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Author post-print (accepted) deposited in CURVE January 2012

Original citation & hyperlink:

Baskaran, V. , Guergachi, A. , Bali, R. and Naguib, R. (2011) Predicting breast screening attendance using machine learning techniques. IEEE Transactions on Information Technology in Biomedicine, volume 15 (2): 251-259.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/TITB.2010.2103954>

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Predicting Breast Screening Attendance Using Machine Learning Techniques

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Abstract—Machine learning-based prediction has been effectively applied for many healthcare applications. Predicting breast screening attendance using machine learning (prior to the actual mammogram) is a new field. This paper presents new predictor attributes for such an algorithm. It describes a new hybrid algorithm that relies on back-propagation and radial basis function-based neural networks for prediction. The algorithm has been developed in an open source-based environment. The algorithm was tested on a 13-year dataset (1995–2008). This paper compares the algorithm and validates its accuracy and efficiency with different platforms. Nearly 80% accuracy and 88% positive predictive value and sensitivity were recorded for the algorithm. The results were encouraging; 40–50% of negative predictive value and specificity warrant further work. Preliminary results were promising and provided ample amount of reasons for testing the algorithm on a larger scale.

Index Terms—Breast screening, cancer, machine learning, neural networks, prediction, screening attendance.

I. INTRODUCTION

BREAST cancer is the most common cancer for women in North America [1]. In the U.K., over 40 000 women are being diagnosed with breast cancer each year [2], [3]. Mortality due to breast cancer is also one of the highest in the world [1], [4], and is the second highest of all cancers in the Canada [7]. Breast cancer should ideally be diagnosed at the earlier stages of its development to considerably reduce mortality. Possible treatments include removing or destroying the cancer cells to avoid the spread of the affected cells. Breast self-examination is an effective and noninvasive type of checking for any lumps in the breast tissue. Unfortunately, this greatly depends on the size of the lump, technique, and experience in carrying out a self-examination procedure by a woman [9]. An ultrasound test, examining breast tissue using sound waves, can be utilized to detect lumps but this is usually suited for women aged below 35

Manuscript received April 11, 2010; revised October 12, 2010; accepted December 23, 2010. Date of publication; date of current version. This work was supported in part by the NHS Cancer Screening Programs, U.K.

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Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/TITB.2010.2103954

owing to the higher density of breast tissue [1]. Having a tissue biopsy via a fine needle aspiration or an excision is often used to examine the cells histopathologically and to diagnose if the growth, lump, is benign or cancerous. These investigations are mostly employed in treatments or post-treatment examination and as second rung diagnostic confirmation methods [10]. Performing a computed tomography or an MRI scan would result in a thorough examination of the breast tissue but these techniques are not favored due to reasons which include cost, needs preparation, noise, time, and images that may not be clear [10].

Mammography is a technique for detecting breast tissue lumps using a low dosage of X-ray. This technique can even detect a 3-mm-sized lump. The X-ray image of the breast tissue is captured and the image is thoroughly read by experienced radiologists and specialist mammogram readers [10]. Preliminary research suggests that women aged 50 and above are more susceptible to breast cancer; mammography is more suited to women in this age range due to the lower density of breast tissue [11]. Even though mammography has its critics—mainly due to its high rate of false positives and false negatives [13]—it has become the standard procedure for screening women by the NHS National Breast Screening Program in the U.K. [3], [15]. Mammography is the best and most viable tool for mass screening to detect cancer in the breast at an early stage [17]; however, the effectiveness of diagnosis through screening is directly dependent on the percentage of women attending the screening program [18]–[20]. The NHS Breast Screening Program, catering to the entire eligible women population, is funded by the Department of Health in the U.K. It covers 2.5 million women every year and detected nearly 16 500 cancers in the screened population for the year 2007–2008 [3]. Currently, the screening program routinely screens women between the ages 50 and 70.

Early breast cancer detection through screening is fundamental for increasing the efficacy of cancer treatment [11], [21]. Mammography has been accepted as the best and most economically viable tool for population screening [22]. Maximizing coverage for the target population is crucial for the success of such screening programs [11]. Currently, the breast cancer screening attendance rates are below expectations in many countries that have publicly funded healthcare programs [24]. This paper proposes a set of protocols to increase breast screening attendance for the U.K.'s NHS breast screening program. Based on this protocol, a new software prototype was created and tested. The prototype tests the prediction algorithm and shares the prediction results with multiple healthcare stakeholders for initiating opportunistic interventions on nonattendees. This prototype is a radical new idea that uses machine learning techniques for

86 predicting screening attendance and shares this knowledge by
87 adopting the health informatics initiative of the NHS.

88 II. CHALLENGE

89 The NHS Breast Screening Program Annual Review (2008)
90 states that, out of invited women, only 74% attend the screen-
91 ing program [3]. This sizeable nonattendance could result in
92 missed cancer detection for nearly 4 000 women (based on the
93 cancer detection rate within screened women) [3]. This large
94 percentage of nonattendance not only result in loss of life due
95 to breast cancer but also result in loss of screening resources
96 through costly imaging equipment laying idle, underutilization
97 of specialist-imaging expertise, wasted screening slots, and so
98 forth. Screening units are unable to arrange buffered attendees
99 for the idle slots since the units do not know *a priori* which
100 women will attend and which will not. In addition, there is a
101 sizeable cost factor involved in sending repeat screening ap-
102 pointments letters to nonattending women.

103 Reasons for nonattendance may be largely attributed to dis-
104 interest in attending a mammography session, prior or current
105 medical problems, and fear of X-rays [11], [24]. These rea-
106 sons can be negated by proper education provided to women.
107 Education has to be directed at explaining the advantages and
108 importance of screening and assist in removing the sociocultural
109 and personal barriers [25]. Other possible options include con-
110 venience in terms of time, place, and dates provided to women
111 for encouraging their attendance.

112 In spite of the expedient measures provided to the women,
113 nonattendance has been a grave concern for the NHS—National
114 Screening Program. This scenario can be properly addressed if
115 those women who may probably not attend a screening appoint-
116 ment can be identified in advance so that additional resources
117 can be directed at interventions that can increase screening
118 attendance.

119 A proposal enumerating the complete software solution is
120 summarized at the end of Section IV. The National Screening
121 Program has been constantly striving to provide better services
122 to the public and one of the new enhancements offered by the
123 screening services is to increase the screening age limit from
124 64 to 70 [26]. This effectively increases the number of screen-
125 ing episodes and results in augmenting the need for effective
126 use of the already stretched NHS resources. All the aforemen-
127 tioned factors underline the need to increase the breast screening
128 attendance.

129 III. SOLUTION PROPOSED

130 To address these challenges, a set of protocols were devel-
131 oped as part of the ongoing research. The protocols are based on
132 two components: 1) machine learning algorithms for knowledge
133 creation; and 2) health informatics for knowledge sharing. This
134 paper elaborates on how the prediction-based knowledge was
135 created through a machine learning algorithm. Machine learning
136 [Artificial Intelligence (AI)-based algorithm] was implemented
137 through the creation of a prototype software based on open

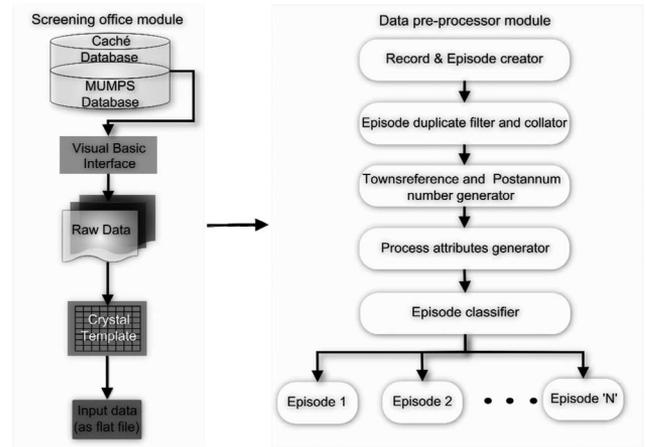


Fig. 1. Data filtering, preparation, and preprocessing.

138 source technologies. The prototype software was automated to
139 produce the preprocessed data and eventually normalize the
140 data for neural network (AI) assimilation. These activities were
141 performed sequentially without human involvement for repeata-
142 bility, reliability, and accuracy.

143 The AI-based neural network incorporates all additional
144 transformations that occurred within the screening process (in-
145 cluding the change in the screening upper age limit). The pro-
146 totype framework was called JAABS—Java-based attendance
147 prediction by AI for breast screening. The prototype combines
148 the demographic data pertaining to the nonattending women
149 and information related to their family physician as a package.
150 This package then triggers the generation of an electronic mes-
151 sage based on the Health Level 7 (HL7) standards and utilizes
152 web services as the message delivering technology. This paper
153 focuses on the machine learning techniques used within the pro-
154 totype and subsequent testing of the algorithm for its prediction
155 accuracy.

156 A. Data Preprocessing Module

157 The prototype was constructed using two main modules: 1)
158 data preprocessing module; and 2) AI module. The data prepro-
159 cessing module (see Fig. 1) consists of “Screening office mod-
160 ule” that accomplishes data extraction from the screening unit’s
161 database. The demography details for the three-year call/recall
162 were downloaded (extraction date—Jan 2008) from the local
163 health care authority’s database. The downloading is affected
164 via the health link network onto a standalone system within
165 the breast screening unit. The historical data related to screen-
166 ing, appointments, and results pertaining to screening women
167 are retained within the screening unit’s “Massachusetts Gen-
168 eral Hospital Utility Multi-Programming System” (MUMPS)
169 database. MUMPS, also known as the Oxford system, is one of
170 the earliest programming languages used since the 1960s [27].
171 This language was extensively employed to write database ap-
172 plications explicitly for the healthcare domain.

Generate input data as flat file from "Crystal Report" template
For every record
 Separate records for each woman
 Remove duplicate episodes
 Collate episodes into one record
 Generate townsend reference and post annum numbers
 Generate attributes
 Classify and save record into their respective episode groups
End

Pseudo-code 1. Pseudo-code for filtering raw data and preprocessing it to generate predictor attributes and classify them based on their episode details.

TABLE I
THIRTEEN-YEAR DATASET DETAILS

Description	Number of records
Total valid women's record	159,412
Number of records deleted due to multiple entries	15,778
Records with missing values	9,799
CR template output records	540,539

173 The MUMPS database is based on the disk operating system
 174 (DOS) and employs character-based user interface for database
 175 interrogation [27]. The cumbersome DOS-based system is prone
 176 to erroneous data entry and hence warranted a change in the
 177 system. A new software package, the National Breast Screen-
 178 ing Computer System (NBSS), was developed in 2002–2003
 179 to address these issues [28]. This NBSS consists of a Visual
 180 Basic (VB) front end connected to a "Caché" database which
 181 is seamlessly integrated with the MUMPS database [29]. Due
 182 to the aforementioned factors, an unstable environment, thus,
 183 resulted in considerable complexities during data extraction for
 184 the current research. The screening office module (see Fig. 1)
 185 is executed with the existing software programs available in the
 186 breast screening office.

187 The VB front end made data extraction straightforward from
 188 the MUMPS database through Structured Query Language
 189 (SQL) queries directed at the Caché database. Currently, the
 190 breast screening office is employing "Crystal Report" (CR) as
 191 part of the NBSS to generate reports for all the screening activi-
 192 ties, including screening, administration, invitation, etc. Part of
 193 the data preprocessing was implemented through the CR soft-
 194 ware. The screening unit had earlier indicated that the routine
 195 functioning of the screening office should not be affected during
 196 the data extraction process.

197 Hence, prior to data extraction, a CR template was created to
 198 reflect the format of the data to be exported (see pseudo-code
 199 1). This template was used to export the data as a flat file to
 200 negate any system instability. All the screening units around the
 201 country were expected to have some form of minimum facility
 202 for creating datasets in a flat file format. Coupled with this, a
 203 need for a low overhead on the existing IT system and minimum
 204 additional complexities was considered as fundamental for the
 205 prototype. All the aforementioned rationale strengthened the
 206 need for adopting a compromised strategy that exports data as
 207 a flat file, so that the mode of data transfer can be standardized
 208 across the country with minimum or no interrogation with the
 209 screening database.

210 The SQL query generated details for all the women in as
 211 many records, pertaining to the demography and episodes. The
 212 demographic data were incomplete and only the first record of
 213 a particular woman had the complete dataset and the remaining
 214 records of the women corresponded to the historical episode
 215 details (see Table I). The women's address and name were ex-
 216 cluded from the study to address data protection and maintain

anonymity. In spite of its necessity for the messaging module, 217
 the complete dataset was generated without the personal infor- 218
 mation of the screening women. The post code of the women 219
 is indispensable for the current study, as it generates the im- 220
 portant predictor variable in the form of Townsend's reference 221
 (Townsend deprivation score denotes the socioeconomic status 222
 of a given postcode) and post annum number. 223

To address this without compromising the research work, 224
 variables related to postcode, such as the Townsend score, post 225
 annum (post annum is an arbitrary number associated with the 226
 women's postcode) and screening distance, were all processed to 227
 generate categorical variables within the screening unit and then 228
 the data were ported to the AI module. The individual women 229
 were identified by their SX number (pseudo-anonymised unique 230
 identifier). The AI module generated the attendance prediction, 231
 which formed the core of the knowledge transfer. The recipient 232
 of the knowledge transfer is the woman's family physician; 233
 hence, family physician information in the form of surname, 234
 surgery address, and postcode was later collated for sending the 235
 HL7-based message. 236

For each episode group
 Normalize data for AI module
 Generate networks (BPNN and RBFN) and train
 For each network
 Validate data
 Test data
 Generate screening attendance prediction
 Collate the best and save output with women's detail
End

Pseudo-code 2. Pseudo-code for the AI module and results collation for the final output

One "Record" object was associated with one or more 237
 "Episode" objects (see Fig. 2). The gaps in the demographic 238
 record have to be filled and the episode details were associ- 239
 ated with the women's demographic data. Exhaustive analyses 240
 of the data indicated that the CR report had duplicate episode 241
 details and are to be removed before further processing can be 242
 implemented (see Table I). Each record read from the CR re- 243
 port has to be first partitioned into episode details and stored 244
 as "Episode" objects. They are finally collated and associated 245
 with the women's demographic details (represented as "Record" 246
 object). In addition to this, all the records have to be automat- 247
 ically validated. The earlier work by Arochena had identified 248
 all the contributing predictor attributes through comprehensive 249

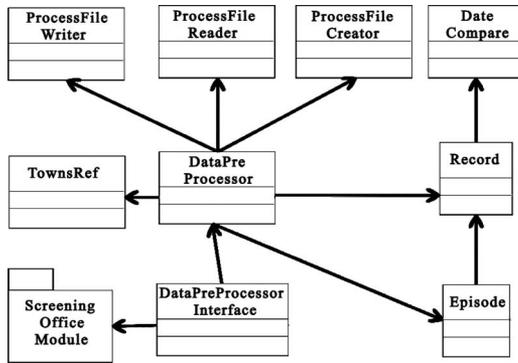


Fig. 2. UML class diagram for data preprocessing module (with I/O processing submodule).

TABLE II
DATASET SPREAD ACROSS THE EPISODES AND ITS TRI-FURCATED DATA

Episode number	Total records	Train set	Valid set	Test set
Episode 1	23,277	4653	4708	13916
Episode 2	33,765	6838	6734	20193
Episode 3	29497	5868	5891	17738
Episode 4	43584	8792	8839	25953
Episode 5	26669	5340	5338	15991
Episode 6	2366	473	485	1408
Episode 7	238	36	39	163
Episode 8	16	3	3	10

250 statistical analyses [30]. After generating the required attributes,
 251 the preprocessor module classifies the “Record” objects based
 252 on the number of “Episode” objects it contains (see Fig. 2). This
 253 dataset was then written as an in-process flat file for reference.
 254 All errors generated during the execution of the preprocessing
 255 module are written in a log (error) and is also saved as a flat file
 256 for future reference.

257 The data preprocessing module identified episodes with miss-
 258 ing data and removed them from the study. In total 2% (9 799)
 259 were removed as records with missing data (see Table I). It fur-
 260 ther deleted almost 3% (15 778) of the total records due to dupli-
 261 cate entries. The valid records constituted 86% (159 412) of the
 262 extracted dataset; on an average, each record had 3.2 episodes.
 263 Table II depicts the spread of data for each episode. The highest
 264 number of records was reached for the fourth episode. The first
 265 to fifth episodes had an average of 31 000 records. For the re-
 266 maining episodes (sixth, seventh, and eighth) the average is only
 267 800 records. This might have a significant impact on the actual
 268 prediction capacity of the JAABS algorithm for these episodes.

269 B. AI Module

270 JAABS is the new algorithm designed and developed in a
 271 JAVA environment. As the design process was based on more
 272 of an evolutionary type, a modular design strategy was selected.
 273 This assists in parallel development of the implementation and
 274 also enables testing as modules rather than as one single mono-
 275 lithic program. The modular design also ensured that any addi-
 276 tions or changes happening within the screening unit’s business

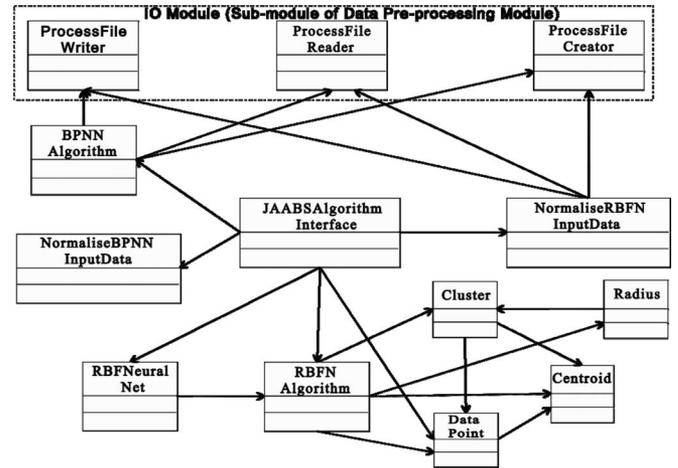


Fig. 3. UML class diagram of JAABS algorithm showing back propagation-based neural network and radial-basis function-based neural.

logic can be implemented without affecting the other modules 277
 (see pseudo-code 2.). The “AI Module” encompasses the data 278
 normalizer; the neural networks; and the results collator (see 279
 Fig. 3). The Java-based algorithm implements two different 280
 neural networks: feed-forward back-propagation neural network 281
 (BPNN) and radial basis function neural network (RBFN). 282

The neural network algorithm requires the input data vector 283
 classified as binary values; hence, the input data are normalized. 284
 The input data in the RBFN are first passed through a radial basis 285
 function algorithm, to identify the clusters and assign a radius 286
 for cluster classification. These cluster centers are calculated 287
 and the real-time data are checked against these established 288
 cluster centers. Once the distance is calculated, the input dataset 289
 is then associated with its nearest cluster. These data then trigger 290
 a neural network for performing the prediction on attendance. 291
 Each episode has a different set of predictor attributes; hence, 292
 each episode is fed through separate neural networks that were 293
 trained with their respective training dataset. 294

The results module collects the collated prediction for each 295
 episode and submits it to a “Pooler” based classifier (see Fig. 4). 296
 The “Pooler” finds the best prediction for the given episode 297
 and generates the final prediction output based on the confi- 298
 dence value of the prediction. This is fed into the prediction 299
 result collator for all the input (women) based on each episode. 300
 The consolidated result is used to generate the nonattendance 301
 list and written as a flat file for processing by the “messaging 302
 module” for message generation. The final output is associated 303
 with the women’s SX number so that general physician details 304
 can be added for knowledge sharing and to initiate physician 305
 intervention. 306

307 IV. ANALYSES

The predictor attributes (PA: post annum is an arbitrary num- 308
 ber associated with the women’s postcode, TS: townsend depri- 309
 vation score denotes the socioeconomic status of a given post- 310
 code, AttBin: previous episode’s attendance, NumTest: number 311
 of tests in the previous episodes, Cancer: denotes if cancer was 312
 diagnosed in previous episodes, FP: false positive in previous 313

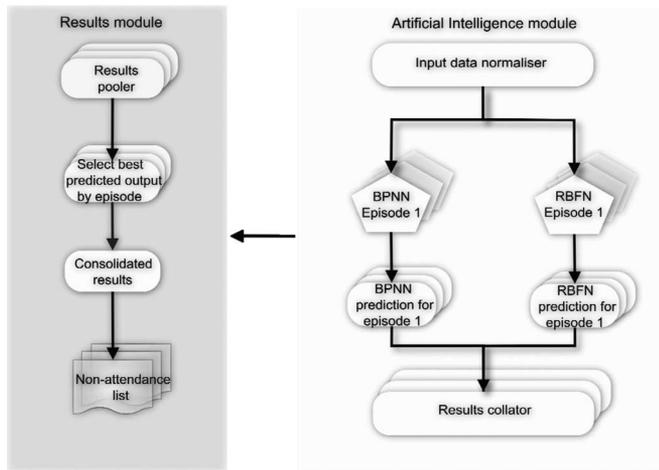


Fig. 4. Machine learning algorithm containing artificial intelligence and results module.

TABLE III
PREDICTOR ATTRIBUTES AND THEIR ASSOCIATION TO THE SCREENING ATTENDANCE EPISODE WISE

Independent variables	Epi1	Epi2	Epi3	Epi4	Epi5	Epi6	Epi7	Epi8
PA	❖	❖	❖	❖	❖	✓	✓	✓
TS	❖	❖	❖	❖	❖	❖	❖	✓
AttBin		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
NumTest		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Cancer		●	●	❖	●	●	●	
FP		●	●	●	●	●	●	
HFP			●	●	●	●	●	✓
HC			●	●	●	●	●	
AttTypeBin	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
AgeBand	❖	❖	●	●	●	●	●	✓
Slip	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
ScrDist	●	●	●	●	●	❖	✓	
✓	Association more than 0.2							
❖	Association more than 0.1 and less than 0.2							
●	Association more than 0.0 and less than 0.1							
	No association is left blank							

314 episodes, HFP: history of false positive, HC: history of cancer,
 315 AttTypeBin: type of attendance like first or later episodes, Age-
 316 Band: age categories, Slip: difference in days between screening
 317 appointment and actual screening date, ScrDist: distance traveled
 318 by the women for getting a mammogram) were initially
 319 verified for their association with the screening attendance (see
 320 Table III). The variables, being categorical, were analyzed
 321 through parameters such as Lambda, Uncertainty, Phi (), Cram-
 322 mer’s V, and Contingency (confidence level at 95%).

323 These tests for association were conducted for establishing
 324 some kind of linear relationship between the dependent and in-
 325 dependent variables. Even though an association was not strong,
 326 it was used only to establish some form of relationship between
 327 the variables. This was used as an indication and as a first step
 328 for resolving the real problem space which is multispatial. This
 329 strategy assisted in filtering out the nonparticipating attributes
 330 and to reduce the introduction of background noise.

331 Episode 1 lacked the historical variables and had to rely
 332 only on demographic details. The rest of the episodes have

TABLE IV
ROC FOR ALL EPISODES—AIATT AND JAABS (JAVA AND CLEMENTINE)

AI-ATT- Clementine (version 5)					
AIATT	ACC	NPV	PPV	SPC	SEN
Episode 1	67.01	20.45	87.48	41.81	71.43
Episode 2	87.76	56.1	92.85	58.91	93.14
Episode 3	86.49	50.54	92.91	55.99	91.32
Episode 4	81.65	41.26	92.51	64.59	85.42
Avg. for 4					
Episodes	80.73	42.09	91.44	55.33	85.33
JAABS- Java					
JAABS	ACC	NPV	PPV	SPC	SEN
Episode 1	67.29	42.07	76.71	40.22	78.05
Episode 2	69.38	47.65	77.87	45.66	79.22
Episode 3	69.95	39.45	76.46	26.29	85.59
Episode 4	79.17	39.25	87.06	37.37	87.93
Episode 5	76.23	51.61	83.84	49.64	84.89
Episode 6	57.79	46.51	64.77	44.92	66.21
Episode 7	51.39	30.02	76.53	60.05	48.18
Avg. for 4					
Episodes	71.45	42.11	79.53	37.39	82.7
Average	67.31	42.37	77.61	43.45	75.72
JAABS-Clementine (version 12)					
JAABS	ACC	NPV	PPV	SPC	SEN
Episode 1	68.16	52.58	69.35	11.57	95.04
Episode 2	79.61	74.59	81.33	57.93	90.28
Episode 3	81.24	72.56	83.86	57.63	90.99
Episode 4	85.73	74.91	88.45	62	93.34
Episode 5	80.81	74.43	82.56	53.88	92.18
Episode 6	67.88	63.8	70.36	56.7	76.16
Episode 7	78.99	86.49	77.61	41.56	96.89
Avg. for 4					
Episodes	78.68	68.66	80.75	47.28	92.41
Average	77.49	71.34	79.08	48.75	90.7

333 both the demographic and historical attributes as predictors; es-
 334 pecially the new attribute in the form of screening distance
 335 was found to increase the prediction efficiency for all the
 336 episodes. The JAABS algorithm and its predictor attributes
 337 were compared with its predecessor [AI-based attendance pre-
 338 diction algorithm(AI-ATT)] for validation [30]. The AI-ATT
 339 algorithm was developed in a visual modeling environment—
 340 Clementine [30]. This off-the-shelf software assisted in design-
 341 ing and implementing the algorithm rapidly, but created new
 342 functional challenges such as the need for licensing the software
 343 for all the screening units, specialist requirement for running the
 344 algorithm, as it was not automated, and is based on outdated data
 345 and semantics (1989–2001) to name just a few.

346 AI-ATT provided a base line for comparison and a reference
 347 for validating the JAABS algorithm. To make the validation
 348 more up-to-date, the same dataset that was applied to the JAABS
 349 algorithm was also tested on Clementine (version 12.0). The
 350 dataset was trifurcated into training, validating, and test sets (see
 351 Table II). The training set contained equal numbers of women
 352 categorized as attendees and nonattendees. The validating set
 353 contained data that were never exposed during the training and
 354 contained an equal number of attendees and nonattendees. The
 355 test set contained skewed data, where nonattendees were only a
 356 small proportion. This ensures that the test set reflects the real-
 357 time dataset that would also be skewed (less nonattendees). The
 358 JAABS algorithm was tested with the complete set of episodes
 359 after appropriate training and validation.

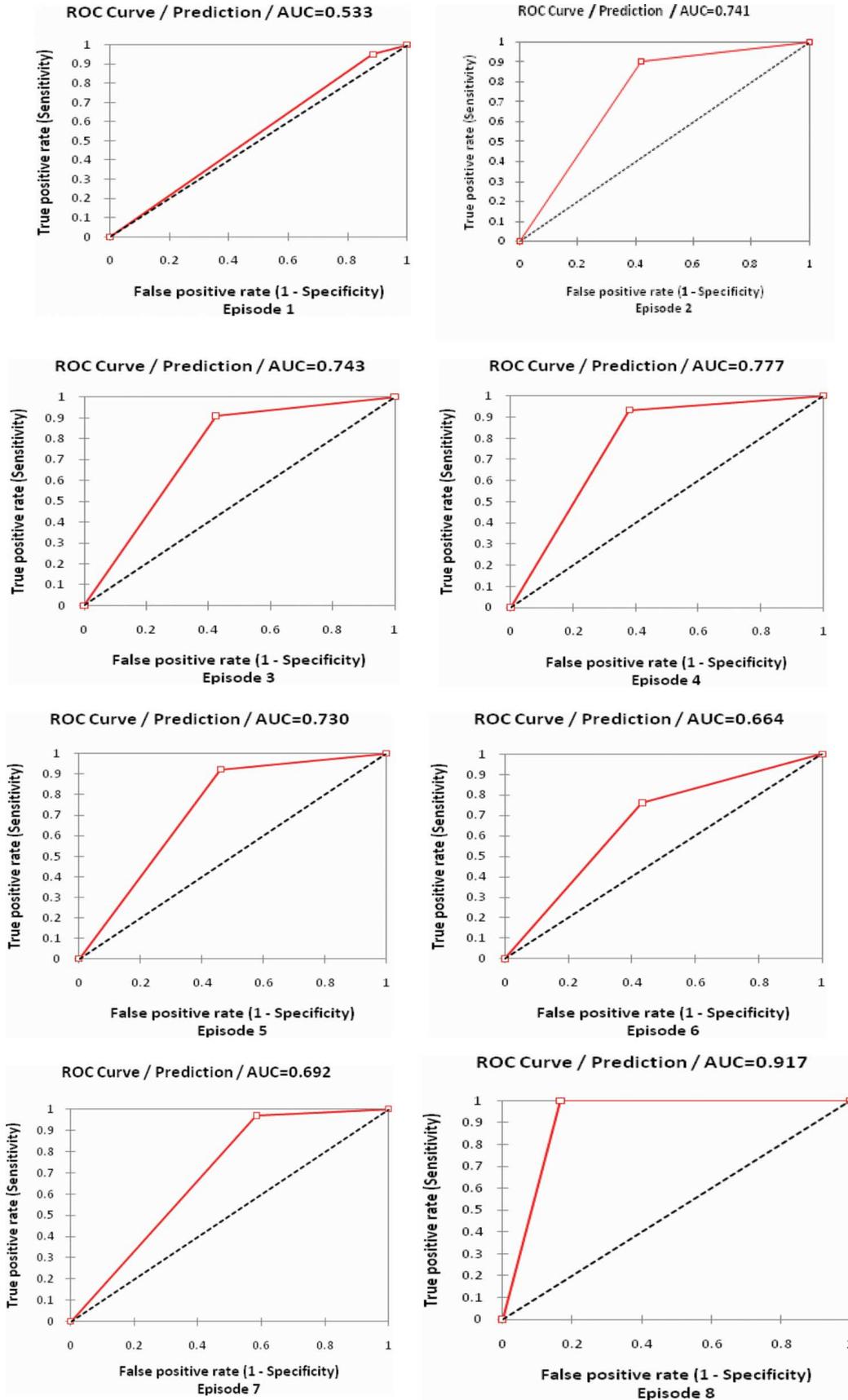


Fig. 5. ROC curve for Episodes one to eight for the machine learning algorithm.

The receiver operator characteristics (ROC) are summarized in Table IV (ACC: accuracy, NPV: negative predictive value, PPV: positive predictive value, SPC: specificity, SEN: sensitivity). The algorithm's final prediction of the screening attendance was based on a polling strategy that relies on the prediction confidence. The accuracy of the algorithm was around 68% for the first three episodes. Episode 4 had the maximum accuracy at 79%, closely followed by the fifth episode. The accuracies of the sixth and seventh episodes were lowest (57% and 51%, respectively). The NPV was the maximum at 51% for the fifth episode. The rest of the episodes had NPV values between 41% and 47%.

Episode 7 had the lowest NPV (30%). These lower NPVs were expected as the proportion of nonattendees was lesser in the test set (unbalanced). The PPVs for the fourth and fifth episodes were higher between 83% and 87%. The remaining episodes had values in the seventies range, except for the sixth episode where it was 64%. Specificity was highest for the seventh episode at 60%, but this may not be a true indicator as this episode had only 238 records in total. The next highest value was in the fifth episode at 49%. Episodes 1, 2, and 6 had values between 40% and 45%. Episodes 3 and 4 had lower values at 26% and 37%, respectively. The sensitivity was around 80% for the first four episodes, peaking at 85% for Episode 3. The higher the training set of records, the higher the sensitivity values. Since the previous algorithm (AI-ATT) had only four episodes, the averages for the first four episodes were used for comparing the JAABS and AI-ATT algorithms. The same set of attributes, when presented to commercial software (Clementine), generated improved results (see Table IV).

The first three episodes show an almost 10% increase in accuracy. Similarly, the later episodes (Episodes 4 and 5) when predicted by the JAABS–Clementine model, on average, do 6% better than the JAABS–Java algorithm, whereas Episodes 6 and 7 illustrated the maximum difference in accuracy (10–27%); this shows that the commercial software performed better even with a reduced training dataset. The NPV was lowest for the first episode, but was double when compared to AI-ATT and nearly 10% more than JAABS (Java). The NPV for the rest of the episodes (second to fifth) was around 73%. The remainder (sixth and seventh) were at 63% and 86%, respectively. The NPV is the metric that corresponds to the prediction of nonattendance and this was much better than that was achieved by the AI-ATT. Specificity is the next important measure and tests on Clementine showed promising results for all the episodes except for the first one.

The ROC curves for JAABS (Clementine) showed good prediction characteristics for all episodes except for Episode 1 (see Fig. 5). From the model's performance perspective, all these prediction characteristics were positive. The AI model proposed (JAABS—implemented in both Java and Clementine) was consistent and even outperformed the earlier model (AI-ATT) in many aspects. This could be attributed to the larger database and more complete attribute set and even the new predictor variable (screening distance) assisting in improving the algorithm's efficiency. The knowledge creation by applying AI (JAABS) is not only consistent, repeatable, and economical, but also ensures

minimal human intervention. This is ideal for automating the whole process.

The proposed AI network (JAABS) for predicting screening nonattendance would be incorporated in a new breast screening software model that connects to the screening database to generate the screening batch. Based on the prediction, an automated message would be sent to the women's healthcare stakeholders (GPs, nurses, and other clinical specialists). These messages would be assimilated by the clinical system used by the stakeholders and would eventually flag the women as a nonattender. When a woman's clinical record is opened, a flag/pop-up window would trigger opportunistic interventions that are aimed at educating the woman. This knowledge transfer would empower the woman to make an informed decision toward screening. This multistakeholder-based opportunistic intervention strategy would increase the overall breast screening attendance.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper discussed the details of how a machine learning-based prediction tool can be effectively applied to increase the breast cancer screening attendance. The need for a high degree of automation was highlighted to simplify the algorithm's adoption; such automation would also reduce overheads and make integration as seamless as possible [31]. From the model's performance perspective, all the prediction characteristics were positive. The machine learning-based AI model (JAABS—implemented in both Java and Clementine) proposed was consistent and even outperformed the earlier model (AI-ATT) in many aspects. The performance improvement could be attributed to the larger database, more complete attribute set and even the new predictor variable (screening distance). The knowledge creation by applying AI (JAABS) is not only reliable, repeatable, and economical, but also ensures minimal human intervention. There is still scope for improving the prediction efficiency and this can be achieved through better predictor attributes and/or improved machine learning techniques. The former would be difficult to achieve as the data source itself may not be available but the latter would be possible as better AI models, such as support vector machines, fuzzy logic, and genetic algorithms or a combination of these, would enable further investigation for increasing the efficiency.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors would like to thank J. Patnick CBE, Director, NHS Cancer Screening Programs (U.K.), for funding this research, Dr. M. Wallis, Consultant Radiologist, Cambridge Breast Unit team, and Margot Wheaton, Program Manager for the Warwickshire, Solihull and Coventry Breast Screening Service at Coventry and Warwickshire Hospital, for their excellent support and guidance throughout this research.

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QUERIES

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- Q1. Author: Please check whether the edits made in the sentence “This large percentage of nonattendance not only . . .” retain your intended sense. 621
- Q2. Author: Refs. [5], [6], [8], [12], [14], [15], [16], and [23] are not cited in the text. Please check and provide citations. 622
- Q3. Author: Please provide the expansion of KM. 623
- Q4. Author: Please provide the educational details of all the authors. 624
- Q5. Author: Please provide the year in which Aziz Guergachi became “Member” of the IEEE. 625
- Q6. Author: Please provide the year in which Rajeev K Bali became “Senior Member” of the IEEE. 626
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Predicting Breast Screening Attendance Using Machine Learning Techniques

Vikraman Baskaran, Aziz Guergachi, *Member, IEEE*, Rajeev K. Bali, *Senior Member, IEEE*,
and Raouf N. G. Naguib, *Senior Member, IEEE*

Abstract—Machine learning-based prediction has been effectively applied for many healthcare applications. Predicting breast screening attendance using machine learning (prior to the actual mammogram) is a new field. This paper presents new predictor attributes for such an algorithm. It describes a new hybrid algorithm that relies on back-propagation and radial basis function-based neural networks for prediction. The algorithm has been developed in an open source-based environment. The algorithm was tested on a 13-year dataset (1995–2008). This paper compares the algorithm and validates its accuracy and efficiency with different platforms. Nearly 80% accuracy and 88% positive predictive value and sensitivity were recorded for the algorithm. The results were encouraging; 40–50% of negative predictive value and specificity warrant further work. Preliminary results were promising and provided ample amount of reasons for testing the algorithm on a larger scale.

Index Terms—Breast screening, cancer, machine learning, neural networks, prediction, screening attendance.

I. INTRODUCTION

BREAST cancer is the most common cancer for women in North America [1]. In the U.K., over 40 000 women are being diagnosed with breast cancer each year [2], [3]. Mortality due to breast cancer is also one of the highest in the world [1], [4], and is the second highest of all cancers in the Canada [7]. Breast cancer should ideally be diagnosed at the earlier stages of its development to considerably reduce mortality. Possible treatments include removing or destroying the cancer cells to avoid the spread of the affected cells. Breast self-examination is an effective and noninvasive type of checking for any lumps in the breast tissue. Unfortunately, this greatly depends on the size of the lump, technique, and experience in carrying out a self-examination procedure by a woman [9]. An ultrasound test, examining breast tissue using sound waves, can be utilized to detect lumps but this is usually suited for women aged below 35

Manuscript received April 11, 2010; revised October 12, 2010; accepted December 23, 2010. Date of publication; date of current version. This work was supported in part by the NHS Cancer Screening Programs, U.K.

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Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/TITB.2010.2103954

owing to the higher density of breast tissue [1]. Having a tissue biopsy via a fine needle aspiration or an excision is often used to examine the cells histopathologically and to diagnose if the growth, lump, is benign or cancerous. These investigations are mostly employed in treatments or post-treatment examination and as second rung diagnostic confirmation methods [10]. Performing a computed tomography or an MRI scan would result in a thorough examination of the breast tissue but these techniques are not favored due to reasons which include cost, needs preparation, noise, time, and images that may not be clear [10].

Mammography is a technique for detecting breast tissue lumps using a low dosage of X-ray. This technique can even detect a 3-mm-sized lump. The X-ray image of the breast tissue is captured and the image is thoroughly read by experienced radiologists and specialist mammogram readers [10]. Preliminary research suggests that women aged 50 and above are more susceptible to breast cancer; mammography is more suited to women in this age range due to the lower density of breast tissue [11]. Even though mammography has its critics—mainly due to its high rate of false positives and false negatives [13]—it has become the standard procedure for screening women by the NHS National Breast Screening Program in the U.K. [3], [15]. Mammography is the best and most viable tool for mass screening to detect cancer in the breast at an early stage [17]; however, the effectiveness of diagnosis through screening is directly dependent on the percentage of women attending the screening program [18]–[20]. The NHS Breast Screening Program, catering to the entire eligible women population, is funded by the Department of Health in the U.K. It covers 2.5 million women every year and detected nearly 16 500 cancers in the screened population for the year 2007–2008 [3]. Currently, the screening program routinely screens women between the ages 50 and 70.

Early breast cancer detection through screening is fundamental for increasing the efficacy of cancer treatment [11], [21]. Mammography has been accepted as the best and most economically viable tool for population screening [22]. Maximizing coverage for the target population is crucial for the success of such screening programs [11]. Currently, the breast cancer screening attendance rates are below expectations in many countries that have publicly funded healthcare programs [24]. This paper proposes a set of protocols to increase breast screening attendance for the U.K.'s NHS breast screening program. Based on this protocol, a new software prototype was created and tested. The prototype tests the prediction algorithm and shares the prediction results with multiple healthcare stakeholders for initiating opportunistic interventions on nonattendeers. This prototype is a radical new idea that uses machine learning techniques for

86 predicting screening attendance and shares this knowledge by
87 adopting the health informatics initiative of the NHS.

88 II. CHALLENGE

89 The NHS Breast Screening Program Annual Review (2008)
90 states that, out of invited women, only 74% attend the screen-
91 ing program [3]. This sizeable nonattendance could result in
92 missed cancer detection for nearly 4 000 women (based on the
93 cancer detection rate within screened women) [3]. This large
94 percentage of nonattendance not only result in loss of life due
95 to breast cancer but also result in loss of screening resources
96 through costly imaging equipment laying idle, underutilization
97 of specialist-imaging expertise, wasted screening slots, and so
98 forth. Screening units are unable to arrange buffered attendees
99 for the idle slots since the units do not know *a priori* which
100 women will attend and which will not. In addition, there is a
101 sizeable cost factor involved in sending repeat screening ap-
102 pointments letters to nonattending women.

103 Reasons for nonattendance may be largely attributed to dis-
104 interest in attending a mammography session, prior or current
105 medical problems, and fear of X-rays [11], [24]. These rea-
106 sons can be negated by proper education provided to women.
107 Education has to be directed at explaining the advantages and
108 importance of screening and assist in removing the sociocultural
109 and personal barriers [25]. Other possible options include con-
110 venience in terms of time, place, and dates provided to women
111 for encouraging their attendance.

112 In spite of the expedient measures provided to the women,
113 nonattendance has been a grave concern for the NHS—National
114 Screening Program. This scenario can be properly addressed if
115 those women who may probably not attend a screening appoint-
116 ment can be identified in advance so that additional resources
117 can be directed at interventions that can increase screening
118 attendance.

119 A proposal enumerating the complete software solution is
120 summarized at the end of Section IV. The National Screening
121 Program has been constantly striving to provide better services
122 to the public and one of the new enhancements offered by the
123 screening services is to increase the screening age limit from
124 64 to 70 [26]. This effectively increases the number of screen-
125 ing episodes and results in augmenting the need for effective
126 use of the already stretched NHS resources. All the aforemen-
127 tioned factors underline the need to increase the breast screening
128 attendance.

129 III. SOLUTION PROPOSED

130 To address these challenges, a set of protocols were devel-
131 oped as part of the ongoing research. The protocols are based on
132 two components: 1) machine learning algorithms for knowledge
133 creation; and 2) health informatics for knowledge sharing. This
134 paper elaborates on how the prediction-based knowledge was
135 created through a machine learning algorithm. Machine learning
136 [Artificial Intelligence (AI)-based algorithm] was implemented
137 through the creation of a prototype software based on open

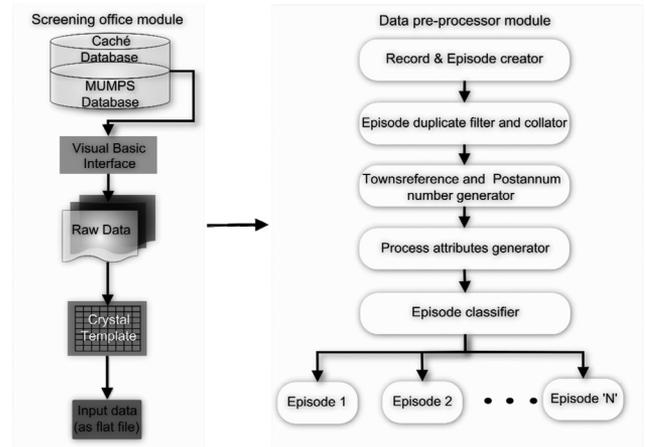


Fig. 1. Data filtering, preparation, and preprocessing.

138 source technologies. The prototype software was automated to
139 produce the preprocessed data and eventually normalize the
140 data for neural network (AI) assimilation. These activities were
141 performed sequentially without human involvement for repeata-
142 bility, reliability, and accuracy.

143 The AI-based neural network incorporates all additional
144 transformations that occurred within the screening process (in-
145 cluding the change in the screening upper age limit). The pro-
146 totype framework was called JAABS—Java-based attendance
147 prediction by AI for breast screening. The prototype combines
148 the demographic data pertaining to the nonattending women
149 and information related to their family physician as a package.
150 This package then triggers the generation of an electronic mes-
151 sage based on the Health Level 7 (HL7) standards and utilizes
152 web services as the message delivering technology. This paper
153 focuses on the machine learning techniques used within the pro-
154 totype and subsequent testing of the algorithm for its prediction
155 accuracy.

156 A. Data Preprocessing Module

157 The prototype was constructed using two main modules: 1)
158 data preprocessing module; and 2) AI module. The data prepro-
159 cessing module (see Fig. 1) consists of “Screening office mod-
160 ule” that accomplishes data extraction from the screening unit’s
161 database. The demography details for the three-year call/recall
162 were downloaded (extraction date—Jan 2008) from the local
163 health care authority’s database. The downloading is affected
164 via the health link network onto a standalone system within
165 the breast screening unit. The historical data related to screen-
166 ing, appointments, and results pertaining to screening women
167 are retained within the screening unit’s “Massachusetts Gen-
168 eral Hospital Utility Multi-Programming System” (MUMPS)
169 database. MUMPS, also known as the Oxford system, is one of
170 the earliest programming languages used since the 1960s [27].
171 This language was extensively employed to write database ap-
172 plications explicitly for the healthcare domain.

```

Generate input data as flat file from "Crystal Report"
template
For every record
  Separate records for each woman
  Remove duplicate episodes
  Collate episodes into one record
  Generate townsend reference and post annum numbers
  Generate attributes
  Classify and save record into their respective episode
  groups
End

```

Pseudo-code 1. Pseudo-code for filtering raw data and preprocessing it to generate predictor attributes and classify them based on their episode details.

TABLE I
THIRTEEN-YEAR DATASET DETAILS

Description	Number of records
Total valid women's record	159,412
Number of records deleted due to multiple entries	15,778
Records with missing values	9,799
CR template output records	540,539

173 The MUMPS database is based on the disk operating system
 174 (DOS) and employs character-based user interface for database
 175 interrogation [27]. The cumbersome DOS-based system is prone
 176 to erroneous data entry and hence warranted a change in the
 177 system. A new software package, the National Breast Screen-
 178 ing Computer System (NBSS), was developed in 2002–2003
 179 to address these issues [28]. This NBSS consists of a Visual
 180 Basic (VB) front end connected to a “Caché” database which
 181 is seamlessly integrated with the MUMPS database [29]. Due
 182 to the aforementioned factors, an unstable environment, thus,
 183 resulted in considerable complexities during data extraction for
 184 the current research. The screening office module (see Fig. 1)
 185 is executed with the existing software programs available in the
 186 breast screening office.

187 The VB front end made data extraction straightforward from
 188 the MUMPS database through Structured Query Language
 189 (SQL) queries directed at the Caché database. Currently, the
 190 breast screening office is employing “Crystal Report” (CR) as
 191 part of the NBSS to generate reports for all the screening activi-
 192 ties, including screening, administration, invitation, etc. Part of
 193 the data preprocessing was implemented through the CR soft-
 194 ware. The screening unit had earlier indicated that the routine
 195 functioning of the screening office should not be affected during
 196 the data extraction process.

197 Hence, prior to data extraction, a CR template was created to
 198 reflect the format of the data to be exported (see pseudo-code
 199 1). This template was used to export the data as a flat file to
 200 negate any system instability. All the screening units around the
 201 country were expected to have some form of minimum facility
 202 for creating datasets in a flat file format. Coupled with this, a
 203 need for a low overhead on the existing IT system and minimum
 204 additional complexities was considered as fundamental for the
 205 prototype. All the aforementioned rationale strengthened the
 206 need for adopting a compromised strategy that exports data as
 207 a flat file, so that the mode of data transfer can be standardized
 208 across the country with minimum or no interrogation with the
 209 screening database.

210 The SQL query generated details for all the women in as
 211 many records, pertaining to the demography and episodes. The
 212 demographic data were incomplete and only the first record of
 213 a particular woman had the complete dataset and the remaining
 214 records of the women corresponded to the historical episode
 215 details (see Table I). The women's address and name were ex-
 216 cluded from the study to address data protection and maintain

anonymity. In spite of its necessity for the messaging module, 217
 the complete dataset was generated without the personal infor- 218
 mation of the screening women. The post code of the women 219
 is indispensable for the current study, as it generates the im- 220
 portant predictor variable in the form of Townsend's reference 221
 (Townsend deprivation score denotes the socioeconomic status 222
 of a given postcode) and post annum number. 223

To address this without compromising the research work, 224
 variables related to postcode, such as the Townsend score, post 225
 annum (post annum is an arbitrary number associated with the 226
 women's postcode) and screening distance, were all processed to 227
 generate categorical variables within the screening unit and then 228
 the data were ported to the AI module. The individual women 229
 were identified by their SX number (pseudo-anonymised unique 230
 identifier). The AI module generated the attendance prediction, 231
 which formed the core of the knowledge transfer. The recipient 232
 of the knowledge transfer is the woman's family physician; 233
 hence, family physician information in the form of surname, 234
 surgery address, and postcode was later collated for sending the 235
 HL7-based message. 236

```

For each episode group
  Normalize data for AI module
  Generate networks (BPNN and RBFN) and train
  For each network
    Validate data
  Test data
  Generate screening attendance prediction
  Collate the best and save output with women's detail
End

```

Pseudo-code 2. Pseudo-code for the AI module and results collation for the final output

One “Record” object was associated with one or more 237
 “Episode” objects (see Fig. 2). The gaps in the demographic 238
 record have to be filled and the episode details were associ- 239
 ated with the women's demographic data. Exhaustive analyses 240
 of the data indicated that the CR report had duplicate episode 241
 details and are to be removed before further processing can be 242
 implemented (see Table I). Each record read from the CR re- 243
 port has to be first partitioned into episode details and stored 244
 as “Episode” objects. They are finally collated and associated 245
 with the women's demographic details (represented as “Record” 246
 object). In addition to this, all the records have to be automat- 247
 ically validated. The earlier work by Arochena had identified 248
 all the contributing predictor attributes through comprehensive 249

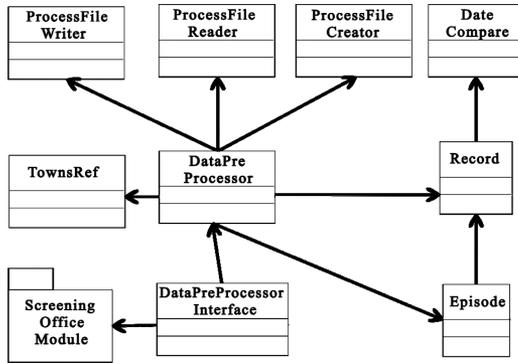


Fig. 2. UML class diagram for data preprocessing module (with I/O processing submodule).

TABLE II
DATASET SPREAD ACROSS THE EPISODES AND ITS TRI-FURCATED DATA

Episode number	Total records	Train set	Valid set	Test set
Episode 1	23,277	4653	4708	13916
Episode 2	33,765	6838	6734	20193
Episode 3	29497	5868	5891	17738
Episode 4	43584	8792	8839	25953
Episode 5	26669	5340	5338	15991
Episode 6	2366	473	485	1408
Episode 7	238	36	39	163
Episode 8	16	3	3	10

250 statistical analyses [30]. After generating the required attributes,
 251 the preprocessor module classifies the “Record” objects based
 252 on the number of “Episode” objects it contains (see Fig. 2). This
 253 dataset was then written as an in-process flat file for reference.
 254 All errors generated during the execution of the preprocessing
 255 module are written in a log (error) and is also saved as a flat file
 256 for future reference.

257 The data preprocessing module identified episodes with miss-
 258 ing data and removed them from the study. In total 2% (9 799)
 259 were removed as records with missing data (see Table I). It fur-
 260 ther deleted almost 3% (15 778) of the total records due to dupli-
 261 cate entries. The valid records constituted 86% (159 412) of the
 262 extracted dataset; on an average, each record had 3.2 episodes.
 263 Table II depicts the spread of data for each episode. The highest
 264 number of records was reached for the fourth episode. The first
 265 to fifth episodes had an average of 31 000 records. For the re-
 266 maining episodes (sixth, seventh, and eighth) the average is only
 267 800 records. This might have a significant impact on the actual
 268 prediction capacity of the JAABS algorithm for these episodes.

269 B. AI Module

270 JAABS is the new algorithm designed and developed in a
 271 JAVA environment. As the design process was based on more
 272 of an evolutionary type, a modular design strategy was selected.
 273 This assists in parallel development of the implementation and
 274 also enables testing as modules rather than as one single mono-
 275 lithic program. The modular design also ensured that any addi-
 276 tions or changes happening within the screening unit’s business

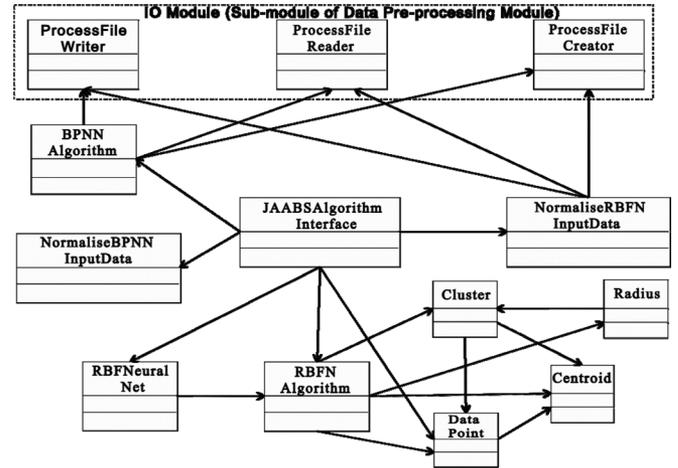


Fig. 3. UML class diagram of JAABS algorithm showing back propagation-based neural network and radial-basis function-based neural.

logic can be implemented without affecting the other modules 277
 (see pseudo-code 2.). The “AI Module” encompasses the data 278
 normalizer; the neural networks; and the results collator (see 279
 Fig. 3). The Java-based algorithm implements two different 280
 neural networks: feed-forward back-propagation neural network 281
 (BPNN) and radial basis function neural network (RBFN). 282

283 The neural network algorithm requires the input data vector
 284 classified as binary values; hence, the input data are normalized.
 285 The input data in the RBFN are first passed through a radial basis
 286 function algorithm, to identify the clusters and assign a radius
 287 for cluster classification. These cluster centers are calculated
 288 and the real-time data are checked against these established
 289 cluster centers. Once the distance is calculated, the input dataset
 290 is then associated with its nearest cluster. These data then trigger
 291 a neural network for performing the prediction on attendance.
 292 Each episode has a different set of predictor attributes; hence,
 293 each episode is fed through separate neural networks that were
 294 trained with their respective training dataset.

295 The results module collects the collated prediction for each
 296 episode and submits it to a “Pooler” based classifier (see Fig. 4).
 297 The “Pooler” finds the best prediction for the given episode
 298 and generates the final prediction output based on the confi-
 299 dence value of the prediction. This is fed into the prediction
 300 result collator for all the input (women) based on each episode.
 301 The consolidated result is used to generate the nonattendance
 302 list and written as a flat file for processing by the “messaging
 303 module” for message generation. The final output is associated
 304 with the women’s SX number so that general physician details
 305 can be added for knowledge sharing and to initiate physician
 306 intervention.

307 IV. ANALYSES

308 The predictor attributes (PA: post annum is an arbitrary num-
 309 ber associated with the women’s postcode, TS: townsend depri-
 310 vation score denotes the socioeconomic status of a given post-
 311 code, AttBin: previous episode’s attendance, NumTest: number
 312 of tests in the previous episodes, Cancer: denotes if cancer was
 313 diagnosed in previous episodes, FP: false positive in previous

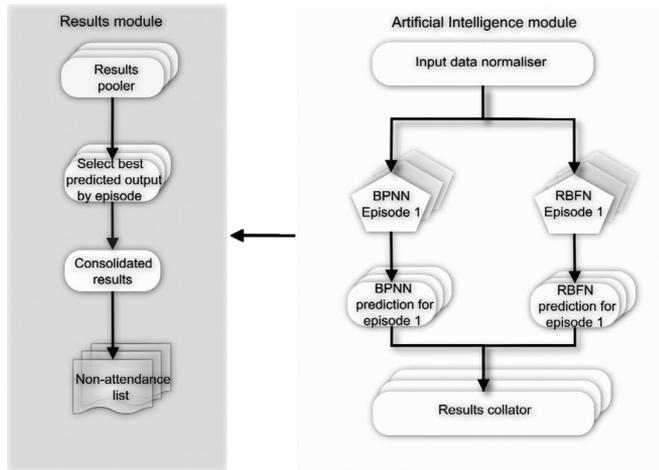


Fig. 4. Machine learning algorithm containing artificial intelligence and results module.

TABLE III
PREDICTOR ATTRIBUTES AND THEIR ASSOCIATION TO THE SCREENING ATTENDANCE EPISODE WISE

Independent variables	Epi1	Epi2	Epi3	Epi4	Epi5	Epi6	Epi7	Epi8
PA	❖	❖	❖	❖	❖	✓	✓	✓
TS	❖	❖	❖	❖	❖	❖	❖	✓
AttBin		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
NumTest		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Cancer		●	●	❖	●	●	●	
FP		●	●	●	●	●	●	
HFP			●	●	●	●	●	✓
HC			●	●	●	●	●	
AttTypeBin	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
AgeBand	❖	❖	●	●	●	●	●	✓
Slip	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
ScrDist	●	●	●	●	●	❖	✓	

✓ Association more than 0.2
 ❖ Association more than 0.1 and less than 0.2
 ● Association more than 0.0 and less than 0.1
 No association is left blank

314 episodes, HFP: history of false positive, HC: history of cancer,
 315 AttTypeBin: type of attendance like first or later episodes, Age-
 316 Band: age categories, Slip: difference in days between screening
 317 appointment and actual screening date, ScrDist: distance traveled
 318 by the women for getting a mammogram) were initially
 319 verified for their association with the screening attendance (see
 320 Table III). The variables, being categorical, were analyzed
 321 through parameters such as Lambda, Uncertainty, Phi (), Cram-
 322 mer's V, and Contingency (confidence level at 95%).

323 These tests for association were conducted for establishing
 324 some kind of linear relationship between the dependent and in-
 325 dependent variables. Even though an association was not strong,
 326 it was used only to establish some form of relationship between
 327 the variables. This was used as an indication and as a first step
 328 for resolving the real problem space which is multispatial. This
 329 strategy assisted in filtering out the nonparticipating attributes
 330 and to reduce the introduction of background noise.

331 Episode 1 lacked the historical variables and had to rely
 332 only on demographic details. The rest of the episodes have

TABLE IV
ROC FOR ALL EPISODES—AIATT AND JAABS (JAVA AND CLEMENTINE)

AI-ATT- Clementine (version 5)					
AIATT	ACC	NPV	PPV	SPC	SEN
Episode 1	67.01	20.45	87.48	41.81	71.43
Episode 2	87.76	56.1	92.85	58.91	93.14
Episode 3	86.49	50.54	92.91	55.99	91.32
Episode 4	81.65	41.26	92.51	64.59	85.42
Avg. for 4					
Episodes	80.73	42.09	91.44	55.33	85.33
JAABS- Java					
JAABS	ACC	NPV	PPV	SPC	SEN
Episode 1	67.29	42.07	76.71	40.22	78.05
Episode 2	69.38	47.65	77.87	45.66	79.22
Episode 3	69.95	39.45	76.46	26.29	85.59
Episode 4	79.17	39.25	87.06	37.37	87.93
Episode 5	76.23	51.61	83.84	49.64	84.89
Episode 6	57.79	46.51	64.77	44.92	66.21
Episode 7	51.39	30.02	76.53	60.05	48.18
Avg. for 4					
Episodes	71.45	42.11	79.53	37.39	82.7
Average	67.31	42.37	77.61	43.45	75.72
JAABS-Clementine (version 12)					
JAABS	ACC	NPV	PPV	SPC	SEN
Episode 1	68.16	52.58	69.35	11.57	95.04
Episode 2	79.61	74.59	81.33	57.93	90.28
Episode 3	81.24	72.56	83.86	57.63	90.99
Episode 4	85.73	74.91	88.45	62	93.34
Episode 5	80.81	74.43	82.56	53.88	92.18
Episode 6	67.88	63.8	70.36	56.7	76.16
Episode 7	78.99	86.49	77.61	41.56	96.89
Avg. for 4					
Episodes	78.68	68.66	80.75	47.28	92.41
Average	77.49	71.34	79.08	48.75	90.7

333 both the demographic and historical attributes as predictors; es-
 334 pecially the new attribute in the form of screening distance
 335 was found to increase the prediction efficiency for all the
 336 episodes. The JAABS algorithm and its predictor attributes
 337 were compared with its predecessor [AI-based attendance pre-
 338 diction algorithm(AI-ATT)] for validation [30]. The AI-ATT
 339 algorithm was developed in a visual modeling environment—
 340 Clementine [30]. This off-the-shelf software assisted in design-
 341 ing and implementing the algorithm rapidly, but created new
 342 functional challenges such as the need for licensing the software
 343 for all the screening units, specialist requirement for running the
 344 algorithm, as it was not automated, and is based on outdated data
 345 and semantics (1989–2001) to name just a few.

346 AI-ATT provided a base line for comparison and a reference
 347 for validating the JAABS algorithm. To make the validation
 348 more up-to-date, the same dataset that was applied to the JAABS
 349 algorithm was also tested on Clementine (version 12.0). The
 350 dataset was trifurcated into training, validating, and test sets (see
 351 Table II). The training set contained equal numbers of women
 352 categorized as attendees and nonattendees. The validating set
 353 contained data that were never exposed during the training and
 354 contained an equal number of attendees and nonattendees. The
 355 test set contained skewed data, where nonattendees were only a
 356 small proportion. This ensures that the test set reflects the real-
 357 time dataset that would also be skewed (less nonattendees). The
 358 JAABS algorithm was tested with the complete set of episodes
 359 after appropriate training and validation.

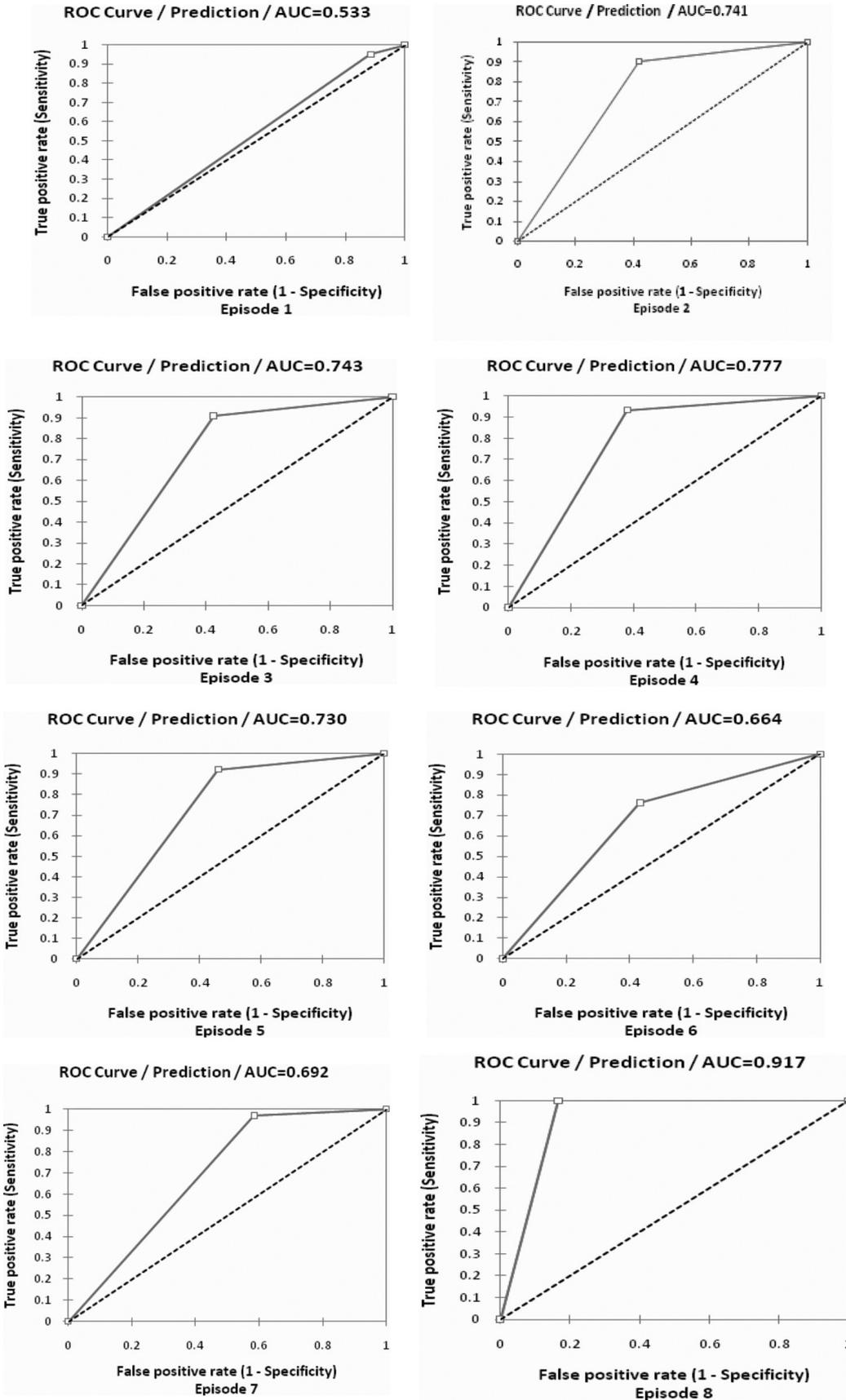


Fig. 5. ROC curve for Episodes one to eight for the machine learning algorithm.

The receiver operator characteristics (ROC) are summarized in Table IV (ACC: accuracy, NPV: negative predictive value, PPV: positive predictive value, SPC: specificity, SEN: sensitivity). The algorithm's final prediction of the screening attendance was based on a polling strategy that relies on the prediction confidence. The accuracy of the algorithm was around 68% for the first three episodes. Episode 4 had the maximum accuracy at 79%, closely followed by the fifth episode. The accuracies of the sixth and seventh episodes were lowest (57% and 51%, respectively). The NPV was the maximum at 51% for the fifth episode. The rest of the episodes had NPV values between 41% and 47%.

Episode 7 had the lowest NPV (30%). These lower NPVs were expected as the proportion of nonattendees was lesser in the test set (unbalanced). The PPVs for the fourth and fifth episodes were higher between 83% and 87%. The remaining episodes had values in the seventies range, except for the sixth episode where it was 64%. Specificity was highest for the seventh episode at 60%, but this may not be a true indicator as this episode had only 238 records in total. The next highest value was in the fifth episode at 49%. Episodes 1, 2, and 6 had values between 40% and 45%. Episodes 3 and 4 had lower values at 26% and 37%, respectively. The sensitivity was around 80% for the first four episodes, peaking at 85% for Episode 3. The higher the training set of records, the higher the sensitivity values. Since the previous algorithm (AI-ATT) had only four episodes, the averages for the first four episodes were used for comparing the JAABS and AI-ATT algorithms. The same set of attributes, when presented to commercial software (Clementine), generated improved results (see Table IV).

The first three episodes show an almost 10% increase in accuracy. Similarly, the later episodes (Episodes 4 and 5) when predicted by the JAABS–Clementine model, on average, do 6% better than the JAABS–Java algorithm, whereas Episodes 6 and 7 illustrated the maximum difference in accuracy (10–27%); this shows that the commercial software performed better even with a reduced training dataset. The NPV was lowest for the first episode, but was double when compared to AI-ATT and nearly 10% more than JAABS (Java). The NPV for the rest of the episodes (second to fifth) was around 73%. The remainder (sixth and seventh) were at 63% and 86%, respectively. The NPV is the metric that corresponds to the prediction of nonattendance and this was much better than that was achieved by the AI-ATT. Specificity is the next important measure and tests on Clementine showed promising results for all the episodes except for the first one.

The ROC curves for JAABS (Clementine) showed good prediction characteristics for all episodes except for Episode 1 (see Fig. 5). From the model's performance perspective, all these prediction characteristics were positive. The AI model proposed (JAABS—implemented in both Java and Clementine) was consistent and even outperformed the earlier model (AI-ATT) in many aspects. This could be attributed to the larger database and more complete attribute set and even the new predictor variable (screening distance) assisting in improving the algorithm's efficiency. The knowledge creation by applying AI (JAABS) is not only consistent, repeatable, and economical, but also ensures

minimal human intervention. This is ideal for automating the whole process.

The proposed AI network (JAABS) for predicting screening nonattendance would be incorporated in a new breast screening software model that connects to the screening database to generate the screening batch. Based on the prediction, an automated message would be sent to the women's healthcare stakeholders (GPs, nurses, and other clinical specialists). These messages would be assimilated by the clinical system used by the stakeholders and would eventually flag the women as a nonattende. When a woman's clinical record is opened, a flag/pop-up window would trigger opportunistic interventions that are aimed at educating the woman. This knowledge transfer would empower the woman to make an informed decision toward screening. This multistakeholder-based opportunistic intervention strategy would increase the overall breast screening attendance.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper discussed the details of how a machine learning-based prediction tool can be effectively applied to increase the breast cancer screening attendance. The need for a high degree of automation was highlighted to simplify the algorithm's adoption; such automation would also reduce overheads and make integration as seamless as possible [31]. From the model's performance perspective, all the prediction characteristics were positive. The machine learning-based AI model (JAABS—implemented in both Java and Clementine) proposed was consistent and even outperformed the earlier model (AI-ATT) in many aspects. The performance improvement could be attributed to the larger database, more complete attribute set and even the new predictor variable (screening distance). The knowledge creation by applying AI (JAABS) is not only reliable, repeatable, and economical, but also ensures minimal human intervention. There is still scope for improving the prediction efficiency and this can be achieved through better predictor attributes and/or improved machine learning techniques. The former would be difficult to achieve as the data source itself may not be available but the latter would be possible as better AI models, such as support vector machines, fuzzy logic, and genetic algorithms or a combination of these, would enable further investigation for increasing the efficiency.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors would like to thank J. Patnick CBE, Director, NHS Cancer Screening Programs (U.K.), for funding this research, Dr. M. Wallis, Consultant Radiologist, Cambridge Breast Unit team, and Margot Wheaton, Program Manager for the Warwickshire, Solihull and Coventry Breast Screening Service at Coventry and Warwickshire Hospital, for their excellent support and guidance throughout this research.

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He was awarded the Fulbright Cancer Fellowship in 1995–1996 when he carried out research at the University of Hawaii, Mānoa, on the applications of artificial neural networks in breast cancer diagnosis and prognosis. He is a member of several national and international research committees and boards.

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QUERIES

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- Q1. Author: Please check whether the edits made in the sentence “This large percentage of nonattendance not only . . .” retain your intended sense. 621
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- Q3. Author: Please provide the expansion of KM. 623
- Q4. Author: Please provide the educational details of all the authors. 624
- Q5. Author: Please provide the year in which Aziz Guergachi became “Member” of the IEEE. 625
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