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A Weighted Multi-Feature Transfer Learning Framework for Intelligent Medical Decision Making

Yun Yang^a, Jing Guo^b, Qiongwei Ye^c, Yuelong Xia^b, Po Yang^d, Amin Ullah^e, Khan Muhammad^e

^aSchool of Software, Yunnan University, Kunming, China ^bSchool of Information Science and Engineering, Yunnan University, Kunming, China ^cSchool of Business, Yunnan University of Finance and Economics, Kunming, China ^dDepartment of Computer Science, Sheffield University, Sheffield, UK ^eDepartment of Software, Sejong University, Seoul 143-747, Republic of Korea

ABSTRACT

Transformative computing provides an emerging technology to data analysis and information processing, but how to effectively connect the data derived from different domains has aroused much of concern. Especially on medical areas, the scarcity of annotated medical data makes it hard to build a robust classification model, thus, the utilization of medical resources from different sources is particularly important. Transfer learning leverages the knowledge gained from the related domain to enhance the computational effectivity on the target domain. In this work, we extend transfer learning with ensemble learning to present a novel Weighted Multi-Feature Hybrid Transfer Learning Framework (W-MHTL) that builds a transformative approach to connect different domains and applies it to medical decision making. Our approach lessens the distribution variances from multiple perspectives by applying variant types of feature-based transfer learning methods. In each feature space, we construct the transfer model by evaluating the corelations and obtain the predicting result from each model. Finally, a feasible ensemble strategy is used to jointly consider each result. We evaluate our approach on synthetic datasets and UCI medical benchmarks, and a cerebral stroke dataset collected from local hospital. The experiment results reveal our method achieves superior performances with the currently available alternatives.

Keywords: medical decision making; transfer learning; ensemble learning; distribution variances; transformative computing

1. Introduction

With the continues expansion of Internet and the evolution of technology, the data scale grows exponentially, which lights the enthusiasm for researchers to apply more intelligent learning methods and mine additional useful information in huge number of datasets [1-3]. The Wise Information Technology of 120 (WIT120) aims to build a regional medical information platform for health records and utilize the intelligent technologies to help doctors and researchers improve the efficiency and quality of patients' medical treatments [4]. Due to the efficient data analysis and information mining abilities,

Corresponding author: Qiongwei Ye, E-mail: yeqiongwei@163.com; Yun Yang and Jing Guo contributed equally to this work.

machine learning has become a mainstream approach in WIT120, including healthcare systems [5-7], early interventions [8, 9], disease diagnosis support [10-12], and others [13-15]. In real-world applications, data analysis is usually run based on large information sets gathered, obtained from varied resources, which are frequently independent of each other. Especially in the medical fields, the uneven development of medical condition leads to the problems, such as lacking medical resources, limited diagnosis information and high diagnostic error rates, which will cause insufficient or even no reliable medical data to build a robust classification model. Compared to remote areas, developed areas tend to possess sufficient medical resources, including clinical records, medical images, and so on. However, these independent medical resources between different areas exist distribution variances caused by discrepancies in medical facilities, age groups, geography and other factors [16]. The direct use of existing medical models for medical decision making in remote area often fails to reach a satisfactory result [17]. Transformative computing aims to provide a persuasive method to execute computations or analysis on the data obtained from various resources [18, 19]. Through this way, we can make a rational use of multiple resources, to improve the processing ability of target tasks. As illustrated in Fig. 1, the main objective of this paper is to construct a transformative method to fix the chasm between different medical domains and utilize the medical resources from developed areas as auxiliary supplement to offer better medical treatments for medical decision making in remote areas.



Fig. 1. Flow chart of the intelligent medical decision making.

Transfer learning [20] breaks the hypothesis of traditional machine learning that the distribution of training data and testing data must be consistent. It can improve the ability to solve target tasks by decreasing the distribution variances and building the connection between domains such that the knowledge obtained from the related resources can be effectively used [21]. Following the terminology of transfer learning, we denote the one that contains sufficient annotated data as the source domain and the one with only limited amounts of data, or none at all, as the target domain [22]. By utilizing massive, similar and high-quality medical resources collected in developed areas, transfer learning can be used as a transformative way to improve the medical decision making in remote areas. There are four categories of transfer learning approaches [20]: instance-based transfer learning [23-25], feature-based transfer learning [26-29], model-based transfer learning [30, 31] and relation-based transfer learning [17, 32]. In our framework, we mainly consider feature-based and instance-based transfer methods. The feature-based transfer learning aims to reduce the discrepancy between source and target domains through feature transformation. By rationally transforming the origin source domain and target domain into a new feature space, the distribution variance can be effectively reduced. The instance-based transfer learning method reuses data based on generating weighting rules and has better theoretical foundations. However, some problems still exist in the aforementioned transfer learning approaches in practical applications. Feature-based transfer learning methods can only reduce the distribution variance from a single perspective, so it is difficult to select an optimal method for a given data set. Moreover, when mapped into the new feature space, the traditional methods directly use the source domain to train the classifier for target domain, which will cause low generalization by irrelevant instances. Instance-based transfer learning is effective in domain distributions with small discrepancies, but it has problems when addressing complex distributions. Considering the defects of traditional transfer learning methods in medical decision making, we apply various feature mapping methods to transform the source domain and target domain into several new feature spaces, in which the discrepancy between domains can be effectively reduced from different views. After that, the instance-based transfer learning method is used to weight the training sets on account of the different contributions for target domains. The result of each single-feature transfer model can be obtained after applying our hybrid strategy.

To aggregate each single-feature transfer model and integrate each output for a better prediction result, we extend ensemble approach and propose a feasible ensemble strategy for our framework. Ensemble learning completes classification tasks by constructing and combining multiple weak classifiers to achieve better results [33]. The advantages of the combination of ensemble learning and transfer learning can be summarized from three main aspects: (1) Accuracy: A combined result achieves a better average performance than does a single transfer result; (2) Transferability: A combined solution can extract more domain knowledge from the source domain; (3) Robustness: A combined solution can reduce sensitivity to distribution variances. In this regard, researchers have conducted different studies. For instance, Acharya et al. [34] described an optimization framework that utilized existing classifiers trained on source data and a similarity matrix from a cluster ensemble operating on the target data that yielded a consensus labelling of the target data. Kandaswamy et al. [35] proposed a methodology to reduce the impact of selective layer-based transference and provided an optimized framework that works for many transfer learning cases. Bhatt et al. [36] combined transfer learning and co-training paradigms

and applied this co-transfer learning framework to perform cross-resolution face matching. Our previous studies illustrated the advantages of using ensemble learning algorithms [37-41].

In this paper, we present a transformative approach which extends transfer learning and ensemble learning to solve problems in medical decision making. Our framework has two parts: First, we take a combination of feature-based and instance-based transfer learning approaches to form the hybrid transfer model. Specifically, considering the complicated distribution variance, we apply multiple feature-based methods that decrease the discrepancy from different views. Then the instance-based transfer learning method can be used to construct the hybrid models and enhance the connection between different domains. Second, we propose an ensemble strategy to make further analysis for each single-feature hybrid transfer model and reconcile the predictions to obtain a final transfer result. The main contributions of our work are summarized as follows:

- We leverage the transfer learning and ensemble learning to propose a transformative approach that decreases the distribution variance among different medical resources and provides an effective solution for target classification tasks on medical decision making.
- Compared with other solutions, our approach utilizes different feature-based transfer learning methods to reduce the distribution discrepancy from various perspectives, which solves the difficulty of searching the optimal feature transformation in the conditions of the complex distributions.
- By combining feature-based transfer learning and instance-based transfer learning to form a hybrid transfer model, our approach overcomes the fundamental weakness of reducing the distribution discrepancy and eliminates the negative effects by offering a proper weighting strategy for irrelevant samples.
- Based on the different distribution discrepancies after feature mapping, we measure the correspondence between source domain and target domain in the transformed feature space and propose a novel weighted ensemble strategy to obtain the final results.

The following parts of this paper are organized as follows. Section 2 presents related works. Section 3 describes the proposed framework and provides mathematical analysis. Section 4 reports the simulation results on a collection of medical datasets. Section 5 provides further discussion of the experimental results and possible future work. The conclusions are drawn in Section 6.

2. Related work

Domain adaptation is an important branch of feature-based transfer learning that maps source and target data into a Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (RKHS) [42] in which the distributions of the source and target domains should be as similar as possible. Maximum Mean Difference (MMD) [43] is a commonly used measurement to compute the differences among various domains [26-29]. By minimizing the MMD, the optimal mapping space can be found. The distribution issues that occur between the source and target domains can largely be summarized in two different aspects: marginal distribution, namely $P(X_s) = P(X_T)$ and conditional distribution, namely $P(Y_s | X_s) = P(Y_T | X_T)$ [21]. Many researchers focus on how to provide a proper way to find the optimal transformation based on the above variances. But without performing a qualitative analysis of the data distribution, it is quite difficult

to choose the optimal method to adapt the distribution variances between domains. The instance-based transfer learning methods reuse data based on generating weighting rules and has better theoretical foundations [23, 24, 44]. For example, TrAdaBoost [23] proposed a new mechanism to automatically adjust the weights of training samples. In the source domain, the weights of instances reduced when the instances were misclassified, while in the target domain, as in AdaBoost [45], the weights were reduced for correctly classified instances and increased for incorrectly classified instances. When assigned reasonable weights, the training instances can efficiently transfer the source domain knowledge to solve the target task. However, this kind of approach is effective in domain distributions with small discrepancies, it will lose its efficiency when addressing complex distributions.

Recently, lots of researchers have applied transfer learning methods to medical decision making. Samala et al. [46] presented a multi-stage transfer learning framework for the classification of malignant and benign masses in digital mammography tomography synthesis. By conducting a two-step fine-tuning strategy, a well-trained neural network can be firstly fine-tuned with the mammography dataset and utilize the annotated digital breast dataset to make a further training. The simulation results demonstrate the advantageous of transfer learning in improving the performance of model in target tasks when training data is limited. Due to effects of contrast, brightness and artifacts in medical images and the time and labour consuming to examine and evaluate, Martinez et al. [47] leveraged transfer learning to present an aided diagnosis tool to solve the classification tasks on retinography. They prove its ability in distinguishing among different grades of diabetic retinopathy. Wang et al. [48] proposed a transfer learning approach with least squares support vector machine, which can leverage the limited training sets to maintain the robustness of the model. The proposed approach is applied to a real-world clinical dataset to predict overall and cancer-specific mortality in patients with bladder cancer at 5 years after radical cystectomy.

3. Weighted Multi-Feature Hybrid Transfer Learning Framework

In this section, we propose the W-MHTL. This framework can be mainly divided into 2 parts: the *construction of the hybrid transfer learning model* and *MMD-based weighted ensemble*.

3.1. Problem Statement

Let $\mathcal{D}_s = \{x_i, y_i\}(i = 1, ..., n)$ be the source domain. To enable our transfer learning model, we use part of the labelled data as training data in the target domain and denote as $\mathcal{D}_T = \mathcal{D}_T^{train} U \mathcal{D}_T^{test} = \{x_j^{train}, y_j^{train}\} U \{x_j^{test}\}(j = 1, ..., m)$. We assume the feature space is $\mathcal{X}_S = \mathcal{X}_T$, and the label space is $\mathcal{Y}_S = \mathcal{Y}_T$. The data distribution between the different domains exists as variances in either the conditional probability distribution $P(Y_S | X_S) = P(Y_T | X_T)$ or the marginal probability distribution $P(X_S) = P(X_T)$. Therefore, our transfer learning model aims to learn the labels of \mathcal{D}_T^{test} using the source domain \mathcal{D}_S and the labelled target domain \mathcal{D}_T^{train} .

3.2. Construction of the Hybrid Transfer Learning Model

Regarding the different types of domain distributions, it is hard to find a high-performing domain adaptation method for all given datasets. Therefore, we adopt different types of methods to narrow the distribution variance by mapping them into multiple RKHSs. In this research, we adopt four classical domain adaptation methods to map the source domain and target domain into new feature spaces and we define the mapping function as φ_c (c = 1,...,C). We denote \mathcal{H} as RKHS, $l \in \{1, 2, ..., L\}$ as the distinct class label. The instances belonging to class I in the source and target domains can be denoted as $\mathcal{D}_s^{(l)}$ and $\mathcal{D}_T^{(l)}$.

• Transfer Component Analysis (TCA) [26] is a classical domain adaptation algorithm that reduces the distribution variance between the source and target domains mainly from the marginal distribution perspective, as shown in Eq. (1).

$$\min_{\varphi_c} Dist_c^{2}(\mathcal{D}_S, \mathcal{D}_T) = \min_{\varphi_c} \left\| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi_c(\mathbf{x}_i) - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m \varphi_c(\mathbf{x}_j) \right\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2$$
(1)

• Transfer Joint Matching (TJM) [27] lessens the discrepancy through the perspective of marginal distribution adaptation and the instances are weighted by their importance, as shown in Eq. (2). To solve this problem, TJM weights the source domain instances by introducing $\ell_{2,1}$ [49] to reflect the instance correlations. It should be noted that the way of reweighting the instance in TJM occurs in feature mapping steps and it is different from the weighting strategy when constructing our transfer model.

$$\min_{\varphi_{c}} Dist_{c}^{2}(\mathcal{D}_{S}, \mathcal{D}_{T}) = \min_{\varphi_{c}} \left\| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \varphi_{c}(x_{i}) - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \varphi_{c}(x_{j}) \right\|_{\mathcal{H}}^{2} + \lambda \left\| \varphi_{c} \right\|_{2,1}$$
(2)

Joint Distribution Adaptation (JDA) [28] reduces the distance between the source and target domain through the perspective of the joint probability distribution, which takes both the marginal and conditional distributions into consideration. For the labels in the target domain, using Eq. (3), the adopted method generates fake labels by training a simple classifier with a source domain D_s and constantly reducing the differences over the iterations.

$$\min_{\varphi_{c}} Dist_{c}^{2}(\mathcal{D}_{S}, \mathcal{D}_{T}) = \min_{\varphi_{c}} \left\| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \varphi_{c}(x_{i}) - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \varphi_{c}(x_{j}) \right\|_{\mathcal{H}}^{2} + \sum_{l=1}^{L} \left\| \frac{1}{n_{c}} \sum_{x_{i} \in \mathcal{D}_{S}^{(l)}} \varphi_{c}(x_{i}) - \frac{1}{m_{c}} \sum_{x_{j} \in \mathcal{D}_{T}^{(l)}} \varphi_{c}(x_{j}) \right\|_{\mathcal{H}}^{2}$$
(3)

Balanced Distribution Adaptation (BDA) [29] assumes that marginal distribution adaptation and conditional distribution adaptation are unequally important. It adaptively adjusts the importance of the marginal and conditional distributions in domain adaptation by dynamically adjusting the distance between two distributions using a balance factor μ where μ∈[0,1]. The balance factor in Eq. (4) defines the importance of distributions. BDA considers that marginal distribution adaptation

is more important when $\mu \rightarrow 0$, and considers the conditional distribution adaption more important when $\mu \rightarrow 1$:

$$\begin{split} \min_{\varphi_{c}} Dist_{c}^{2}(\mathcal{D}_{S}, \mathcal{D}_{T}) &= \min_{\varphi_{c}} \left(1 - \mu\right) \left\| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \varphi_{c}(x_{i}) - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \varphi_{c}(x_{j}) \right\|_{\mathcal{H}}^{2} \\ &+ \mu \sum_{l=1}^{L} \left\| \frac{1}{n_{c}} \sum_{x_{i} \in \mathcal{D}_{S}^{(l)}} \varphi_{c}(x_{i}) - \frac{1}{m_{c}} \sum_{x_{j} \in \mathcal{D}_{T}^{(l)}} \varphi_{c}(x_{j}) \right\|_{\mathcal{H}}^{2} \end{split}$$
(4)

These four feature mapping approaches adopt the idea of MMD to measure the distribution discrepancy. However, they solve the transfer learning problems from different perspectives or different constraints. The analysis is based on the conceptual framework of Maximum Mean Discrepancy Embedding (MMDE) [31], which first takes advantages of kernel tricks to change the way of learning the mapping function φ_c into learning an adaptation matrix A_c . Thus, the source and target domains are transformed into RKHS, which can be notated as $\mathcal{D}_{s_c} = \{A_c^{\mathsf{T}}x_i, y_i\}(i=1,...,n)$ in the source domain and $\mathcal{D}_{T_c} = \{A_c^{\mathsf{T}}x_j^{Train}, y_j^{Train}\} \cup \{A_c^{\mathsf{T}}x_j^{Test}\}(j=1,...,m)$ in the target domain. The new data distribution after feature mapping has been well proven $P_c(\mathcal{D}_{S_c}) \approx P_c(\mathcal{D}_{T_c})$ [26-29].

$$\varepsilon_{t} = \sum_{j=1}^{m'} \frac{\mu_{j}^{t} \left| f\left(A_{c}^{T} x_{j}\right) - y_{j} \right|}{\sum_{j=1}^{m'} \mu_{j}^{t}}$$
(5)

where μ_j^t represents the weights of target training sets in the $t^{\text{th}} \in \{1,...,N\}$ iteration, and the classifier f is trained by all the input training datasets. By denoting $\beta = 1/(1 + \sqrt{2 \ln n/N})$ and $\beta_t = \varepsilon_t / (1 - \varepsilon_t)$, where N is the iteration number and n denotes source instances, the update of new training weights μ^{t+1} can be summarized as follows:

$$\mu^{t+1} = \begin{cases} \mu_i^t \beta^{|f(A_c^{\mathsf{T}}x_i) - y_i|}, & 1 \le i \le n \\ \mu_j^t \beta_t^{-|f(A_c^{\mathsf{T}}x_j) - y_j|}, & 1 \le j \le m' \end{cases}$$
(6)

The model iterates until the error of the training sets is 0 or reach the iteration number N. By giving such a hybrid transfer learning strategy, a robust model $h_c(x)$ can be acquired to predict the testing datasets and obtain the transfer results from each model.

3.3. MMD-based Weighted Ensemble

For the complex data distribution in practical problems, different feature-based transfer learning methods contribute unequally to the final results, so it is crucial to design a reasonable combination. The results of the ensemble owe to the prediction result from each single-feature model, so our assessment criterion is to use MMD as a distance metric to evaluate the similarity in each new feature space and we denote $Dist_c$ as

$$Dist_{c} = \left\| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \varphi_{c}\left(x_{i}\right) - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \varphi_{c}\left(x_{j}\right) \right\|_{\mathcal{H}}$$
(7)

To ensure each single-feature transfer learning model makes a constructive contribution to the consensus solution, we introduce an efficient weighting scheme. Based on the assumption that a larger MMD distance has less similarity, we define the weight w_c as follows

$$w_c = \frac{exp(-Dist_c)}{\sum_{c=1}^{C} exp(-Dist_c)}$$
(8)

where $w_c > 0$ and $\sum_{c=1}^{c} w_c = 1$. We use an inverse function to simulate the purpose of our ensemble strategy. Lastly, the weighted hybrid transfer learning framework H(x) is constructed by a linear combination of each model h_c with its weight w_c . The whole process of W-MHTL is summarized in Algorithm 1.

$$H(x) = \sum_{c=1}^{C} w_c h_c(x)$$
⁽⁹⁾

Algorithm 1: W-MHTL

Input: training sets \mathcal{D}_s and \mathcal{D}_T^{train} with labels and testing set \mathcal{D}_T^{test} without labels; parameters for domain adaptation

Output: Ensemble classifier H

for *c*=1 to *C* do

Find the adaptation matrix A_c of the feature-based transfer learning method.

Transform all original data into the new pace \mathcal{H}_c .

Calculate the ambiguity $Dist_c$ by Eq. (7).

Use TrAdaBoost strategy to weight the training sets \mathcal{D}_{s_c} and $\mathcal{D}_{T_c}^{train}$.

Construct a single-feature hybrid transfer model h_c .

end for

Get the weights W_c for every transfer model using Eq. (8).

 $H \leftarrow$ Multi-feature hybrid model ensemble classification by Eq. (9)

3.4. Algorithm Analysis

In our proposed framework, we assume that the classifier from each single-feature model is $h_c = h_1, h_2, ..., h_C$, and H denotes the final ensemble output. Similar to the analysis in [50], we define

the ambiguity of an input instance x between each individual model and the ensemble framework as follows:

$$V(h_{c}|x) = \|h_{c}(x) - H(x)\|^{2}$$
(10)

Thus, the weighted mean of the ensemble ambiguity can be illustrated as:

$$\overline{V}(h \mid x) = \sum_{c=1}^{C} w_c V(h_c \mid x)$$

$$= \sum_{c=1}^{C} w_c \left\| h_c(x) - H(x) \right\|^2$$
(11)

This function illustrates the ambiguity of the weighted mean ensemble output by each model. In other words, it measures the disagreement among single-feature models on input x. We denote y as the ground truth label; consequently, the loss of the individual model and the ensemble are adjusted as follows:

$$L(h_{c} | x) = \|h_{c}(x) - y\|^{2}$$
(12)

$$L(H | x) = ||H(x) - y||^{2}$$
(13)

Let $\overline{L}(h|x) = \sum_{c=1}^{C} w_c L(h_c | x)$ represents the mean of the weighted loss for all individual models.

The formula in Eq. (11) can be transformed into:

$$\overline{V}(h | x) = \sum_{c=1}^{C} w_{c} \|h_{c}(x) - H(x)\|^{2}$$

$$= h_{c}(x) \cdot H(x) - \sum_{c=1}^{C} w_{c} H^{2}(x)$$

$$= \sum_{c=1}^{C} w_{c} \|h_{c}(x) - y\|^{2} - \|H(x) - y\|^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{c=1}^{C} w_{c} L(h_{c} | x) - L(H | x)$$

$$= \overline{L}(h | x) - L(H | x)$$
(14)

In our framework, the distribution variances between different domains are reduced after the feature mapping. Under the ideal circumstance, we consider the distribution $P_c(\mathcal{D}_{S_c})=P_c(\mathcal{D}_{T_c})$ after feature mapping. Therefore, the ensemble ambiguity for all the input instances can be denoted by:

$$\sum_{c=1}^{C} w_{c} \int V(h_{c} \mid x) P(x) dx = \sum_{c=1}^{C} w_{c} \int L(h_{c} \mid x) P(x) dx - \int L(H \mid x) P(x) dx$$
(15)

Similarly, the loss value and the ambiguity terms of an individual model for all input instances can be denoted as follows:

$$L_{c} = \int L(h_{c} \mid x) P(x) dx$$
(16)

$$V_c = \int V(h_c \mid x) P(x) dx$$
(17)

and the loss function of the ensemble is:

$$L = \int L(H \mid x) P(x) dx \tag{18}$$

Here, $\overline{L} = \sum_{c=1}^{C} w_c L_c$ represents the weighted average of the loss value, and $\overline{V} = \sum_{c=1}^{C} w_c V_c$ denotes the weighted average of the ambiguity. So, the Eq. (15) can be rewritten as follows:

$$\underbrace{\int L(H \mid x) P(x) dx}_{L} = \underbrace{\sum_{c=1}^{C} w_c \int L(h_c \mid x) P(x) dx}_{\overline{L}} - \underbrace{\sum_{c=1}^{C} w_c \int V(h_c \mid x) P(x) dx}_{\overline{V}}$$
(19)

Equation (19) gives a brief interpretation of the ensemble loss $L = \overline{L} \cdot \overline{V}$, in which the former depends on the mean loss values of each hybrid models and latter one includes the variances of each model with the ensemble. The greater the accuracy and diversity of each individual model is, the better the ensemble results will be. To further analyse Eq. (19), \overline{L} is influenced by the loss in each model. In our framework, we construct the hybrid transfer learning model by combination of the feature-based and instance-based transfer learning, which was sufficiently proven in [23] to be able to reduce the training loss both in the source data and target data. The second term in Eq. (19), \overline{V} represents the weighted average of the ambiguity. The differences among the individual models mainly stems from the results of each domain adaptation method. As we mentioned before, it is rare to find a method that performs well for all given datasets. Although the distribution variance may be reduced after each feature mapping method, some discrepancies will still exist in most of the feature spaces. We expect that such properties can be measured by MMD so that the ambiguity of each model can be well reflected. In practical medical applications, domain adaptation methods are generally not available for finding the best mapping function for a given dataset. Therefore, instead of finding a specific feature mapping function, we measure the capacities of the adopted methods from different perspectives by giving them a proper weighting strategy to integrate our framework.

4. Simulations

In this section, the extensive evaluations and experiments are conducted to validate the effectiveness and performance of W-MHTL. We design the experiments from three types of datasets: synthetic datasets, UCI medical benchmarks and a cerebral stroke dataset collected from *The First People's Hospital of Yunnan Province*¹, China.

¹ <u>http://www.ypfph.com</u>

4.1. Synthetic Datasets

It is known that domain adaptation methods can effectively reduce the distribution variances, nonetheless different methods come from different perspectives, they convey discrepant transferability for the given datasets. For illustration, we use two 2-D synthetic datasets to simulate the marginal distribution variance and conditional distribution variance in practical medical applications. To demonstrate the discrepancies among the four adopted methods, we compare the differences in the Gaussian distribution curve between the source domain and target domain after dimension reduction. The datasets are produced by a Gaussian distribution function with different means and covariance matrixes as illustrated in Fig. 2.





Fig. 2. Synthetic data sets demonstrate the different impacts when using different methods: (a) and (f) represent the 2-D datasets of the ground-truth; (b)–(e) and (g)–(j) illustrate the Gaussian distribution curves from different types of domain adaptation methods.

1) Conditional distribution variance: Fig. 2. (a) shows the simulated conditional distribution variance situation in which the data are similar overall but not specific to each class. By mapping them into 1-D space, Fig. 2. (b)–(e) show the distribution variances of different domains. By adding the source label information into the domain adaptation process, the distribution curves of JDA and BDA become more similar, while TCA and TJM perform poorly in this situation. For further illustration, the Gaussian distributions of JDA fit perfectly not only in the whole view of datasets but also specific to the curve of each class. BDA can reach a better performance like JDA but remains some discrepancy in each class that may come from some irrelevant data. While TCA and TJM achieve unsatisfactory results, they narrow the distribution only from the perspective of the marginal distribution variance with different constraints; thus, they do not achieve good performance in this situation.

2) Marginal distribution variance: To simulate the marginal distribution variance, we adopt different covariance matrices in the source domain and target domain, as shown in Fig. 2. (f). For this kind of complex distribution, we can observe from the curves of the source domain and target domain that the mathematical expectations for each method are basically similar. On the other hand, from the perspective of the standard deviations, the amplitudes of the distributions exhibit a huge discrepancy, which means that simply narrowing the distance on holistic measurements of datasets is insufficient because some irrelevant instances still exist. In Fig. 2. (e), we see that TCA achieves a better performance because the curves show the best matches between domains, while the other three adopted methods show unsatisfactory performance.

In summary, without performing a qualitative analysis of the data distribution, it is quite difficult to select an optimal feature mapping method to adapt the distribution variances between the source and target domains. Furthermore, as shown in Fig. 2, while the distributions after the domain adaptation are similar overall, uncorrelated instances still exist that may cause classifier deviations. Thus, the above intuitive demonstration strongly advocates the necessity for the joint use of diverse perspectives and the need to reweight the instances to achieve better classification.

4.2. UCI Medical Benchmarks

To evaluate the properties of our framework, 18 representative medical datasets from the UCI repository [51] were selected to conduct the experiments. By utilizing the methods in [23], we apply binary feature values in the datasets, such as age group, area, etc. to split the datasets and simulate inconsistent data distributions. In the last 4 groups of datasets, the attributes are all continuous variables. One way to separate the source domain and target domain is to select a given attribute and use K-means to cluster it into two partitions. Intuitively, these two partitions will have different data distribution and we use MMD to further evaluate the variances between different domains. The information of concerning datasets is shown in Table 1 in detail.

The descriptions of the OCI medical data sets.								
Datasets	Feature	Sample	MMD	Source Domain		Target Domain		
				Pos.	Neg.	Pos.	Neg.	
Autism	20	346	0.082	126	122	62	36	
Heart Disease	12	270	0.013	83	100	67	20	
Brest Cancer	8	277	0.211	32	30	164	51	
Diabetic	18	1151	3.264	194	193	417	347	
ILPD	9	579	0.457	91	49	323	116	
Sani	54	303	0.184	129	40	87	47	
Thoracic	15	470	0.035	55	268	15	132	
Lung	7	365	0.018	149	100	56	60	
Colic	16	368	0.184	160	110	72	28	
Cervical	32	668	0.385	37	535	8	88	
Cleve	12	296	0.008	71	24	89	112	
Sick	27	2643	0.048	1633	131	798	81	
Hepatitis	18	80	0.176	19	9	28	24	
Bupa	6	345	0.315	58	61	87	139	
Parkinson	22	195	0.032	31	19	116	29	
Mammography	5	830	0.072	23	44	380	383	
Pima	8	768	1.189	94	192	174	308	
<i>WDBC</i>	14	569	0.222	185	93	172	119	

 Table 1

 The descriptions of the UCI medical data sets

For the main parameters of the domain adaptation methods, the adopted experiments settings are showed as follows. We simulate the parameter adjustment methods in [27, 28] and seek the optimal parameters through an empirical approach. The iterations of the domain adaptation methods (TJM, JDA, BDA) are set to 20. The optimal λ is obtained from $\lambda \in \{0.01, 0.1, 1, 10\}$. The domain adaptation methods involve dimensionality reduction, we select $\{1/4, 1/2 \text{ and } 3/4\}$ of the initial data dimensions for dimensionality reduction and choose the best parameter for each model. In practical applications, there is no uniform conclusion on the selection of kernel function, thus empirical adjustments are usually employed according to a given dataset. In general, linear kernel is used for linearly separable cases, and RBF is mainly used for linearly inseparable cases. We find the optimal kernel function for each data set, the RBF kernel is chosen for the datasets *Autism, Lung* and *Cervical*,

while the linear kernel is used for the rest of the datasets. For all the selection of parameters, we adopt the grid search to find the optimal parameter sets. The base classifier of this experiment is mainly used to validate the effectiveness of W-MHTL; thus, we chose C4.5 as the base classifier for TrAdaBoost with T=10 iterations. We randomly select 10% target samples as target training sets in each experiment and set the same random seed to guarantee the fairness. The results are compared with the average accuracy and standard deviations of the 10-fold cross validation results.

1) The Effectiveness of W-MHTL: To further demonstrate the effectiveness of W-MHTL, we compare the results of each single-feature hybrid model and different ensemble strategies with our approach. Table 2 collectively lists all the experimental results from two aspects. Regarding transference on single features, no single-feature model can produce optimal results on all the datasets; the winning performances spread across the four models on different datasets. These results illustrate the difficulty of choosing the most effective domain adaptation method for a given dataset. To compare with the MHTL which considers the importance of each model equally, our weighting strategy also shows its superiority. As shown in Table 2, our approach achieves expressively better performance in terms of both classification and standard deviations. The objective of our W-MHTL framework is to obtain a more universal way that considers the best performances on 16 out of 18 datasets, which provides a strong indication of its effectiveness.

Classification accuracy (%) of different transfer learning models on medical benchmarks.								
Datasets	Single Feature Mapping				Multi Feature Mapping			
Datasets	TCA [26]	JDA [28]	BDA [29]	TJM [27]	MHTL	W-MHTL		
Autism	75.3±1.6	75.7±6.6	74.1±3.6	71.5±3.2	80.1±3.9	78.1±3.4		
Heart Disease	78.6±2.8	79.2 ± 4.1	76.4 ± 3.1	77.4 ± 5.3	79.6±2.9	80.2±2.6		
Brest Cancer	72.5±1.7	70.5±2.8	68.8±3.2	71.3 ± 2.2	72.7±1.8	74.4±1.2		
Diabetic	66.3±1.3	66.1±1.3	66.9±1.4	66.7±1.2	67.3 ± 1.2	68.4±0.8		
ILPD	67.4 ± 2.1	65.4±1.1	67.1 ± 1.6	66.7±1.5	67.5 ± 2.1	69.9±0.9		
Sani	70.3 ± 2.4	69.4±2.5	69.1±3.1	68.2 ± 2.9	68.7±2.8	72.3±2.8		
Thoracic	84.8±1.9	84.8±1.3	85.4 ± 2.2	84.3±1.1	86.6±1.9	87.1±1.7		
Lung	68.4 ± 2.2	66.2±3.0	68.1±3.1	67.7±1.2	68.8±3.2	70.4±2.3		
Colic	72.1±1.5	70.5±1.5	71.9 ± 2.8	69.9±2.7	74.3 ± 2.7	76.7±2.2		
Cervical	86.4±1.7	88.6±2.9	88.1±4.3	87.8±3.4	90.6±2.2	93.6±1.8		
Cleve	68.9 ± 2.1	69.8±2.9	70.1 ± 2.6	69.1±3.2	70.5 ± 2.7	72.1±2.3		
Sick	93.1±0.7	93.4±0.4	92.4±0.7	93.2±1.2	93.9±0.8	95.1±0.4		
Hepatitis	63.2 ± 3.9	66.2 ± 4.1	65.5 ± 3.5	67.1±3.8	67.4 ± 3.3	68.9±3.2		
Bupa	65.4±1.3	67.8±2.2	66.9 ± 3.2	66.1±1.9	69.1±1.2	72.9±1.7		
Parkinson	73.2±1.7	75.6±3.7	76.0±2.3	75.3±1.4	77.2 ± 3.8	79.4±2.4		
Mammography	69.5 ± 1.4	71.3 ± 2.4	70.7 ± 2.6	71.1 ± 2.0	71.3 ± 2.3	73.8±1.8		
Pima	61.1 ± 1.4	62.4 ± 2.7	63.1 ± 2.1	61.5±2.3	64.1±1.3	66.8±1.8		
WDBC	93.3±0.8	92.5±0.8	94.5±1.0	91.7±1.8	93.4±0.9	93.8±0.4		

 Table 2

 (a) of different transfer learning models or

2) *The Performance of W-MHTL*: In this part, we compare our W-MHTL approach with other three state-of-the-art transfer learning algorithms for medical classification problems, i.e., TrAdaBoost [23], MTLF [52] and CODA [53]. All the compared algorithms require data with class notation in target

domain, and we use C4.5 as the base learner for all adopted methods. Table 3 shows that TrAdaBoost and the MTLF algorithm each win on two datasets, and the CODA wins on one dataset, while our W-MHTL approach achieves the best results on the other 13 datasets. For further analysis, compared with the feature selection and the matrix processing, the direct sample weighting retains the original data properties thus, the TrAdaBoost algorithm has advantages for processing data with small distribution differences. However, as the distribution variances become larger between the source and target domains, TrAdaBoost will lose its efficacy. The MTLF and CODA belong to feature-based transfer learning methods. From Table 3, we can easily see their effectiveness when the instance-based methods loss its power in datasets Sani, Lung and Sick. The MTLF takes advantage of the Mahalanobis distance [54] to measure the distribution discrepancy between source and target domains instead of MMD. The CODA conducts a feature selection strategy based on the Pearson correlation coefficient [55], then co-training is used to improve the classifier. However, we can also see that it has limitations when faced with complex distribution variances.

Classification accuracy of different transfer learning methods on benchmarks.								
Datasets	TrAdaBoost [23]	MTLF [52]	CODA [53]	W-MHTL				
Autism	83.6±3.3	$87.6 {\pm} 2.6$	80.7 ± 2.3	78.1±3.4				
Heart Disease	70.8 ± 1.3	78.9 ± 1.1	75.4 ± 1.2	80.2±2.6				
Brest Cancer	69.1 ± 3.2	71.4 ± 3.6	73.1 ± 2.3	74.4±1.2				
Diabetic	62.8 ± 1.3	64.4 ± 1.2	65.7 ± 1.3	68.4±0.8				
ILPD	68.9 ± 1.5	68.1 ± 1.3	66.1 ± 2.5	69.9±0.9				
Sani	72.5 ± 2.8	74.8±1.7	$73.4{\pm}2.9$	72.3 ± 2.8				
Thoracic	86.1 ± 1.8	80.2 ± 2.4	82.1 ± 1.7	87.1±1.7				
Lung	67.2±2.9	68.8 ± 1.7	77.4±2.1	70.4 ± 2.3				
Colic	74.7 ± 3.4	76.1 ± 1.0	75.7 ± 1.6	76.7±2.2				
Cervical	91.4 ± 0.9	93.3 ± 0.5	90.3 ± 0.7	93.6±1.8				
Cleve	71.2 ± 3.0	70.6 ± 1.4	69.5 ± 1.2	72.1±2.3				
Sick	92.5 ± 0.7	95.9±0.1	90.6 ± 0.2	95.1±0.4				
hepatitis	61.9 ± 2.4	65.7 ± 1.9	65.3 ± 2.8	68.9±3.2				
Bupa	64.3 ± 2.3	65.1 ± 2.3	68.1 ± 3.2	72.9±1.7				
Parkinson	83.4±1.7	81.5±0.5	81.2 ± 1.2	79.4±2.4				
Mammography	70.4 ± 1.3	71.2 ± 1.6	69.8 ± 2.3	73.8±1.8				
Pima	64.0 ± 1.6	61.8±1.8	60.9 ± 3.5	66.8±1.8				
WDBC	89.8 ± 1.5	90.7 ± 0.9	90.5 ± 1.5	93.8±0.4				

Table 3

In Fig. 3, we compare our W-MHTL framework with other algorithms regarding the limited training sample problems. We focus on the datasets Breast Cancer and Diabetic. In Fig. 3, the X-axis respects the percentages of the training data in the target domain: 5%, 10%, 20%, 30%, 40% and 50%, while the Y-axis represents the accuracy. As shown in Fig. 3, we see the advantages of transfer learning when addressing limited training sample problems. By utilizing knowledge from the source domain, the task of the target domain can be solved well. The W-MHTL yields better performances than any of the other algorithms when there is limited training data on target domain. The accuracy curves improve sharply when the ratio is less than 0.1, especially for the *Breast Cancer*, but gradually flatten out after the ratio is larger than 0.1. Fig. 3 shows that traditional machine learning may be able to learn a suitable classifier when the training data ratio is larger than 0.3. To further demonstrate the performance of W-MHTL, we select two representative unbalanced datasets and use the Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) and Area Under Curve (AUC) for comparison. The experiment results are reported in Fig. 4. It can be observed that W-MHTL achieves better AUC which means our method is more robust than other compared algorithms and has better resistance to the processing of unbalanced datasets.



Fig. 4. The ROC curves on unbalanced datasets.

4.3. Application on Actual Medical Data

In this section, we verify our W-MHTL framework using actual medical data obtained from *The First People's Hospital of Yunnan Province*, China. Cerebral stroke is an acute cerebral vascular disease, a type of brain tissue injury caused by sudden blood vessel ruptures in the brain or blood flow interruptions to the brain because of vascular obstruction, including both ischaemic and haemorrhagic strokes [56]. Due to lack of effective medical treatment, early prevention is the best approach, among which hypertension is considered as an important controllable stroke risk factor. Therefore, we aim to simulate an experiment in this section to diagnose cerebral strokes in people with hypertension feature to form the source and target domains and the partition results are reported in Table 4. Our task is to use the knowledge from the data of patients with hypertension to assist in the final task of diagnosing the risk of cerebral stroke in people without hypertension.

The description of real dataset.								
Data Sets	Feature	Sample	MMD	Source Domain		Target Domain		
				Pos.	Neg.	Pos.	Neg.	
Cerebral	31	3438	0.235	2246	49	1083	61	

Table 4

Stroke				

Considering the unbalanced nature of origin dataset, we use SMOTE [57] to make the number of positive and negative instances balanced before applying the transfer learning methods for them. By adopting the experimental setups described in Section 4.3, we expect to demonstrate the performance of our approach in practical applications involving limited training samples as well as its effectiveness on resource-sharing problems. As shown in Fig. 5, our framework achieves the best performance among all the compared methods when the training data ratio is below 0.2. This result demonstrates the feasibility of transfer learning methods when training data in the target domain are rare. As the number of training data increases, it is sufficient to simply train a classifier for the final task, and there is no need to use transfer learning. However, considering the scarce training data in practical problems, especially in medical problems, it is necessary to construct a robust classifier by transfer learning methods and our methods provide a satisfactory solution in such cases.



Fig. 5. Experimental results on different ratios of real datasets.

5. Discussion

As illustrated in Section 4, W-MHTL obtains high-quality transfer learning results even with extremely limited target training data. Therefore, it provides a promising yet easy-to-use technique for addressing transfer learning problems. After analysing from the mathematical formulas and the overall experimental results, the novelties and the deficiencies of our approach are summarized as follows.

Firstly, the usage of different feature perspectives in our framework plays an important character in mitigating the complex distribution variances in medical applications. As shown in Fig. 2, it is difficult to find a high-performing method for all given datasets in complex practical applications. The simulation results in Table 2 and Table 3 consistently indicate that our framework not only provides better classification accuracy than any other compared methods, but also has the stability for the given datasets. Furthermore, by applying multiple feature-based transfer learning methods, W-MHTL can improve the generalization especially on unbalanced datasets.

Secondly, our approach combines the strengths of both feature-based and instance-based transfer learning approaches. As shown in Fig. 2 the data distribution after domain adaptation is similar in the

mass but some irrelevant instances still exist that may cause negative transfer. Thus, a hybrid strategy that combines the feature-based and instance-based transfer learning approaches can solve both data variance and instance reuse problems. Table 2 lists persuasive experimental results that such a combination substantially improves the approach to solving transfer learning problems. Nevertheless, we are convinced that when there are few differences in the data distributions, instance-based transfer learning forms a better solution for representing the information loss during feature-based transfer learning methods. We list the MMD values of the collected datasets in Table 1 and find an interesting phenomenon that data with small variances in distribution tend to get higher accuracy. However, TrAdaBoost does not achieve excellent classification results in all datasets with small distribution variances which reveals that feature-based transfer learning methods can reduce the divergences. Furthermore, they enhance the separability of data for a better classification.

Thirdly, the proposed ensemble strategy produces a consolidated solution for combining each single-feature hybrid transfer learning model through a quantitative analysis of the transfer ability in each feature space. The objective function derived in (15) declare that the performance of our framework depends on both the quality and the diversity of each model, which means that the transfer problem must be solved from different viewpoints. The performance of TrAdaBoost was well-proven in its proposing paper; the diversity of each model stems mainly from the distance between the source domain and the target domain, which we measure using MMD. On a collection of benchmark datasets, the experimental results shown in Table 2 demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed ensemble strategy in comparison with its prototype. Compared with other classical transfer learning methods, Table 3 shows the superiority of our approach, while Fig. 3 illustrates its effectiveness in dealing with limited training sample problems. Finally, in our tests, the W-MHTL also illustrates its feasibility on real-world problems and achieves satisfactory results.

Although the experimental results demonstrate that our proposed method achieves a certain level of superiority on benchmark datasets and real-world dataset, some constrains still exist for further study. The computational overhead of domain adaptation is quite expensive; thus, our framework requires relatively high computation to find a suitable feature space to reduce the distribution variances. Moreover, this method requires many parameters, but we can seek the optimal parameter values only through an empirical approach, which makes finding the best parameter values a bit difficult. Furthermore, while our approach is compatible with any other domain adaptation algorithms for initial feature mapping, how to select appropriate methods for the target domain, which has different characteristics, remains an interesting topic for further research. Finally, the measurement of transferability is crucial in transfer learning problems—not only to evaluate the data variances between domains but also to consider the target task's accuracy. Such measurement can effectively avoid negative transfer problems, which means that we need to define a more reasonable way to select the optimal module in our framework.

6. Conclusion

In this paper, we presented a transformative method named W-MHTL which constructed the connection between different domains and provided a feasible solution for the fundamental problems in

medical decision making. Under the condition of limited training data on target domain, our model combined both feature-based and instance-based transfer learning to make a sufficient leverage of the related domain as auxiliary to improve the performance on target domain. Considering the complicated distribution variance in practical application, we utilized multiple feature-based transfer learning methods to decrease the gap between domains from different perspectives and weighted the instances by their correlations. Finally, we designed a consensus function to further enhance the connection between the source domain and target domain. The simulation results showed that our transfer learning framework yields better results when solving transfer learning problems in medical fields. The experiments to test our framework on real medical data sets demonstrated its robustness.

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