

One Size Does Not Fit All: An Ensemble Approach Towards Information Extraction from Adverse Drug Event Narratives

Susmitha Wunnava^{1,*}, Xiao Qin^{1,*}, Tabassum Kakar^{1,*}, Xiangnan Kong¹, Elke A. Rundensteiner¹, Sanjay K. Sahoo² and Suranjan De²

¹Computer Science Department, Worcester Polytechnic Institute, Worcester, MA, U.S.A.

²Center for Drug Evaluation and Research, U.S. Food and Drug Administration, Silver Spring, MD, U.S.A.

Keywords: Pharmacovigilance, Adverse Drug Reaction, Class Imbalance, Ensemble Learning.

Abstract: Recognizing named entities in Adverse Drug Reactions narratives is a fundamental step towards extracting valuable patient information from unstructured text into a structured thus actionable format. This then unlocks advanced data analytics towards intelligent pharmacovigilance. Yet existing biomedical named entity recognition (NER) tools are limited in their ability to identify certain entity types from these domain-specific narratives and result in significant performance differences in terms of accuracy. To address these challenges, we propose an ensemble approach that integrates a rich variety of named entity recognizers to procure the final result. First, one critical problem faced by NER in the biomedical context is that the data is highly skewed. That is, only 1% of words belong to a certain medical entity type, such as, the reason for medication usage compared to all other non-reason words. We propose a balanced, under-sampled bagging strategy that is dependent on the imbalance level to overcome the class imbalance problem. Second, we present an ensemble of heterogeneous recognizers approach that leverages a novel ensemble combiner. Our experimental results show that for biomedical text datasets: (i) a balanced learning environment along with an Ensemble of Heterogeneous Classifiers constantly improves the performance over individual base learners and, (ii) stacking-based ensemble combiner methods outperform simple Majority Voting by 0.30 F-measure.

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Motivation and Background

Adverse Drug Reactions (ADRs) correspond to an unwanted and often extremely dangerous effect caused by the administration of drugs. ADRs unrevealed during the clinical trials are one of the leading causes of death worldwide (Lazarou et al., 1998). To oversee the safety and effectiveness of the drugs in the post marketing phase, surveillance systems such as FDA Adverse Event Reporting System (FAERS) monitor the ADR incidences submitted by *consumers, healthcare professionals* and *drug manufacturers*. These reports are reviewed by FDA staff to identify potential

drug safety concerns and, when necessary, to recommend appropriate actions to improve product safety.

In 2015, over 1.7 million of incidents are reported to FAERS and the number is growing making the drug review process more challenging (FDA, 2016). To effectively identify drug safety signals in a timely manner from the exploding amount of reports with limited human resources, the reviewing processes are enhanced by advanced data mining and visualization technologies (Wilson et al., 2004; Feng et al., 2013; Sakaeda et al., 2013). However, most of these technologies rely on information organized in structured format where the unstructured text has to be first processed and converted into structured information.

Although the original report has structured fields, the unstructured narratives in the MedWatch form used for reporting an adverse event (Illustrated in Fig. 2) often contain information that is left blank in the structured fields. More importantly, these narratives are rich in detailed information regarding the adverse event as shown in Fig.1. Automatically extracting information from the unstructured ADR report narrati-

*Susmitha Wunnava is thankful to the Seeds of STEM and Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education for supporting her PhD studies via the grant R305A150571. Xiao and Tabassum are grateful to Oak Ridge Associated Universities (ORAU) for granting them an ORISE Fellowship to conduct research with the U.S. Food and Drug Administration.

ves into structured format is critical for advanced analytics and vital for timely detection, assessment and prevention of future incidents of ADRs. In this study, we focus on the Named Entity Recognition (NER) – a fundamental task in this process, to classify the information categories in the narratives.

A major hurdle with biomedical narratives especially with processing medical reports is that the text is unstructured, comprised of different formats and styles depending upon the report source. First, a named entity phrase could be expressed as a combination of entity-specific medical terms as well as non-medical descriptive text. For instance, in the named entity phrase “*coronary artery disease related event prophylaxis*”, the words “related” and “event” are descriptive text while the rest are medical terms. Named entity phrases such as these can cause ambiguity even during the manual annotation process. Second, the narratives are predominately composed of large chunks of texts with sparse relevant phrases specific to the named entities.

Given above observations, it is a common protocol to engage multiple expert annotators specializing in different types of biomedical text and specific types of named entity to recognize and tag phrases and, then as a final step combine their expert opinions to come to an inter-expert agreement for determining the final output. As shown in our experiments, this problem persists when it comes to automatically recognizing entities through computational approaches. A named entity recognizer for biomedical text is usually designed for specific text type or entity type where a generic approach will almost certainly fail the domain specific task. Recently, many biomedical NER systems (Xu et al., 2010; Aronson, 2001; Uzuner et al., 2010a; Savova et al., 2010) and frameworks (Ferrucci and Lally, 2004) have been proposed customized for specific domain and entity type. To the best of our knowledge, there is no study today on how to automatically adapt and integrate the strength of a relevant and yet diverse set of named entity recognizers to tackle a new domain specific NER task.

1.2 Related Work

Existing approaches to biomedical NER can be categorized into rule-based, machine learning based and hybrid methods.

The rule-based methods leverage user-defined pattern matching rules supported with semantic knowledge resources. MedLEE (Friedman et al., 1994) and MedEx (Xu et al., 2010) are rule-based systems that use a medical knowledge base and a linguistic approach to extract relevant medical information from

clinical text. While rule-based systems perform well on identifying known patterns, they are limited in their ability to generalize. They thus fail to identify unknown words and patterns.

Machine learning based methods learn from features extracted from words and thus have a better generalization ability compared to rule-based methods. However, they require large annotated corpora for training. (Uzuner et al., 2009) demonstrated that machine learning approaches can outperform rule-based systems for assertion classification in clinical text. (Ramesh et al., 2014) developed a biomedical named entity tagger using Support Vector Machines (SVM) to extract medication and ADR information from FAERS narratives. (Ghiasvand, 2014) used Conditional Random Fields (CRF) to label diseases and disorders in clinical sentences. (Halgrim et al., 2011) used a Maximum Entropy model to extract relevant medical information. (Jagannatha and Yu, 2016) used Recurrent Neural Networks to extract medical events from Electronic Health Records (EHR) and showed that they significantly outperformed the CRF models.

Hybrid approaches that utilize both rule-based and machine learning methods have also began to be explored. (Doan and Xu, 2010) developed an SVM based method that utilizes the semantic tags of the words obtained from MedEx as features to recognize medication-related entities from discharge summaries.

1.3 Challenges of Entity Recognition using Machine Learning

The focus of our research is on supervised machine learning methods for biomedical NER and classification. In particular, we focus on a two-class, binary classification task to recognize and classify named entities. Despite its value and significance, biomedical NER and classification is a more challenging task due to the specific characteristics of the task. Two of the most critical challenges are:

1. *Lack of Positive Class Instances & Class Imbalance*: One problem in classifying named entities in biomedical text especially clinical text is that the data in the training dataset is predominately composed of non-medical text with only a small percentage of entity-specific medical text leading to highly skewed and imbalanced class distributions. Usually, the positive class, i.e., the class of interest that represents the named entity, has very few instances and is in a stark minority compared to the negative class (e.g., reason vs non-reason instances in the narratives, see Fig. 1).

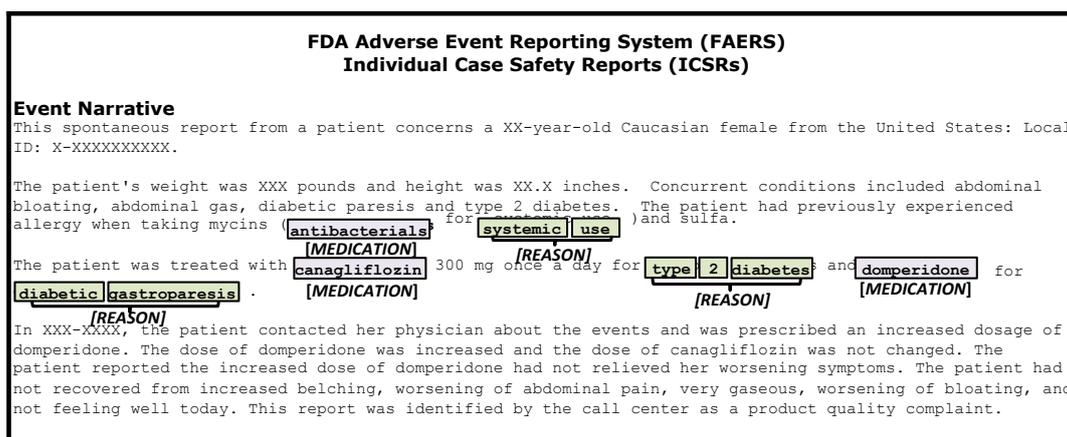


Figure 1: A sample FAERS report highlighting detailed information on the ADR incident within the narrative.

Research (Longadge and Dongre, 2013; Japkowicz and Stephen, 2002) has found that, learning on imbalanced training datasets can cause a significant deterioration in the performance of the supervised machine learning methods, particularly when classifying instances belonging to the under-represented class.

2. *Lack of a Single Best Performing Classification Method:* It is challenging to choose the appropriate learning algorithm to train and classify the new instances. Conventional approaches to biomedical NER tend to use a single machine learning method such as Support Vector Machines (SVM), Conditional Random Fields (CRF), Maximum Entropy (ME) (Bishop, 2006) classify named entities in the text. Each of these methods have some advantages over the others and differs significantly in their performances in classifying the named entities. (Uzuner et al., 2010a) shows that the teams that used different supervised machine learning methods on the same dataset obtained significantly different results from one another. Additionally, the performances of a single system across the various named entities is shown to differ. (Uzuner et al., 2010a) concluded that although the state-of-the-art NLP systems perform well in extracting some of the named entities (such as medication, dosages), while other entities (duration, reason for administration) have shown to be very challenging.

1.4 The Scope of this Work

The general problems of class imbalance and ensemble learning systems for classification have been studied in the literature (Galar et al., 2012). However, in the context of biomedical NER, a collective approach to deal with both the class imbalance problem and the

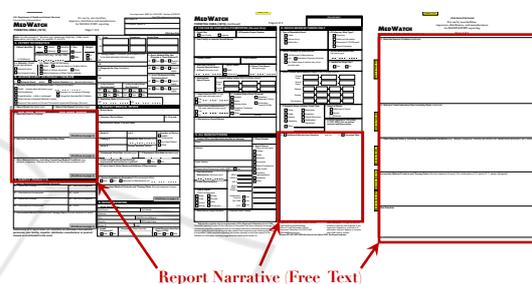


Figure 2: FAERS report – Medwatch 3500A.

limitations of any one individual classification method has not been studied extensively. In this paper, we thus design a novel methodology called Tiered Ensemble Learning System with Diversity (TELS-D) to address the above challenges in NER. TELS-D involves four core steps: 1) To address the class imbalance in medical data used for machine learning training, we create a balanced training environment by applying undersampling techniques. 2) We generate an ensemble of diverse classifiers by training a set of heterogeneous learning algorithms in this balanced training environment. 3) We combine the intermediate results generated by each of the classifiers in the ensemble to create a meta-training feature set. 4) We train a “learner-over-learners” meta-algorithm over the meta-level features to correctly learn and classify the named entities in the narratives.

To evaluate our model, we perform comprehensive experiments on biomedical reports datasets. Our experiments demonstrate that our proposed methodology TELS-D outperforms the individual learners in the ensemble. TELS-D achieves a higher accuracy of 0.52 F-measure compared to any of the individual classifiers with F-measure ranging from 0.22-0.33, in recognizing the relevant information categories from the narratives.

2 METHODOLOGY

2.1 The Data Set

The FDA FAERS Adverse Event Report Narratives. The FDA Adverse Event Reporting System (FAERS) is a database that contains information on adverse events and medication errors in the form of reports submitted to the FDA from various sources such as patients, medical professionals and drug manufacturers. A report contains both a structured section of content followed by some free-form text. Fig. 2 depicts an example of MedWatch report form supported by FAERS. As many studies indicate (Harpaz et al., 2014), the narrative can be either supplementary material to the structured fields or in many cases reporters tend to provide a detailed narrative in the unstructured format without taking the effort to fill in all the structured fields. Therefore, there is a need for identifying information related to the adverse event case from the free text in order to collect all relevant knowledge about the case in structured and thus a easy processable format.

In this study, we aim to identify one important piece of knowledge, namely the *reason* thought to be the cause of the administration of the medication as per the FAERS report narrative. While we work with 925 FAERS reports, they are unlabeled and not redacted and therefore not available to the general public due to patient’s privacy concerns. In addition, we also work with 16 redacted reports provided by the FDA as briefly described in Table 1.

Table 1: Statistics for the datasets.

	FAERS	i2b2
#Reports	16	242
#Sentences	678	8,050
#All Words	6,116	67,074
#Reason Words	NA	1,881

Data Set of Annotated Patient Discharge Summaries by Partners Healthcare. To assure reproducibility, we also work with the publicly available data set from the 2009 Medication Extraction Challenge from the Third i2b2 Workshop on Natural Language Processing Challenges for Clinical Records (Uzuner et al., 2010b; Uzuner et al., 2010a). The data set consists of annotated patient discharge summaries provided by Partners Healthcare. As part of the challenge, 696 reports were released for training out of which 17 reports were annotated by the i2b2 organizers. An additional 251 reports were released as the testing data set and were annotated by the participating teams. Annotated entities include *medication name, dosage, mode, frequency, duration, and reason*

for administration. We work with 242 annotated reports (9 from the annotated training set and 233 from the testing set) as described in Table 1.

In this work, we focus on identifying the *reason* entity for the administration of drug from these discharge summaries. First, the *reason* entity has routinely been pointed out as one of the important fields yet among the hardest to recognize and extract due to its diversity and often not well scoped vocabulary (Uzuner et al., 2010a; Halgrim et al., 2011). The original dataset features a heavy class imbalance with respect to the *reason* type. That is, tokens labeled as belonging to the *reason* class represent about 1% of all the tokens in these reports. Since the goal of this study is to develop an information extraction strategy that successfully identifies the *reason for administration* from the text, we focus on the narrative section of each report.

2.2 Data Pre-Processing

Data pre-processing is vital for converting the raw textual data into a processable format suitable for the natural language processing. We use following steps to pre-process each report in the corpus:

1. *Sentence Segmentation:* Each report is split into sentences to decompose the structure.
2. *Word Tokenization:* Each sentence is split into tokens (words) as this is our unit of processing.
3. *Punctuation Removal:* All tokens that represent punctuations are removed.

2.3 Feature Extraction

A rich set of features are needed for machine learning to learn the meaning of tokens. For each word token obtained from the preprocessing module we generate the following feature sets:

1. *Word Features:* The token is converted into a bag-of-words representation based on the vocabulary of the entire corpus. To generate the vocabulary, words in the corpus are converted to lowercase and stemmed using the NLTK Porter Stemmer (Bird et al., 2009).
2. *Syntactic Features:* A constituency parse tree is created using Charniak-Johnson parser (Charniak and Johnson, 2005). Each token is tagged with its respective parts-of-speech (POS) and lexical categories.
3. *Semantic Features:* Semantic categories of the word are then obtained through lexicon lookup from medication lexicons, side effect lexicons (such as SIDER) (Kuhn et al., 2015) as well as UMLS Metamap (Aronson, 2001).

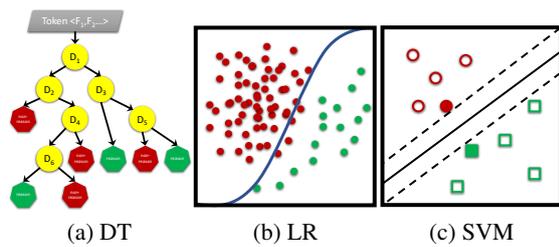


Figure 3: Illustration of machine learning models.

4. *Context Features*: Words adjacent to the token in the narrative provide the context in which the token is actually used. This feature is helpful to differentiate when a token falls into one of two different sections of a report and thus labeled differently. A context window size five words i.e., two words before and two words after the token are coded using bag-of-words representation. A boolean value is a binary flag that indicates whether this token occurs before or after certain so called “trigger words”. We identify trigger words that may indicate the presence of the named entity *reason*.

5. *Morphological*: The suffix and prefix of up to 3 characters within this word. For example: 1) words with prefix of “dys” indicate something is abnormal, such as dyspnea, 2) words with a suffix of “ing” may indicate a condition or symptom, such as bloating.

6. *Orthographic*: Boolean values are used to indicate if this word contains capital letters, digits, special characters, etc.

2.4 Base Machine Learning Models

After each token has been characterized by descriptive features by the above step, the tokens in the form of feature vector along with their associated label indicating its class type (*reason* or *non-reason*) are then used to train the models.

Different machine learning models have their own set of assumptions and way of modeling the data, resulting in its pros and cons in the classification task. In our study, we assume that different models are able to capture different aspects of the data and having them compliment each other in an assembly fashion will achieve better accuracy than any of them working individually. We build our base classifiers using multiple popular machine learning models, namely, Decision Tree (DT), Logistic Regression (LR) and Support Vector Machine (SVM) (Alpaydin, 2014) (Illustrated in Fig. 3).

2.5 Ensemble of Classifiers

Ensemble of classifiers is a group of diverse classifiers whose classification recommendations are aggregated to achieve more accurate classification (Alpaydin, 2014; Polikar, 2009). The goal of an ensemble system is to combine the results of many diverse classifiers into a single consensus result that outperforms any one of the individual classifiers by reducing their generalization error and thus their misclassification rate. The generalization error of the ensemble system tends to be lower than that of the individual classifiers when there is sufficient diversity in the ensemble where the base learners have different prediction accuracy on different instances. This makes the assumption that the base learners are better performing than random guessing. They have an accuracy greater than 50% (Tan et al., 2006).

2.5.1 Ensemble Generation: Model Diversity

1. Heterogeneous Learning Methods: One approach to generating a diverse set of classifiers is to train different learning methods on the same training set. If the performance of each of these methods varies significantly, then the results obtained are diverse in nature. Then to overcome the limitations of each learning algorithm while taking advantage of their respective strengths is to combine the classifiers into an ensemble of classifiers. In this study, we thus follow this methodology and create an ensemble of models obtained with the SVM, LR and DT learning methods. Our experiments (see Sec.3.8) confirm that an ensemble of these base classifiers outperforms any one of them.

2. Heterogeneous Training Datasets: Another common approach to generating a diverse set of classifiers is to create different subsets of the original training dataset and then to train a single learning method on each of the subsets from the training data set. Bagging (Breiman, 1996) and Boosting (Schapire, 1990) are examples of algorithms that tackle the generation of collection of classifiers by sub-setting the original dataset. However, given that our data set suffers from a heavy class imbalance problem and further the data size in terms of relevant tokens is limited, boosting or bagging, which further reduce the data to smaller subsets of data, are not suitable design options.

2.5.2 Ensemble Combination: Model Assembly

The combination method that combines the results of the diverse learning methods in the ensemble to obtain one aggregated consensus result can be achieved through different techniques. The most com-

monly used technique is Majority Voting (MV), that is, selecting as result the class that receives the highest votes from all the individual learning methods by simple counting. It can be simple or weighted voting where base learners are given different weights. In either case, the average is taken.

Another technique is Stacked Generalization (Wolpert, 1992) or in short Stacking, which is a *learning over learners* method to procure the final result. Stacking is a meta-learning algorithm where the class predictions from the base learners are passed as input data to the meta-algorithm to learn what the correct output is, given the prediction patterns of the base learner. In our study, we experiment with both Majority Voting and Stacking techniques as model combiners. Ultimately, we demonstrate that Stacking method outperforms Majority Voting and therefore is a promising strategy to adopt for combining the models into an ensemble.

2.6 Strategies for Addressing the Class Imbalance Problem

In biomedical named entity recognition tasks, often the training datasets used are very skewed, that is, they suffer from a heavy class imbalance (Nguyen and Patrick, 2016). Class imbalance occurs when one of the two classes, usually the class of interest, the positive class is in stark minority and the negative class is in majority. The performance of machine learning methods trained over such class-imbalanced datasets tend to be greatly affected by such class imbalance. In particular, this tends to result in the minority class not being well learned and hence misclassified most of the time. Class imbalance can influence the performance of the ML method by favoring the majority negative class. Approaches to deal with class-imbalanced datasets are described next.

2.6.1 Balancing with Class Weights

One common method is to balance the class weights within the classifier, thereby giving more importance (or weight) to the errors of the minority class. Higher class-weight puts more emphasis on the minority class. That is, it penalizes the model for making classification mistakes on instances of the minority class during training. These penalties bias the model to pay more attention to the minority class.

Usually, in the case of balanced datasets both classes are given an equal weight of one. In imbalanced datasets however, the class weights can be balanced by performing a grid search with different class weight combinations to find the optimal class weight

combinations. These weights are then passed to the learning method to bias the decision making process of the learning method.

2.6.2 Balancing with Class Instances

Another approach to minimize the effect of class imbalance is to re-sample the original training dataset to create a new modified training dataset that has a balanced class distribution. Random over-sampling and random under-sampling are both common re-sampling techniques (Chawla, 2009). In both cases, the objective is to decrease the effect of the highly skewed class distribution by creating a balance between the number of majority and minority class instances. This then enables the classifier to give equal importance to both classes during the training phase.

However, both techniques have limitations. While with under-sampling there is a possibility of throwing away important instances, with over-sampling we tend to increase the size of the training dataset. In this study, since our training dataset is already large and high dimensional, we choose to re-sample the dataset with the random under-sampling technique.

2.6.3 Balancing with Classifier Ensembles

Yet another approach to deal with class imbalance is to use ensemble methods to generate a classifier ensemble that can create a balanced learning environment for the learning algorithm (Błaszczyński et al., 2013). Under-Bagging (Barandela et al., 2003) and Over-Bagging (Wang and Yao, 2009) are examples of ensemble techniques, that deal with class imbalance in the learning phase through a combination of data re-sampling and bagging approaches, known as “balanced bagging”.

To the best of our knowledge, with the above existing methods, the diversity in the ensemble is usually generated through training one homogeneous learning algorithm on all balanced subsets of the training data. The results from the classifier ensemble are aggregated using the Majority Voting combination method. In this study, although we will employ the basic idea of “balanced bagging”, we will also extend it to train a diverse set of heterogeneous learning algorithms in parallel.

2.7 Tiered Ensemble Learning System with Diversity

In this study, to address the two challenges of (1) class imbalance and (2) the lack of a single best performing method, we propose a novel integrated approach to

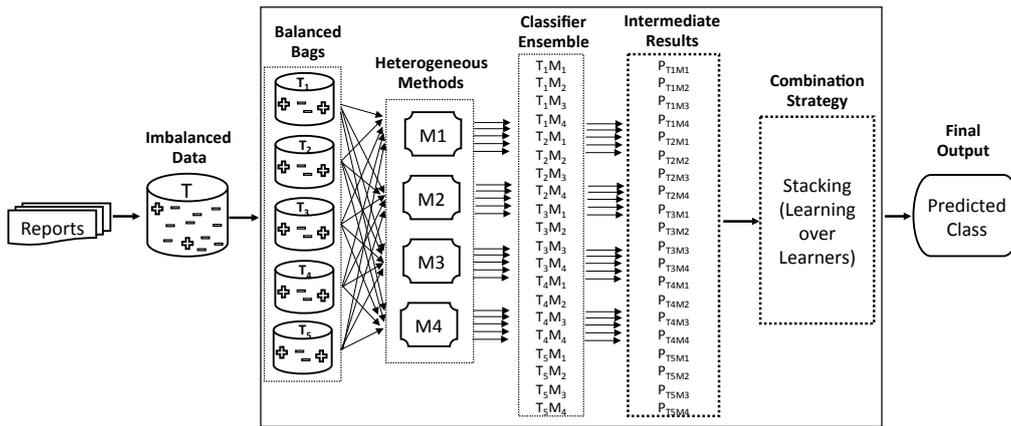


Figure 4: TELS-D tiered ensemble learning system with diversity.

create a balanced learning environment. This strategy combines balanced resampling techniques with an ensemble of heterogeneous classifiers into one methodology. Our approach called **Tiered Ensemble Learning System with Diversity (TELS-D)**, effectively deals with the class imbalance problem in the data through a balanced under-sampled bagging approach, while also addressing the limitations of using a single learning method by training multiple heterogeneous learning methods on the under-sampled subsets in parallel.

The imbalance level in a dataset is defined as the ratio of the number of majority negative class instances to the number of minority positive class instances (Eq.1). It indicates how many times the majority class is greater than the minority class.

$$\text{Imbalance Level (IM)} = \frac{\# \text{ Negative class tokens}}{\# \text{ Positive class tokens}} \quad (1)$$

Based on the imbalance level of a dataset, we create multiple smaller subsets of the original dataset that each individually exhibit a balanced class distribution. That is, each smaller balanced subset takes *all* of the available positive class instances while working with only an equal number of negative class instances, i.e., a subset of the available negative class instances. The purpose here is to learn the features inherent in the positive class (the class of interest) without getting overwhelmed by the majority negative class instances and their typical characteristics. The number of subsets to form is determined by the imbalance level in the dataset. For example, in Fig. 4, the negative class is five times larger than the positive class. Hence, the original unbalanced training dataset (DB) is split into five smaller balanced subsets henceforth called “balanced bags” (BB) while ensuring that we do not discard any instances from either classes, i.e., $\cap_{i=1}^5 \text{BB} \neq \emptyset$ and $\cup_{i=1}^5 \text{BB} = \text{DB}$

For example, if the imbalance level in the dataset is N , then we create N ($N > 1$) balanced training sets, BB. If we have M ($M > 1$) base learning methods, we train $T = N \times M$ base learners in the first layer of the ensemble. So, instead of creating an ensemble of just N diverse models (Sec. 2.5.1-2) or just M diverse models (Sec. 2.5.1-1), with our proposed TELS-D strategy we create a collection of T diverse models.

The advantage of TELS-D approach is that we generate more diversity in the ensemble while balancing the class distribution. With more diverse base learners, each one of the T base classifiers will make different errors on different instances. We then combine the results from these T diverse base learners to form an input for the second layer stacking meta-algorithm. This gives the meta-learner an opportunity to learn the patterns to predict the correct class - thereby reducing the total error.

2.8 Evaluation Criteria

We adopt the criteria commonly used for evaluating classification methods, but now adapt them to apply to the token-granularity level. That is, we measure both the *Precision* and *Recall* as described below to determine whether or not the learning models sufficiently capture the classifications of the positive class.

$$\text{Precision (P)} = \frac{\# \text{ Correctly predicted positive tokens}}{\# \text{ Total predicted positive tokens}} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Recall (R)} = \frac{\# \text{ Correctly predicted positive tokens}}{\# \text{ Total real positive tokens}} \quad (3)$$

Our goal is to achieve high precision (lesser false positives) and high recall (more true positives). Thus, *F-measure*, defined below, gives a balance between

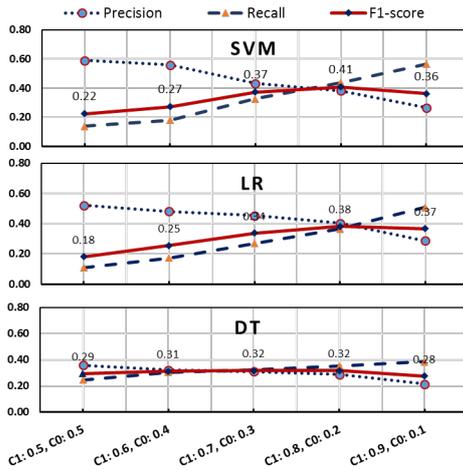


Figure 5: Grid search results for balancing class weight on target Reason) in i2b2 dataset.

both precision and recall measures, thereby balancing the accuracy of both positive and negative predictions. Hence, F-measure is a commonly accepted measure to evaluate the performance of learning methods.

$$\text{F-measure (F1)} = \frac{2(P \times R)}{(P + R)} \quad (4)$$

3 RESULTS

3.1 Experimental Setup

Data Sets. In this study, to build and evaluate our classification approaches we have used the data set of annotated patient discharge summaries from i2b2 (Sec.2.1) that has been augmented with ground truth labels which are needed for supervised machine learning strategies. Holdout test set approach is adopted with a 90/10 split. The i2b2 corpus, the 242 reports used in this study (Table 1) are split accordingly where 90% of the reports (217 reports) are randomly selected for training and building our proposed model and the remaining 10% (25 reports) are used as the holdout for subsequent testing to evaluate the effectiveness of our methods. In this section we discuss our empirical results on this holdout test set. Additionally, we have experimented with the 16 FAERS reports as a second test set (Table 1). Due to lack of ground truth labels for these FAERS reports, we manually evaluated the results and present a case study as part of our results discussion.

Parameter Tuning. Base learners such as SVM and LR must be tuned first and parameters are used to do so. Therefore, we have used SVM with a linear ker-

nel function and LR with a c -value of 1.0. These values were the best parameters we obtained after testing with c -values (0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 1, 10) using 10-fold cross-validation (Kohavi et al., 1995). The c -value controls the trade off between model complexity and misclassified instances. We have used decision tree with *best* split at each node strategy and *gini* to measure the quality of the split (Tan et al., 2006). For selecting the optimal class_weight setting, we performed a systematic grid search with a set of class weights for each class using 10-fold cross-validation. The effect of balancing different *class_weight* values on individual learning methods (SVM/LR/DT) is depicted in Fig.5. This experiment shows that for the three base learners, the precision and recall are balanced with a higher F-Measure at a *class weight* $\{C1 : 0.8, C0 : 0.2\}$ setting, where C1 denotes the class *reason* and C0 denotes the class *non-reason*. We thus set the *class weight* to $\{C1 : 0.8, C0 : 0.2\}$ throughout the rest of our experiments where we balance the class weights within the learning methods.

3.2 Classification with Unbalanced Class Distribution

This experiment is conducted to obtain a baseline to compare the different approaches explained in Sec.2.6. The individual base learners are trained on the original training set (DB) without balancing the class weights or instances (Fig.6 (a)) to see the effect of skewed class distribution.

In this experiment, the precision P is much higher than the recall R for all base learners especially for SVM (P:0.68/ R:0.33) and LR (P:0.70/ R:0.31). High precision and low recall implies very few tokens were predicted as belonging to *reason* class, but most of them are correct predictions when compared against ground truth labels. This is expected due to the class imbalance, with the majority of the tokens being *non-reason* labels in the training phase. Thus the base classifiers are biased towards the *non-reason* class and tend to mis-classify most tokens in the minority *reason* class.

3.3 Balancing with Class Weights

This experiment is conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of the strategy of balancing class weights to address the data imbalance problem. The *class weight* parameter is set to $\{C1 : 0.8, C0 : 0.2\}$ in the individual base learners. The base learners are then trained on the original training set (DB) (Fig.6 (b)).

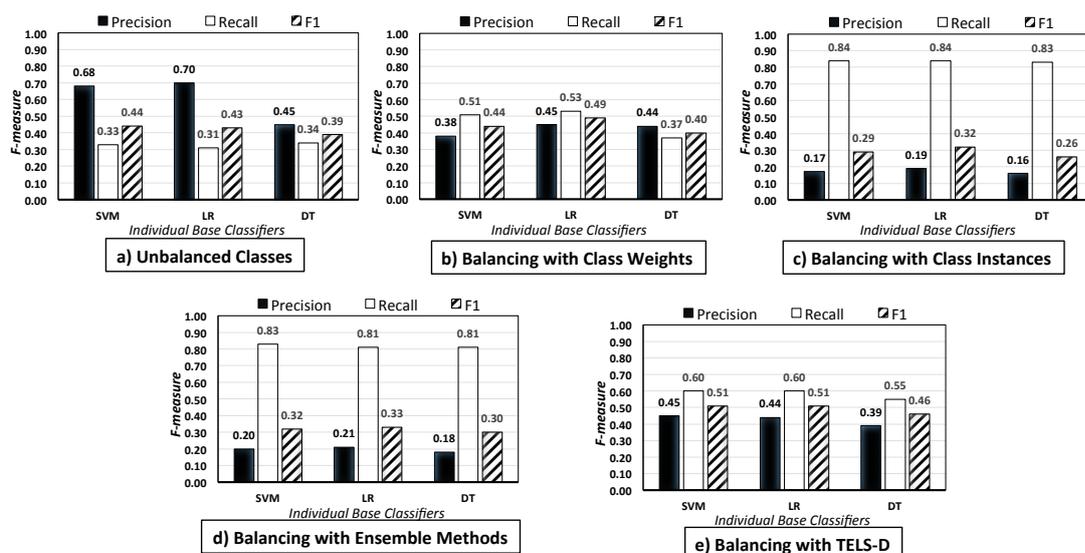


Figure 6: The precision, recall and F1-score of different classification strategies.

In this experiment, the recall is now higher than the precision for two base learners, SVM (P:0.38/ R:0.51) and LR (P:0.45/ R:0.53). High recall and low precision implies many tokens were predicted as belonging to *reason* class. However, most of them are incorrect predictions when compared against ground truth labels. This is expected because, in order to deal with class imbalance during the training phase, we had set the class weights within the base learners such that the minority *reason* class is given more weight. Hence this tips the classifier learning bias towards the minority *reason* class. In contrast to the Unbalanced experimental results (Sec.3.2), this now had led to more of the majority *non-reason* class tokens being misclassified as *reason* class. The evaluation metrics of DT (P:0.44/ R:0.37/ F1:0.40) are similar to the unbalanced experimental results (Sec.3.2).

3.4 Balancing with Class Instances

The next experiment evaluates the effect of balancing class instances to address the class imbalance problem. Balancing class instances is achieved by performing random under-sampling on the original training dataset (DB) to create a single balanced subset of the training data to be utilized for training. The resulting balanced subset now has an equal number of positive *reason* and negative *non-reason* class instances (Fig.6 (c)).

In this experiment, the recall is much higher than precision for all base learners, SVM (P:0.17/ R:0.84), LR (P:0.19/ R:0.84) and DT (P:0.16/ R:0.83). In fact, the precision is rather low. This indicates that most of the tokens were predicted as belonging to the *reason*

class, when in actuality a majority of them belongs to the *non-reason* class. This also explains the very high recall, where most of the ground truth labels were also included in the total predictions. This can be explained by the fact that during under-sampling only a random subset of negative class *non-reason* instances were included in the balanced subset. Hence we discarded many potentially useful instances that are important for learning the *reason* class. In this scenario, the base learners cannot learn the predominant characteristics of the negative class well and hence tend to mis-classify those instances more often.

3.5 Balancing with Classifier Ensembles

This experiment evaluates the effect of balancing with ensemble of homogeneous classifiers. Balancing with Ensemble of Homogeneous Classifiers is achieved by performing Under-Bagging strategy on the original training dataset (DB) to create multiple under-sampled subsets of the training data (Sec. 2.6.3). Then we train each base learner on all of these subsets. Lastly, we combine them with Majority Voting (Fig.6 (d)).

In this experiment, the recall is much higher than the precision for all base learners, SVM (P:0.20/ R:0.83), LR (P:0.21/ R:0.81) and DT (P:0.18/ R:0.81). These results are similar to the experimental results of Balancing with Class Instances (Sec.3.4). Although, both approaches are similar in the creation of a balanced subset, this current approach uses multiple balanced subsets to counter the limitations of using a single balanced subset (i.e. eliminating potentially important negative class instances). However,

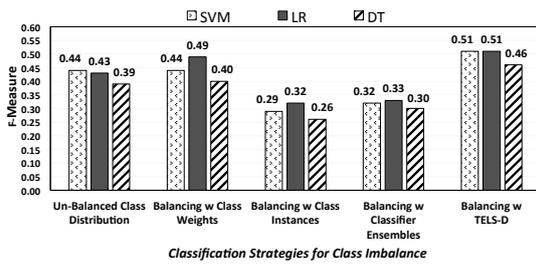


Figure 7: Comparison of classification strategies for class imbalance - F-measures of base classifiers.

the Under-Bagging approach uses majority voting to aggregate the results obtained from training the base classifiers on these subsets. We see (Fig.6 (c)) that the precision on a single subset is very low. So even if we take a majority vote of N such classifiers whose individual base results are erroneous, the final prediction tends to be also incorrect.

3.6 Balancing with TELS-D

Our proposed approach, TELS-D is a multi-layer framework (Sec. 2.7). The first layer in TELS-D creates a balanced learning environment to handle class imbalance in the training dataset.

This experiment evaluates the first layer in TELS-D. Balancing is achieved by creating multiple balanced subsets (BB) of the original training data (DB) based on the imbalanced level (IM) in the training set. We train each base learner on the balanced subsets (BB) and combine them with Stacking, using another meta-algorithm (Logistic Regression). In contrast to Under-Bagging which uses simple majority voting, TELS-D employs stacking method to combine the results from the base learners and make the final predictions (Fig.6 (e)).

In this experiment, the recall is a little higher than precision for all base learners, SVM (P:0.45/ R:0.60), LR (P:0.44/ R:0.60) and, DT (P:0.39/ R:0.55). That is, although we have predicted many of the tokens correctly, some of the class predictions were incorrect when compared against ground truth labels. This small learning bias towards the minority *reason* class is expected because, during the training phase, we give priority to learning the minority *reason* class well by training on multiple subsets that have the same minority instances.

3.7 Comparing Classification Strategies for Class Imbalance

To compare our experimental results of different approaches for dealing with class imbalance, we evalu-

ate their performances on each individual base learners using the F-Measure metric. F-Measure gives a weighted average of the precision and recall scores. An improvement in the F-measure indicates an equilibrium point where we increase the number of correct class predictions thereby decreasing the number of incorrect class predictions. Fig. 7 shows that our proposed **TELS-D** approach is effective in solving the class imbalance problem with higher F-Measures on all three base learners (SVM_F-Measure:0.51/ LR_F-Measure:0.51/ DT_F-Measure:0.46) compared to other approaches that deal with class imbalance.

3.8 Ensemble Learning with TELS-D

The second layer in TELS-D is designed to create and combine an ensemble of heterogeneous classifiers to improve the accuracy over the individual base learners (Sec. 2.7). This experiment evaluates the second layer of TELS-D built on the output from the first layer. The predictions of the three base learners trained over all balanced subsets in the first layer are combined with Stacking using a meta-algorithm, in our case a simple linear algorithm like Logistic Regression (LR), in the second layer.

Fig. 8 shows F-Measure of: 1) Individual base classifiers generated by training the three base learners on all balanced subsets, 2) Ensemble combined with majority voting (for comparison only) and, 3) Ensemble combined with Stacking. The F-measures of individual base classifiers were ranging from 0.28-0.33, Ensemble with Majority voting is 0.22 whereas the F-measure of the ensemble with stacking is 0.52. This experiment demonstrates the power of an ensemble learning system with a learning-over-learners combiner called meta-algorithm in the final step. The meta-algorithm learns from the errors generated by the base classifiers to output the correct result. Majority voting on the other hand is under performing due to the fact that, with simple counting of votes, the errors of the base classifiers only add up and thus make the final result more erroneous.

We have compared our results with an existing study (Doan and Xu, 2010) conducted on the same i2b2 test dataset. (Doan and Xu, 2010) demonstrated with MedEx only and SVM-based NER including MedEx. The results showed that for recognizing the *reason* entity from the narratives, the rule-based MedEx system achieved a F-measure of 0.43 while the SVM combined with MedEx achieved 0.48. Our results from TELS-D approach show an improvement over both MedEx and SVM including MedEx with the F-measure of 0.52.

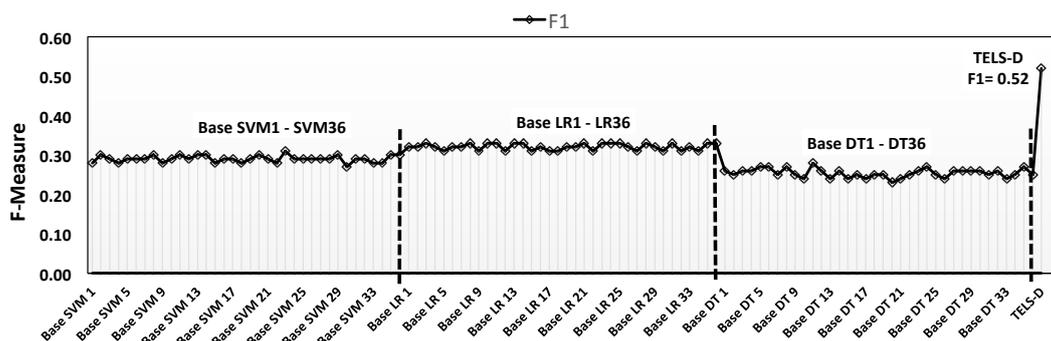


Figure 8: Evaluation of tiered ensemble learning system with diversity (TELS-D).

Table 2: FAERS Examples of Reason class labels predicted by TELS-D.

Example	Sentence from the FAERS Narrative	True Positive (TP)	False Positive (FP)	False Negative (FN)
1)	The patient was treated with canagliflozin for <i>type 2 diabetes</i> and domperidone for <i>diabetic gastroparesis</i>	type, diabetes, diabetic, gastroparesis		2
2)	The patient had previously experienced allergy when taking mycins (antibacterials for <i>systemic use</i>)	systemic		use
3)	Concurrent conditions abdominal pain, diabetic paresis.		abdominal, pain, diabetic	

3.9 Analysis of TELS-D Results on FAERS Reports

Due to lack of ground truth labels for FAERS reports, we manually reviewed and evaluated the TELS-D results on few of the 16 FAERS reports. An analysis of errors on one of the FAERS narrative is discussed below (See Table 2).

- True Positives: True Positives (TP) are the correctly predicted tokens. In the Table 2, we can observe that for examples 1 and 2 all the tokens labeled as *reason* class have been accurately predicted as true positives by our TELS-D. Most of the ground truth labeled words in these sentences are purely medical text and follow a certain sentence structure.
- False Positives: False positives (FP), i.e., incorrectly predicted as *reason* class, mostly occurred when the token was not associated with a medication. For instance, example 3 shows that although the incorrectly predicted token is all medical text, it was not associated with a medication name in the same sentence. Hence it cannot be an indication for taking a medication and is not predicted as *reason*. Cases such as these are very difficult to classify and indicate a need for additional features to learn such patterns in the text.
- False Negatives: Our evaluation showed that false negatives, i.e., incorrectly predicted as non-reason

class, occurred primarily due to the mixture of medical and non-medical words. Most of the time, we have noticed that these false negative tokens are embedded or were a part of the true positive tokens. For instance, in examples 1 and 2, the words “2”, “use” are all commonly used regular text.

4 DISCUSSION

Lack of Annotated FAERS Dataset. First, FAERS narratives cannot be published without data redaction because of privacy concerns. Redaction of these reports requires a huge amount of cautious efforts to make sure no privacy threatening information remains in the publishable text. Since the redaction process requires perfect *recall* with utmost *precision*, it is almost impossible to be accomplished automatically without significant manual intervention. Therefore, creating a large corpus of redacted FAERS narratives is challenging in itself. Second, annotating FAERS narrative requires deep domain knowledge and reviewing experiences. Deployable supervised machine learning models used for such task must be trained on larger datasets annotated by FDA’s own safety reviewers whose annotating strategy reflects the reviewing guidelines. However, due to limited resources, annotating a large set of FAERS narratives is not trivial as it requires extra effort and time in addition to the

routine drug review tasks. Given the above challenges, there are no publishable FAERS reports annotated by FDA that can be used in this study for training and testing purposes. Therefore, to prove the concept and for the reproducibility of this study, we trained our model and evaluated our methodology using the public benchmark dataset (i2b2 2009 discharge summaries). In addition, we tested the trained model on a few redacted FAERS narratives that have been annotated. Since discharge summaries do not necessarily share the same vocabulary as the FAERS narratives, we expect this switch in data sets to be reflected in the results as well.

Practical Application of this Study for FDA. Automatically identifying high value information from the biomedical text has been recognized by FDA as one of the important steps in its regulatory and supervisory tasks. FDA has been partnering with research institutes and technology companies to develop text mining and natural language processing tools for various types of biomedical text collected by FDA such as vaccine ADR reports (VAERS), FAERS reports, and others. Due to the different nature of these texts, the tools and methodologies are highly customized to work with a particular text type. Moreover, among these text types, FAERS narratives have relatively complex structure in terms of size, vocabulary and style of writing. To cope with this complexity, we propose a machine learning framework that can combine some of these internally available existing tools to extract information from FAERS narratives in an ensemble fashion. These extracted results can be further utilized by advanced data mining or visualization techniques to enhance the drug review process.

5 CONCLUSIONS

This paper describes a novel approach called Tiered Ensemble Learning System with Diversity (TELS-D) for biomedical NER from Adverse Event Reports. Our proposed approach uses an ensemble of diverse heterogeneous classification methods to recognize named entities in the text while also dealing with the critical problem of skewed class distribution of the named entities in the training datasets. Our results are promising and indicate that, in the context of binary classification an ensemble approach would be a better choice for NER especially for class imbalanced datasets.

REFERENCES

- Alpaydin, E. (2014). *Introduction to machine learning*. MIT press.
- Aronson, A. R. (2001). Effective mapping of biomedical text to the umls metathesaurus: the metamap program. In *Proceedings of the AMIA Symposium*, page 17. AMIA.
- Barandela, R., Valdovinos, R. M., and Sánchez, J. S. (2003). New applications of ensembles of classifiers. *Pattern Analysis & Applications*, 6(3):245–256.
- Bird, S. et al. (2009). *Natural language processing with Python: analyzing text with the natural language toolkit*. ” O’Reilly Media, Inc.”.
- Bishop, C. M. (2006). *Pattern recognition and machine learning*. springer.
- Błaszczyszki, J., Stefanowski, J., and Idkowiak, Ł. (2013). Extending bagging for imbalanced data. In *Proceedings of the 8th International Conference on Computer Recognition Systems CORES 2013*, pages 269–278. Springer.
- Breiman, L. (1996). Bagging predictors. *Machine learning*, 24(2):123–140.
- Charniak, E. and Johnson, M. (2005). Coarse-to-fine n-best parsing and maxent discriminative reranking. In *Proceedings of the 43rd Annual Meeting on ACL*, pages 173–180. ACL.
- Chawla, N. V. (2009). Data mining for imbalanced datasets: An overview. In *Data mining and knowledge discovery handbook*, pages 875–886. Springer.
- Doan, S. and Xu, H. (2010). Recognizing medication related entities in hospital discharge summaries using support vector machine. In *Proceedings of the 23rd International Conference on Computational Linguistics: Posters*, pages 259–266. ACL.
- FDA (2016). FAERS (FDA adverse event reporting system).
- Feng, X., Cai, A., Dong, K., Chaing, W., Feng, M., Bhutata, N. S., Inciardi, J., and Woldemariam, T. (2013). Assessing pancreatic cancer risk associated with dipeptidyl peptidase 4 inhibitors: Data mining of fda adverse event reporting system (faers). *Journal of Pharmacovigilance*, pages 1–7.
- Ferrucci, D. and Lally, A. (2004). Uima: an architectural approach to unstructured information processing in the corporate research environment. *Natural Language Engineering*, 10(3-4):327–348.
- Friedman, C., Alderson, P. O., Austin, J. H., Cimino, J. J., and Johnson, S. B. (1994). A general natural-language text processor for clinical radiology. *JAMIA*, 1(2):161–174.
- Galar, M., Fernandez, A., Barrenechea, E., Bustince, H., and Herrera, F. (2012). A review on ensembles for the class imbalance problem: bagging-, boosting-, and hybrid-based approaches. *IEEE Transactions on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics, Part C (Applications and Reviews)*, 42(4):463–484.
- Ghiasvand, O. (2014). *Disease name extraction from clinical text using conditional random fields*. PhD thesis, The University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee.

- Halgrim, S. R., Xia, F., Solti, I., Cadag, E., and Uzuner, Ö. (2011). A cascade of classifiers for extracting medication information from discharge summaries. *Journal of biomedical semantics*, 2(3):S2.
- Harpaz, R., Callahan, A., Tamang, S., Low, Y., Odgers, D., Finlayson, S., Jung, K., LePendu, P., and Shah, N. H. (2014). Text mining for adverse drug events: the promise, challenges, and state of the art. *Drug safety*, 37(10):777–790.
- Jagannatha, A. N. and Yu, H. (2016). Bidirectional rnn for medical event detection in electronic health records. In *Proceedings of the conference. ACL. North American Chapter. Meeting*, volume 2016, page 473. NIH Public Access.
- Japkowicz, N. and Stephen, S. (2002). The class imbalance problem: A systematic study. *Intelligent data analysis*, 6(5):429–449.
- Kohavi, R. et al. (1995). A study of cross-validation and bootstrap for accuracy estimation and model selection. In *Ijcai*, volume 14, pages 1137–1145. Stanford, CA.
- Kuhn, M., Letunic, I., Jensen, L. J., and Bork, P. (2015). The sidr database of drugs and side effects. *Nucleic acids research*, 44(D1):D1075–D1079.
- Lazarou, J., Pomeranz, B. H., and Corey, P. N. (1998). Incidence of adverse drug reactions in hospitalized patients: a meta-analysis of prospective studies. *Jama*, 279(15):1200–1205.
- Longadge, R. and Dongre, S. (2013). Class imbalance problem in data mining review. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1305.1707*.
- Nguyen, H. and Patrick, J. (2016). Text mining in clinical domain: Dealing with noise. In *KDD*, pages 549–558.
- Polikar, R. (2009). Ensemble learning. *Scholarpedia*, 4(1):2776. revision #91224.
- Ramesh, B. P., Belknap, S. M., Li, Z., Frid, N., West, D. P., and Yu, H. (2014). Automatically recognizing medication and adverse event information from food and drug administrations adverse event reporting system narratives. *JMIR medical informatics*, 2(1):e10.
- Sakaeda, T., Tamon, A., Kadoyama, K., and Okuno, Y. (2013). Data mining of the public version of the fda adverse event reporting system. *International journal of medical sciences*, 10(7):796.
- Savova, G. K., Masanz, J. J., Ogren, P. V., Zheng, J., Sohn, S., Kipper-Schuler, K. C., and Chute, C. G. (2010). Mayo clinical text analysis and knowledge extraction system (ctakes): architecture, component evaluation and applications. *JAMIA*, 17(5).
- Schapire, R. E. (1990). The strength of weak learnability. *Machine learning*, 5(2):197–227.
- Tan, P.-N. et al. (2006). *Introduction to data mining*. Pearson Education India.
- Uzuner, Ö., Solti, I., and Cadag, E. (2010a). Extracting medication information from clinical text. *JAMIA*, 17(5):514–518.
- Uzuner, Ö., Solti, I., Xia, F., and Cadag, E. (2010b). Community annotation experiment for ground truth generation for the i2b2 medication challenge. *JAMIA*, 17(5):519–523.
- Uzuner, Ö., Zhang, X., and Sibanda, T. (2009). Machine learning and rule-based approaches to assertion classification. *JAMIA*, 16(1):109–115.
- Wang, S. and Yao, X. (2009). Diversity analysis on imbalanced data sets by using ensemble models. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Symposium on Computational Intelligence and Data Mining, CIDM*, pages 324–331.
- Wilson, A. M., Thabane, L., and Holbrook, A. (2004). Application of data mining techniques in pharmacovigilance. *BJCP*, 57(2):127–134.
- Wolpert, D. H. (1992). Stacked generalization. *Neural networks*, 5(2):241–259.
- Xu, H., Stenner, S. P., Doan, S., Johnson, K. B., Waitman, L. R., and Denny, J. C. (2010). Medex: a medication information extraction system for clinical narratives. *JAMIA*, 17(1):19–24.