

The role of semantics and ontologies in interpretable machine learning

Janna Hastings,

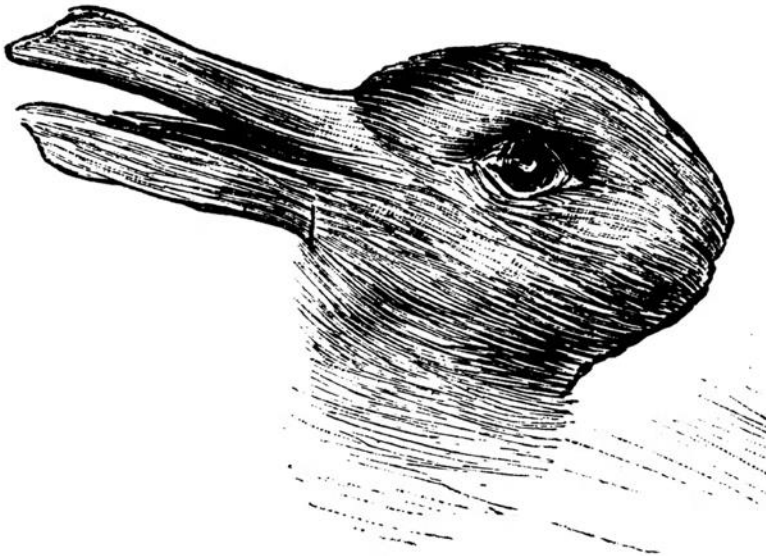
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(from August 2022)

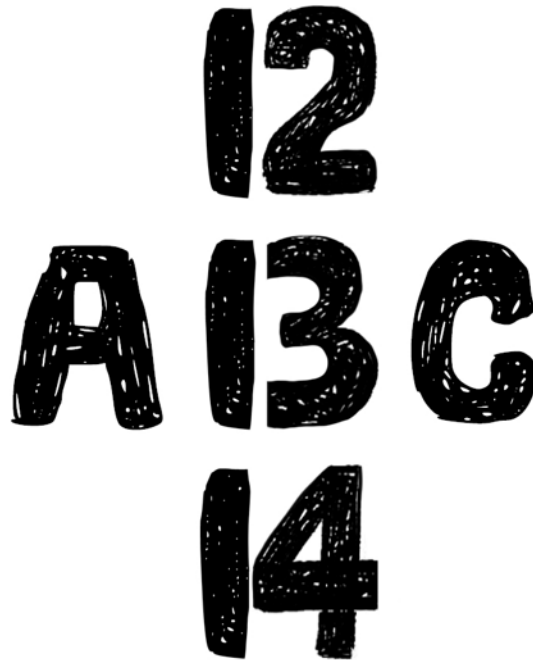
Journal Club Genomics and Digital Health, University of Geneva
Campus Biotech, 25 May 2022

There are 'bottom-up' and 'top-down' processes in human mental functioning

Bruner, J. S., & Minturn, A. L. (1955).
Journal of General Psychology, 53, 21–28.



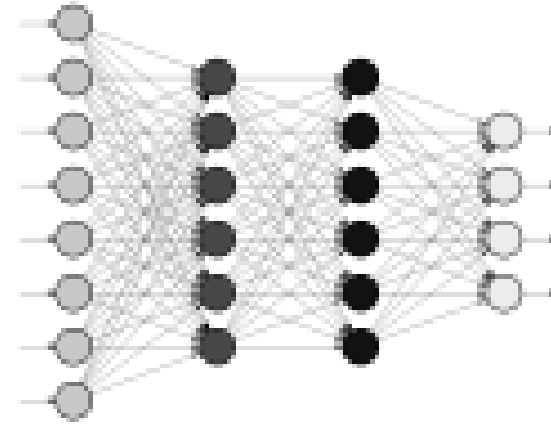
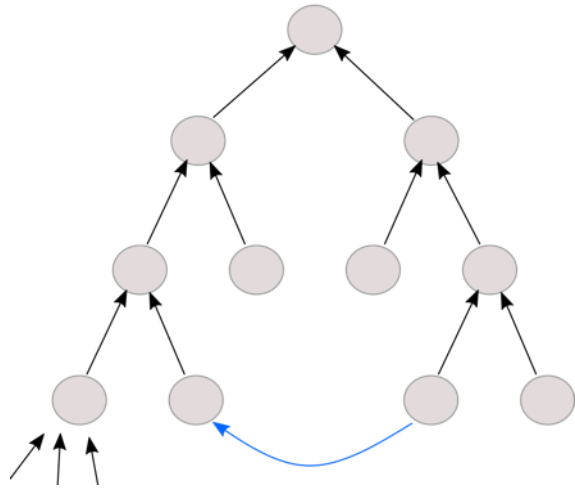
Jastrow, J. *Popular Sci. Monthly* **54**, 299–312, 1899.



Bugelski, B. R., & Alampay, D. A. (1961).
Canadian Journal of Psychology, 15(4), 205–211.

that are tightly integrated

There are also (analogues to) ‘bottom-up’ and ‘top-down’ processes in machine learning and reasoning



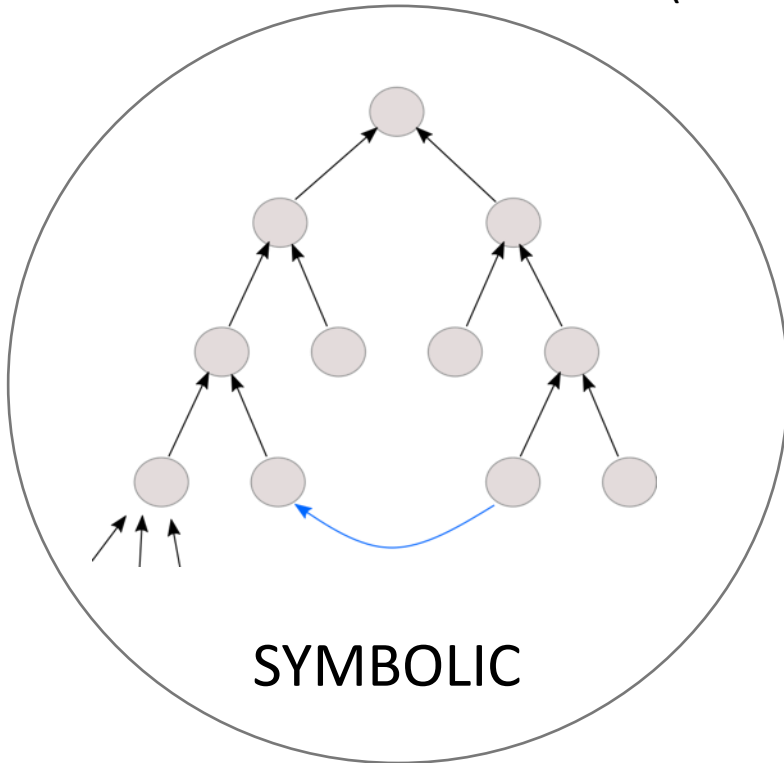
Ontologies, Semantics, Logical Inference,
Automated Reasoning, ...

Deep Neural Networks, Bayesian
Learning, Signal processing, ...

that are (mostly) **not** integrated

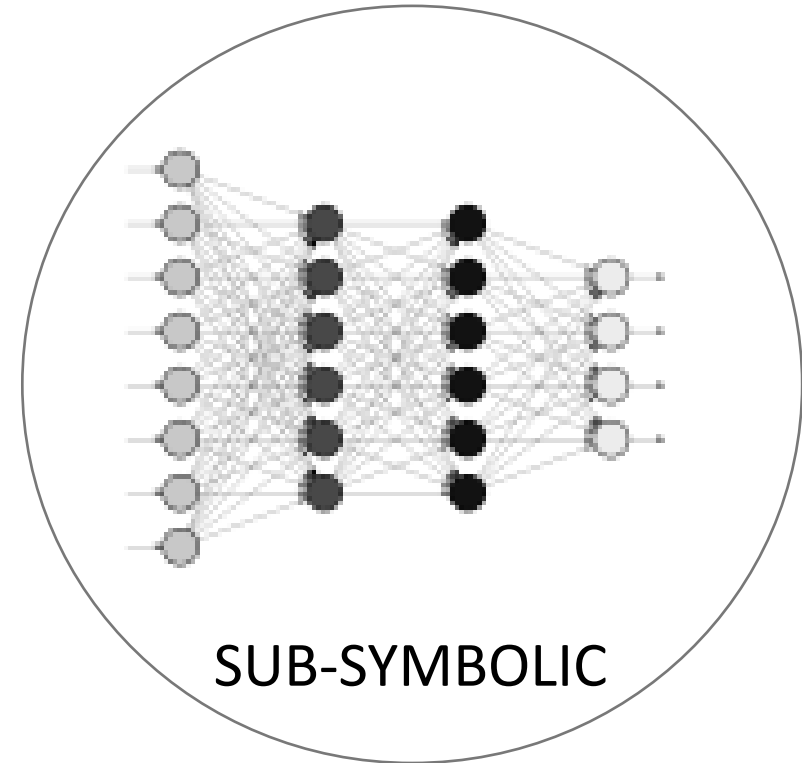
Two different (computational) ‘worlds’

“Good Old Fashioned AI” (1970s)



Rigid, Logical, Rules-driven
+ Provable outcomes, Transparent
- Slow, Hard to maintain, Vulnerable to inconsistencies

“The Singularity is Near” (2010s)



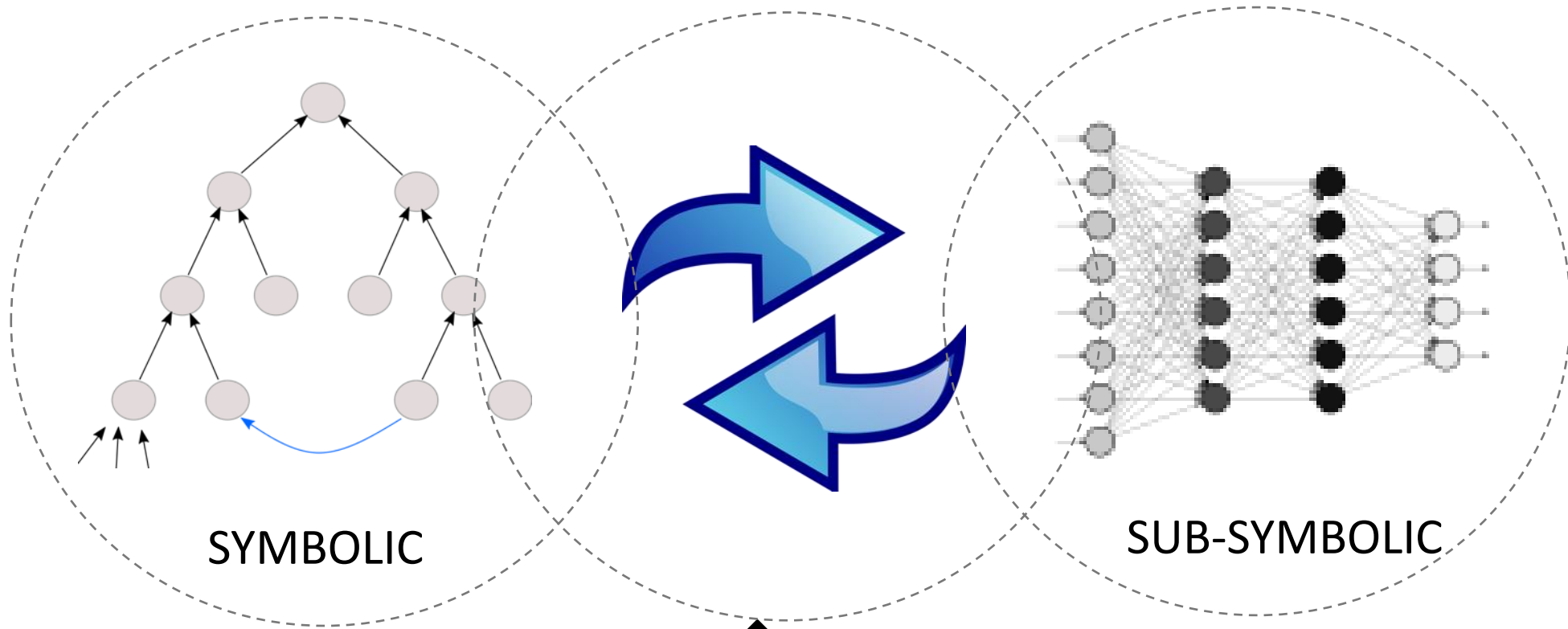
Quantitative, Associative, Pattern-driven
+ Scalable, Robust to inconsistencies
- Vulnerable to bias, errors and attacks, Impenetrable

Semantics and interpretability are **essential** for many applications of ML in medicine



- Interpretability for decision-making responsibility / accountability
- Logic for verifiability (approximately correct not always good enough, may need provable correctness)
- Small(ish) data, need performance even when don't have massive datasets (lots of reasons – availability, privacy, decentralization and climate)

How do we build systems with the best of both?

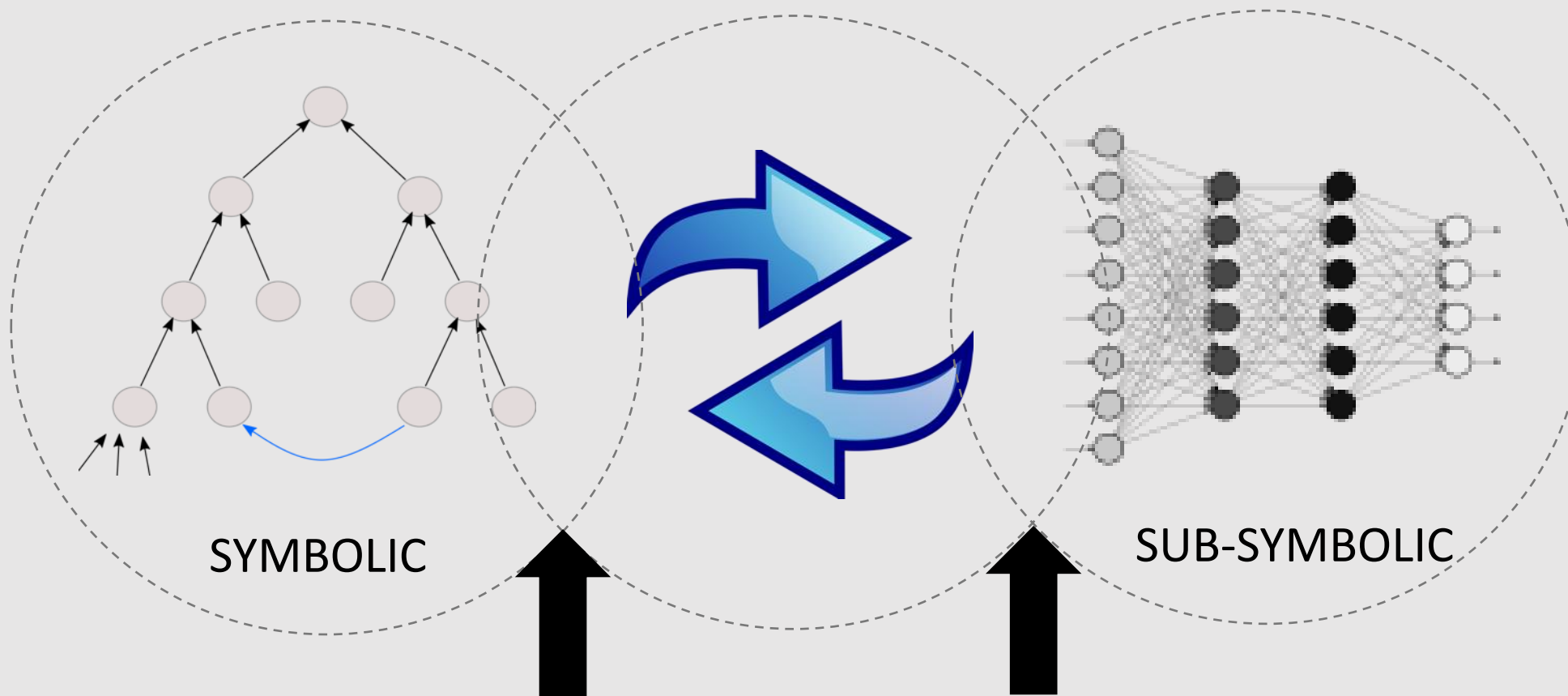


Rigid, True or False, Based on Logic
+ Provable outcomes, Transparent

Quantitative, Associative, Based on Statistics
+ Scalable, Robust to inconsistencies

Data-centric AI / Neuro-symbolic AI / Semantic AI / 'Informed' ML / 'Broad' AI

Two case studies: (1) evidence synthesis and (2) (automated) semantic annotation of chemicals



Interpretable prediction of the outcomes
of smoking cessation interventions

Interpretable semantic annotation of
chemical structures to a chemical ontology



Centre for Behaviour Change

Harnessing cross-disciplinary expertise to address social, health and environmental challenges.

Interpretable Prediction of the Outcomes of Smoking Cessation Interventions

The Human Behaviour-Change Project

A Collaborative
Award funded
by the
wellcometrust



Human Behaviour-
Change Project

Decision makers need constantly updated evidence synthesis

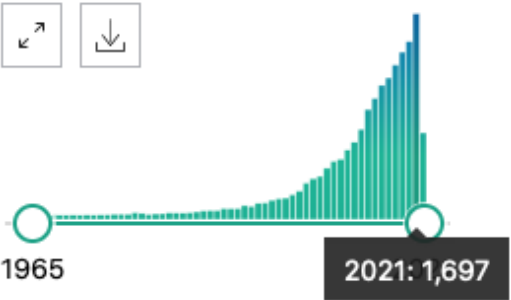
Nature 600, 383-385 (2021)

Fund and use 'living' reviews of the latest data to steer research, practice and policy.

[Julian Elliott](#) , [Rebecca Lawrence](#) , [Jan C. Minx](#) , [Olufemi T. Oladapo](#) , [Philippe Ravaud](#) , [Britta Tendal Jeppesen](#) , [James Thomas](#) , [Tari Turner](#) , [Per Olav Vandvik](#) & [Jeremy M. Grimshaw](#)

The Evidence 'Wave'

RESULTS BY YEAR



'behaviour change intervention'

~ 5 / day, every day
and growing exponentially



The raw data: RCT reports in PDF format

Table 1. Baseline characteristics of the trial participants.

	Total (N = 572)	CASC (N = 285)	Control (N = 287)
Age	46 ± 11	47 ± 11	45 ± 12
Age ranges			
<40 years	171 (30)	75 (26)	96 (33)
40–49 years	179 (31)	97 (34)	82 (29)
50–59 years	159 (28)	82 (29)	77 (27)
≥60 years	63 (11)	31 (11)	32 (11)
Male sex	426 (75)	216 (76)	210 (73)
Smoking history			
Years of smoking	25 (18–33)	25 (19–32)	24 (17–33)
Cigarettes per day	20 (15–20)	20 (15–20)	20 (15–20)
Pack-years	20 (14–30)	21 (14–30)	20 (13–31)
Exhaled CO (ppm)	17 ± 11	17 ± 10	18 ± 11
TDS score	7.7 ± 1.5	7.7 ± 1.4	7.8 ± 1.5
FTND	5.3 ± 2.1	5.2 ± 2.0	5.3 ± 2.1
Comorbidities			
Cardiovascular diseases	93 (16)	45 (16)	48 (17)
Respiratory diseases	93 (16)	48 (17)	45 (16)
Psychiatric diseases	31 (5)	12 (4)	19 (7)
Prescribed Medication			
Varenicline	454 (79)	227 (80)	227 (79)
Nicotine patch	114 (20)	56 (20)	58 (20)
No medication	4 (1)	2 (1)	2 (1)

Data include mean ± standard deviation, number (%), or median (inter-quartile range) scores.

CO carbon monoxide, FTND Fagerström test for nicotine dependence, and TDS tobacco dependence screener.

In conclusion, a novel digital therapy significantly improved a long-term CAR in conjunction with standard smoking cessation treatment in patients with nicotine dependence. Digital cessation may be a promising strategy for smoking prevalence worldwide, and future research warranted.

METHODS

Study design

This was a multi-center, randomized, controlled trial. Detailed study protocol was presented elsewhere⁶. Patients were recruited from 31 smoking cessation clinics in Japan from 2017 to January 2018, and allocated 1:1 to the intervention and the control group. The intervention group used the control app, each for 12-week standard smoking cessation treatment with varenicline maintenance therapy for 24 weeks, and the control group used the control app, each for 12-week standard smoking cessation treatment without varenicline maintenance therapy for 24 weeks, and evaluated CARs up to 52 weeks. The trial was conducted in accordance with the CONSORT statements. The protocol was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board at Kelo University School of Medicine. This trial was registered at the University Hospital Medical Information Network (UMIN) Clinical Trials Registry (UMIN011-18-00000001).

Participants

We recruited nicotine-dependent adults who were seeking smoking cessation treatment under the Japanese National Health Insurance program. Physicians at each clinic screened the patients and obtained written informed consent. The baseline data were collected using a self-administered questionnaire at the initial visit. The program consisted of five visits during a 12-week period, and counseling and pharmacotherapy, including nicotine patch or varenicline were provided by physicians⁶. Inclusion criteria were as follows: adult current smokers who (1) were diagnosed with nicotine dependence (tobacco Dependence Screener [TDS] score ≥5 points)²⁹; (2) had a smoking history of pack-years ≥10; (3) intended to quit smoking immediately; (4) agreed to participate in a smoking cessation treatment program with written informed consent; and

Table 2. Changes in MPSS, FTCQ-12, and KTSND scores from baseline to weeks 24 and 52, adjusted by covariates.

	CASC (N = 285)	Control (N = 287)	P-value ^a
Change from weeks 0 to 24			
MPSS urge total	−1.87 [−2.01 to −1.72]	−1.73 [−1.88 to −1.59]	0.009
MPSS total excluding urges	−0.59 [−0.72 to −0.47]	−0.42 [−0.56 to −0.29]	<0.001
FTCQ-12 emotionality	−1.70 [−1.89 to −1.51]	−1.32 [−1.49 to −1.14]	<0.001
FTCQ-12 expectancy	−2.46 [−2.68 to −2.25]	−2.16 [−2.37 to −1.95]	0.002
FTCQ-12 compulsivity	−1.74 [−1.94 to −1.54]	−1.74 [−1.93 to −1.55]	0.202
FTCQ-12 purposefulness	−2.84 [−3.10 to −2.58]	−2.17 [−2.44 to −1.90]	<0.001
FTCQ-12 general craving score	−2.09 [−2.25 to −1.93]	−1.78 [−1.93 to −1.63]	<0.001
KTSND	−7.0 [−7.7 to −6.2]	−3.9 [−4.5 to −3.2]	<0.001
Change from weeks 0 to 52			
MPSS urge total	−1.82 [−1.98 to −1.67]	−1.65 [−1.81 to −1.49]	0.007
MPSS total excluding urges	−0.52 [−0.64 to −0.39]	−0.42 [−0.54 to −0.29]	0.061
FTCQ-12 emotionality	−1.60 [−1.80 to −1.41]	−1.21 [−1.39 to −1.03]	0.001
FTCQ-12 expectancy	−2.39 [−2.60 to −2.19]	−2.10 [−2.33 to −1.88]	0.002
FTCQ-12 compulsivity	−1.71 [−1.90 to −1.52]	−1.55 [−1.75 to −1.35]	0.019
FTCQ-12 purposefulness	−2.84 [−3.10 to −2.58]	−2.00 [−2.28 to −1.73]	<0.001
FTCQ-12 general craving score	−2.03 [−2.19 to −1.87]	−1.65 [−1.81 to −1.48]	<0.001
KTSND	−7.0 [−7.7 to −6.2]	−3.9 [−4.5 to −3.2]	<0.001

Mean [95% CI] scores are presented. Article | Open Access | Published: 12 March 2020

MPSS Mood and Physical Symptom Scale, Kano Test for Social Nicotine Dependence

^aAnalysis was based on an

A randomized controlled trial of a smoking cessation smartphone application with a carbon monoxide checker

Katsunori Masaki, Hiroki Tateno , Akihiro Nomura, Tomoyasu Muto, Shin Suzuki, Kohta Satake, Eisuke Hida & Koichi Fukunaga

npj Digital Medicine 3, Article number: 35 (2020) | [Cite this article](#)

10k Accesses | 14 Citations | 67 Altmetric | [Metrics](#)

Ontologies provide ‘feature types’ for annotations

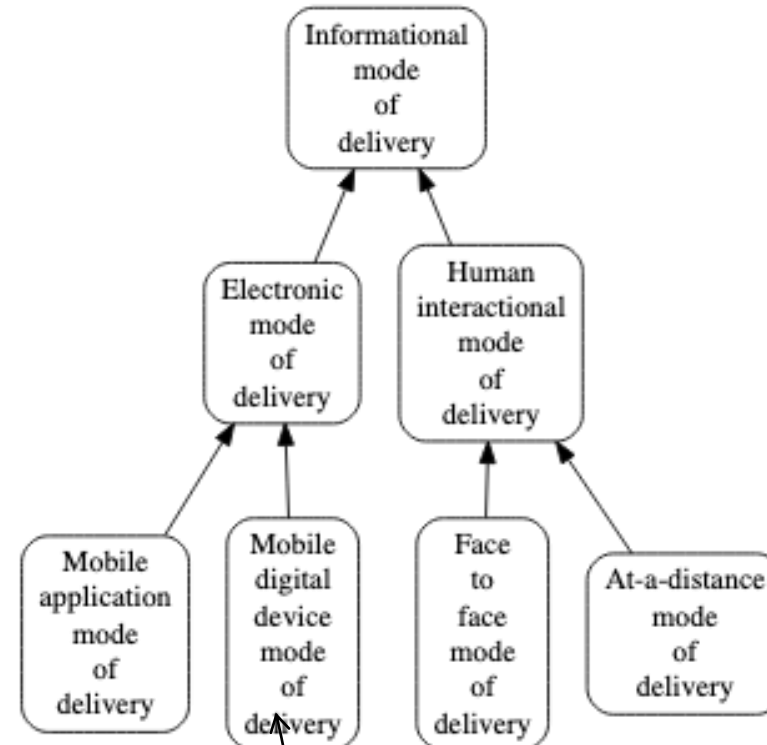
Abstract

Background: Tobacco is a major public health concern. A 12-week standard smoking cessation program is available in Japan; however, it requires face-to-face clinic visits, which has been one of the key obstacles to completing the program, leading to a low smoking cessation success rate. Telemedicine using internet-based video counseling instead of regular clinic visits could address this obstacle.

Objective: This study aimed to evaluate the efficacy and feasibility of an internet-based remote smoking cessation support program compared with the standard face-to-face clinical visit program among patients with nicotine dependence.

Methods: This study was a randomized, controlled, open-label, multicenter, noninferiority trial. We recruited nicotine-dependent adults from March to June 2018. Participants randomized to the telemedicine arm received internet-based video counseling, whereas control participants received standard face-to-face clinic visits at each time point in the smoking cessation program. Both arms received a CureApp Smoking Cessation smartphone app with a mobile exhaled carbon monoxide checker. The primary outcome was a continuous abstinence rate (CAR) from weeks 9 to 12. Full analysis set was used for data analysis.

Results: We randomized 115 participants with nicotine dependence: 58 were allocated to the telemedicine (internet-based video counseling) arm and 57, to the control (standard face-to-face clinical visit) arm. We analyzed all 115 participants for the primary outcome. Both telemedicine and



Annotation types:

- Presence/Absence (e.g. interventions)
- Categorical (e.g. country)
- Quantitative (e.g. mean age)

Annotations consist of feature, value, context

Age	46 ± 11	47 ± 11	45 ± 12
Age ranges			
<40 years	171 (30)	75 (26)	96 (33)
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50–59 years	159 (28)	82 (29)	77 (27)
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Male sex	426 (75)	216 (76)	210 (73)
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Data include mean ± standard deviation, number (%), or median (inter-quartile range) scores.
CO carbon monoxide, FTND Fagerström test for nicotine dependence, and TDS tobacco dependence screener.

cessation may be a promising strategy to reduce smoking prevalence worldwide, and future research on a global scale is warranted.

METHODS

Study design

This was a multi-center, randomized, controlled, open-label trial (Fig. 2). A detailed study protocol was presented elsewhere²⁸. Briefly, participants were recruited from 31 smoking cessation clinics in Japan, from October 2017 to January 2018, and allocated 1:1 to the CASC intervention group and the control group. The intervention group used the CASC system, and the control group used the control app, each for 24 weeks, in addition to a 12-week standard smoking cessation treatment. In reference to the varenicline maintenance therapy for 24 weeks²², we were interested in whether or not the effectiveness of the CASC system could be maintained after discontinuation of using the app, and we limited access to the app to 24 weeks and evaluated CARs up to 52 weeks. The study was performed in compliance with CONSORT statements. The protocol and written informed consent forms were reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board at Keio University School of Medicine and all affiliated institutions. This trial was registered at the University Hospital Medical Information Network (UMIN) Clinical Trials Registry (UMIN000031589).

Participants

We recruited nicotine-dependent adults who visited outpatient clinics to receive smoking cessation treatment under the Japanese National Health Insurance program. Physicians at each clinic screened the patients and obtained written informed consent. The baseline data were collected using a self-administered questionnaire at the initial visit. The program consisted of five visits during a 12-week period, and counseling and pharmacotherapy, including nicotine patch or varenicline were provided by physicians⁶. Inclusion criteria were as follows: adult current smokers who (1) were diagnosed with nicotine dependence (tobacco Dependence Screener (TDS) score ≥ 5 points)²⁹, (2) had a smoking history of pack-years ≥ 10, (3)

Feature:

Mean number of times tobacco used

Specific value:

'20'

Surrounding text:

Cigarettes per day 20 (15-20)

Feature:

varenicline

Specific value:

'varenicline maintenance therapy for 20 weeks'

Surrounding text:

'In reference to the varenicline maintenance therapy for 24 weeks, ...'

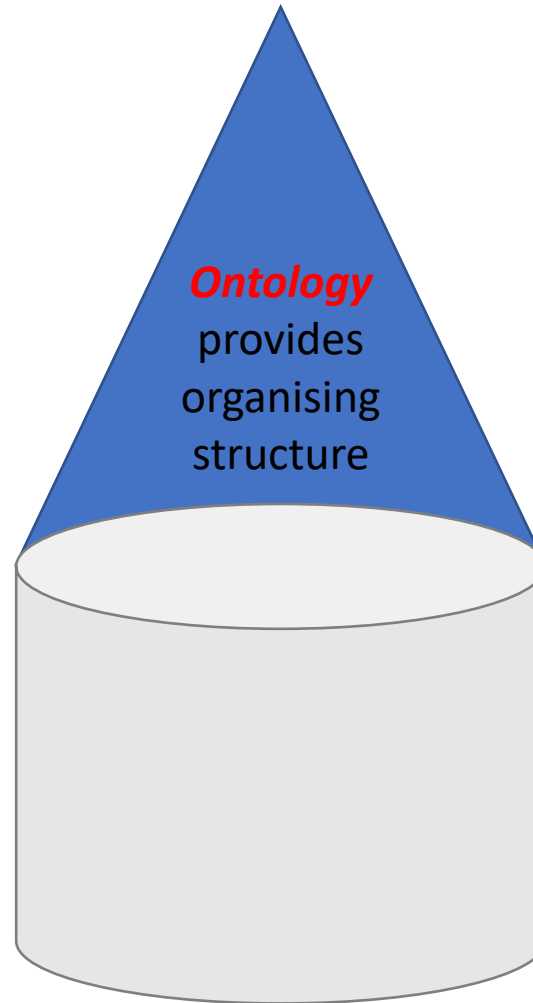
BCI database



manually annotated
'gold standard'



evidence 'surveillance' and
automated feature extraction



Ontology:

734 classes

Smoking cessation:

455 papers, 1098 arms

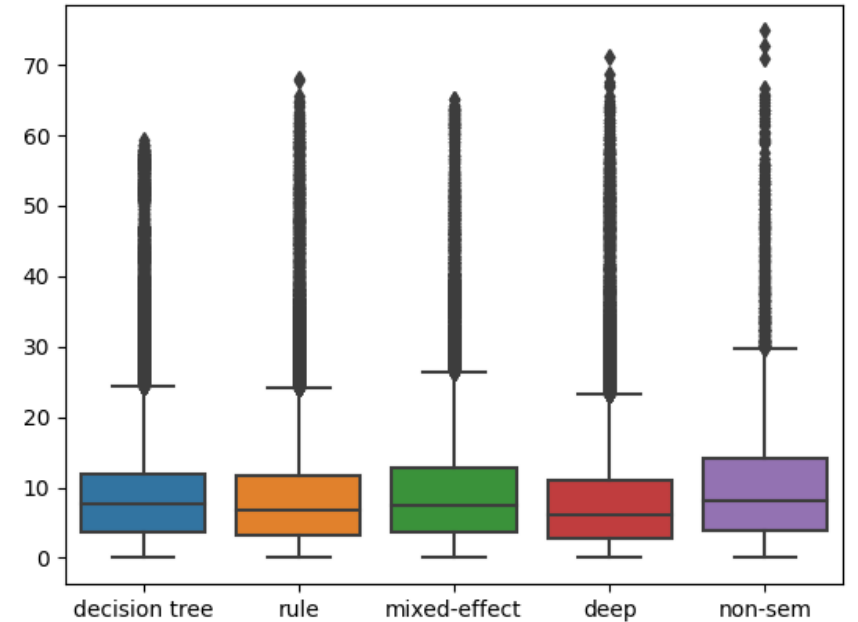
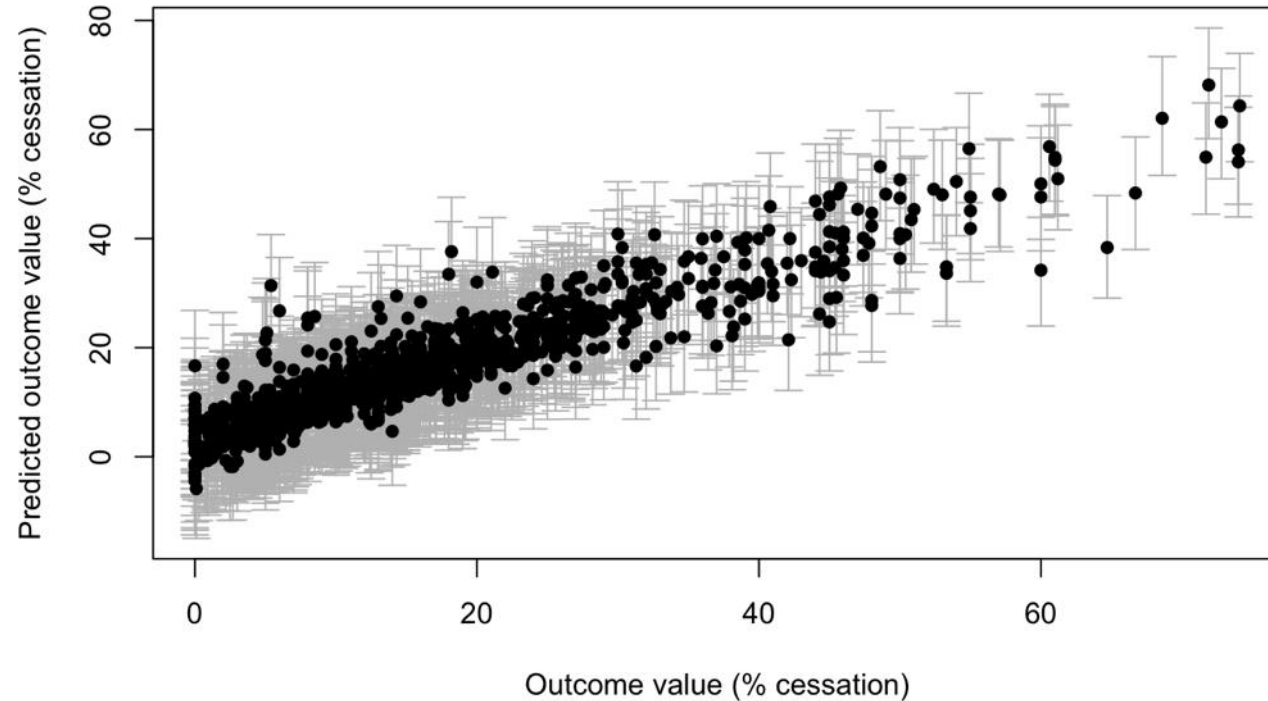
55 attributes

Physical activity:

110 papers, 241 arms

160 attributes

Predicting smoking cessation intervention outcomes is hardly an exact science

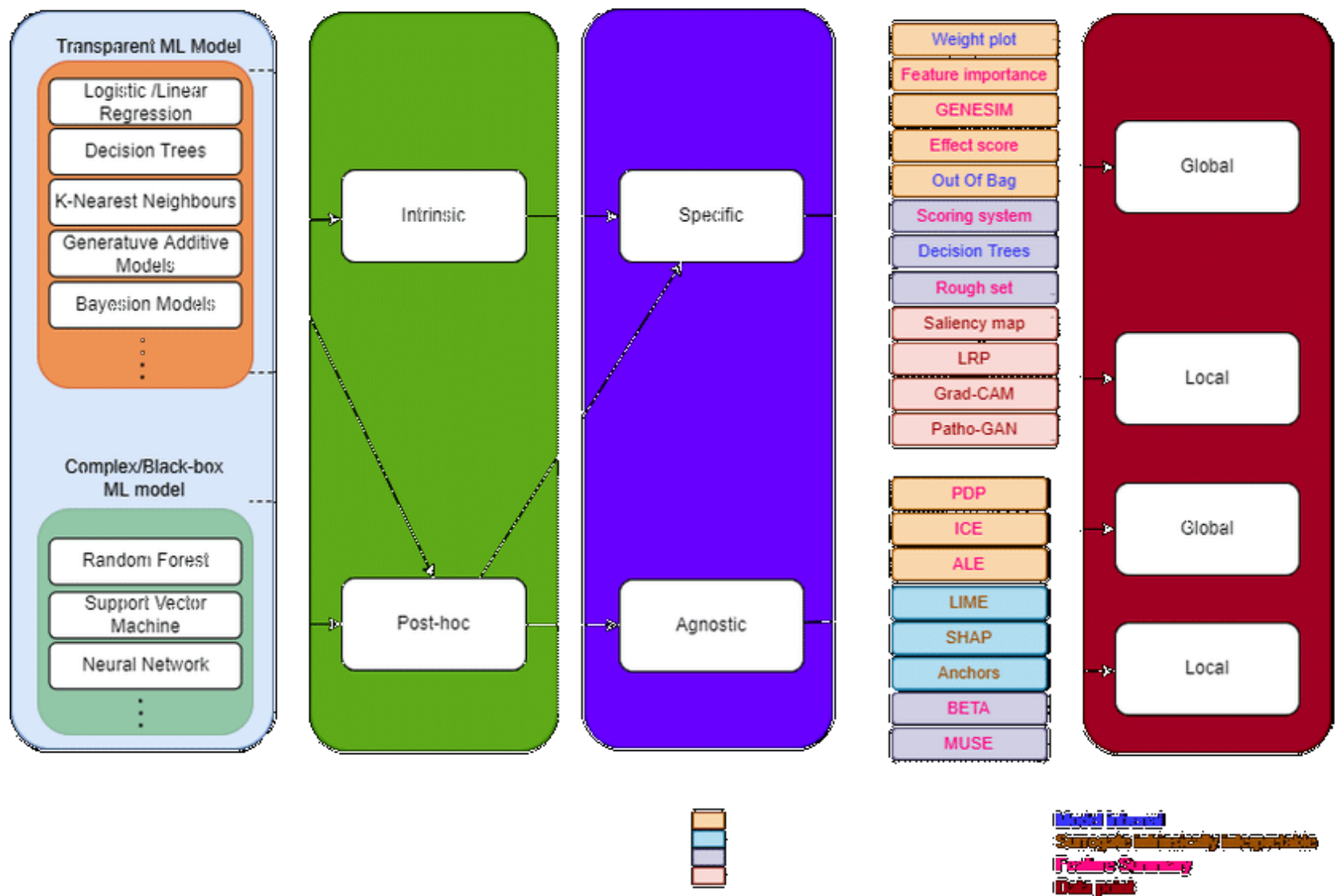


MAE from train/test split (80:20 x 100)

For policy-makers, what is most important is the **explanation** of the prediction



Recommendations are highly dependent on tradeoffs amongst parameters and constraints when searching for optimal strategies, see, e.g.



Transparent
(‘glass-box’) ML
models are fully
interpretable

Abdullah et al., **A Review of Interpretable ML in Healthcare: Taxonomy, Applications, Challenges, and Future Directions.**
December 2021. Symmetry
13(12):2439

Rules are the most interpretable ML approach

Rules have the form:

if antecedent then consequent

E.g.

if (smoking) then (lung cancer risk)

Antecedent can be a logical combination of features:

if A and B and C and ... then consequent

E.g.

if (sitting all day) and (age>30) then (gaining weight)

Pure rules-based systems are too brittle and not trainable enough for sufficient performance

Advantages

- Naturally interpretable (*as long as rules are short and there are not too many of them*)
- Can in principle be induced from data (*but see disadvantages*)
- Easy integration with semantics, logical structures and constraints

Disadvantages

- (usually) only apply for categorical prediction problems
- Require binary features as inputs
- Not differentiable, so not trainable using efficient learning approaches
- Prone to overfitting
- Too rigid to cope with uncertainties

A ‘best of both worlds’ hybrid approach: trainable additive weighted rule sets with semantic penalties *

Weighted Rule (single-layer) Network

input features
(binarized,
one-hot encoded)

Rules (weighted)

Summation
and penalties

predicted outcome:
a sum of
(the weighted ‘fit’
of each rule multiplied
by the base rule weight)

and ‘most applicable’ rules

$$a_{1,1}F_1 \& a_{1,2}F_2 \& \dots \& a_{1,n}F_n \& b_{1,1}(\text{not } F_1) \& b_{1,2}(\text{not } F_2) \& \dots \& b_{1,n}(\text{not } F_n) \rightarrow (+/-) r_1$$

* Glauer and Hastings, in preparation

-- HBCP/Semantic-Prediction on GitHub

A ‘best of both worlds’ hybrid approach: trainable additive weighted rule sets with semantic penalties *

Disadvantages of rules systems

- (usually) only apply for categorical prediction problems
 - Each rule is assigned a ‘fit’ and a ‘weight’
 - Rules within sets added together to get the prediction
- Require binary features as inputs
 - We binarise using fuzzy strategies
- Not differentiable, so not trainable using efficient learning approaches
 - Weights are trainable using backpropagation
- Prone to overfitting
 - We introduce various semantic penalties
- Too rigid to cope with uncertainties
 - Fuzzy interpretations allow generalisation

** Glauer and Hastings, in preparation
-- HBCP/Semantic-Prediction on GitHub*

Input features pre-treatment, binarization

- Logical implication is pre-reasoned in feature dataset
(e.g. if 'nurse' or 'doctor' then 'healthcare professional')
- Binary features are retained, categorical features are one-hot encoded, and continuous features are binarized with fuzzy boundaries using several strategies as semantically appropriate:
 - Meaningful semantic categories, e.g. age = child, young adult, older adult, ...
 - Fixed-width categories, e.g. #times.tobacco.smoked <5, <10, <15, ...
 - Fixed-quantile categories, e.g. proportion.female ...
(these numeric category boundaries are fuzzy)
 - Fixed (categorical, not fuzzy) numeric values e.g. 100% female

Semantic penalties – what makes ‘good’, interpretable rules?

- Prefer
 - shorter rules
 - combinations of features that cross semantic domains (e.g. intervention type, setting, population)
- Avoid (within a single rule)
 - Mutually disjoint classes, unless belonging to different semantic domains
 - Hierarchically related classes
 - F and (not F), for any feature F
 - Manually specified excluded combinations e.g. varenicline and (not pharmacological support)

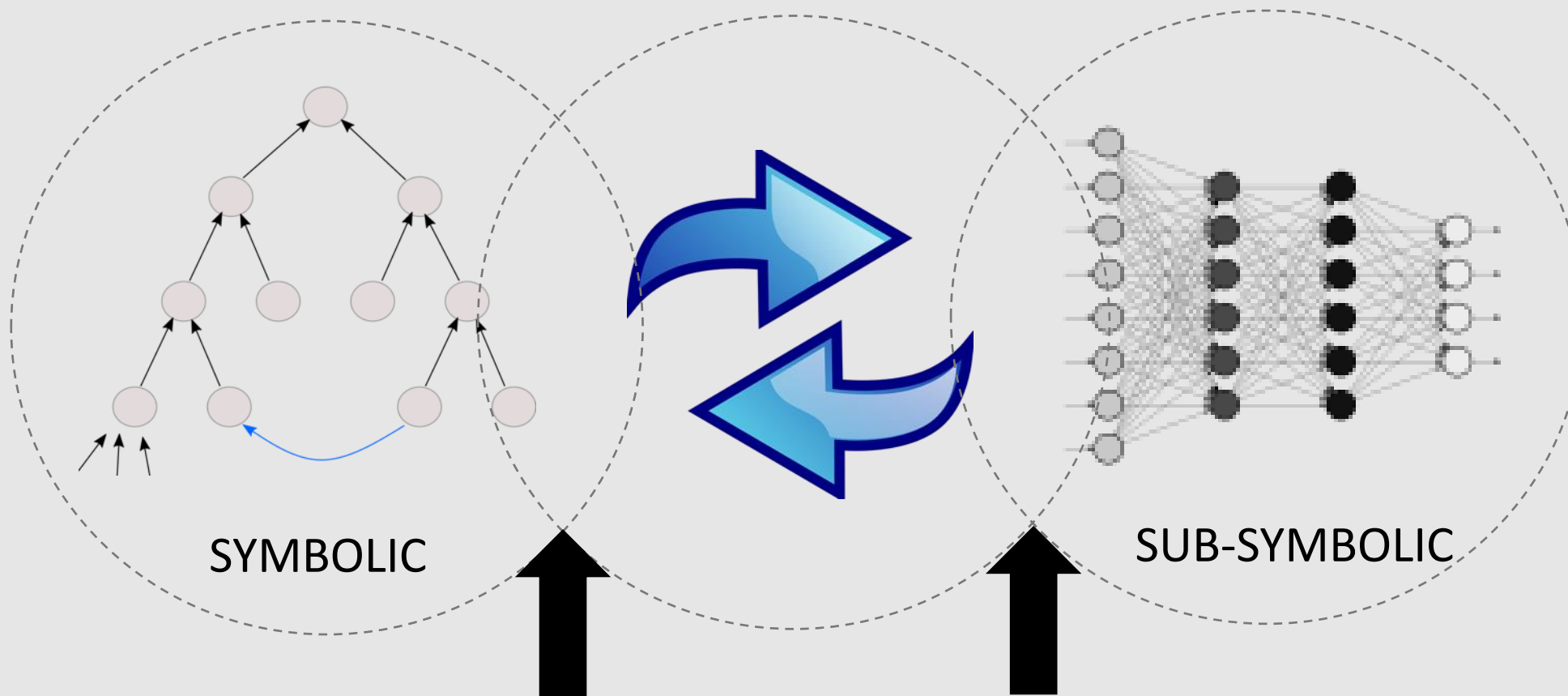
Results

- All variants have the same accuracy (MAE ~ 8 , comparable to DL)
- No penalties: 100 rules x 300 rule parameters, **not interpretable**
- With penalties for length and crispness of rules: ~ 20 rules x ~ 10 parameters, **somewhat interpretable**
- With semantic penalties: ~ 15 rules x $\sim 1-5$ parameters, **interpretable**

Summary

- For smaller datasets where interpretability matters, trainable rules are a very good alternative with comparable performance to deep models, and can be used both for classification and regression problems
- Domain knowledge in the form of categories, hierarchy, implications and disjoints can be used to supplement the trained rules with semantic penalties that force the system to learn rules that 'make sense'

Two case studies: (1) evidence synthesis and (2) (automated) semantic annotation of chemicals



Interpretable prediction of the outcomes
of smoking cessation interventions

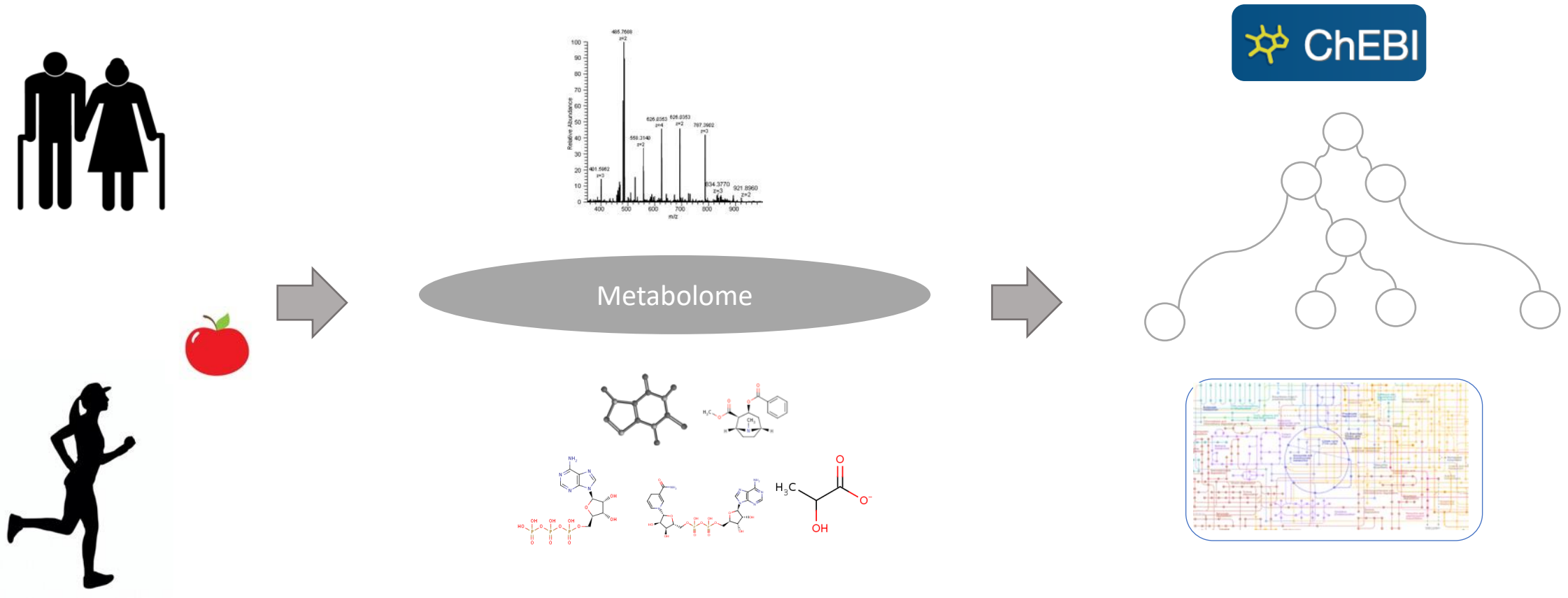
Interpretable semantic annotation of
chemical structures to a chemical ontology



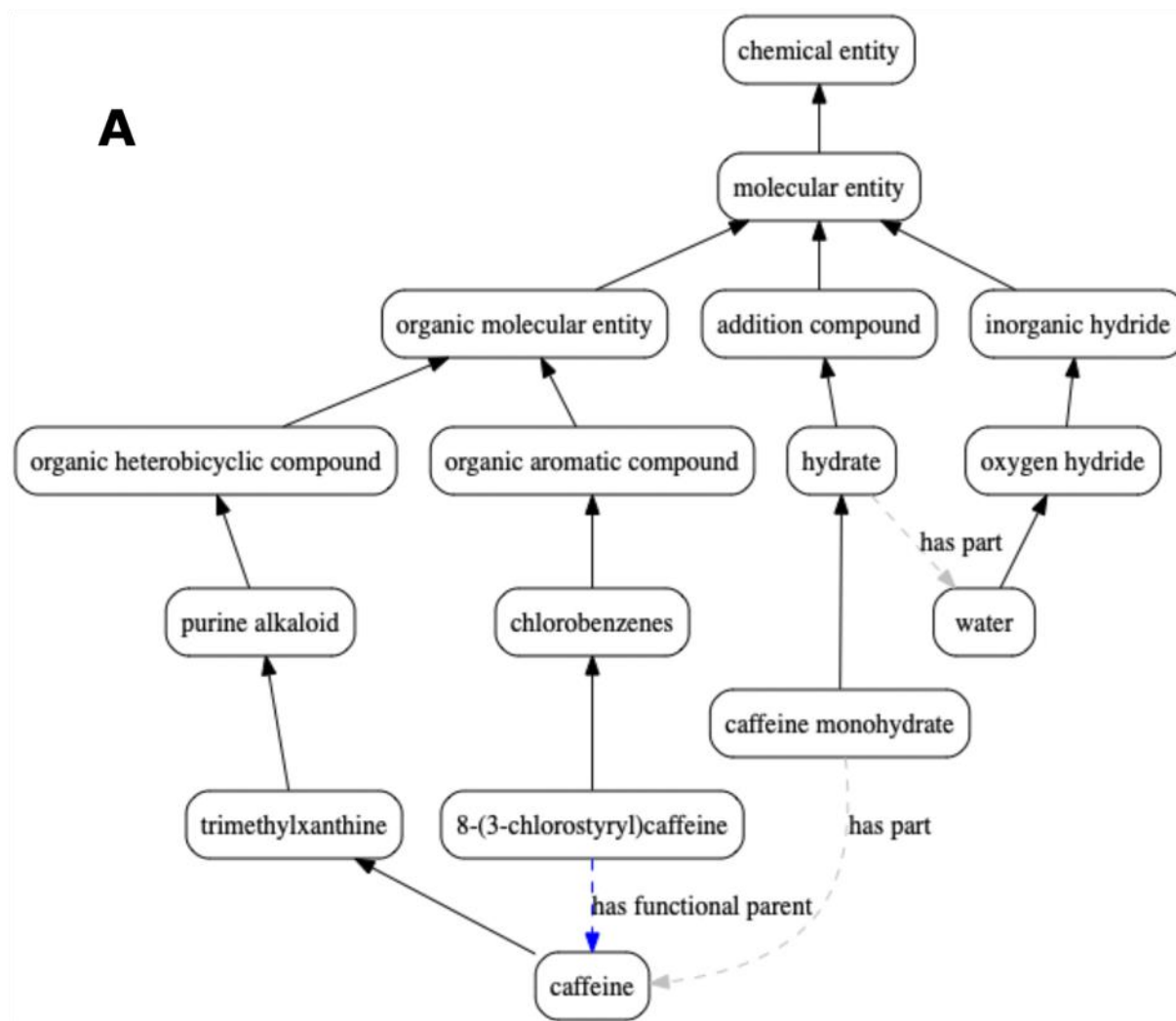
Automating Semantic Annotation in Chemistry

Predicting Chemical Ontology Classes for Chemical Structures

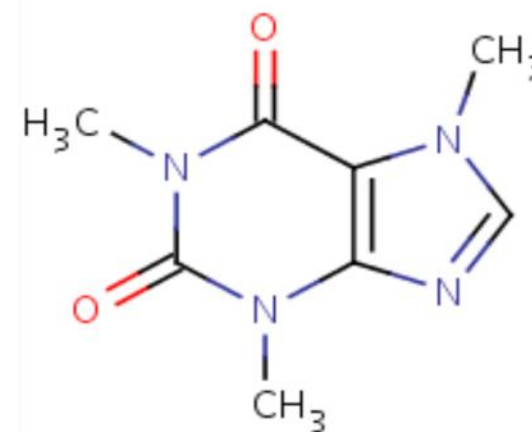
Metabolism is a key differentiator between health and disease, but data can be difficult to interpret



Chemical ontologies provide a link between chemical nomenclature, structures and annotations

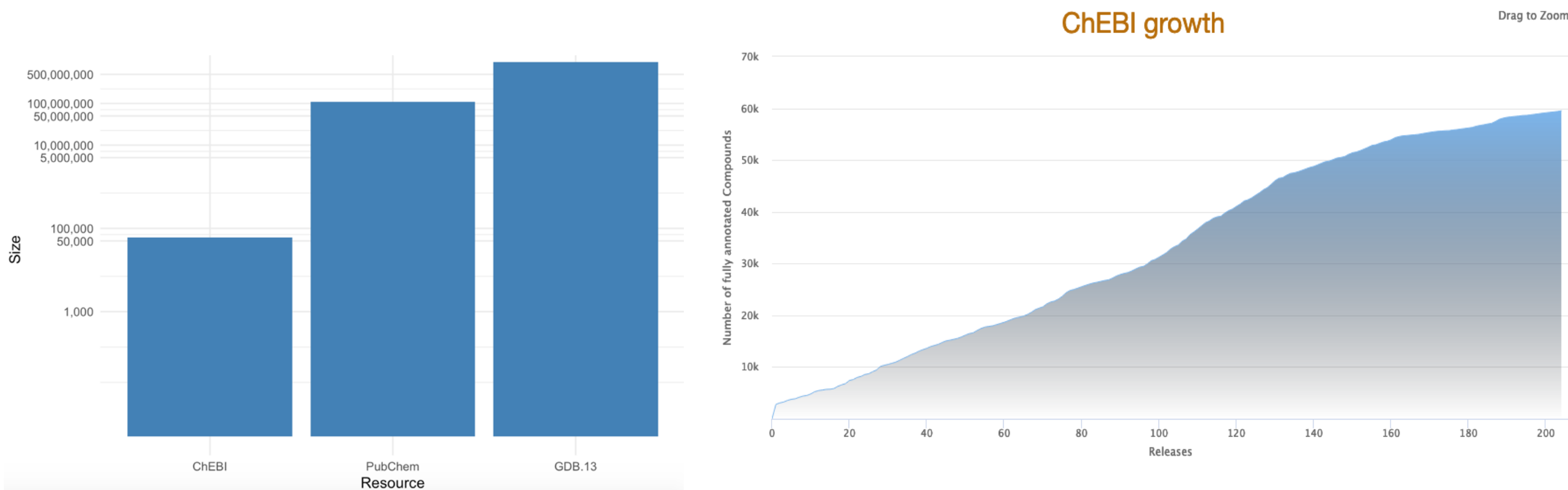


B



ChEBI Name	caffeine
ChEBI ID	CHEBI:27732
SMILES	Cn1cnc2n(C)c(=O)n(C)c(=O)c12
Formula	C ₈ H ₁₀ N ₄ O ₂
Net Charge	0
Average Mass	194.19076

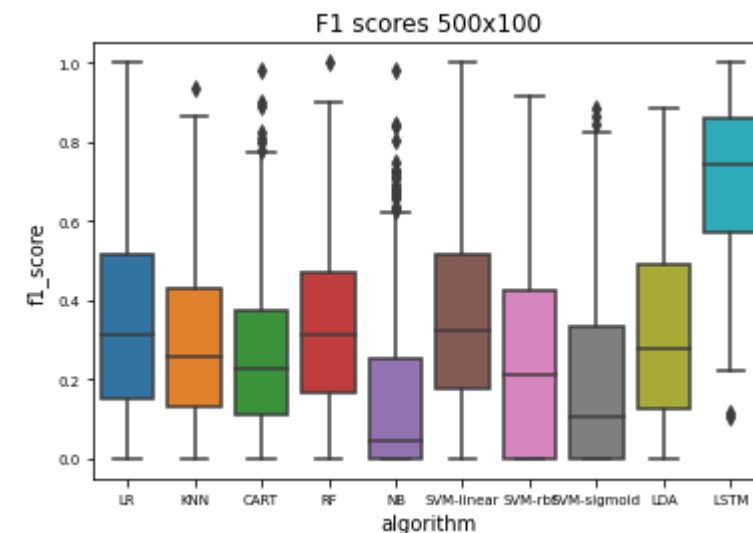
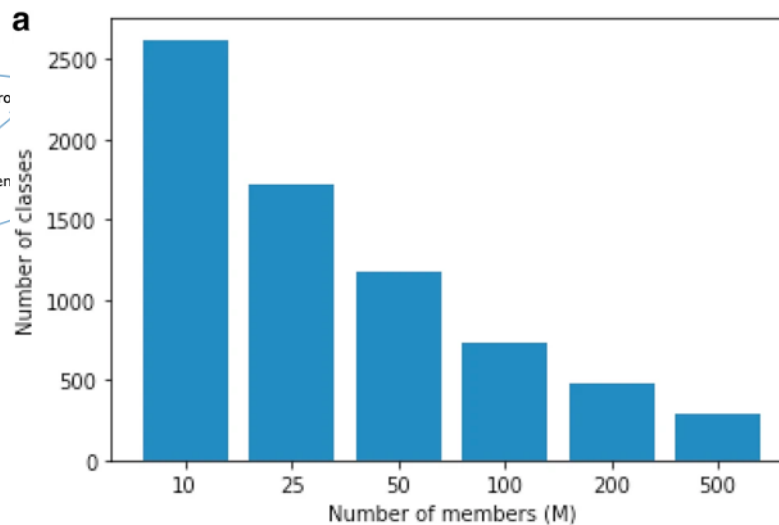
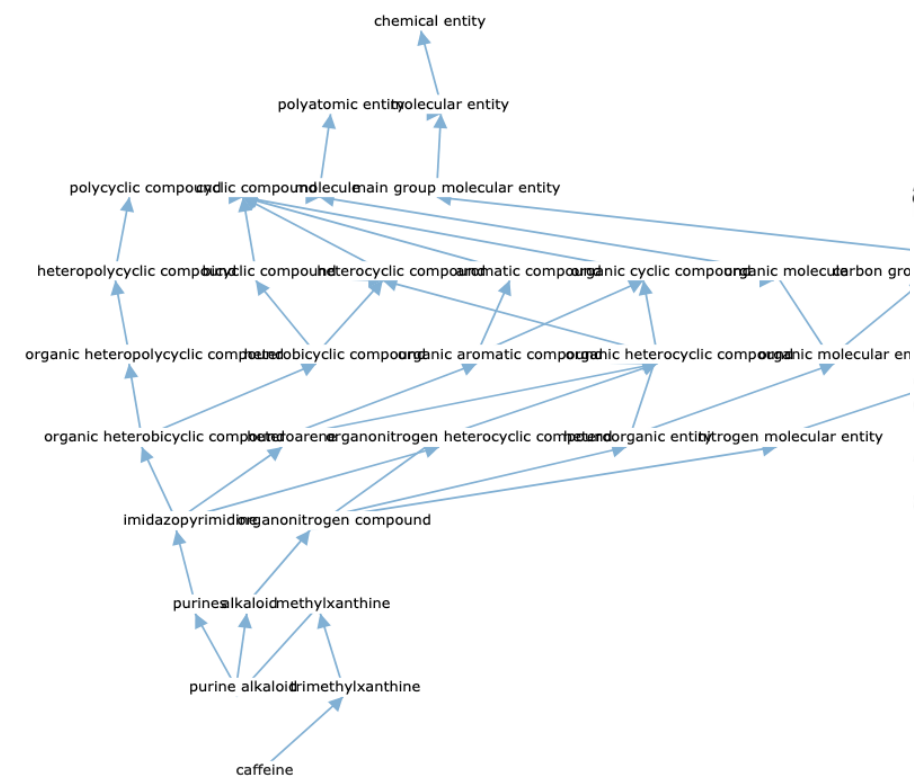
Manually maintained ontologies and knowledge resources have high quality, but poor scalability



Hastings et al. “**Learning Chemistry: Evaluating machine learning for the task of structure-based chemical ontology classification,**”
Journal of Cheminformatics 2021

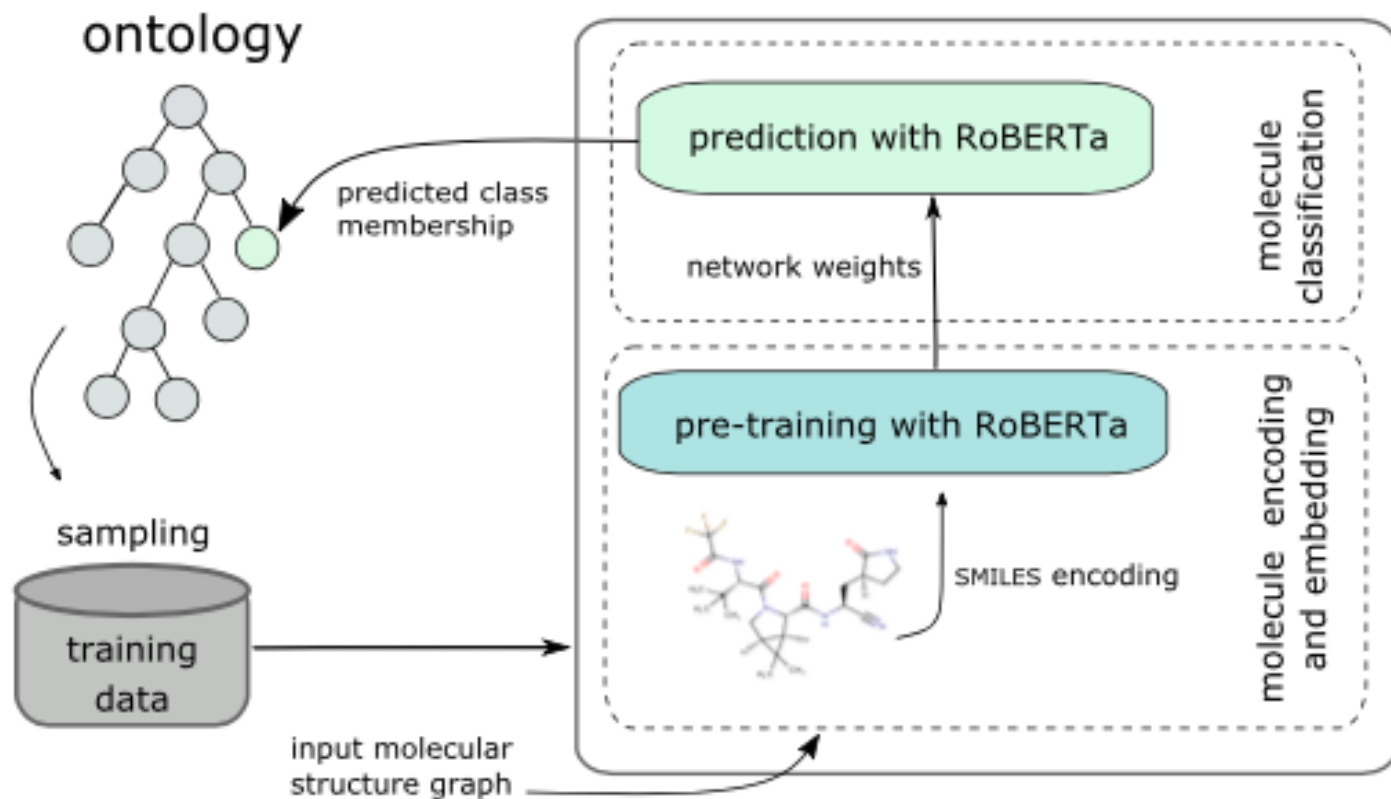
The shape of the ontology hinders learning, and requires a ‘deep’ neural network

“Extreme” multi-class, polyhierarchical, sparse, very unbalanced



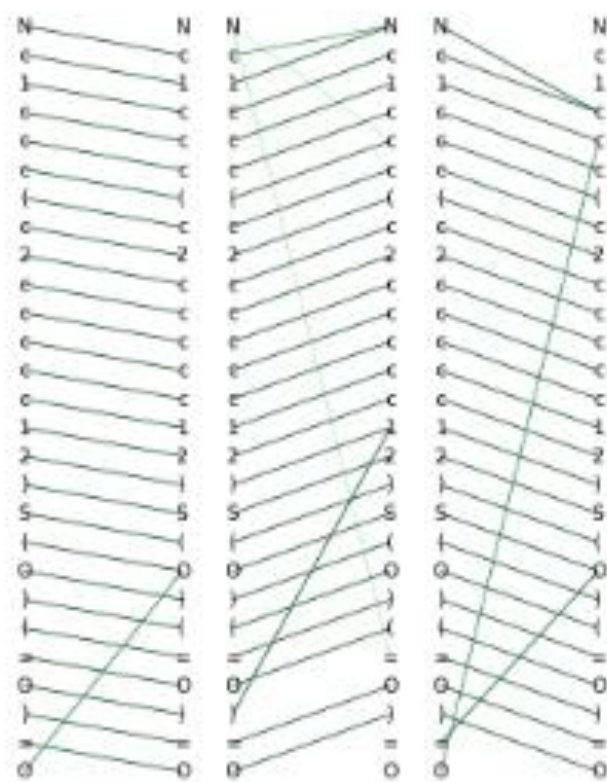
Hastings et al. “Learning Chemistry: Evaluating machine learning for the task of structure-based chemical ontology classification,” *Journal of Cheminformatics* 2021

Transformer-based models with pre-training give best performance for this task

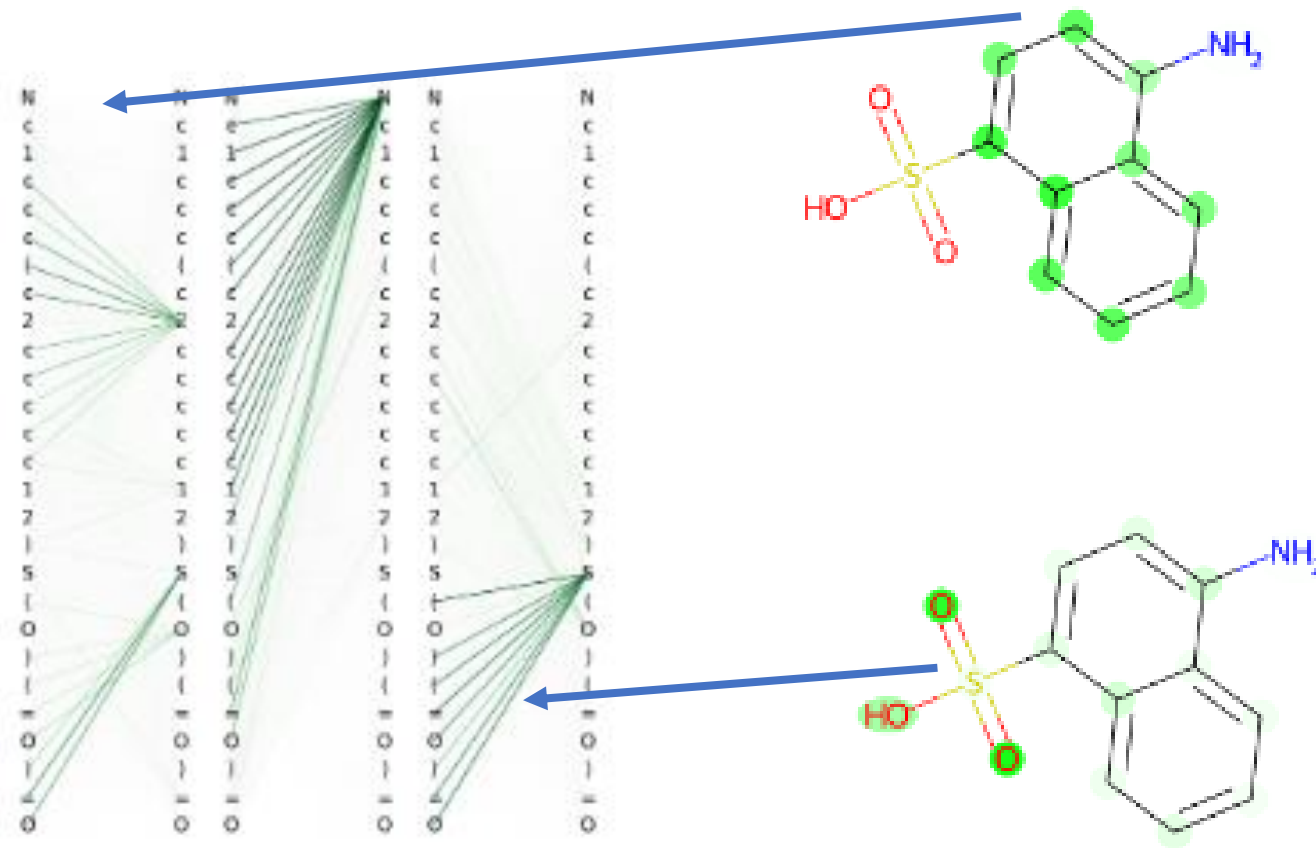


* now we are using Electra

The network trained on this semantic task has (somewhat) interpretable attention weights



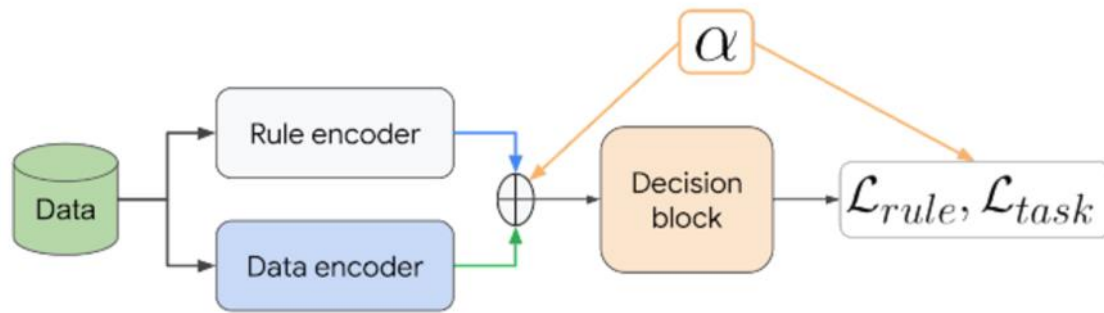
(a) Attention of naphthionic acid (CHEBI:38219) in layer 2, heads 1-3.



(b) Attention of naphthionic acid (CHEBI:38219) in layer 5, heads 4-6.

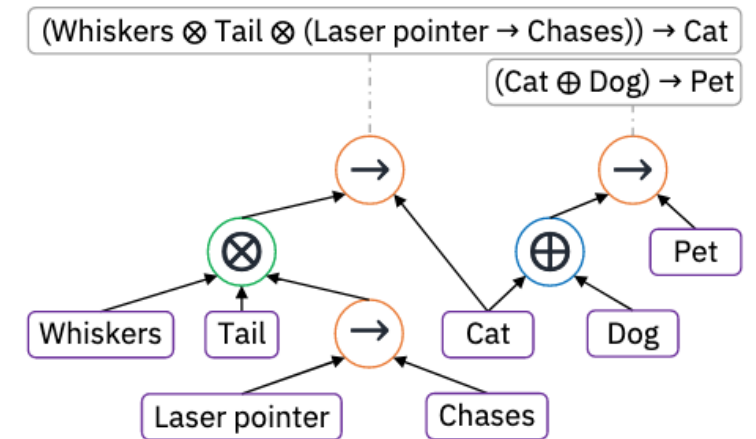
Logical rules can be integrated with DNNs to improve predictive performance

Our current approach: post-hoc correction based on **ontology-driven explicit disjoints**



DeepCTRL pairs a data encoder and rule encoder, which produce two latent representations, which are coupled with corresponding objectives. The control parameter α is adjustable at inference to control the relative weight of each encoder.

DeepCTRL – Seo et al. NeurIPS 2021 <https://arxiv.org/pdf/2106.07804.pdf>



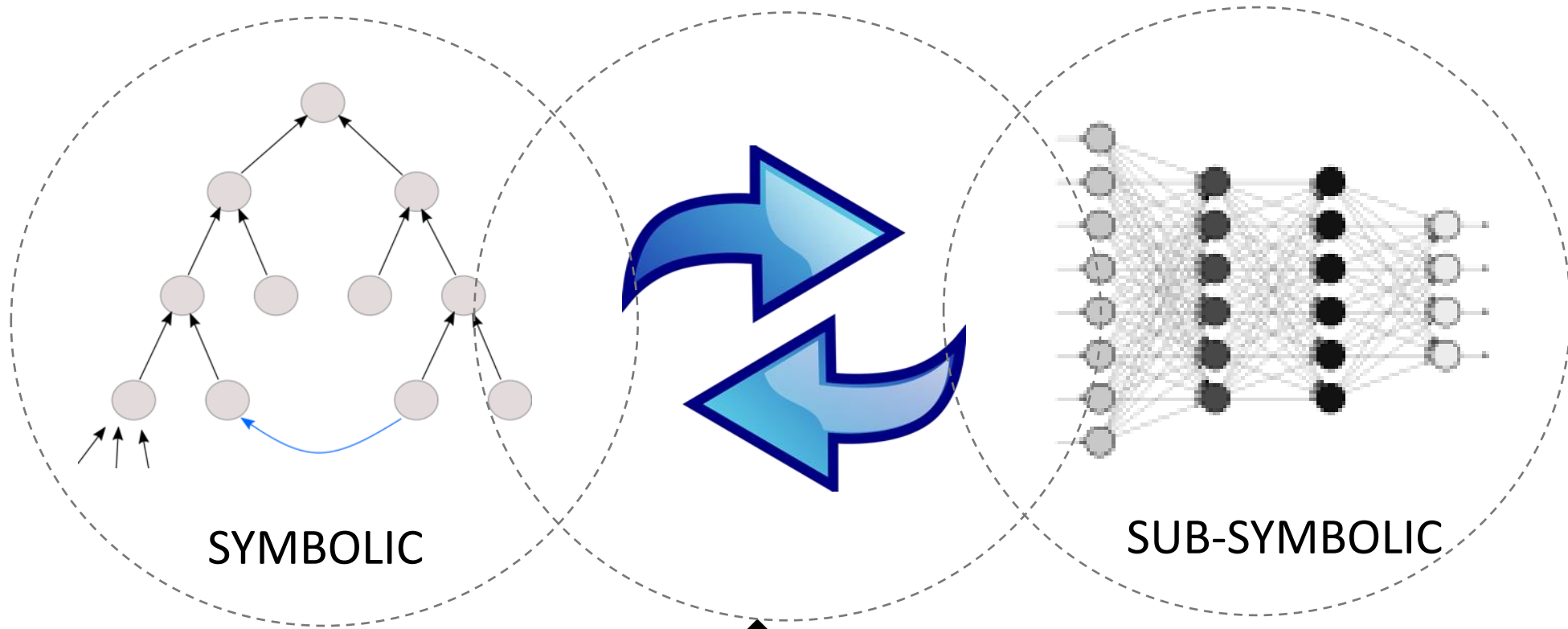
(a) The LNN graph structure reflects the formulae it represents.

Logical Neural Networks – Riegel et al. NeurIPS 2020 <https://arxiv.org/pdf/2006.13155.pdf>

Summary

- For problems that require ‘black box’ deep neural networks, consideration of semantics can nevertheless improve performance and interpretability
- Training a transformer-based model on a semantic prediction task leads to attention weights that correspond to semantic features
- Logical rules and constraints can be incorporated into network training via hybrid architectures with semantic objective functions

Conclusion: ‘best of both worlds’ architectures offer a good option for many problems in medicine



Rigid, True or False, Based on Logic
+ Provable outcomes, Transparent

Quantitative, Associative, Based on Statistics
+ Scalable, Robust to inconsistencies

Data-centric AI / Neuro-symbolic AI / Semantic AI / ‘Informed’ ML / ‘Broad’ AI

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Thank you! Questions?