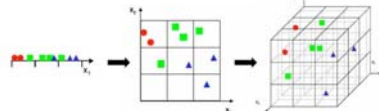
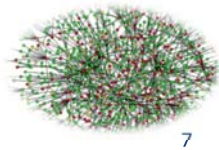
00 Reflection



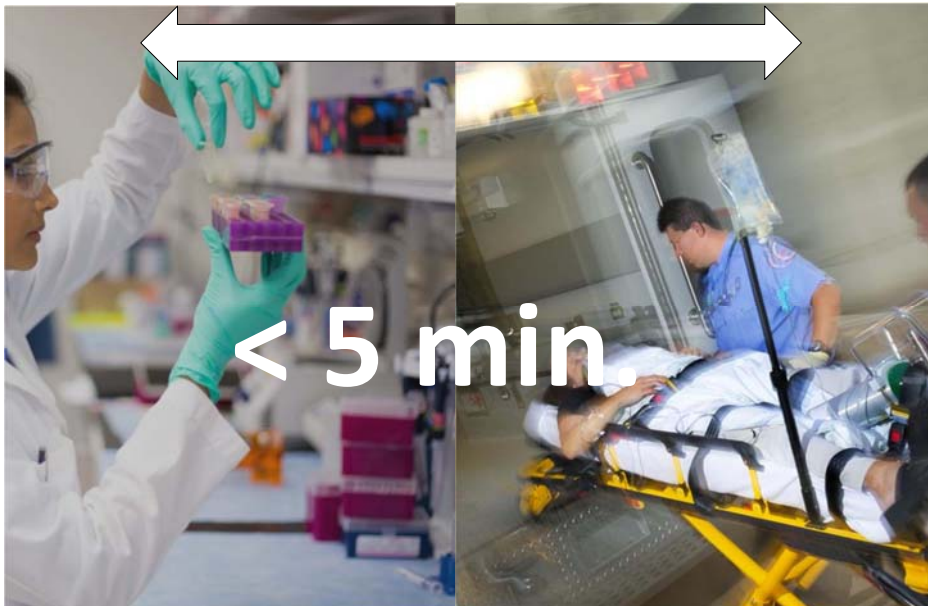
$$C_1 \sqcup \dots \sqcup C_n$$



- A
24184005(Finding of increased blood pressure (finding) → 38936003)Abnormal blood pressure (finding) AND roleGroup SOME (363714003)Interprets (attribute) SOME (75367002)Blood pressure (observable entity))
- B
12763006(Finding of decreased blood pressure (finding) → 392570002)Blood pressure finding (finding) AND roleGroup SOME (363714003)Interprets (attribute) SOME (75367002)Blood pressure (observable entity))

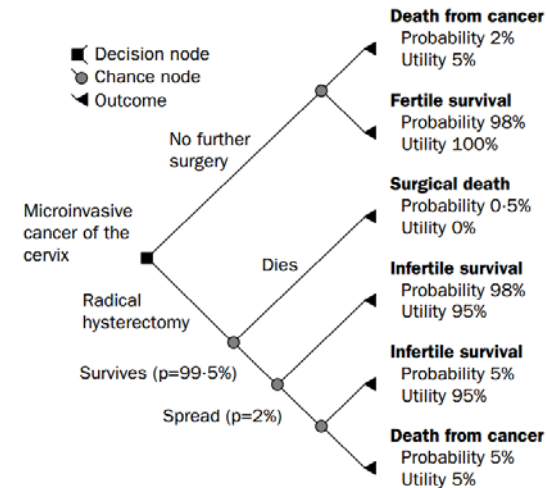


Michael W. Kattan (ed.) (2009). Encyclopedia of medical decision making, London: Sage.



Source: Cisco (2008).
Cisco Health Presence
Trial at Aberdeen Royal
Infirmary in Scotland

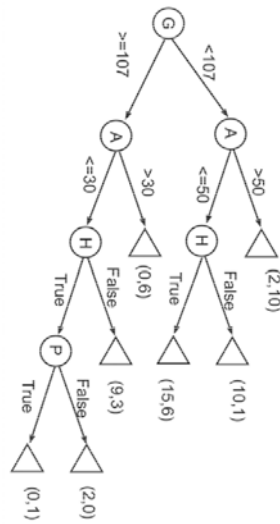
- 400 BC Hippocrates (460-370 BC), father of western medicine:
 - A medical record should accurately reflect the course of a disease
 - A medical record should indicate the probable cause of a disease
- 1890 William Osler (1849-1919), father of modern western medicine
 - **Medicine is a science of uncertainty and an art of probabilistic decision making – 1890 (!)**
 - **this is exactly what current AI/machine learning is tackling** - prediction models are based on data features, patient health status is modelled as high-dimensional feature vectors ...



Physician treating a patient approx. 480 B.C.
Beazley (1963), Attic Red-figured Vase-Painters, 813, 96.
Department of Greek, Etruscan and Roman Antiquities, Sully, 1st floor, Campana Gallery, room 43 Louvre, Paris

Elwyn, G., Edwards, A., Eccles, M. & Rovner, D. 2001. Decision analysis in patient care. The Lancet, 358, (9281), 571-574.

Decision forests > decision tree > “interpretable AI”



Algorithm 1: Generate a decision tree using an existing decision forest

Input: T (A set of n decision trees $\{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n\}$), $D_{pruning}$ (pruning dataset), $forest_min_size$ (minimum forest size), L (Maximum size of conjunctions at each iteration)

Output: DT (a decision tree)

```

1  $T' = \{ \}$  - Pruned decision forest,  $AUC_T(D_{pruning}) = 0$ 
2 while  $AUC_T(D_{pruning})$  was improved or  $|T'| < forest\_min\_size$  do
3   Add to  $T'$  the decision tree  $t$  from  $T$  that maximizes  $AUC_T(D_{pruning})$ 
4 end
5 for each decision tree  $t_i$  in  $T'$  do
6   if  $i = 0$  then
7      $CS_i$  = conjunction set of  $t_i$ 
8      $CS_i = \{(c_{11}, \hat{y}_{c_{11}}), (c_{12}, \hat{y}_{c_{12}}), \dots, (c_{1L}, \hat{y}_{c_{1L}})\}$  where  $c_{ij}$  is a conjunction of rules and  $\hat{y}_{c_{ij}}$  is a vector of classes probabilities
9   end
10  else
11     $CS_i = \{ \}$ 
12    for leaf  $c_j$  in  $t_i$  do
13      for conjunction  $c_k$  in  $CS_{i-1}$  do
14        if  $c_j$  does not contradict  $c_k$  then
15          add  $(c_j \wedge c_k, \hat{y}_{c_j} + \hat{y}_{c_k})$  to  $CS_i$ 
16        end
17      end
18    end
19    order  $CS_i$  by  $P(c_{ij})$ 
20     $CS_i$  = top  $L$  conjunctions in  $CS_i$ 
21  end
22 Define  $DT$  as a single node that contains  $CS_{|T'|}$ 
23 for each node at  $DT$  that wasn't splitted or defined as a leaf do
24   for each splitting candidate rule  $r_{ij}$  in  $\{r_{11}, r_{12}, \dots, r_{1L}\}$  do
25     Find Information Gain  $IG$  from split( $CS_{node}, r_{ij}$ )
26   end
27   define  $r'$  as the attribute with the highest information gain
28   if  $IG(r') = 0$  then
29     define current node as a leaf
30   end
31   else
32     split current node by  $r'$ 
33   end
34 end

```

Decision trees state of the art in 2020 for Covid-19

Seung Hoon Yoo, Hui Geng, Tin Lok Chiu, Siu Ki Yu, Dae Chul Cho, Jin Heo, Min Sung Choi, Il Hyun Choi, Cong Cong Van & Nguyen Viet Nhung (2020). Deep learning-based decision-tree classifier for COVID-19 diagnosis from chest X-ray imaging. Frontiers in medicine, 7, (427), 1-8, doi:10.3389/fmed.2020.00427.

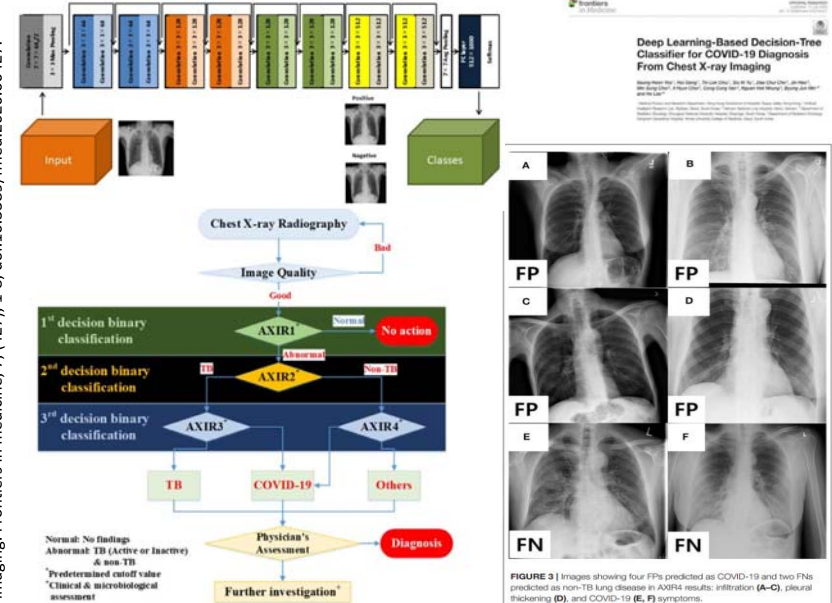
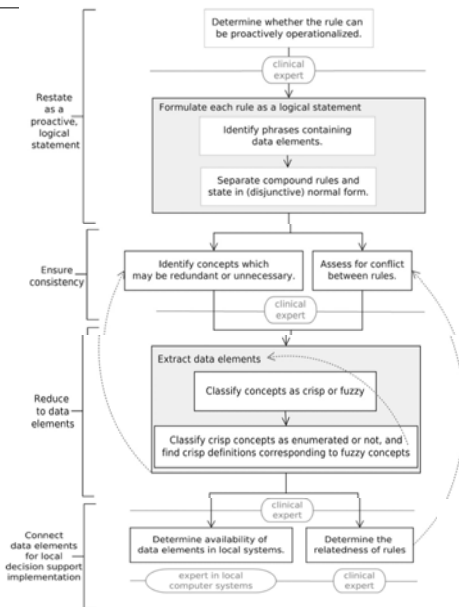


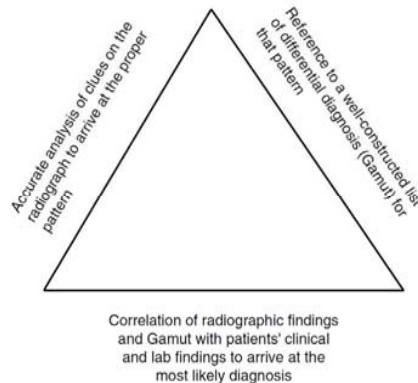
FIGURE 3 | Images showing four FPs predicted as COVID-19 and two FNs predicted as non-TB lung disease in AXIR4 results: atelectasis (A-C), pleural thickening (D), and COVID-19 (E, F) symptoms.

- Clinical guidelines are **systematically** developed documents to assist doctors and patient decisions about appropriate care;
- In order to build DS, based on a guideline, it is **formalized** (transformed from natural language to a logical algorithm), and
- implemented** (using the algorithm to program a DSS);
- To increase the quality of care, they must be linked to a process of care, for example:
 - “80% of diabetic patients should have an HbA1c below 7.0” could be linked to processes such as:
 - “All diabetic patients should have an annual HbA1c test” and
 - “Patients with values over 7.0 should be rechecked within 2 months.”
- Condition-action rules** specify one or a few conditions which are linked to a specific action, in contrast to narrative guidelines which describe a series of branching or iterative decisions unfolding over time.
- Narrative guidelines and clinical rules are two ends of a continuum of clinical care standards.

Medlock, S., Opondo, D., Eslami, S., Askari, M., Wierenga, P., de Rooij, S. E. & Abu-Hanna, A. (2011) LERM (Logical Elements Rule Method): A method for assessing and formalizing clinical rules for decision support. *International Journal of Medical Informatics*, 80, 4, 286-295.



Classical Example: Triangulation to find diagnoses



Reeder, M. M. & Felson, B. 2003. *Reeder and Felson's gamuts in radiology: comprehensive lists of roentgen differential diagnosis*, New York, Springer Verlag.

Gamut F-137

PHRENIC NERVE PARALYSIS OR DYSFUNCTION

COMMON

- Iatrogenic (eg, surgical injury; chest tube; therapeutic avulsion or injection; subclavian vein puncture)
- Infection (eg, tuberculosis; fungus disease; abscess)
- Neoplastic invasion or compression (esp. carcinoma of lung)

UNCOMMON

- Aneurysm_a, aortic or other
- Birth trauma (Erb's palsy)
- Herpes zoster
- Neuritis, peripheral (eg, diabetic neuropathy)
- Neurologic disease_e (eg, hemiplegia; encephalitis; polio; Guillain-Barré S.)
- Pneumonia
- Trauma

Reference

- Prasad S, Athreya BH: Transient paralysis of the phrenic nerve associated with head injury. *JAMA* 1976;236:2532-2533

Example - Gamuts in Radiology

REEDER AND FELSON'S

GAMUTS IN RADIOLOGY

GAMUT G-25

EROSIVE GASTRITIS*

COMMON

- Acute gastritis (eg, alcohol abuse)
- Crohn's disease [] []
- Drugs (eg, aspirin [] [], NSAID []; steroids)
- Helicobacter pylori* infection []
- Idiopathic
- [Normal areae gastricae []]
- Peptic ulcer; hyperacidity

UNCOMMON

- Corrosive gastritis []
- Cryptosporidium* antritis
- [Lymphoma]
- Opportunistic infection (eg, candidiasis [moniliasis] []; herpes simplex; cytomegalovirus)
- Postoperative gastritis
- Radiation therapy
- Zollinger-Ellison S. []; multiple endocrine neoplasia (MEN) S.

* Superficial erosions or aphthoid ulcerations seen especially with double contrast technique.

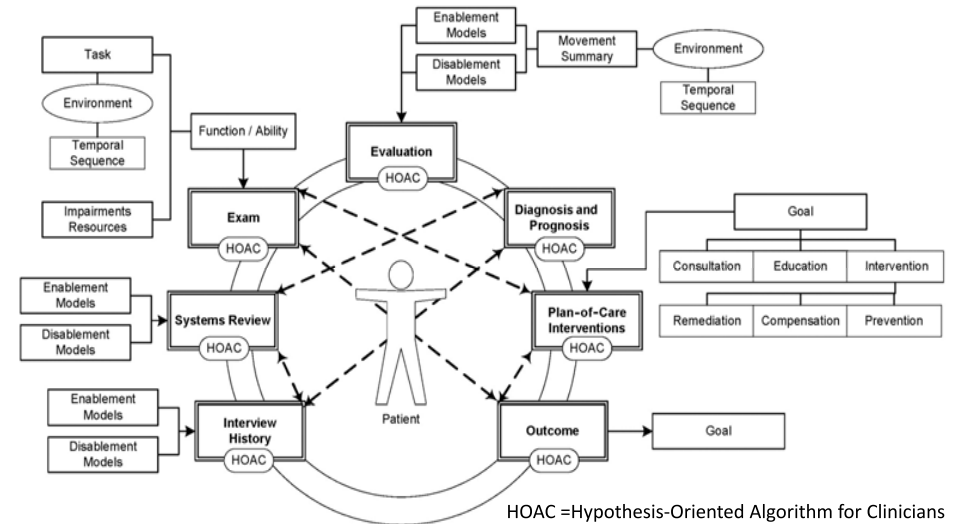
[] This condition does not actually cause the gamuted imaging finding, but can produce imaging changes that simulate it.

Reeder, M. M. & Felson, B. (2003) *Reeder and Felson's gamuts in radiology: comprehensive lists of roentgen differential diagnosis*. New York, Springer

<http://rfs.acr.org/gamuts/data/G-25.htm>



Iserson, K. V. & Moskop, J. C. 2007. Triage in Medicine, Part I: Concept, History, and Types. *Annals of Emergency Medicine*, 49, (3), 275-281.



Schenkman, M., Deutsch, J. E. & Gill-Body, K. M. (2006) An Integrated Framework for Decision Making in Neurologic Physical Therapist Practice. *Physical Therapy*, 86, 12, 1681-1702.

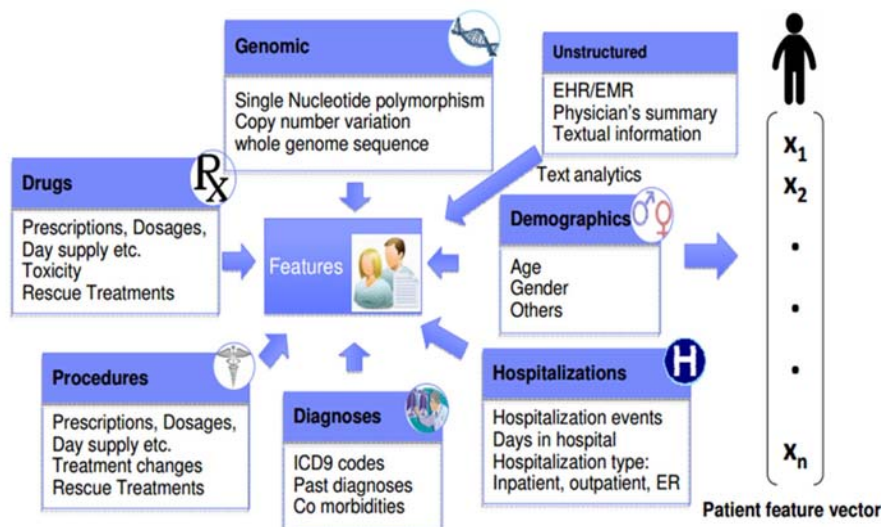


Image credit to Michal Rosen-Zvi

02 Can AI help doctors to make better decisions?

- **Type 1 Decisions:** related to the **diagnosis**, i.e. computers are used to assist in diagnosing a disease on the basis of the individual patient data. Questions include:
 - What is the probability that this patient has a myocardial infarction on the basis of given data (patient history, ECG, ...)?
 - What is the probability that this patient has acute appendices, given the signs and symptoms concerning abdominal pain?
- **Type 2 Decisions:** related to **therapy**, i.e. computers are used to select the best therapy on the basis of clinical evidence, e.g.:
 - What is the best therapy for patients of age x and risks y, if an obstruction of more than z % is seen in the left coronary artery?
 - What amount of insulin should be prescribed for a patient during the next 5 days, given the blood sugar levels and the amount of insulin taken during the recent weeks?

Bemmel, J. H. V. & Musen, M. A. 1997. *Handbook of Medical Informatics*, Heidelberg, Springer.

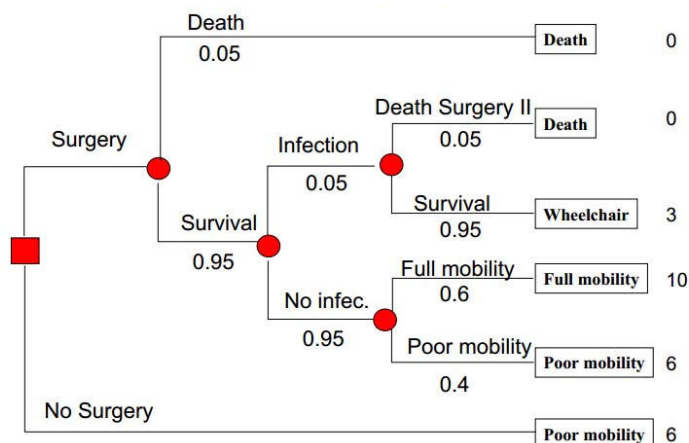
- Example of a Decision Problem
- Soccer player considering knee surgery
- Uncertainties:
- Success: recovering full mobility
- Risks: infection in surgery (if so, needs another surgery and may lose more mobility)
- Survival chances of surgery



Harvard-MIT Division of Health Sciences and Technology
HST.951J: Medical Decision Support, Fall 2005
Instructors: Professor Lucila Ohno-Machado and Professor Staal Vinterbo

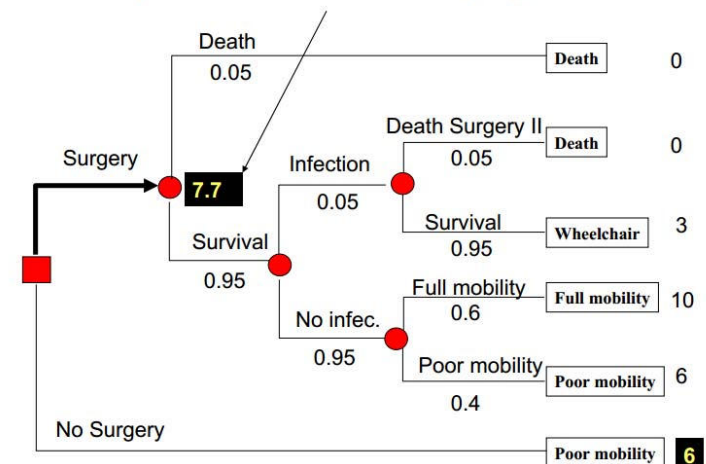
Decision Tree (this is known since Hippocrates!)

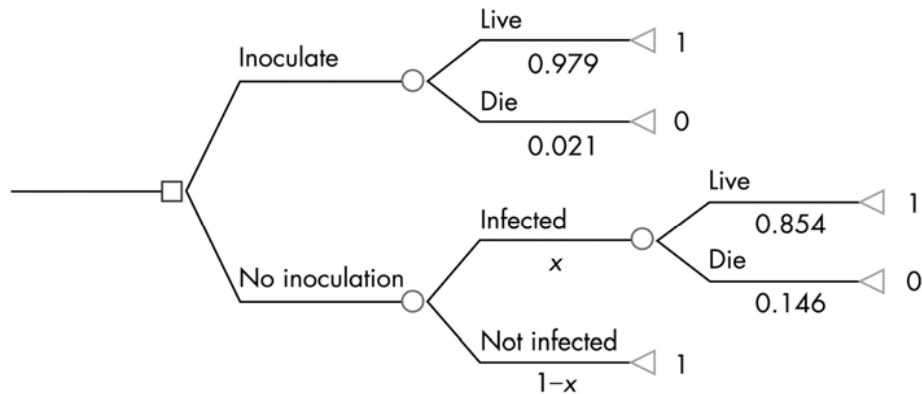
Knee Surgery



Helps to make rational decisions (risks vs. success)

Expected Value of Surgery





Ferrando, A., Pagano, E., Scaglione, L., Petrinco, M., Gregori, D. & Ciccone, G. (2009) A decision-tree model to estimate the impact on cost-effectiveness of a venous thromboembolism prophylaxis guideline. *Quality and Safety in Health Care*, 18, 4, 309-313.

For a single decision variable an agent can select

$D = d$ for any $d \in \text{dom}(D)$.

The expected utility of decision $D = d$ is ...



<http://www.eoht.info/page/Oskar+Morgenstern>

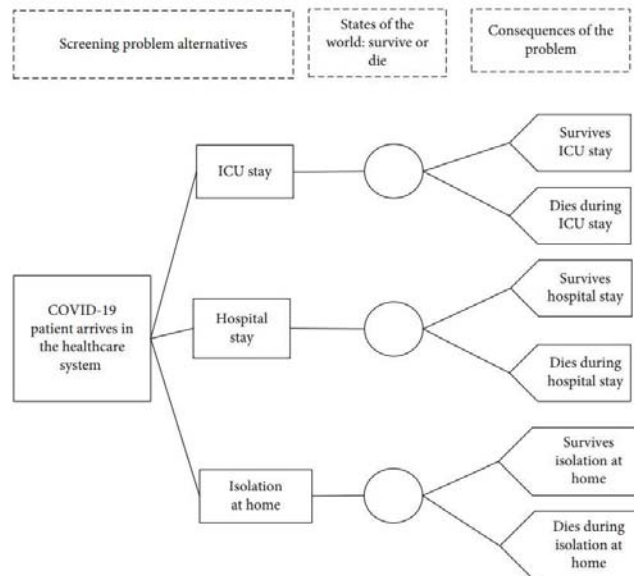
$$E(U | d) = \sum_{x_1, \dots, x_n} P(x_1, \dots, x_n | d) U(x_1, \dots, x_n, d)$$

An optimal single decision is the decision $D = d_{\max}$ whose expected utility is maximal:

$$d_{\max} = \arg \max_{d \in \text{dom}(D)} E(U | d)$$

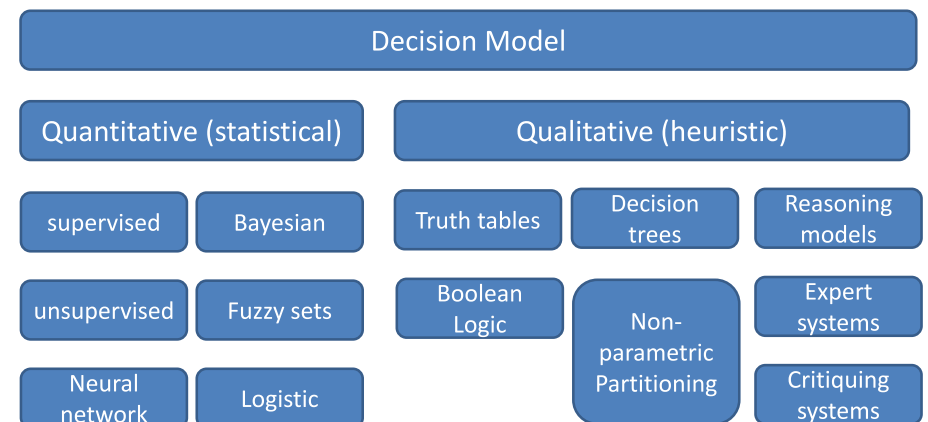
John Von Neumann & Oskar Morgenstern (1944). *Theory of games and economic behavior*, Princeton, Princeton University Press.

Expectation Maximization Algorithm



Lucia Reis Peixoto Roselli, Eduarda Asfora Freij, Rodrigo José Pires Ferreira, Alexandre Ramalho Alberti & Adiel Teixeira De Almeida (2020). Utility-Based Multicriteria Model for Screening Patients under the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Computational and Mathematical Methods in Medicine*, 2020, 9391251, doi:10.1155/2020/9391251.

What are the “classic” Decision Support Models ?



Extended by A. Holzinger after: Bemmle, J. H. v. & Musen, M. A. (1997) *Handbook of Medical Informatics*. Heidelberg, Springer.

03 Human Information Processing

How do humans generalize from a few examples ?

(Sometimes – not always!) humans are able ...

- to understand the context
- to make inferences from little, noisy, incomplete data sets
- to learn relevant representations
- to find shared underlying explanatory factors,
- in particular between $P(x)$ and $P(Y|X)$, with a causal link between $Y \rightarrow X$

Joshua B. Tenenbaum, Charles Kemp, Thomas L. Griffiths & Noah D. Goodman 2011. How to grow a mind: Statistics, structure, and abstraction. *Science*, 331, (6022), 1279-1285, doi:10.1126/science.1192788.

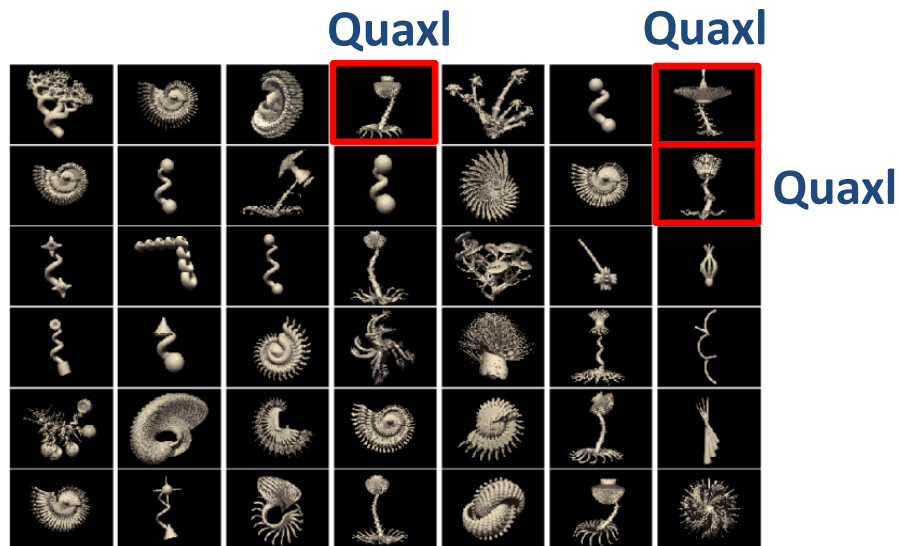
- 1. How does abstract knowledge guide learning and inference from sparse data?
 - (Approximate) Bayesian inference in probabilistic models.
- 2. What are the forms and contents of that knowledge?
 - Probabilities defined over a range of structured representations: graphs, grammars, predicate logic, schemas,
- 3. How is that knowledge itself acquired?
 - Hierarchical Bayesian models, with inference at multiple levels of abstraction (“learning to learn”). Learning as (hierarchical Bayesian) program induction.
- **Central Question:**
How does our mind get so much out of so little?

Tenenbaum, J. B., Kemp, C., Griffiths, T. L. & Goodman, N. D. 2011. How to grow a mind: Statistics, structure, and abstraction. *Science*, 331, (6022), 1279-1285, doi:10.1126/science.1192788.

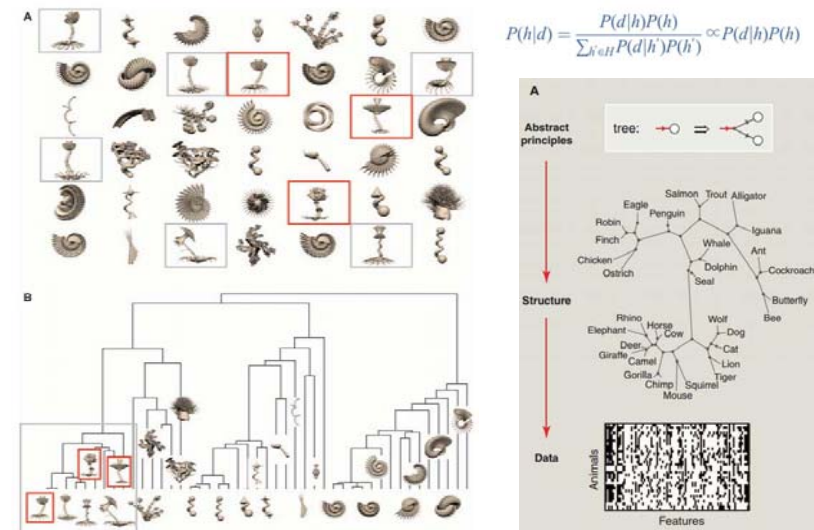
How does our mind get so much out of it ?



Salakhutdinov, R., Tenenbaum, J. & Torralba, A. 2012. One-shot learning with a hierarchical nonparametric Bayesian model. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 27, 195-207.



Salakhutdinov, R., Tenenbaum, J. & Torralba, A. 2012. One-shot learning with a hierarchical nonparametric Bayesian model. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 27, 195-207.



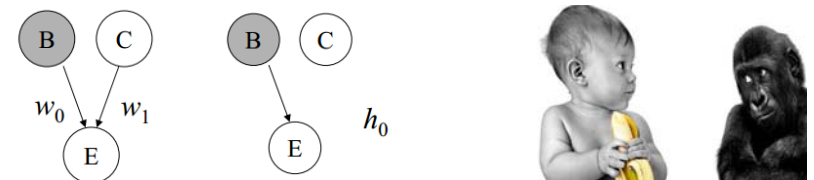
Tenenbaum, J. B., Kemp, C., Griffiths, T. L. & Goodman, N. D. 2011. How to grow a mind: Statistics, structure, and abstraction. *Science*, 331, (6022), 1279-1285.

One of the unsolved problems in human concept learning

- which is highly relevant for ML research, concerns the factors that determine the subjective difficulty of concepts:
- Why are some concepts psychologically extremely simple and easy to learn,
- while others seem to be extremely difficult, complex, or even incoherent?
- These questions have been studied since the 1960s but are still unanswered ...

Feldman, J. 2000. Minimization of Boolean complexity in human concept learning. *Nature*, 407, (6804), 630-633, doi:10.1038/35036586.

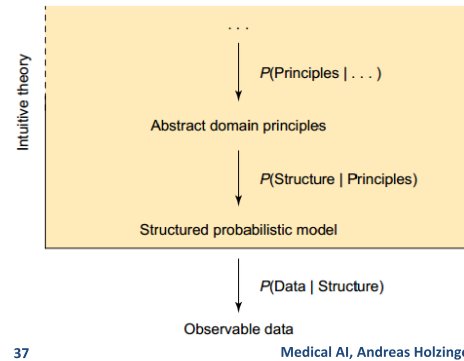
A few certainties



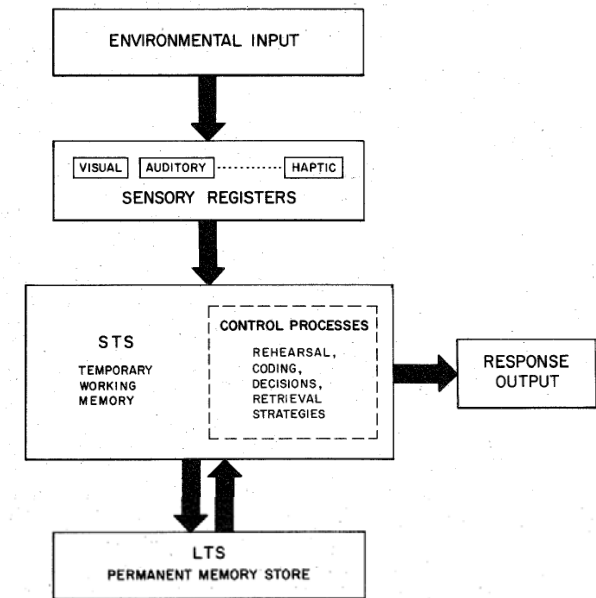
- Cognition as probabilistic inference
 - Visual perception, language acquisition, motor learning, associative learning, memory, attention, categorization, reasoning, causal inference, decision making, theory of mind
- Learning concepts from examples
- Learning and applying intuitive theories (balancing complexity vs. fit)

- Similarity
- Representativeness and evidential support
- Causal judgement
- Coincidences and causal discovery
- Diagnostic inference
- Predicting the future

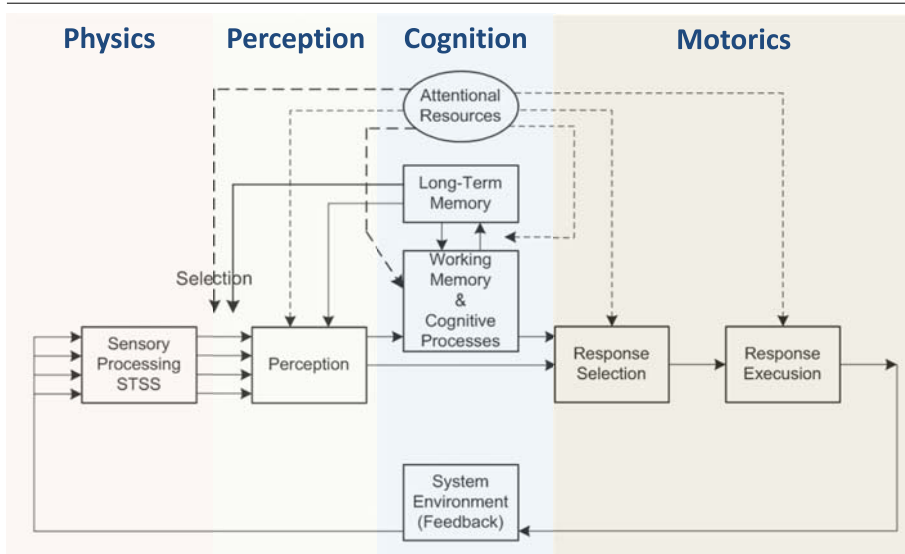
Tenenbaum, J. B., Griffiths, T. L. & Kemp, C. 2006. Theory-based Bayesian models of inductive learning and reasoning. Trends in cognitive sciences, 10, (7), 309-318.



Atkinson, R. C. & Shiffrin, R. M. (1971) *The control processes of short-term memory* (Technical Report 173, April 19, 1971). Stanford, Institute for Mathematical Studies in the Social Sciences, Stanford University.



General Model of Human Information Processing



Wickens, C., Lee, J., Liu, Y. & Gordon-Becker, S. (2004) *Introduction to Human Factors Engineering: Second Edition*. Upper Saddle River (NJ), Prentice-Hall.

Learning and Inference

$d \dots$ data
 $h \dots$ hypotheses

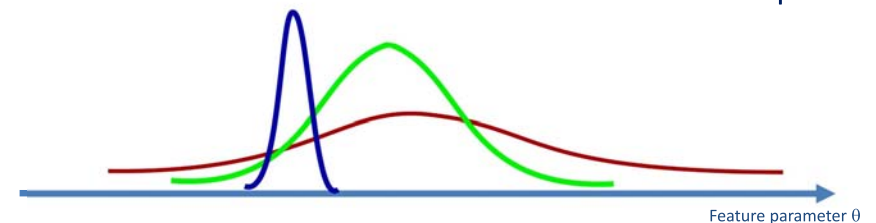
$\mathcal{H} \dots \{H_1, H_2, \dots, H_n\} \quad \forall h, d \dots$

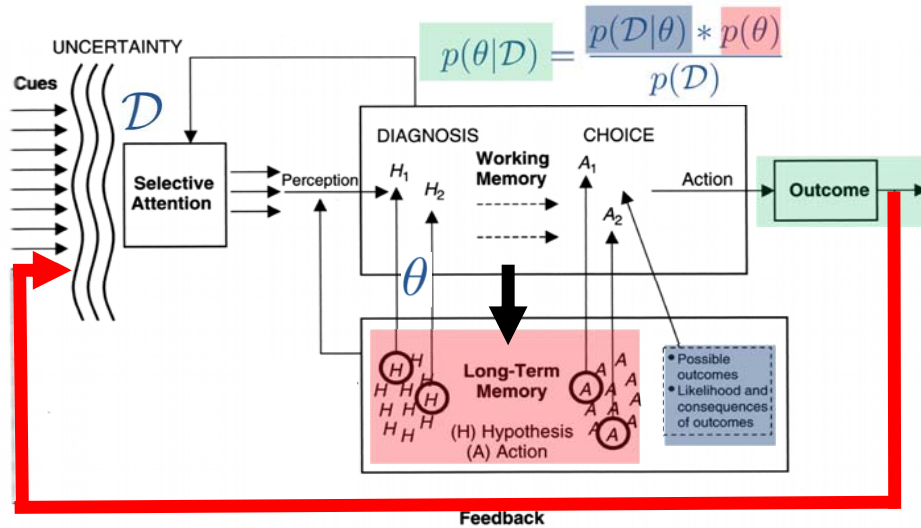
$$p(h|d) = \frac{\text{Likelihood} \cdot \text{Prior Probability}}{\sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \text{Likelihood} \cdot \text{Prior Probability}}$$

$$p(h|d) = \frac{p(d|h) \cdot p(h)}{\sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} p(d|h') \cdot p(h')}$$

Posterior Probability

Problem in $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow$ complex





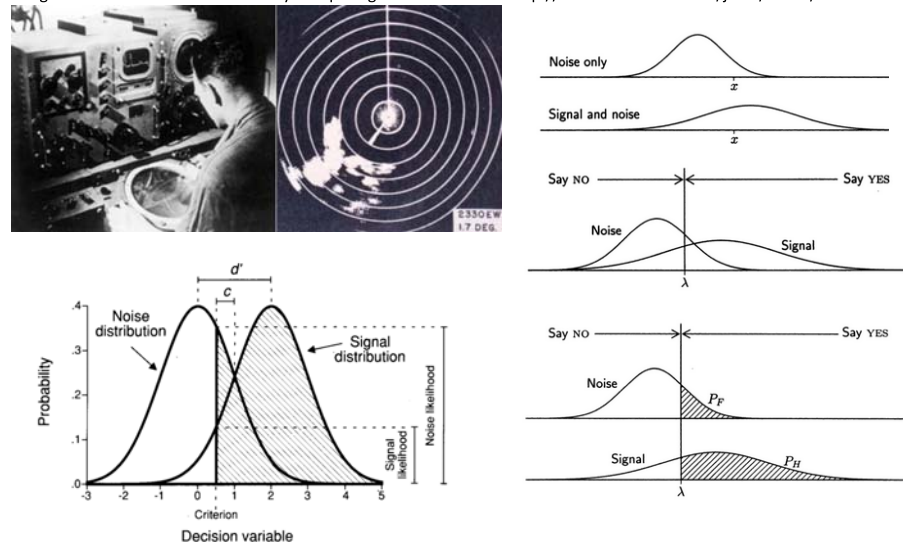
Wickens, C. D. (1984) *Engineering psychology and human performance*. Columbus (OH), Charles Merrill, modified by Holzinger, A.

04 Probabilistic Decision Making

"It is remarkable that a science which began with the consideration of games of chance should have become the most important object of human knowledge"
Pierre Simon de Laplace, 1812

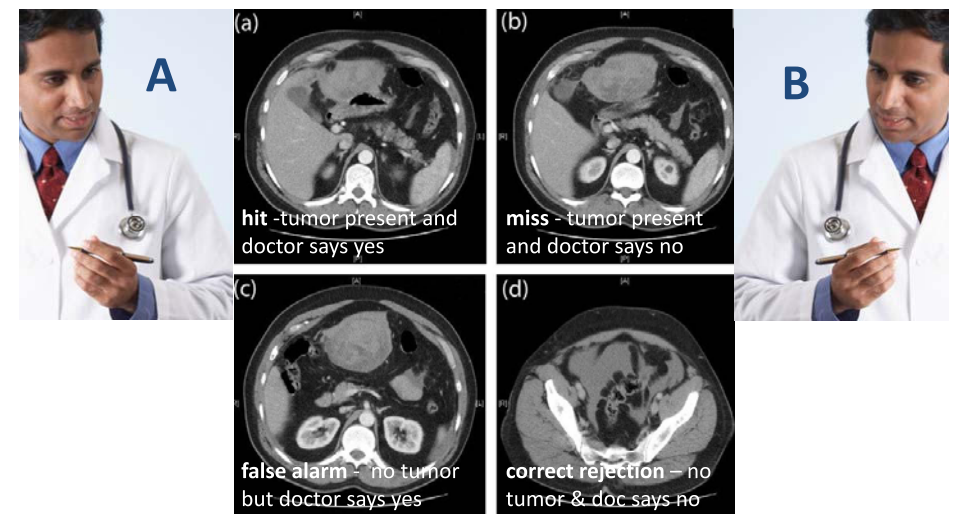
What is Signal Detection Theory (SDT) doing ?

Image source: Staffordshire University Computing Futures Museum <http://www.fcet.staffs.ac.uk/jdw1/sucfm/malvern.htm>



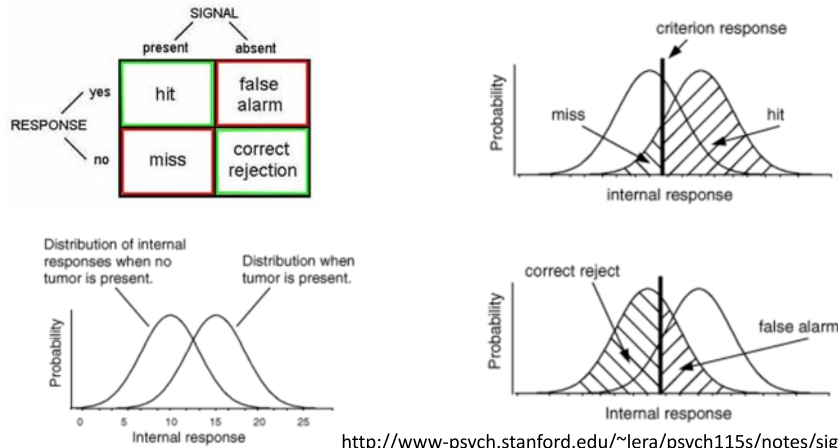
Stanislaw, H. & Todorov, N. 1999. Calculation of signal detection theory measures. *Behavior research methods, instruments, & computers*, 31, (1), 137-149.

How is Signal Detection Theory applied in medicine ?



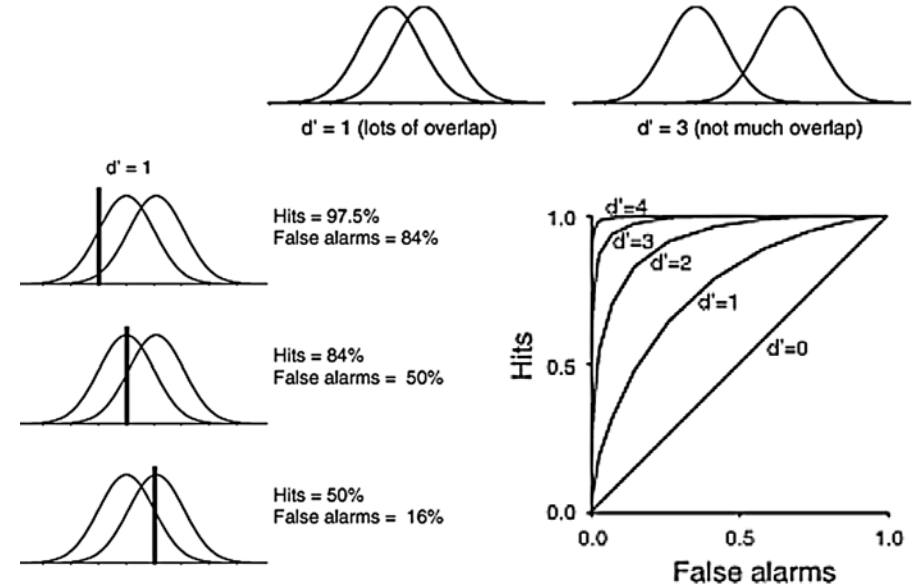
Two doctors, with equally good training, looking at the same CT scan, will have the same information ... but they may have a **different bias/criteria**!

Remember: Two doctors, with equally good training, looking at the same CT scan data, will have the same information ... but they may gain different knowledge due to *bias/criteria*.

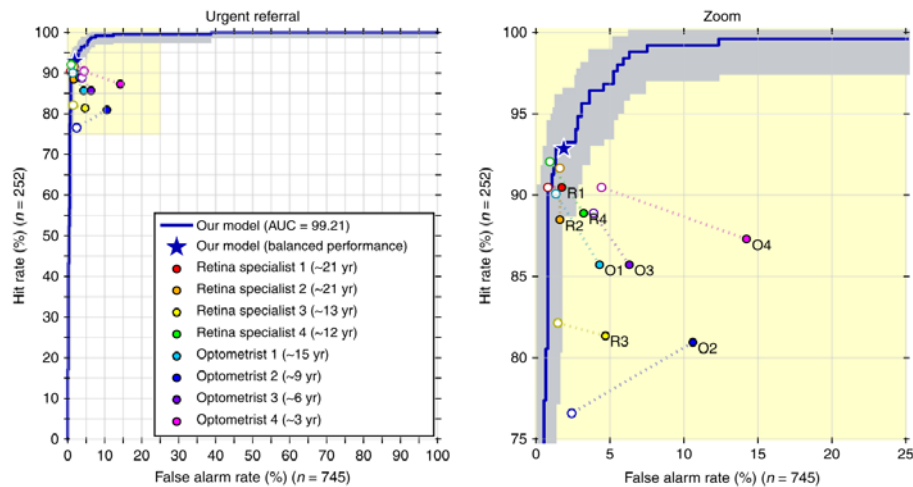


<http://www-psych.stanford.edu/~lera/psych115s/notes/signal>

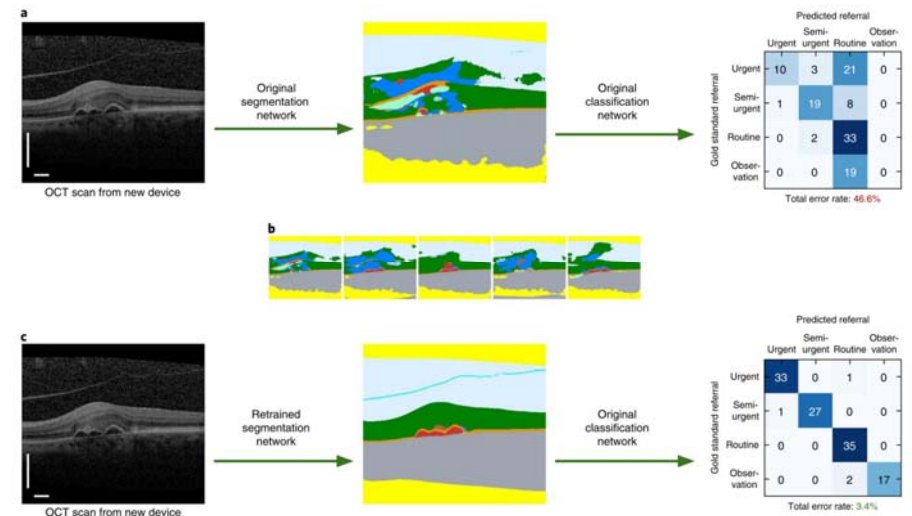
For an example see: Braga & Oliveira (2003) Diagnostic analysis based on ROC curves: theory and applications in medicine. *Int. Journal of Health Care Quality Assurance*, 16, 4, 191-198.



<http://gru.stanford.edu/doku.php/tutorials/sdt>



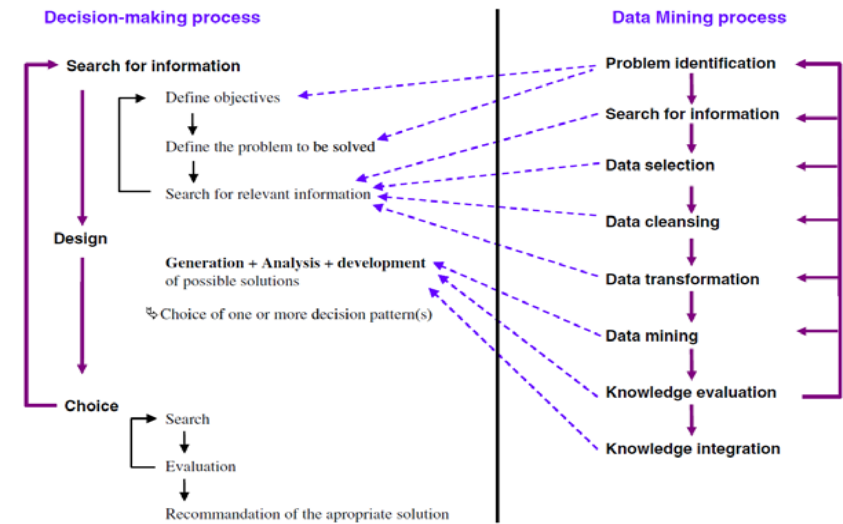
Jeffrey De Fauw et al. 2018. Clinically applicable deep learning for diagnosis and referral in retinal disease. *Nature medicine*, 24, (9), 1342-1350



Jeffrey De Fauw et al. 2018. Clinically applicable deep learning for diagnosis and referral in retinal disease. *Nature medicine*, 24, (9), 1342-1350

- **Information acquisition:** in the CT data, e.g. healthy lungs have a characteristic shape; the presence of a tumor might distort that shape (= anomaly).
- Tumors have different image characteristics: brighter or darker, different texture, etc.
- With proper training a doctor learns what kinds of things to look for, so with more practice/training they will be able to acquire more (and more reliable) information.
- Running another test (e.g., MRI) can be used to acquire more (relevant!) information.
- The effect of information is to increase the likelihood of getting either a hit or a correct rejection, while reducing the likelihood of an outcome in the two error boxes (slide 33).
- **Criterion:** Additionally to relying on technology/testing, the medical profession allows doctors to use their own judgment.
- Different doctors may feel that the different types of errors are not equal.
- For example, a doctor may feel that missing an opportunity for early diagnosis may mean the difference between life and death.
- A false alarm, on the other hand, may result only in a routine biopsy operation. They may choose to err toward "yes" (tumor present) decisions.
- Other doctors, however, may feel that unnecessary surgeries (even routine ones) are very bad (expensive, stress, etc.).
- They may choose to be more conservative and say "no" (no tumor) more often. They will miss more tumors, but they will be doing their part to reduce unnecessary surgeries. And they may feel that a tumor, if there really is one, will be picked up at the next check-up.

Mohamed, A. et al. (2010) Traumatic rupture of a gastrointestinal stromal tumour with intraperitoneal bleeding and haematoma formation. *BMJ Case Reports*, 2010.



Ayed, B. M., Ltifi, H., Kolski, C. & Alimi, A. (2010) A user-centered approach for the design & implementation of KDD-based DSS: A case study in the healthcare domain. *Decision Support Systems*, 50, 64-78.

Repetition

d ... data; h ... hypothesis

$$P(h|d) = \frac{P(d|h)P(h)}{P(d)}$$

$P(h)$: prior belief (probability of hypothesis h before seeing any data)

$P(d|h)$: likelihood (probability of the data if the hypothesis h is true)

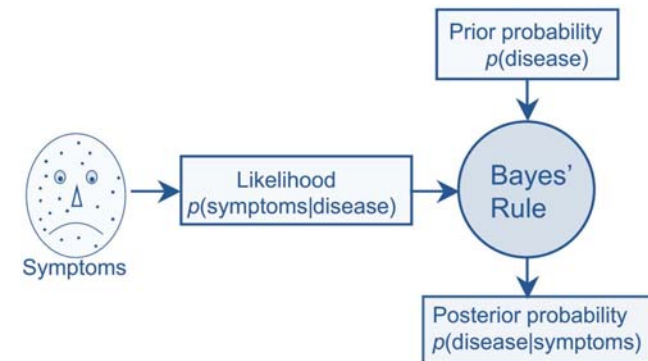
$P(d) = \sum_h P(d|h)P(h)$: data evidence (marginal probability of the data)

$P(h|d)$: posterior (probability of hypothesis h after having seen the data d)

$$\text{posterior} = \frac{\text{likelihood} * \text{prior}}{\text{evidence}}$$

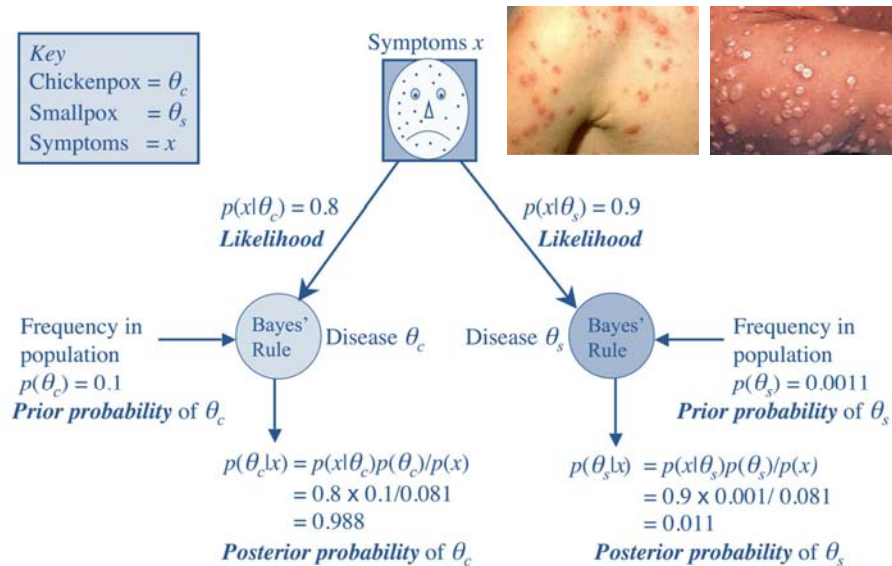
- evidence = marginal likelihood = "normalization"
- Remember: The inverse probability allows to infer unknowns, learn from data and make predictions ... machine learning!

Bayes Rule for Medical Diagnosis



$$p(\text{disease}|\text{symptoms}) = \frac{p(\text{symptoms}|\text{disease})p(\text{disease})}{p(\text{symptoms})}$$

Stone, J. V. 2013. Bayes' rule: a tutorial introduction to Bayesian analysis. Sebtel Press.



05 Example: P4-Medicine

- Your MD has bad news and good news for you.
- Bad news first: You are tested positive for a serious disease, and the test is 99% accurate if you are infected (T)
- Good news: It is a rare disease, striking 1 in 10,000 (D)
- **How worried would you now be?**



$$\text{posterior } p(x) = \frac{\text{likelihood} * \text{prior } p(x)}{\text{evidence}} \quad p(h|d) = \frac{p(d|h)p(h)}{p(d)}$$

$$p(T = 1|D = 1) = p(d|h) = 0,99 \text{ and } p(D = 1) = p(h) = 0,0001$$

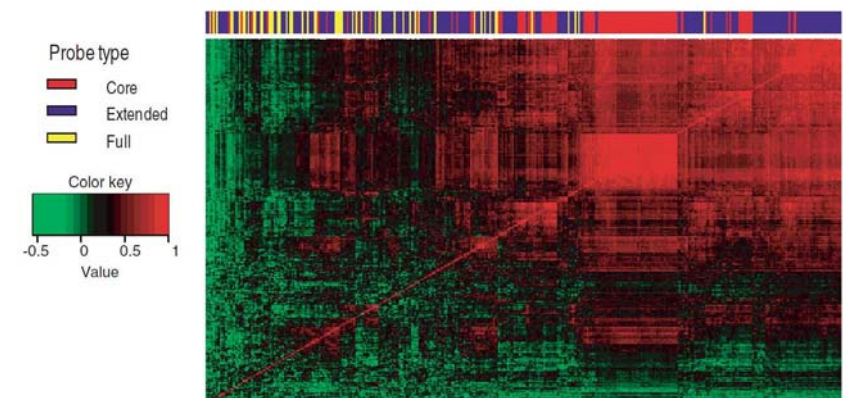
$$p(D = 1 | T = 1) = \frac{(0,99) * (0,0001)}{(1-0,99) * (1-0,0001) + 0,99 * 0,0001} = 0,0098$$

Example: Exon Arrays

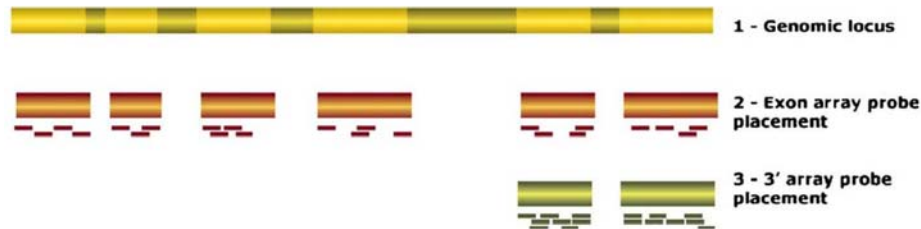
(a) Genomic locus



(b) Exon array probe placement

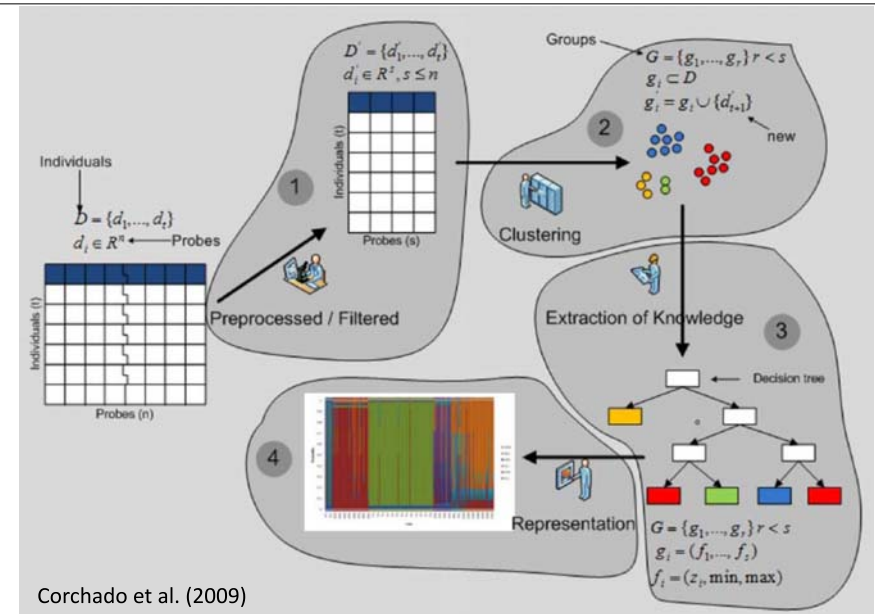


Kapur, K., Xing, Y., Ouyang, Z. & Wong, W. (2007) Exon arrays provide accurate assessments of gene expression. *Genome Biology*, 8, 5, R82.



Exon array structure. Probe design of exon arrays. (1) Exon—intron structure of a gene. Gray boxes represent introns, rest represent exons. Introns are not drawn to scale. (2) Probe design of exon arrays. Four probes target each putative exon. (3) Probe design of 30expression arrays. Probe target the 30end of mRNA sequence.

Corchado, J. M., De Paz, J. F., Rodriguez, S. & Bajo, J. (2009) Model of experts for decision support in the diagnosis of leukemia patients. *Artificial Intelligence in Medicine*, 46, 3, 179-200.

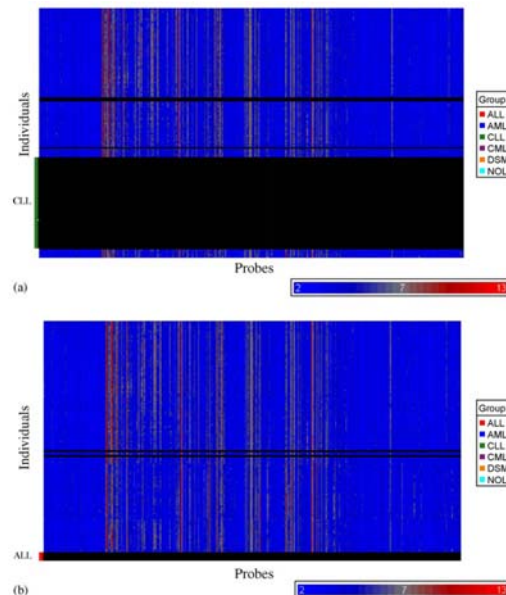


Computational leukemia cancer detection 3/6

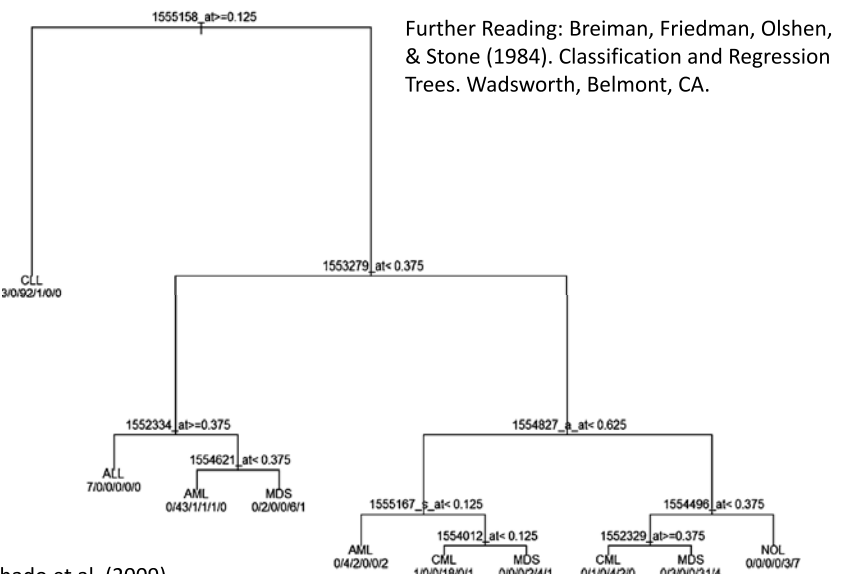
A = acute, C = chronic,
L = lymphocytic, M = myeloid

- **ALL** = cancer of the blood AND bone marrow caused by an abnormal proliferation of lymphocytes.
- **AML** = cancer in the bone marrow characterized by the proliferation of myeloblasts, red blood cells or abnormal platelets.
- **CLL** = cancer characterized by a proliferation of lymphocytes in the bone marrow.
- **CML** = caused by a proliferation of white blood cells in the bone marrow.
- **MDS** (Myelodysplastic Syndromes) = a group of diseases of the blood and bone marrow in which the bone marrow does not produce a sufficient amount of healthy cells.
- **NOL** (Normal) = No leukemias

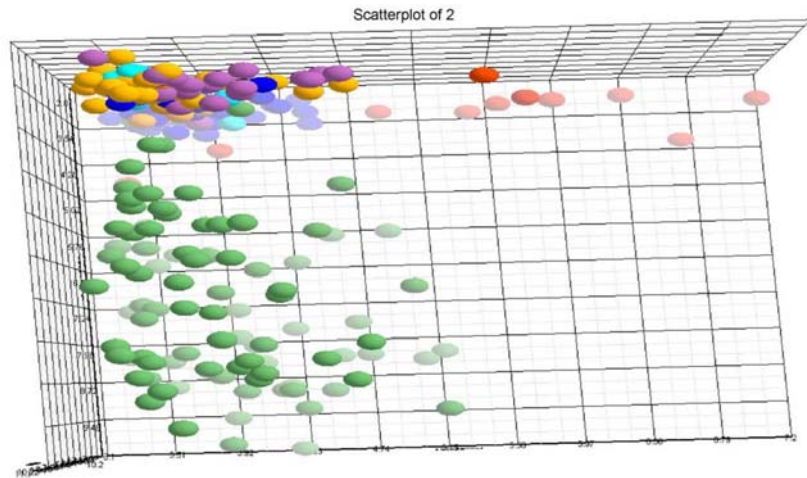
Corchado et al. (2009)



Computational leukemia cancer detection 4/6



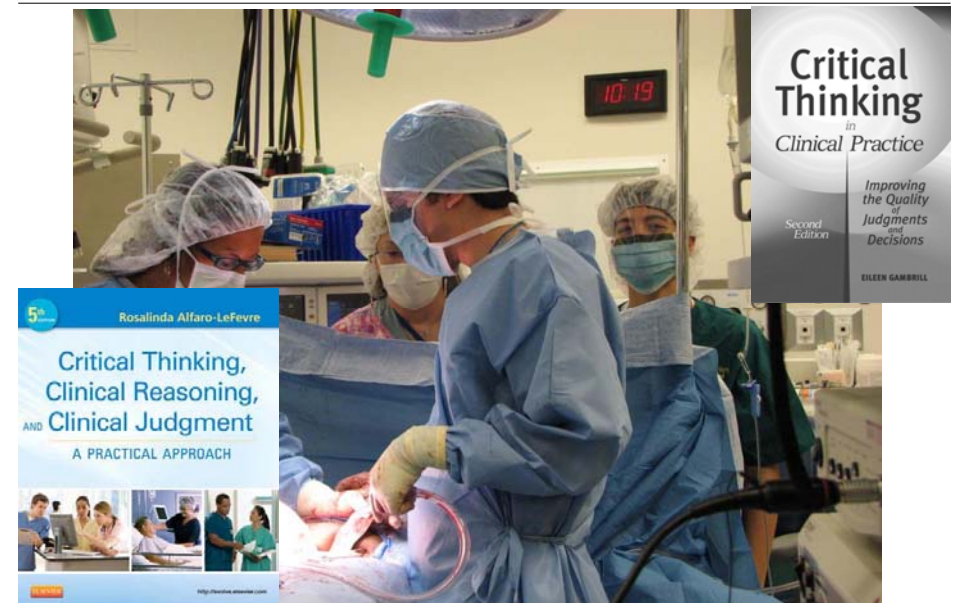
Classification CLL—ALL. Representation of the probes of the decision tree which classify the CLL and ALL to 1555158_at, 1553279_at and 1552334_at

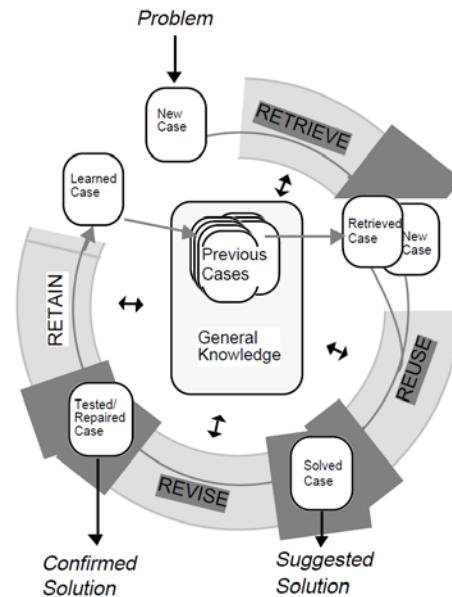


Corchado et al. (2009)

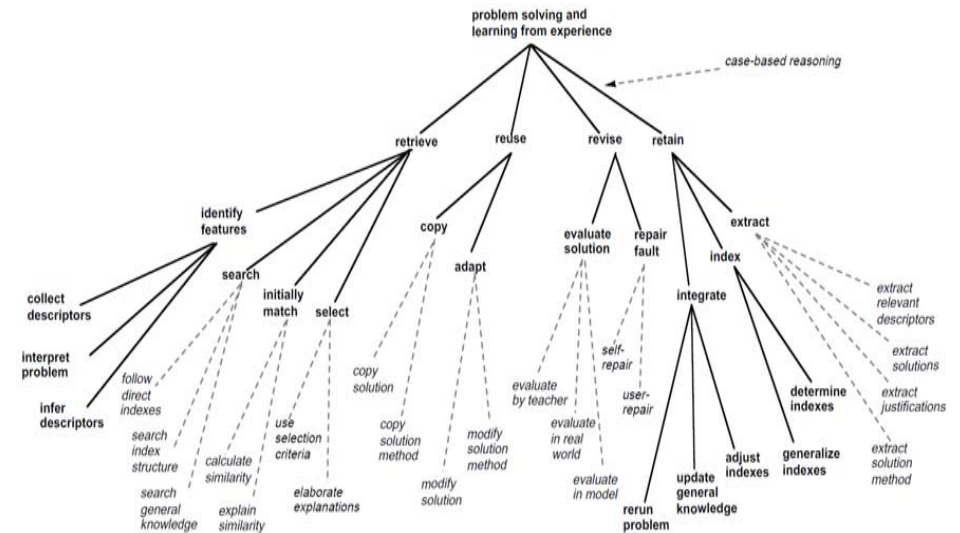
- The model of Corchado et al. (2009) combines:
 - 1) methods to **reduce the dimensionality** of the original data set;
 - 2) pre-processing and data filtering techniques;
 - 3) a clustering method to classify patients; and
 - 4) extraction of knowledge techniques
- The system reflects how human experts work in a lab, but
 - 1) **reduces the time** for making predictions;
 - 2) **reduces the rate of human error**; and
 - 3) **works with high-dimensional data** from exon arrays

06 Example: Case Based Reasoning (CBR)





Aamodt, A. & Plaza, E. (1994) Case-based reasoning: Foundational issues, methodological variations, and system approaches. *AI Communications*, 7, 1, 39-59.



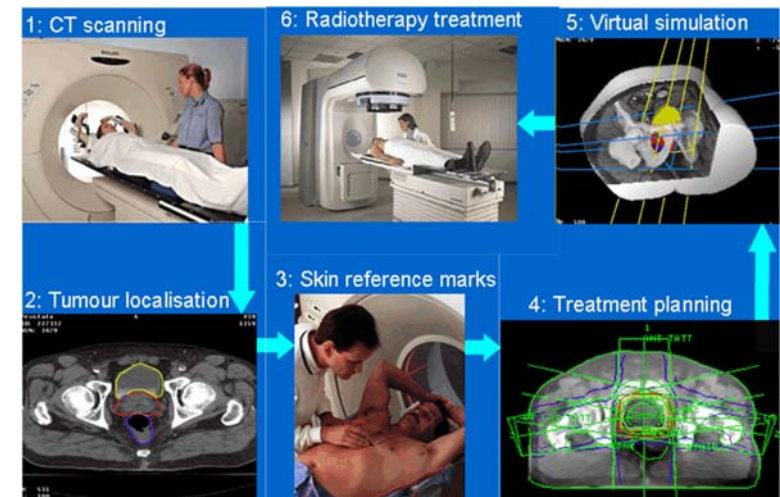
Aamodt & Plaza (1994)

CBR Example: Radiotherapy Planning 1/6

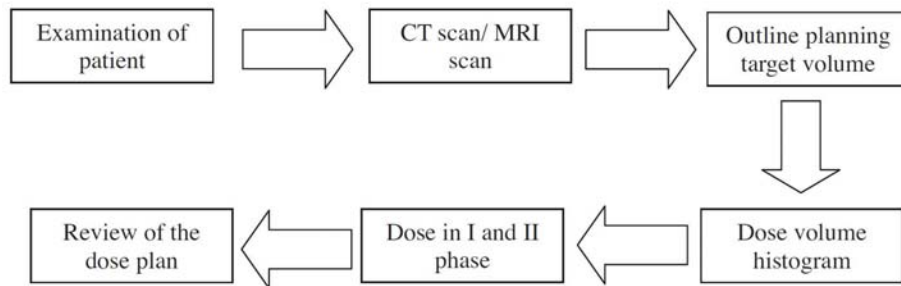


Source: <http://www.teachingmedicalphysics.org.uk>

CBR Example: Radiotherapy Planning 2/6



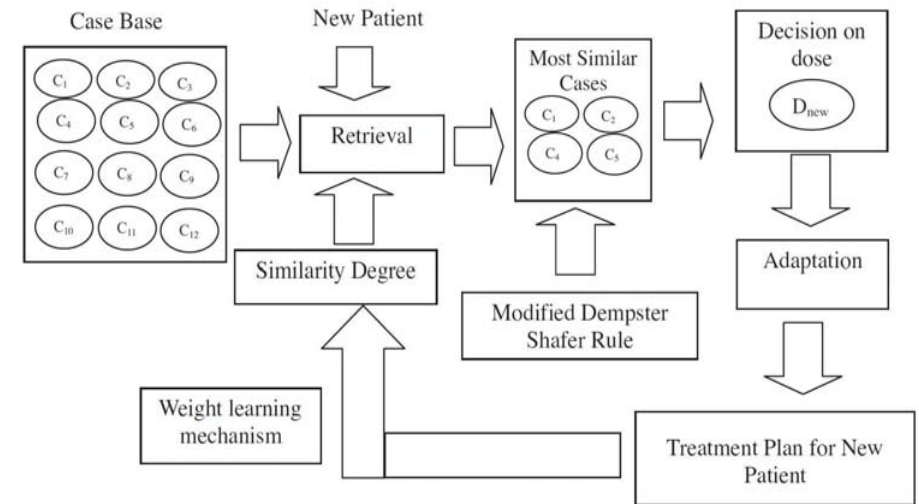
Source: Imaging Performance Assessment of CT Scanners Group, <http://www.impactscan.org>



Measures:

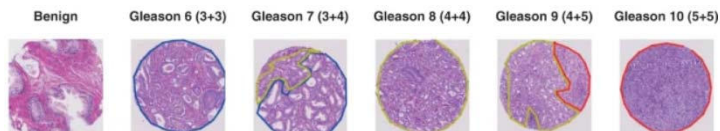
- 1) Clinical Stage = a labelling system
- 2) Gleason Score = grade of prostate cancer = integer between 1 to 10; and
- 3) Prostate Specific Antigen (PSA) value between 1 to 40
- 4) Dose Volume Histogram (DVH) = pot. risk to the rectum (66, 50, 25, 10 %)

Petrovic, S., Mishra, N. & Sundar, S. (2011) A novel case based reasoning approach to radiotherapy planning. *Expert Systems With Applications*, 38, 9, 10759-10769.



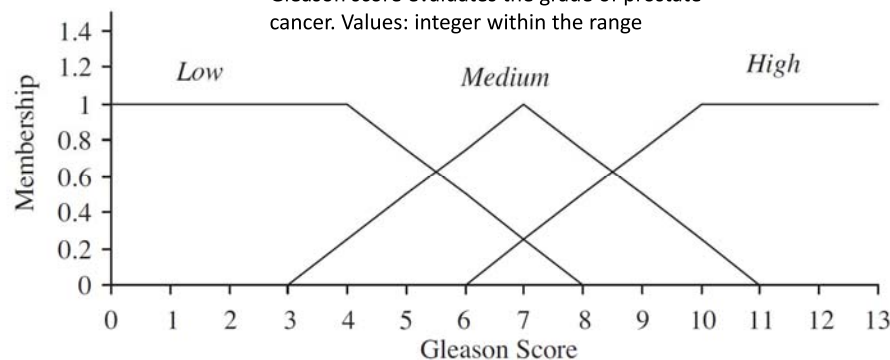
Petrovic, S., Mishra, N. & Sundar, S. (2011) A novel case based reasoning approach to radiotherapy planning. *Expert Systems With Applications*, 38, 9, 10759-10769.

Membership funct. of fuzzy sets Gleason score 5/6



Eirini Arvaniti et al (2018). Automated Gleason grading of prostate cancer tissue microarrays via deep learning. *Scientific Reports*, 8, (1), doi:10.1038/s41598-018-30535-1.

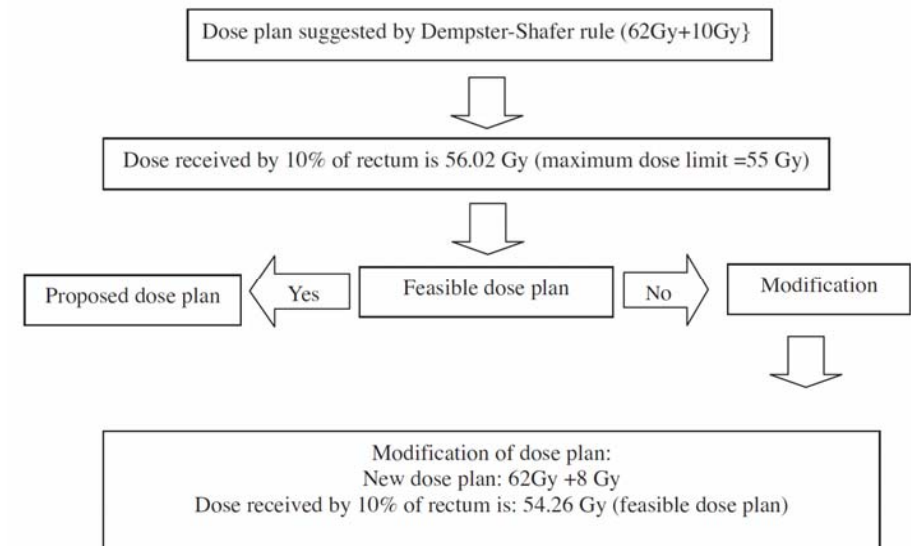
Gleason score evaluates the grade of prostate cancer. Values: integer within the range



Petrovic, S., Mishra, N. & Sundar, S. (2011) A novel case based reasoning approach to radiotherapy planning. *Expert Systems With Applications*, 38, 9, 10759-10769.

Example: Case Based Reasoning 6/6

Petrovic et al. (2011)



Conclusion

Comparison

| Human vs. Computer | |
|--|---|
| Human | Computer |
| sensitiveness for stimuli (visual, auditory, tactile, olfactory) | Precise Counting and Measuring of physical entities |
| Ability for inductive Reasoning and complex Problem Solving | Deductive Operations, formal Logic, Application of Rules |
| Creating of networked knowledge and storage for a live-long time | Storage of huge amounts of data which are not necessarily connected |
| Flexibility in decisions, even in totally new situations | Reliable reaction to unambiguous input signals |
| Discovering of ambiguous signals even when distorted | Reliable performance over long periods without tiredness |

Holzinger, A. 2000. Basiswissen Multimedia 2: Lernen. Kognitive Grundlagen multimedialer Informationssysteme, Würzburg, Vogel.

When is the human *) better?

*) human intelligence/natural intelligence/human mind/human brain/ learning

- **Natural Language Translation/Curation**
Computers cannot understand the context of sentences [3]
- **Unstructured problem solving**
Without a pre-set of rules, a machine has trouble solving the problem, because it lacks the creativity required for it [1]
- **NP-hard Problems**
Processing times are often exponential and makes it almost impossible to use machines for it, but human make heuristic decisions which are often not perfect but sufficiently good [4]

When is the computer **) better?

**) Computational intelligence, Artificial Intelligence/soft computing/ML

- **High-dimensional data processing**
Humans are very good at dimensions less or equal than 3, but computers can process data in arbitrarily high dimensions
- **Rule-Based environments**
Difficulties for humans in rule-based environments often come from not recognizing the correct goal in order to select the correct procedure or set of rules [2]
- **Image optimization**
Machine can look at each pixel and apply changes without human personal biases, and with more speed [1]

[1] Kipp, M. 2006. Creativity Meets Automation: Combining Nonverbal Action Authoring with Rules and Machine Learning. In: LNCS 4133, pp. 230-242, doi:10.1007/11821830_19.

[2] Cummings, M. M. 2014. Man versus Machine or Man + Machine? IEEE Intelligent Systems, 29, (5), 62-69, doi:10.1109/MIS.2014.87.

[3] Pizlo, Z., Joshi, A. & Graham, S. M. 1994. Problem Solving in Human Beings and Computers. Purdue TR 94-075.

[4] Griffiths, T. L. Connecting human and machine learning via probabilistic models of cognition. Interspeech, 2009, ISCA, 9-12..

Conclusion

- Computers are incredibly fast, accurate and stupid,
- humans are incredibly slow, inaccurate and brilliant,
- together they are powerful beyond imagination

(Einstein never said that)

<https://www.benshoemate.com/2008/11/30/einstein-never-said-that>



HCAI
HUMAN-CENTERED.AI

Thank you!