

Multimodal Ranked Search over Integrated Repository of Radiology Data Sources

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Abstract: Radiology teaching files serve as a reference in the diagnosis process and as a learning resource for radiology residents. Many public teaching file data sources are available online and private in-house repositories are maintained in most hospitals. However, the native interfaces for querying public repositories have limited capabilities. The Integrated Radiology Image Search (IRIS) Engine was designed to combine public data sources and in-house teaching files into a single resource. In this paper, we present and evaluate ranking strategies that prioritize the most relevant teaching files for a query. We quantify query context through a weighted text-based search and with ontology integration. We also incorporate an image-based search that allows finding visually similar teaching files. Finally, we augment text-based search results with image-based search – a hybrid approach that further improves search result relevance. We demonstrate that this novel approach to searching radiology data produces promising results by evaluating it with an expert panel of reviewers and by comparing our search performance against other publicly available search engines.


1 INTRODUCTION

Vast amounts of image and clinical report data such as Electronic Health Records (EHRs), pathology reports, and teaching files are generated in the healthcare domain. Teaching files are used by radiologists, residents, and medical students (Dashevsky et al., 2015) as a reference resource. A typical teaching file contains text data categories such as (patient) history, findings, diagnosis, discussion, references, and case images. To find the relevant teaching files, radiologists need a domain-aware search engine that integrates diverse data sources. To find the most relevant material for a particular case, a search tool should support a hybrid text and image (multimodal) search. (Simpson et al., 2014) argued that the integration of text-based and image-based search could improve medical data retrieval.

Several studies highlighted the need to integrate clinical reports and images into a database with advanced search capabilities. (Gutmark et al., 2007) argued for building a system that reduces errors in radiological images interpretation using teaching file

databases. (Talanow, 2009) described how critical reference radiological images are for diagnosis, teaching needs, and research. (Pinho et al., 2017) investigated the difficulties inherent to the content-based image retrieval (CBIR) in Picture Archiving and Communication Systems (PACS). (Russell-Rose and Chamberlain, 2017) performed a study of healthcare information professionals needs, goals, and requirements for information retrieval systems. (Li et al., 2018) proposed a hybrid retrieval-generation system, where human knowledge and traditional retrieval systems are used to generate reports. (Ling et al., 2014) designed GEMINI, an integrative healthcare analytics system and investigated integration of heterogeneous data. The study concluded the healthcare needs are not met by the current search engines. We surveyed the publicly available search tools for teaching file data (see Section 2.2.2) and found that they do not rank search results based on query relevance. Engines that focus on medical articles perform better; however, research articles are not typically used for diagnosis. We evaluate public search engine query results in Section 4.1.3.

Our approach is presented and evaluated in the context of the IRIS (Deshpande et al., 2017) and (Deshpande et al., 2018b), using a major public

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teaching file data source, Medical Imaging Resource Community (MIRC¹) with two major medical ontologies Radiology Lexicon (RadLex²) and Systematized Nomenclature of Medicine Clinical Terms (SNOMED CT³). Based on feedback from radiology domain experts, we also augmented our retrieval mechanism to apply different weights to categories of text in teaching files. In cases where two or more teaching files are assigned the same relevance score, we apply our co-occurrence algorithm to re-rank the results from the tie point. For example, consider a query “progeria”: “cardiomegaly” often occurs in patients with “progeria”. Thus, we increase the relevance of teaching files that include “cardiomegaly”. Our contributions presented in this paper are:

- Weighted text based search with integrated medical ontologies to provide search relevance ranking
- Image based search
- Hybrid search that augments text results based on an image search
- An evaluation of IRIS and other search engines

In the rest of the paper Section 2 presents related work; Section 3 discusses our system implementation and design choices; Section 4 analyses the outcomes of our system evaluation. Finally, Section 5 presents our key conclusions.

2 BACKGROUND AND RELATED WORK

Our system has been influenced by numerous public search engines. In this section, we first discuss the need for a full featured radiology teaching file search engine. We then review existing public repository sources and medical ontologies.

2.1 Biomedical Search Engines

(Dos-Santos and Fujino, 2012) discussed the need for the integration of profiles published by Integrating the Healthcare Enterprise (IHE) and providing the access to cases through IHE. (Pinho et al., 2017) proposed an extensible platform for multimodal medical image retrieval, integrated in an open-source PACS software. In their platform, image queries rely on a query-by-example pattern, supporting only the images from a pre-indexed dataset. (Simpson et al., 2014) proposed

¹<http://mirc.rsna.org/query>

²<http://www.radlex.org/>

³<https://www.nlm.nih.gov/healthit/snomedct>

a multimodal image retrieval system that retrieves biomedical articles used in Open-i⁴ (evaluated in Section 4.1.3). (Hwang et al., 2016) shows how the use of positron emission tomography-computed tomography increased the need to retrieve relevant medical images to assist image interpretation. Furthermore, (Kansagra et al., 2016) presented the idea of a global database that integrates multiple data sources for a more accurate diagnoses.

Although most radiology systems have relied on text queries, Content-based Image Retrieval (CBIR) has also been used in the past. The survey by (Akgül et al., 2011) that outlines recent work concluded that the lack of a common image database and differences in the application domains makes comparative analysis of CBIR approaches difficult. (Müller et al., 2001) defined a set of evaluation guidelines developed for CBIR systems, which we considered for our CBIR evaluation.

Both literature survey and radiologists we consulted confirmed the need for a domain-tailored teaching file search engine. As we show in this paper, public radiology teaching file search engines do not provide relevance ranking. Our contributions presented in this paper are domain-specific, presenting a use case for a reference search source in radiology diagnostics. While we rely on standard co-occurrence information retrieval techniques, we designed a weighted ontology co-occurrence algorithm and a hybrid multimodal search algorithm specifically for the identified need within the radiology domain. Our data integration work is presented in (Deshpande et al., 2018a) and (Deshpande et al., 2019b). IRIS served as a prototype for our biomedical data integration and indexing system (Deshpande et al., 2019a). We presented IRIS at a major medical conference and received feedback from doctors indicating that this work would be useful for domain practitioners.

2.2 Data Sources and Search Engines

In this section, we compare available data repositories and medical search engines (summarized in Table 1).

2.2.1 Teaching File Data Sources

RSNA MIRC. Radiology Society of North America Medical Imaging Resource Community is a large repository with more than 2,500 teaching files and more than 12,000 images as well as external references (journal articles). Text search is done verbatim with no processing to interpret the user’s query (e.g., considering term synonyms or negation).

⁴<https://openi.nlm.nih.gov/>

Table 1: A comparative study of available data sources and search engines NLP capabilities. Relationships between terms: Hierarchical relation between terms (is a/has a), Spelling Error Correction: Prompt user with correct spelling, Relevance Rank: Offers an explicit relevance ranking feature.

Search Engine	Keyword search	Synonyms	Relationships between terms	Spelling Error Correction	Relevance Rank	publicly available	Image search
RadTF	YES	YES	YES	NO	NO	NO	NO
GoldMiner	YES	NO	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
Yottalook	YES	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES	NO
Google	YES	NO	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES
MIRC	YES	NO	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO
MyPacs	YES	NO	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO
CTisus	YES	NO	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
Casimage	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
RadICS	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
BIMM	YES	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
Radiology Teacher	YES	NO	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO
Medscape	YES	NO	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
ImageCLEFmed	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
Khresmoi	YES	YES	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO
Openi	YES	YES	NO	YES	YES	NO	YES
EURORAD	YES	NO	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO
IRIS	YES	YES	NO	NO	YES	YES	YES

Mypacs.net (Weinberger et al., 2002). A publicly available teaching file resource, where radiologists can upload new teaching files. More than 35,000 cases are available with 200,000 images. User can search records based on anatomy, pathology, modality, age, gender, etc. However, the built-in search engine has no consideration of synonyms, negation, or context. No image-based search is available.

EURORAD.⁵ European Society of Radiology is a peer-reviewed educational tool based on teaching cases. There are 7,000+ teaching cases – similarly to other teaching file sources there is no support for negation, synonyms, or image-based search.

A sample teaching file from both MIRC and MyPacs is shown in Figure 1, illustrating the inherent heterogeneity of such data sources.

2.2.2 Medical Search Engines

Yottalook.⁶ A radiologist-targeted search engine (“powered by Google Custom Search”). Searches a variety of different sources such as radiopaedia.org, American Journal of Radiology, University of Michigan Medical School, and MyPacs.

Khresmoi.⁷ is a medical informatics and retrieval system that searches online biomedical information and documents. Typical search result is a discussion forum about a particular diagnosis or disease.

However, there are no teaching file cases in the database and the search engine supports only basic query string matching with no NLP support. **MedGIFT.**⁸ projects are developed to advance the field of medical visual information retrieval. All tools are open sourced – however, these tools are not a complete search engine. One of the projects, ImageCLEF⁹, is the cross-language image retrieval track providing benchmarks for CBIR systems.

NovaMedSearch.¹⁰ is a medical search engine that supports multimodal queries to find articles on the PubMed Central in Clinical Decision Support scenarios. There are no teaching files in this repository and only a basic string matching search is supported.

Open-i. Open Access Biomedical Image Search Engine of the National Library of Medicine enables search and retrieval of abstracts and images (e.g., charts, graphs, clinical images) from the open source literature and biomedical image collections. Searching may be done using text queries as well as images.

CTisus.¹¹ A repository with more than 250,000 radiological images, quizzes and CT protocols are available. However, their search engine does support teaching file search or image based search.

Medscape.¹² A data source for latest medical news and information about drugs and diseases. No image-based search engine is available.

⁸<http://medgift.hevs.ch/wordpress/demos/>

⁹<http://www.imageclef.org/FAQ>

¹⁰<https://medical.novasearch.org/>

¹¹<http://www.ctisus.com/>

¹²<http://www.medscape.com>

⁵<http://www.eurorad.org/>

⁶www.yottalook.com

⁷<http://everyone.khresmoi.eu/hon-search/>

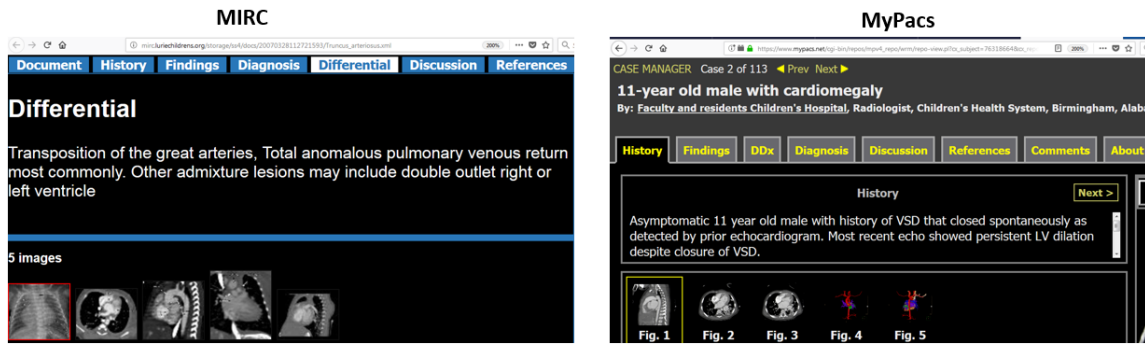


Figure 1: Sample teaching file from MIRC and MyPacs.

Casimage database with the IRMA framework (Thies et al., 2004) An integration of a multimedia teaching and reference database in a Picture Archiving and Communication Systems (PACS) environment. This source is not publicly available.

RADTF. (Do et al., 2010) A teaching file repository that uses NLP to ingest radiology reports. Search engine uses RadLex anatomy concept terms, stemming, ranking of results based on negation or uncertainty expressions. RADTF is not publicly available – the link provided in (Do et al., 2010) is no longer active.

Server-based Digital Teaching File System RADICS. (Kamaau et al., 2006) The RadICS server could handle CT, MR, computed radiography, and digital radiography images adhering to the Digital Imaging and Communications in Medicine (DICOM) format. The engine is not publicly available.

Biomedical Image Metadata Manager (BIMM) (Korenblum et al., 2011). provides retrieval of similar images using semantic features. Not available – the link in (Korenblum et al., 2011) is inactive.

The caBIG™ Annotation and Image Markup Project (Channin et al., 2010). developed a mechanism for modeling, capture and serializing image annotation, readable by both human and machine. The link in the paper is no longer available.

Radiology Teacher (Talanow, 2009). A web-based teaching file development system. Allows authors to create, edit, and delete cases and images with annotations and offers educational quizzes. Contains only about 300 cases; no NLP support is available.

2.3 Medical Ontologies

To build an effective search engine with medical domain knowledge, we integrated two medical ontologies (RadLex and SNOMED CT) into IRIS.

RadLex. is an ontological system that provides a comprehensive lexicon vocabulary for radiologists. Developed by Radiology Society of North America (RSNA), RadLex defines over 45,000 unique terms.

The Systematized Nomenclature of Medicine Clinical Terms (SNOMED CT). ontology provides a standardized, multilingual vocabulary of clinical terminology that is used by physicians and healthcare providers for the electronic exchange of clinical information. The SNOMED CT ontology follows the National Library of Medicine (NLM) Unified Medical Language System format; it has a hierarchical structure that describes morphological term connections.

3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 IRIS Architecture and Query Flow

We designed a logical schema (a subset of the schema is shown in Figure 2, other attributes and entities were omitted) and extracted and loaded data from publicly available radiology teaching files data repositories. As part of our data loading, we performed data cleaning (e.g., removal of unnecessary stop-words, invalid dates). The base entry in the center of the schema is a teaching file record linked with a collection of image entries, since teaching files are bundled with images (e.g., MRI, X-ray). The vector of features table contains extracted patches – a user-defined data type

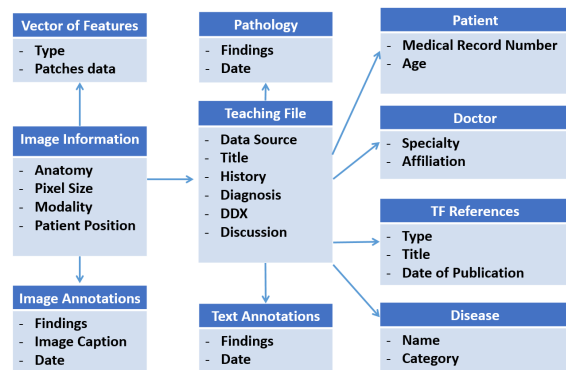


Figure 2: Logical Schema used by IRIS.

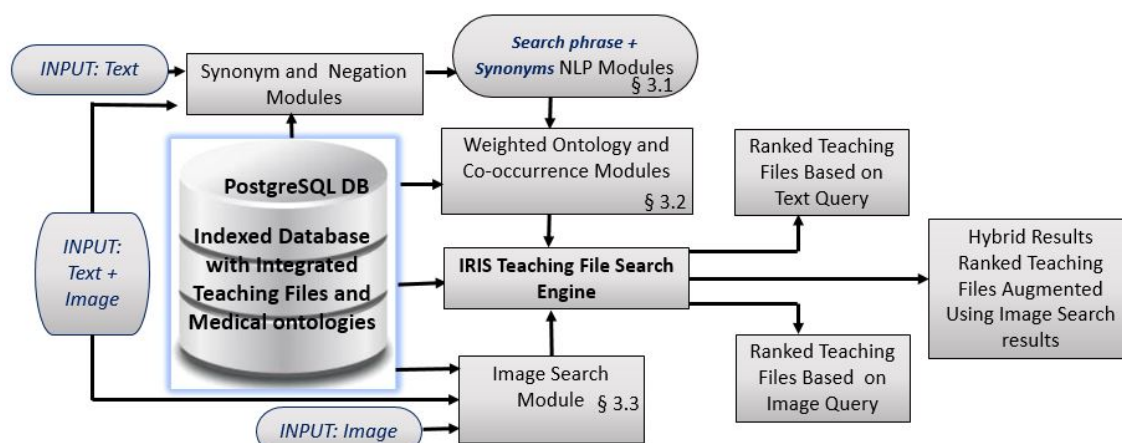


Figure 3: IRIS Query Execution Flow.

describing a region of interest marked by radiologists.

For text-based search, we generate a matrix based on term frequency, and term co-occurrence (see Section 3.2.2) from the teaching file terms. To expedite matrix creation, we pre-computed a term table that indexes both single-word term and multi-word ontology terms as they appear in teaching files. To keep the integrated datasets up-to-date we run a periodic refresh based on “date of modification” in source repositories, propagating the changes into the database.

Figure 3 shows the execution flow in IRIS engine. IRIS uses a Natural Language Processing (NLP) module that performs text query expansion using integrated ontologies and substitutes negation with antonyms. Results are ranked using an ontology based weighted co-occurrence matrix. To perform an image search, IRIS returns teaching files that contain the matched images. When both text and image query inputs are specified, text search results are filtered and re-organized using the outcome of the image search.

3.2 Text-based Search

In this section we discuss ranking features of our search algorithm: 1) Adding weights to teaching files categories and 2) Generating a co-occurrence matrix to break ties. Text search is evaluated in Section 4.1.

3.2.1 Weighted Category and Ontology Integration with NLP Support

Based on a literature survey and feedback from radiologists, we chose to apply the highest relative weight (4) to terms which belong to *title*, *findings*, and *diagnosis* categories within the teaching file. A weight of 3 is assigned to *history* and *differential diagnosis* categories. Finally, the lowest relative weight was as-

signed to *discussion* category (weight of 2) and *references* category (weight of 1). We furthermore differentiated the medical ontology from non-ontology terms by introducing an additional weight of 1. Algorithm 1 outlines the adding of weight to different category terms when generating a teaching file term vector. A teaching file term vector contains all unique terms and the associated term frequency of those terms based on the assigned weights.

Algorithm 1: Generating the matrix with weighted category and ontology terms.

```

1: allterm_vector ← all teaching file (TF) terms
2: Matrix = []
3: for tf in all_teaching_files do
4:   Matrix_row = []
5:   for term in allterm_vector do
6:     all_category_count ← Term frequency by
                           TF category
                            $\sum_{categories} Count_{category} \times Weight_{category}$ 
7:     Matrix_row.append(term_score)
8:   end for
9:   Matrix.append(Matrix_row)
10: end for
11: return Matrix

```

As in previous work, IRIS incorporates synonym and negation interpretation, allowing users to search for “with X”, or “without X”, and similar constructs. Our search engine automatically performs query expansion using integrated ontologies. For example, if a user searches for “breast cancer”, we augment the search with additional terms such as “malignant tumor of breast” and “carcinoma of breast”.

3.2.2 Weighted Co-occurrence Matrix

A term-weighted search may produce a tied score. This is particularly common when there are relatively few matches (and thus not a lot of different teaching

files to differentiate). We therefore extended our algorithm by introducing a weighted co-occurrence matrix that is used to break ties and to find additional results based on term co-occurrence. To build a co-occurrence matrix, teaching file data are mapped into a matrix T called a term frequency matrix, where T_{ij} is the frequency of term j in the teaching file i with $j=1, \dots, m$; $i=1, \dots, n$, and m and n are the number of terms and teaching files, respectively. A query string q is encoded the same way as a teaching file, i.e., as a column vector with an element corresponding to each term from the document corpus. With this representation, a query search can be thought of as a simple linear algebra operation, specifically the product between T and q (Equation 1). The query search result r is represented as a vector in which each element provides a score for how well the teaching file document matches the query string q .

$$\begin{bmatrix} r1 \\ r2 \\ \vdots \\ rn \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} & \dots & T_{1m} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} & \dots & T_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ T_{n1} & T_{n2} & \dots & T_{nm} \end{bmatrix} \bullet \begin{bmatrix} q1 \\ q2 \\ \vdots \\ qm \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

For all teaching files, we denote by C^{term} the co-occurrence matrix of all m terms and $C^{(RS_{raw})}$ (RS: RadLex and SNOMED CT) the co-occurrence matrix of all k RadLex and SNOMED CT terms. In the eventuality that the two co-occurrence matrices have different sizes (as in the case of MIRC where only 18% of the terms belong to RadLex and 36% terms belongs to SNOMED CT), the $C^{(RS_{raw})}$ matrix is extended with the identity matrix I (Equation 2):

$$C^{RS} = \begin{bmatrix} C^{RS_{raw}} & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

The overall co-occurrence matrix C is then defined as the dot product of C^{term} and C^{RS} in order to assign more weight to the co-occurrence of the RadLex and SNOMED CT ontology terms (Equation 3):

$$\begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} & \dots & C_{1m} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} & \dots & C_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C_{m1} & C_{m2} & \dots & C_{mm} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{11}^{term} & C_{12}^{term} & \dots & C_{1m}^{term} \\ C_{21}^{term} & C_{22}^{term} & \dots & C_{2m}^{term} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C_{m1}^{term} & C_{m2}^{term} & \dots & C_{mm}^{term} \end{bmatrix} \bullet \begin{bmatrix} C^{RS_{raw}} & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

The co-occurrence matrix C is then applied to the formulation of Equation 1, effectively including co-occurrence of terms (i.e. context) and medical ontologies in the relevance calculation as shown in Equation 4. The transformation used in Equation 4 is pre-computed offline to improve query response time.

When multiple teaching files receive the same relevance score, IRIS invokes the co-occurrence algorithm to break the tie. Search results up to the tie are

kept, while the results from the tie and below are re-ranked using the co-occurrence matrix computation of the relevance vector r . We kept search results before tie as it is because our search engine is domain specific and appearance of search term in particular category (e.g., diagnosis, findings) matters a lot. If we apply only co-occurrence top results and less relevant than we got using our weighted category algorithm.

$$\begin{bmatrix} r1 \\ r2 \\ \vdots \\ rn \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} & \dots & T_{1m} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} & \dots & T_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ T_{n1} & T_{n2} & \dots & T_{nm} \end{bmatrix} \bullet \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} & \dots & C_{1m} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} & \dots & C_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C_{m1} & C_{m2} & \dots & C_{mm} \end{bmatrix} \bullet \begin{bmatrix} q1 \\ q2 \\ \vdots \\ qm \end{bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

3.3 Content based Image Retrieval

CBIR system retrieves images similar to an image query. Typically, only the pixels of the image are used for that purpose. Images are retrieved in the following manner: an image feature extractor is used to extract latent features from the pixel array of all images (both query and database images), then the features of the query image can be compared to those of the database images using a similarity measure. We constructed an image feature extractor using a convolutional autoencoder. Convolutional autoencoders consist of two main components - an encoder and a decoder. An encoder processes the original image into an encoded image and decoder attempts to recreate the original image from the encoded image. Since the same autoencoder needs to work on a broad category of images, the expectation is that the autoencoder will likely capture the latent features that easily differentiate one type of image from another.

Our convolutional autoencoder was built to accept an image input of size 256 x 256 x 1 pixels. We trained this network using 12,052 images obtained from MIRC database. Prior to us inputting an image into the network, we have first preprocessed it. Each input image is converted to grayscale, its pixel intensities are normalized to values between 0 and 255, and resized to a size of 256 x 256. We used a trained autoencoder to encode images in the database after they were preprocessed in a similar manner to the training images. Each encoded image is then flattened into a representative vector of length 8192. This vector is used as the extracted features in the image retrieval process. The search query feature vector is compared to the feature vectors of the images from the database through a (1-cosine) distance function and the most similar images are retrieved, ordered by the distance value. A (1-cosine) distance threshold of 0.12 is used to filter what we consider false matches - any image

that is farther than 0.12 from the query image is removed from consideration. This threshold is based on the overall histogram distance distribution (top 10% results) for all image vectors; a (1-cosine) distance that is further than the nearest 10% of images is not considered to be similar for our purposes.

3.4 Hybrid Search

In order to generate more relevant results, we implemented a hybrid search algorithm that augments text search with an image search. When a user issues a text-and-image query, IRIS performs data fusion by initially retrieving text search results, then image search results, and then re-ranking text search results by promoting cases that occurred in the image search. Text based search, particularly when using co-occurrence matrix and ontologies, often results in many teaching file matches. Moreover, text relevance score does not consider the images in the teaching file. IRIS hybrid text and image search algorithm finds teaching files that explicitly mention the relevant search terms (including ontology based synonyms); image based search further prioritizes teaching files that also have images similar to the query image.

The following example illustrates how our hybrid search algorithm works (TC = Teaching Case) :

Text result ranking: TC5, TC7, TC2, TC9, TC11

Image search ranking: TC9, TC2, TC6

Hybrid search ranking: TC9, TC2, TC5, TC7, TC11

In hybrid search, TC9 and TC2 have increased priority due to appearing in both text and image searches, TC6 is ignored because it did not match the text search. TC5, TC7, and TC11 are kept but effectively demoted because they only appear in the text search.

3.5 Evaluation Methodology

In this section we discuss the methodology for evaluation of IRIS search results. We used a combination of queries received from radiologists at a major teaching hospital and other queries chosen from an extensive literature survey (see Figure 4). We have initially used 28 text queries, out of which we picked a subset of 11 queries (listed in Table 2) to perform an in depth evaluation. To choose these 11 queries, we favored certain criteria such as: (1) queries where the differential diagnosis and discussion categories carry the same score for the query term (tie between these two category cases – e.g., case with query term “cardiomegaly” occurs in discussion category 3 times and in diagnosis category 2 times). (2) queries with relatively few results (to see if using co-occurrence discovers additional results), (3) query terms which

Table 2: IRIS evaluation queries.

ID	Query
Q1	Cardiomegaly
Q2	ACL tear
Q3	Annular pancreas
Q4	Pseudocoaxalgia
Q5	Varicocele
Q6	Angiosarcoma
Q7	Tracheal dilation
Q8	Appendicitis
Q9	Bronchus intermedius
Q10	Cystitis glandularis
Q11	No cardiomegaly

are sufficiently precise for evaluation (e.g., “study” or “toxic” are too general for a meaningful evaluation)

Our hybrid search evaluation with four experts (with expertise in information retrieval but without medical training) used a subset of 5 queries: “cardiomegaly”, “no cardiomegaly”, “acl tear”, “tracheal dilation”, and “angiosarcoma”. We used five queries because it was not possible to collect a full evaluation of 11 queries from a group of experts. We chose five queries such that query results were relatively easy to interpret by evaluators with no medical training.

Our search evaluation was based on a coding standards document that included all relevant definitions (e.g., medical term synonyms) and pertinent information about the diseases (for evaluators with no medical training). We defined five categories to score text search results: “not relevant” = 0 (query term and synonyms do not appear anywhere in the results), “relevant” = 0.5 (term or synonyms appear in any category of a teaching file), “more relevant” = 1 (if term or synonyms appear in the discussion category), “very relevant” = 1.5 (if term or synonyms appears in history or ddx category), and “most relevant” = 2 (if term or synonyms appears in title, findings, or diagnosis categories).

Text-based Search Evaluation. Our text-based search ranking algorithm was evaluated by considering different combinations of search features. We used weighted and unweighted category terms (from teaching file categories) and weighted ontology terms to generate co-occurrence matrix combined with three possible search mechanisms (TF, TF-IDF and co-occurrence) producing six possible combinations shown in Table 3. The resulting six categories were C_{utf} : unweighted term frequency, C_{utfidf} : unweighted term frequency inverse document frequency, C_{uc} : unweighted co-occurrence, C_{wtf} : weighted term-frequency, C_{wtfidf} : weighted term frequency inverse document frequency, C_{wc} : weighted

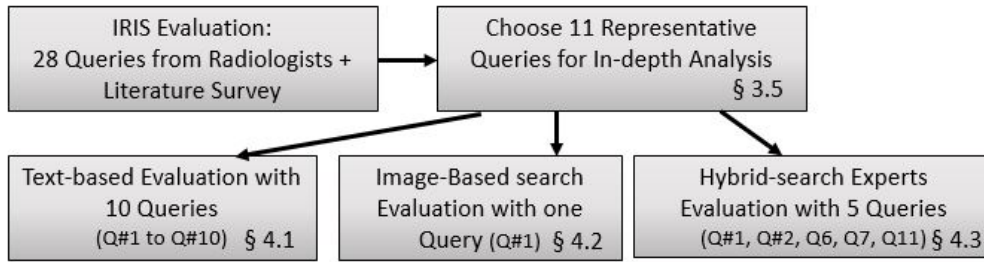


Figure 4: The outline of query evaluation of IRIS.

co-occurrence. One of the reasons for considering six different categories was to compare TF-IDF which is commonly used in search engines to TF (to verify that TF-IDF is not needed in our domain). For text search evaluation we used Normalized Discounted Cumulative Gain (NDCG)¹³ to measure the quality of search result ranking. NDCG is based on Discounted cumulative gain (DCG) – “DCG measures the gain of a document based on its position in the result list”. NDCG is the normalized version of the DCG metric.

Cumulative Gain (CG) is the sum of the relevance values of all results, as shown in Equation 5; rel_i is the relevance of the result at position i and p is a rank position of the result. The definition of CG is included here as background for the definition of DCG. We first computed DCG (Equation 6) for top 10 search results.

$$CGp = \sum_{i=1}^p rel_i \quad (5)$$

$$DCGp = \sum_{i=1}^p \frac{2^{rel_i} - 1}{\log_2(i + 1)} \quad (6)$$

To normalize the score, we computed ideal DCG (IDCG), shown in Equation 7. IDCG first sorts all known results by their relevance. $|REL|$ represents the ideally ordered list up to position p . We then computed normalized DCG score based on Equation 8.

$$IDCGp = \sum_{i=1}^{|REL|} \frac{2^{rel_i} - 1}{\log_2(i + 1)} \quad (7)$$

$$nDCGp = \frac{DCGp}{IDCGp} \quad (8)$$

Using this metric, we compared IRIS text-based retrieval results with MIRC (which has no image-based search). Our dataset and MIRC dataset contains same teaching cases, making our evaluation particularly consistent. We further compared IRIS to other medical teaching file search engines.

Image-based Search Evaluation. There are no readily available benchmarks against which we could compare IRIS image-based results. We cannot compare IRIS results with ImageCLEF (Tsirikika et al., 2011) or TREC¹⁴ as the data is completely differ-

¹³https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Discounted_cumulative_gain

¹⁴<http://www.trec-cds.org/2017.html>

Table 3: Text-based search category abbreviations.

	C_{utf}	C_{utfidf}	C_{uc}	C_{wtf}	C_{wtfidf}	C_{wc}
Weighted	NO	NO	NO	YES	YES	YES
Term Freq.	YES	NO	YES	YES	NO	YES
Term Freq. - Inverse Doc. Frequency	NO	YES	NO	NO	YES	NO
Cooccurrence	NO	NO	YES	NO	NO	YES

ent. Therefore, we compared image-based results with Google, and Open-i both of which provide image search capabilities. Google is also a poor benchmark because it is a general purpose search engine, while IRIS is a radiology domain-specific search engine. Google and Open-i both query different image datasets from what we were able to integrate (results discussed in Section 4.2).

Hybrid (Text and Image) Search Evaluation There are no public search engines that support text and image radiology queries. IRIS hybrid search was evaluated by a survey with four computing experts with experience in medical imaging retrieval (but without medical training). We asked the users to independently evaluate our results from 0 (“not relevant”) to 2 (“most relevant”) and provided them with evaluation criteria (using the same coding standards) for text, image, and hybrid search results. For image search ranking, our evaluators scored results based on visual similarity of the images (which was inherently more subjective than text evaluation).

4 EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

4.1 Text Search Query Results

We performed three different types of evaluation: 1) We compared the merits of different IRIS search features in Section 4.1.1. 2) We compared IRIS with MIRC native search and Google search of the MIRC site in Section 4.1.2 (since our data comes from MIRC repository) and 3) We evaluated several other search engines each using their own datasets in Section 4.1.3.

4.1.1 An Evaluation of IRIS Text Search

Our first comparison considers the difference between unweighted Term Frequency (C_{utf}) and unweighted Term Frequency Inverse Document Frequency (C_{utfidf}) discussed in Sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2. Our goal is to determine whether adding TF-IDF improves the search results, as TF-IDF is commonly used in information retrieval algorithms. To compare TF and TF-IDF we evaluated the NDCG score (on a 0.0-1.0 scale) for top 10 query results. Figure 5 compares the quality of C_{utf} and C_{utfidf} results. The queries exhibit minimal variation. The average score of C_{utf} is 0.84 (standard deviation/SD 0.173) and C_{utfidf} is 0.82 (SD 0.173) – therefore, using C_{utfidf} is not providing any benefit in ranking quality. We believe that C_{utfidf} does not offer any advantage because domain-specific terms in radiology data do not benefit from C_{utfidf} normalization – the medical queries for a specific condition do not need to be normalized by how common a word is in the corpus.

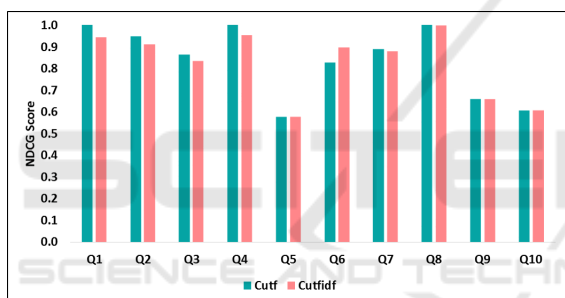


Figure 5: IRIS text-based search evaluation (NDCG based) with C_{utf} and C_{utfidf} category.

Our next step considers the advantage of incorporating term weights (based on data category and ontologies) into our search algorithm. Figure 6 shows the evaluation comparing NDCG scores with unweighted term frequency vs weighted term frequency. The average score of C_{utf} is 0.84 (SD 0.173) and C_{wtf} is 0.87 (SD 0.173). Several query scores are improved, while others remained about the same. We note that four of the queries (Q1, Q2, Q4, and Q8) do not have much room for improvement in C_{utf} as NDCG score cannot exceed 1.

We also compared the performance of unweighted co-occurrence and weighted TF-IDF. Due to space constraints we do not present that evaluation. Similarly to the comparison between C_{utf} and C_{utfidf} , we concluded that unweighted co-occurrence function does not improve ranking quality of IRIS results.

Finally, we compared search relevance scores from weighted term frequency C_{wtf} and weighted term frequency based co-occurrence C_{wc} . The result-

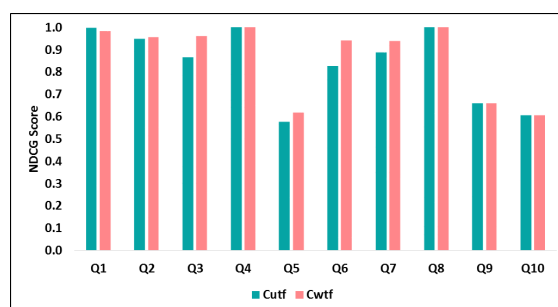


Figure 6: IRIS text-based search evaluation (NDCG based) with C_{utf} and C_{wtf} category.

ing NDCG scores are shown in Figure 7. The average score of C_{wtf} is 0.87 (SD 0.173) and the average score for C_{wc} is 0.96 (SD 0.03). We note that several of the queries using weighted term frequency have scores approaching 1.0 and thus a limited scope for improvement. The queries that have relatively poor results (Q5, Q9, and Q10) have improved significantly, while queries with near-1 scores remain about the same.

For example, our corpus has many cases involving explicit mention of cardiomegaly (Q1) in the Diagnosis category. In that case, weighted term frequency can find good matches. We believe that weighted term frequency and co-occurrence approaches to be complementary – when we have many matching cases, weighted term frequency ranks results and when we have few matching cases, co-occurrence finds additional results based on terms co-occurring with search terms. For query #2 and #4 (“ACL Tear” and “Pseudocoaxalgia”) the co-occurrence algorithm benefits less compared to weighted term frequency because co-occurring terms with query term return teaching files where query term does not belong to diagnosis category (when a query term belongs to diagnosis category, it gains more weight). For example, for “ACL Tear” co-occurring terms are “tear” and “PCL-tear”. Though our results fetch documents related to “ACL tear”, those offer a lower relevance rank score compared to weighted term frequency algorithm. However, the co-occurrence algorithm performs far better for query (Q5, Q9, and Q10) that returns fewer results based on the weighted term frequency ranking. Our average scores of C_{wtf} and C_{wc} show relative improvement in ranking score (based on all 10 queries) compared to other categories.

4.1.2 Comparison of IRIS and MIRC Search

To compare IRIS relevance rank algorithm with MIRC, we chose 5 queries (“cardiomegaly”, “appendicitis”, “tracheal dilation”, “angiosarcoma”, and “acl tear”). For this experiment, we replaced “no cardiomegaly” by “appendicitis” because other search

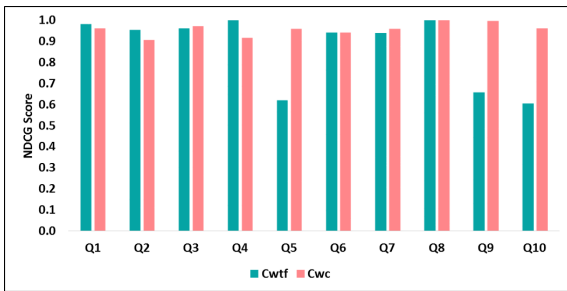


Figure 7: IRIS text-based search evaluation (NDCG based) with C_{wtf} and C_{wc} category.

engines do not recognize negation. We considered top four teaching file results from IRIS, MIRC, and Google site search. We calculated relevance score by scoring top four teaching files from each engine, using our weighted ranking algorithm (discussed in Section 3.2.1). Figure 8 shows the overall analysis of results from these search engines. Average score for each search engine shows that IRIS ranking algorithm performs better than the other two engines. In that search, integration of ontologies plays a vital role. For example, our search matches a teaching file “Ebstein Anomaly” where <https://www.overleaf.com/project/5cd4382f92a3ba5b77466ce4> cardiomegaly does not appear in any of the categories; only the synonyms such as “cardiac enlargement” appear in findings, “enlarged heart” in differential diagnosis, and “cardiac enlargement” in the discussion category.

For the “cardiomegaly” search nine teaching cases tied for the sixth position: “Ventricular septal defect (VSD)”, “Atrioventricular (AV) canal”, “Tricuspid atresia” (and 6 others). We used the co-occurrence algorithm to break the tie and re-rank rest of the results using a weighted co-occurrence of search terms. Following top match co-occurrence algorithm ranked these results as #6. “Ventricular septal defect (VSD)”, #7. “Tricuspid atresia”, #8. “Atrioventricular (AV) canal” (and 6 others with lower relevance). We manually verified the accuracy of this ranking based on presence of co-occurring terms.

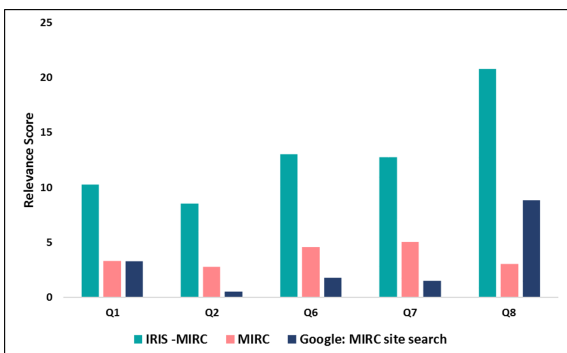


Figure 8: IRIS relevance comparison with MIRC.

4.1.3 Ranking Evaluation of Other Medical Search Engines

We also considered how other public medical radiology teaching file search engines rank their search results. We used the same query set and performed a search using MIRC, MyPacs, EURORAD, and Open-i search engines. We discuss only two out of five queries (“cardiomegaly” and “appendicitis”) in detail and report scores for the top 10 search results. Figure 9 shows a comparative analysis of ranked results from these four engines using the relevance scores based on our metric described in Section 3.2.1. Open-i can rank search results based on different categories (e.g., based on diagnosis or based on teaching file date) – we used a diagnosis based search in Open-i. MIRC ranks results based on the date of modification with no other option available. Our analysis shows that none of the search engines return most relevant results first. Interestingly, top four to five results are less relevant than the subsequent five results. For example for “cardiomegaly” MyPacs fourth result is more relevant than the top three results. EURORAD does not retrieve any results for “cardiomegaly”; the results for “appendicitis” are also not ranked based on the relevance of the search term.

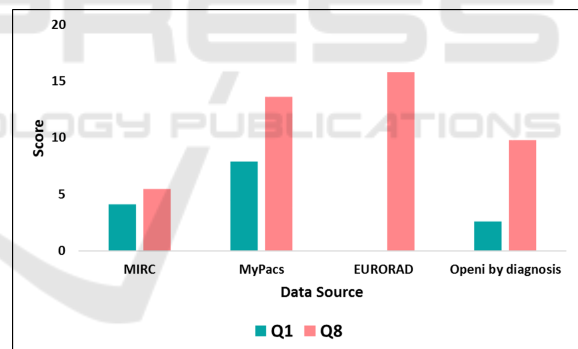


Figure 9: Rank retrieval score results from other medical search engines.

4.2 Image Search Analysis

To evaluate image search, we selected five images (four images drawn from our database and one image found using a Google search) associated with our five chosen text queries. For “no cardiomegaly” query we used an image from a “normal heart” Google search (cardiomegaly is a an abnormally enlarged heart); when we searched for “no cardiomegaly” Google returned “cardiomegaly” images. We chose the other 4 images from our database from one of the top search results returned by the text based search.

4.2.1 IRIS-CBIR Evaluation

In this section, we discuss a search for one image out of the five we evaluate (obtained from a teaching file with a “cardiomegaly” diagnosis). IRIS retrieved a total of 13 results based on distance threshold (see Section 3.3) from teaching files with similar images like the “cardiomegaly” image. Out of these results only 3 teaching files were not related to heart diseases; the remaining 10 teaching cases were about heart disease diagnosis. We observed that 3 non-heart disease teaching files had visually similar images as the search query image (as a teaching file can include images of different body parts). For example, one of the returned teaching files contained the diagnosis “Complete duplicated right renal collecting system. Upper moiety ureter with ectopic ureterocele, Grade V reflux into lower moiety collecting system.” The images of the kidney matched the heart search because scanned images also showed patient’s heart.

4.2.2 Comparison with Other Search Engines

We evaluated all five image queries with the help of a panel of experts; each reviewer rated the results on the scale of 0 (not similar) to 4 (very similar).

4.3 Hybrid Search Evaluation

For the hybrid search evaluation we used 5 queries, although we only discuss one query (based on “cardiomegaly”) in detail. We applied a threshold of 0.12 to image similarity measure; IRIS text results are combined with image-based results (as described in Section 3.4).

We performed hybrid search using “cardiomegaly” text query and a “cardiomegaly” related image – the same image that we previously used in Section 4.2. For “cardiomegaly” query hybrid search returns 50 cases where text includes “cardiomegaly” and images are similar to “cardiomegaly” image and results ranked on the basis of search query relevance. Using hybrid search, IRIS augmented the text-based results with image-based results and re-ranked teaching files based on the latter. Evaluation of the hybrid search using 5 queries is shown in Figure 10.

We defined a relevance criteria and asked evaluators to rank results on the 0-2 scale. We used 5 text queries and 5 images as input queries, summarized in Figure 10 (scaled down to 0-1 range for consistency with other graphs). IRIS text-based and hybrid search results scored an average score of 0.83 (out of 1) Image search results scored only about 0.53, which further confirms our approach of using the image search as an enhancement to the text search (rather than a

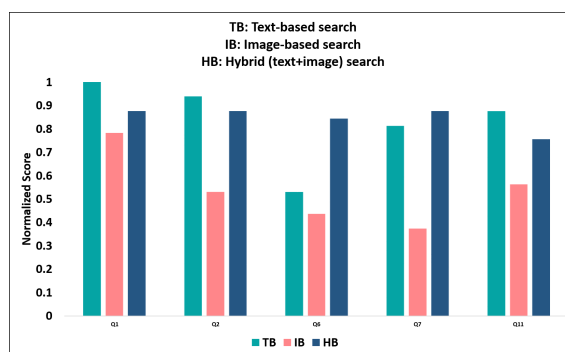


Figure 10: IRIS query evaluation: averaged text, image, and hybrid results rating with 4 evaluators.

standalone search). Hybrid search produced an average score of 0.84. IRIS retrieves better results compared to the preliminary results from our earlier work.

We performed a statistical significance test (paired t-test) for text-based vs image-based search, text-based vs hybrid search, and image-based vs hybrid search. The improvement difference was statistically significant with text-based vs image-based search and hybrid search vs image-based search. However, hybrid search was not a statistically significant improvement over text-based search. One of the reason we were unable to demonstrate a statistically significant improvement is a small dataset in this evaluation. As shown in Figure 10, one of the queries (Q6) was significantly improved by the introduction of the hybrid search, while other four searches hybrid results were comparable in quality to the original text search.

5 CONCLUSIONS

The ranking approach presented in this paper is significant because it enables IRIS to present the user with the most relevant reference cases first. Through incorporating term frequency, adding extra weight to ontology terms, and considering co-occurrence of the terms, we showed that relevance of teaching file retrieval can be improved. In our future work, we plan to consider the proximity of the terms when calculating the co-occurrence matrix as well as expand the use of RadLex and SNOMED CT ontologies from term synonyms to concepts and categories information and integrate additional ontologies and data sources.

IRIS will enable radiologists to perform text based search, image based search as well as hybrid (image and text) searches over integrated datasets. Ultimately, IRIS will allow radiologists to make faster, more confident and accurate diagnoses by removing the innate error caused by the limits of human memory. Based on extensive discussions with experienced

radiologists, IRIS will be a great improvement of existing search engines – currently radiologists use in-house teaching file search engines with a limited search capability.

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