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Visual Analytics: A Method to Explore Natural Histories of Oral Epithelial Dysplasia

Stan Nowak^{1,*}, Miriam Rosin^{2,3}, Wolfgang Stuerzlinger¹, and Lyn Bartram¹

¹*School of Interactive Arts and Technology, Simon Fraser University, Surrey, British Columbia, Canada*

²*BC Oral Cancer Prevention Program, Cancer Control Research, BC Cancer, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada*

³*Department of Biomedical Physiology and Kinesiology, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, British Columbia, Canada*

Correspondence*:
Stan Nowak
snowak@sfu.ca

2 ABSTRACT

3 Risk assessment and follow-up of oral potentially malignant disorders in patients with mild or
4 moderate oral epithelial dysplasia is an ongoing challenge for improved oral cancer prevention.
5 Part of the challenge is a lack of understanding of how observable features of such dysplasia,
6 gathered as data by clinicians during follow-up, relate to underlying biological processes driving
7 progression. Current research is at an exploratory phase where the precise questions to ask are
8 not known. While traditional statistical and the newer machine learning and artificial intelligence
9 methods are effective in well-defined problem spaces with large datasets, these are not the
10 circumstances we face currently. We argue that the field is in need of exploratory methods that
11 can better integrate clinical and scientific knowledge into analysis to iteratively generate viable
12 hypotheses. In this perspective, we propose that visual analytics presents a set of methods
13 well-suited to these needs. We illustrate how visual analytics excels at generating viable research
14 hypotheses by describing our experiences using visual analytics to explore temporal shifts in the
15 clinical presentation of epithelial dysplasia. Visual analytics complements existing methods and
16 fulfills a critical and at-present neglected need in the formative stages of inquiry we are facing.

17 **Keywords:** Oral Cancer, Visual Analytics, Artificial Intelligence, Low-grade Oral Dysplasia, Prevention

1 INTRODUCTION

18 The lack of understanding of the natural history of oral cancer is a major barrier to our ability to impactfully
19 intervene early in the disease. As a collective group, clinicians and scientists have followed patients
20 with clinical lesions and dysplastic disease for decades. There are unused files full of text, pictures,

21 and annotations on these patients. In addition, as our capacity to examine biological change underlying
22 time-varying shifts in lesions has accelerated, there is simultaneously additional, increasingly diverse
23 information from scientists coming in. A key missing component in this effort is methods that allow us to
24 frame and utilize such complex and heterogeneous data. They are highly multi-faceted and demand the
25 integration of diverse clinical and scientific knowledge to generate testable hypotheses informed by the
26 most comprehensive understanding of why lesions shift over time and when such changes may be clinically
27 important.

28 Traditional statistics or the newer machine learning and artificial intelligence (henceforth ML/AI) methods
29 are ill-suited to address many of the immediate challenges faced. The small sample sizes and complexity of
30 clinical datasets limit the types of questions that can be answered. Additionally, these methods generally
31 rely on well-defined and narrow questions. This is appropriate for summative analyses that aim to evaluate
32 specific hypotheses and expectations. Current research, however, is at an exploratory stage. Instead,
33 formative approaches that aim to understand how clinical data might be interrogated, and that support the
34 scientific inductive process of developing, testing, and iterating over a theory are better suited. This requires
35 the integration of expert knowledge into analysis. Data on their own do not offer explanations of why
36 certain patterns or relationships within them exist. From the understanding of procedures involved in data
37 gathering to theories of how observed data relate to underlying biological mechanisms driving dysplastic
38 disease, clinical and scientific knowledge is key. Unfortunately, statistical and ML/AI methods often require
39 significant training for interpretation and even with sufficient training often remain as difficult-to-understand
40 “black boxes”.

41 We have faced this problem in British Columbia for some time. The Oral Cancer Prediction Longitudinal
42 (OCPL) study was established over 20 years ago, to follow patients with biopsy-confirmed primary mild
43 and moderate epithelial dysplasia (henceforth low-grade dysplasia, LGD). The presence of epithelial
44 dysplasia is one of the strongest predictors of transformation of LGD to oral cancer; yet there are many
45 unresolved issues around such lesions. The long-term goal of the OCPL study is to use this cohort, with its
46 diverse data on clinical, histologic, and molecular change, and its samples, to help us answer some of the
47 key management questions for these patients: Which of these dysplastic lesions is at risk for progression?
48 Which do we treat, and if we treat, when and how do we do it? There are close to 600 cases in the OCPL
49 study, many with between 10-20 years of follow-up, with over 7000 visits for these patients – a rich resource
50 to identify and study the diverse patterns of temporal change as they occur and look for associations with
51 transformation risk.

52 The question addressed in this paper is faced by all of us working in this area. How do we deal with this
53 complex and increasingly multi-faceted data pool, especially when dealing with temporal shifts in patient
54 data? How do we use such information to drive meaningful change – to link patterns across data sources
55 and to generate new testable ideas? Where do we begin?

56 We argue for methods that support the iterative scientific process needed to integrate clinical and
57 mechanistic knowledge. We propose that *visual analytics* (VA) is well-suited to such a niche, providing an
58 approach that can be used to integrate “data-driven” and “knowledge-driven” processes into an iterative
59 analysis that can improve our understanding of the natural history of oral cancer development. In this paper,
60 we describe the challenges of heavily “data-driven” methods and why VA is well suited to complement
61 such methods. We illustrate the value of VA by discussing a simple exploratory visual analysis of lesion
62 shifts in oral dysplasia we conducted using data from the OCPL study.

2 CHALLENGES IN HEAVILY DATA-DRIVEN METHODS

63 The rapid change in computational capacity has allowed researchers to increase the volume of data analyzed
64 and to employ sophisticated ML/AI to increasingly complex datasets, which have been inaccessible in the
65 past. Computer vision algorithms can identify cancerous nodules from medical imaging with accuracy
66 sometimes exceeding human experts (23). Recent preliminary research has also made headway in making
67 these algorithms more interpretable for clinicians (7). However, state-of-the-art algorithms such as these are
68 applied to *narrow* and *highly specific* tasks and require *large* volumes of highly constrained, well-defined
69 data while relying on a number of assumptions about the statistical properties of these data (28) (Figure 1A).

70 In contrast, clinical datasets are often complex, heterogeneous, and composed of comparatively much
71 lower volumes of patient data. In addition, patients are diverse and biological processes are ill-understood,
72 and the understanding of how data are gathered is primarily held by clinicians. This creates an ill-defined
73 problem space where the precise questions to ask are not yet known and thus we cannot expect a linear
74 process of well-defined inquiry. Even if there are some well-defined questions, they have not been
75 addressed using existing approaches and progress has been slow. This problem requires iterative and
76 flexible generation and evaluation of practically relevant and knowledge-informed hypotheses (Figure 1B).
77 Presently, natural intelligence is comparatively better than artificial intelligence at dealing with such
78 challenges.

79 ML/AI algorithms struggle with generalization that goes beyond very constrained problem spaces; they
80 cannot generate causal models of mechanisms underlying the data and translate them to other domains
81 (28). Generalization involves going beyond what is explicit in data and imagining alternative potential
82 mechanisms of explanation. Counterfactual reasoning, the imagining of alternative events and outcomes,
83 has been the foundation of theories explaining causality (19). These theories have been integrated into
84 methods used to analyze observational data in epidemiology in the Bradford-Hill criteria (15). While
85 there is an effort underway to reconcile ML/AI approaches with contemporary causal inference to enable
86 automated discovery of causal structure from data (28), such problems are still largely a human reasoning
87 activity.

3 SENSEMAKING

88 Sensemaking is a “natural kind of human activity in which large amounts of information about a situation or
89 topic are collected and deliberated upon to form an understanding that becomes the basis of problem-solving
90 and actions” (26). This activity is often described through the data/frame theory of sensemaking which
91 posits that humans organize knowledge and account for new information using explanatory structures called
92 “frames” (16). As humans encounter new information through their environment, or in this case visualization
93 systems, the information is matched and fitted to these frames. These frames are then elaborated upon,
94 questioned, rejected, or otherwise manipulated, in our case through the interactive visualization system, in
95 light of any new information. The scientific process of developing, testing, and iterating over theory closely
96 mirrors sensemaking. This flexible way of thinking is what allows humans to meaningfully understand and
97 act in a variety of natural settings such as the exploratory scientific inquiry of data.

98 An essential component of sensemaking is the generation of alternative hypotheses or interpretations
99 that are flexibly fitted to and altered by data (27). This process can generate new frames of understanding
100 based on data (data-driven), as well as iterate over existing ones (knowledge-driven) (16). This iterative
101 fitting and manipulation of data and theory (Figure 1B) integrates human knowledge into analysis without
102 being hampered by the limits of what is explicitly contained in the data. The relatively new field of VA
103 specifically supports such human sensemaking activities.

4 VISUAL ANALYTICS

104 In scientific domains, visualization is commonly thought of as serving a purely communicative role,
105 primarily supplementing text to emphasize a point. Yet, visualizations, especially interactive ones, can also
106 be used to support a method of analysis. Visual Analytics, the “science of analytical reasoning facilitated
107 by interactive visual interfaces” (6), leverages the strengths of computers to improve human analysis. The
108 aim is to make complex computational processes transparent and empower humans to conduct analysis
109 in an interpretable and accessible way. Rather than replacing ML/AI methods, VA complements these
110 approaches and often integrates them in analysis. Addressing the challenges of interpretability and opening
111 the “black box” of ML/AI algorithms has become a burgeoning area of research in VA (4).

112 Visualization capitalizes on the innate intelligence of the human visual system. Using external
113 representations as an aid is called “visual thinking” (30). The human visual system can extract complex
114 statistical patterns from scenes while at the same time linking visual information to high-level cognitive
115 processes. The human visual system is not one passive system, but a number of active systems that can
116 both direct attention to important aspects of data in a bottom-up fashion as well as be directed to search
117 for patterns in a top-down fashion (9). This interplay between bottom-up (data-driven) and top-down
118 (knowledge-driven) processes in the visual system creates a dynamic interface between humans and data
119 enabling iterative sensemaking processes. This interaction between prior knowledge and perception enables
120 humans to “complete patterns” and derive meaning based on incomplete or uncertain information. The
121 “Gestalt” school of psychology and the concomitant visual Gestalt laws describe these processes (30).

122 Just as sensemaking in open-ended problem spaces requires the generation and management of alternative
123 hypotheses, VA systems are designed to support alternative visual representations of data to address these
124 hypotheses and help steer the analysis. Some VA systems also incorporate explicit support for managing
125 alternatives (20, 22). Others have proposed “mixed-initiative” systems that utilize machine learning and
126 data-mining systems that integrate alternative “threads” of analysis as a central system component (21, 29).

127 VA may seem relatively new, but this approach has already been incorporated in a broad range of domains
128 associated with healthcare and scientific areas. For example, VA has impacted the tracking of disease
129 progression in electronic health records (25), clinical support for blood transfusions (12), decision making
130 in public health (3), genomics (2), chemistry (5), and oncology (14, 24).

5 OUR COLLABORATIVE PROJECT

131 In this section, we illustrate how VA supports the process of generating, testing, and iterating over alternative
132 hypotheses, using our experiences analyzing a clinical dataset of patients with LGD. We began our analysis
133 around data collected during the examination of clinical lesions. Such assessment is a key initial point in
134 the engagement of a clinician with the patient. It is part of the ascertainment of whether the lesion falls
135 within the “normal” boundaries of change in a tissue, and can thus be triaged back to the community, or
136 instead, requires further follow-up.

137 Lesions change over time – disappearing, re-appearing, growing in size, altering shape, and changing in
138 texture and appearance. As such, clinical change reflects, in part, alterations occurring at the molecular,
139 cellular, and tissue level. Increasingly there are new developments in clinical approaches and tools used
140 in decision making around lesions. A missing component is our capacity to track changes over time and
141 understand what observable baseline changes, in the absence of intervention, are associated with alterations
142 in progression risk.

143 Time-based analyses may consider a variety of perspectives or properties of data (e.g., curve fitting,
144 regression, or signal decomposition). When we began these studies, we had no basis to choose any particular
145 type of analysis, and rather than over-constrain the problem-space, we chose to look at sequences which
146 we felt could reveal a variety of patterns in the time-varying data.

147 Sequences are notoriously challenging for both humans and algorithms to work with (8, 10). As a
148 preliminary step, we consulted ML experts on an appropriate approach. We employed hidden Markov
149 models (HMMs), a set of algorithms commonly used for mining sequence patterns of biological data (32).
150 However, the areas where such models have been particularly effective are where the volume of data is
151 quite high, the variety of patterns is relatively low, and the problem space is also relatively constrained.
152 Examples include sequence mining in genetics (13) or protein structure prediction (31). We discovered
153 early on that we do not have nearly enough data for HMM. Another issue was that our clinical data are
154 relatively complex, reflecting a variety of data-generating processes. The algorithmic output was not strong
155 and we could not find any explanations that could account for the patterns and match existing biological
156 understanding.

157 We then explored the use of interactive visualizations to analyze these sequences. While algorithmic
158 approaches are often incorporated in VA systems to make sequences and other patterns more tractable
159 (8), for the illustrative purposes of this paper, we will focus on a purely visual approach to highlight how
160 visualizations enable sensemaking and hypothesis generation.

161 **5.1 Investigating Shifts in Lesions**

162 We conducted our analysis using simple dot plot visualizations. In Figure 2A, we provide a simplified
163 diagrammatic version of the interactive visualizations we used in analysis to illustrate our process. We
164 identified patterns in the data which indicated potential explanatory mechanisms (Figure 2B). This is an
165 example of how patterns in data (data-driven) can elicit relevant knowledge and thus also influence how
166 important patterns are perceived (knowledge-driven). Drawing on prior domain knowledge, clinical
167 researchers on our team recognized several sequence patterns and iteratively generated alternative
168 hypotheses that could account for such patterns.

169 We first identified instances where clinical lesions disappeared completely – establishing when lesions
170 were present or absent for each patient (Figure 2). In some patients, the lesion persisted at all time points
171 (termed “persistent lesions”). In others, the lesion disappeared and did not recur during follow-up (termed
172 “resolved”). In some cases, the lesion disappeared early in follow-up and then “re-emerged”. A fourth
173 pattern showed lesions disappearing and reappearing, often multiple times, in an “unstable” fashion.

174 This process triggered some speculative questions around what could explain these perceived patterns.
175 As a preliminary inquiry, we questioned the reliability of these data as they had not been used in this way
176 before. Clinicians associated with the OCPL study went back to the data to confirm these patterns, using
177 clinical charts, pictures, and the database. As a result of this process and dialogue, several errors in the data
178 were identified and corrected, illustrating the value of visualization at such formative stages.

179 We also questioned whether shifts in “resolving” and “unstable” lesions associated with small lesion size
180 and excision during biopsy could be confounding the lesion’s natural history. We checked. There was no
181 apparent, consistent association with such descriptors. We explored the relationship between these patterns
182 and patient outcomes. Virtually all of the mild or moderate lesions that progressed to severe dysplasia or
183 cancer were persistent lesions. But what intrigued us was the observation that non-progressing lesions fell
184 into two groups: stable, persisting lesions and unstable lesions, with lesions appearing and disappearing
185 multiple times during follow-up. This generated a series of questions: What was causing the “unstable”

186 phenomena, i.e., what is the underlying biology associated with such change? And did it mean anything for
187 risk or future trajectory of patients? Does it have clinical ramifications/value?

188 One potential hypothesis is that “unstable“ non-progressing lesions could represent those in which
189 protective mechanisms are actively engaged in identifying and removing damaged and genetically altered
190 cells, those with altered signaling pathways, and dysregulated proliferation/differentiation controls. This
191 could involve damage recognition and repair genes, for example, p53-controlled processes, that would
192 trigger events such as senescence or apoptosis. Such changes could also involve cell-cell interactions in the
193 tissue, the local microenvironment, and/or activity of the immune system. These protective systems could
194 switch on and off, as abnormal clones developed and evolved in a lesion. A dysregulation of such systems
195 would result in progression with persistence of the lesions.

196 The link to the immune system, is particularly attractive, given the rapid evolution of both technology
197 in this area, especially associated with tissue change and risk prediction for cancer development. Recent
198 findings in the esophagus, lung, and oral cavity support the possibility that the immune system is capable of
199 recognizing premalignant lesions and intercepting their progression to cancer (1, 11, 17, 18). Premalignant-
200 specific putative neoantigens have been identified in some such lesions and coupled to tissue infiltration of
201 specific T effector and cytotoxic cells, for example, CD4, CD8, PD-1, and PD-L1 (17). Finally, early data
202 support the association of alterations to antigen processing and presentation pathways and depletion of
203 innate and adaptive immune cells with premalignant lesions that are more likely to progress. The question
204 is, can we now use this knowledge and our current analysis systems to follow the immune system over
205 time, and look for parallel, concordant alterations in unstable lesions that would support their involvement
206 in temporal shifts?

6 DISCUSSION

207 We have only touched on a small portion of the potential analyses in the research area we have outlined.
208 Even so, our experiences demonstrate the potential for visual analytics to generate and explore new research
209 questions. Conventional methods used in oral oncology research have left many resources, such as complex
210 clinical datasets or the expert knowledge of clinicians, underutilized, and many related questions unasked.
211 It doesn't need to be this way. Using VA allows us to cast a wider net and catch research trajectories that
212 might otherwise remain unexplored. In the context of early detection and prevention of malignant dysplasia,
213 leveraging the data that are already available through clinics has the potential to transform the standard of
214 care.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

215 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
216 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

217 SN, MR, WS, and LB were all involved in setting the conceptual direction of this work. SN and MR wrote
218 the first draft of this article. WS provided critical feedback and insights, and edited the manuscript.

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

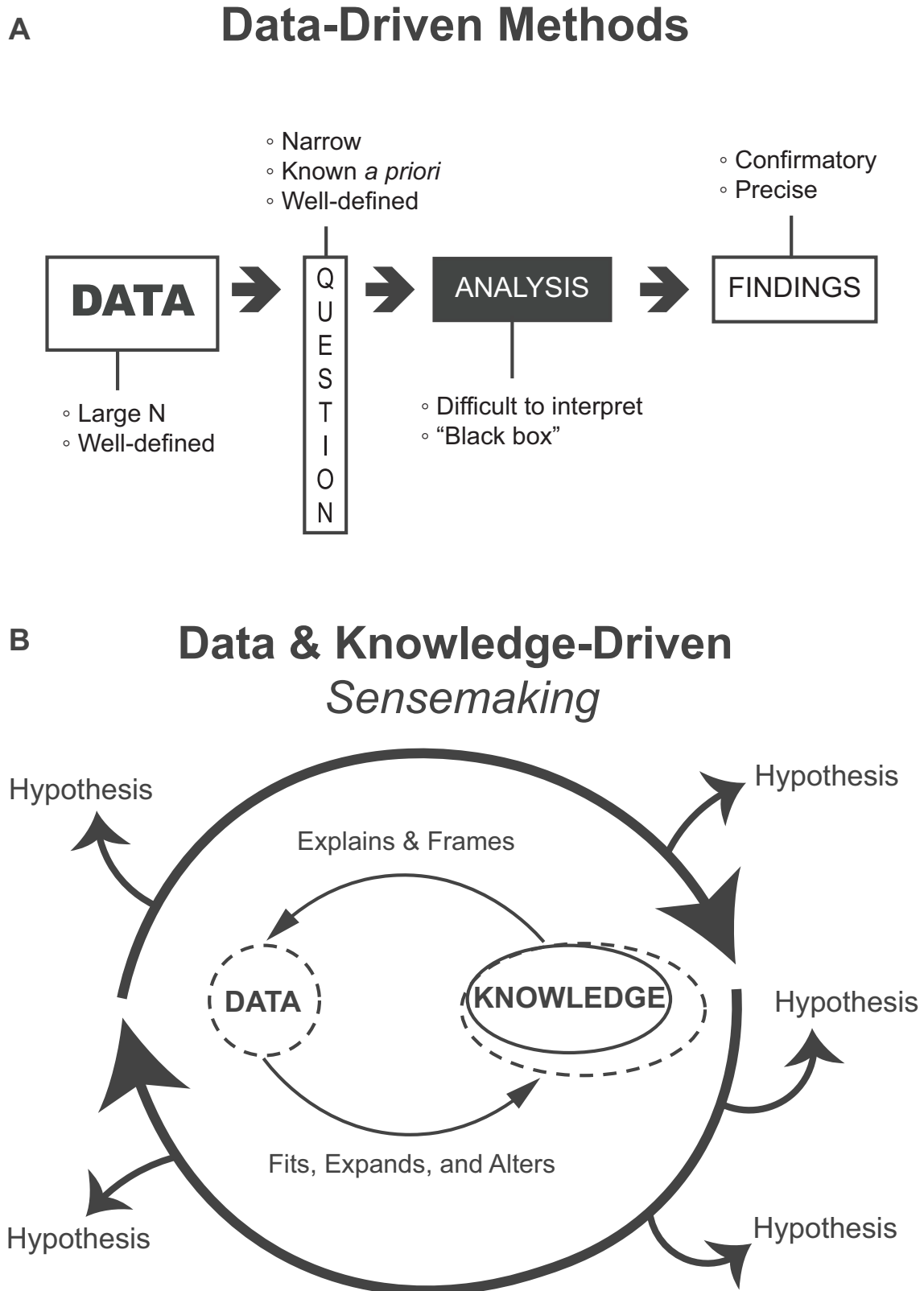


Figure 1. (A) Heavily data-driven methods follow a linear flow from data to findings, require voluminous data to address narrow questions that are known ahead of the analysis, and produce confirmatory and precise findings but where analyses may be difficult to interpret “black boxes”. (B) Methods that support the data and knowledge-driven process of sensemaking iteratively generate, evaluate, and refine alternative hypotheses. Such methods are appropriate for exploratory and formative analyses.

