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**CONNECTING LINGUISTIC EXPRESSIONS AND PAIN RELIEF
THROUGH TRANSFORMER MODEL CONSTRUCTION AND
ANALYSIS**

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of

Bachelor of Arts

in

Computer Science

by Sarah Chacko

June 2023

Abstract

Chronic pain is a widespread problem that significantly impacts quality of life. Over-prescription and abuse of pain medication continues to be a major public health issue and can further burden patients due to a fragmented health care system. Previous research has suggested a possible psychological basis to pain and the potential for safer, non-pharmacological alternatives for pain relief. This project leverages language models to study chronic pain development and relief through psychological treatments, which will be assessed through responses to post-treatment interviews. A transformer-based natural language processing model is employed to identify connections between language expressions and pain on a dataset of back pain questionnaires. The features of the text are further analyzed through SHAP analysis to explain the model's predictions. From the results, we discovered no significant correlation between the predicted and observed values of the general regression and classification models. We also found a slightly stronger correlation for the regression model for the placebo treatment, and no transfer in performance from generated data-trained regression and classification models. Further study of this topic could lead to more reliable prediction of pain relief by linguistic features.

Preface

I would like to thank Dr. Soroush Vosoughi, who was kind enough to let me into his lab and work on a project which I am truly passionate about. I also express my heartfelt gratitude to Weicheng Ma, who guided me throughout this process and played a fundamental role in my research.

Lastly, I would like to thank my wonderful parents, Jacob and Mary, and my sister, Rachael, for providing endless love and support throughout this journey. None of this would have been possible without you.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Section 1.1

Background

1.1.1. Chronic pain and its treatment

The impact of chronic pain. Chronic pain is a debilitating disease that can severely affect an individual's ability to perform regular activities. Recent studies estimate that chronic pain is found in at least 1 in 5 adults in the United States [1]. It is one of the most common reasons that adults seek medical care in the United States, placing further strain on the existing fractured healthcare system. Not only does chronic pain restrict movement and participation in daily life, it has been associated with increased anxiety, depression, and dependence on narcotic pain medication [2]. Furthermore, chronic pain not only results in physical symptoms but also financial burden at both the individual and collective scales. In addition to individuals facing the high cost of treatment, the impact of persistent pain can be large scale. An older estimate of the costs of chronic pain ranges from 560 billion to 635 billion dollars, which is composed of direct costs of health care, lost workdays, and decreased wages [3]. With the direct and indirect costs of chronic pain in mind, this problem

poses a formidable challenge to those seeking to reduce treatment costs and improve quality of life.

Chronic pain management. Treating persistent pain is paramount; if left untreated, the pituitary-adrenal axis will be activated and cause suppression of the immune system, leading to a host of other health issues. Patients are also more inclined to develop anxiety and depression disorders, as they experience feelings of helplessness and hopelessness without a regimented treatment plan [4]. Chronic pain management encompasses a diverse range of different treatments and effectiveness. These treatments can include evidence-based non-pharmacological treatment, such as physical and psychological therapies. These treatments are typically safer than their pharmacological counterparts, as there is no risk of relapse or dependence. This pathway is commonly recommended to patients regardless of whether or not they are taking medication. Alternatively, medication-based treatments are another option for the alleviation of pain. Analgesics can encompass different classes, including antidepressants, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), and opioids. [5]. Each class poses different benefits and risks for the patient which a treatment team must review when considering the use of a medication.

Overprescription of opioids as pain relievers. Though opioids are potent pain relievers, their inclusion in a treatment plan must be preceded by a careful analysis of the necessity for a patient's condition. There are major risks involved with choosing opioid therapy. Opioids are highly addictive as they result in increased endorphin release within the reward centers of the brain. This mechanism of action is responsible for one of the most lethal drug epidemics in the United States, with over three million people dependent on opioids. Of this total, an estimated two million people abuse prescription opioid-based pain medication [6]. Though opioids are typically not

recommended for long courses of treatments due to its severe adverse effects, patients will often refuse diminution or cessation in order to avoid withdrawal symptoms and continue relief [7]. This epidemic exposes the negligence on the part of healthcare professionals and an inappropriate prescription of strong pain medication. A better understanding of addiction by the healthcare team and a more controlled approach to prescription and cessation must be employed to treat these patients and prevent future misuse.

Biases with pain detection. The prescription of pain medication can also be analyzed critically from racial, gender-based, and class-based lenses. Certain groups, such as black Americans, receive poorer treatment from white healthcare providers due to these providers' underlying perceptual contributions and false beliefs about biological differences between races. Studies have revealed the subconscious link between white healthcare professionals who endorse false beliefs about increased pain tolerance in black patients and under-prescription of pain medication [8].

Socioeconomic status (SES) can also play a subliminal role in the development and management of chronic pain. Individuals with a lower SES experience a disproportionately high incidence of chronic pain and a greater likelihood of receiving a prescription for opioid medication. In addition, individuals with lower levels of education are more likely to hold inaccurate conceptions of pain and are more likely to develop ineffective methods to deal with their pain rather than seeking treatment [9]. As healthcare professionals can hold implicit biases which can impact their decision-making treatment, there is a need for an objective tool that can supplement this process.

The rise of non-pharmacological treatment options. Both the opioid epidemic and the increasingly evident biases in pain prescription have spurred the efforts of

researchers in the field of alternative, non-pharmacological therapeutic options. Supplementary treatments, such as physical therapy and cognitive behavioral therapy, provide safe alternatives to pharmacological treatment and are recommended in most treatment plans. These advances are accompanied by a shift in the understanding of pain from a more traditional signal of nerve damage to a much more complex idea with a greater psychoanalytic focus. The expression and perception of pain is influenced by psychological conditions, such as the existence of anxiety or depression. It is also dictated by other variables, such as beliefs, attitudes, and mood [10]. Thus, non-medication-dependent treatments should be seriously considered as a viable alternative to pharmacologic options when crafting a treatment plan for a patient.

Section 1.2

Problem statement

Chronic pain is a debilitating, widespread condition with serious physical, mental, social, and financial effects. The goal of this project is to employ language models to accurately predict pain relief among individuals with chronic pain. To achieve this goal, we utilize a dataset consisting of interviews by participants with chronic back pain who selectively underwent either psychological treatment, a saline injection, or no treatment. More specifically, we fine-tune a transformer-based model to predict the level of pain relief that a patient experienced after treatment. We then examine the possible relevant features of the models and the reasoning it uses to make its predictions. Ultimately, we gain further insight into whether linguistic markers in speech can be predictive of pain. By analyzing the patient’s speech directly, we can bypass the biases present in human healthcare professionals.

Section 1.3

Related work

The psychology behind pain perception. Previous research has suggested a possible psychological basis to pain relief, and alternative methods to pain relief could potentially be safer for patients. One case study by Linton et al. encourages physical therapists to augment treatment of chronic pain by identifying underlying psychosocial factors and developing a personalized treatment plan, including methods of cognitive-behavioral or fear-avoidance therapy, to address these factors [11]. The implementation of non-pharmacological strategies could be a promising avenue in reducing the number of prescribed opiates. This study also suggests that screening tools that assess psychosocial risk factors can be useful, which could be another way to incorporate machine learning into the realm of pain relief.

Machine learning techniques in the discussion of pain. The clinical use of machine learning in pain medicine is quickly growing in recent years, with approaches ranging from diagnosis to management of pain [12]. Most of the work, however, focuses on extracting information about pain from clinical notes and radiology scans. There is untapped potential to analyze pain directly from the patient’s speech, which can reduce bias. A similar study aimed to classify headache pain into cluster or migraine headaches from self-reported narratives from patients using common classifiers [13]. The researchers also conducted a lexicon-based sentiment analysis to determine patterns of word choices made by the users when talking about pain, and they discovered substantial negative sentiment surrounding mentions of pain. This study demonstrates the effectiveness of using machine learning in classification for patients with chronic pain. However, these techniques were accomplished without the use of deep learning, unlike the transformer-based model we employ in this paper.

Overall, classification of pain using linguistic data and techniques in natural language processing (NLP) is not extensively studied, and there is much work to be done.

Chapter 2

Methodology and Experiments

The following chapter details the successful and unsuccessful approaches that we used with the goal of finetuning and analyzing pretrained language models for predicting pain relief.

Section 2.1

Data

2.1.1. Original Dataset

The main data source that we worked with was obtained from our collaborators of the Wager lab from the Psychological and Brain Sciences lab at Dartmouth College [14]. The data originated from a study which aimed at measuring the utility of psychological treatment for primary chronic back pain. Though 138 patients in the original study completed all the stages of the experiment, only 80 interviews were available for analysis. It consists of a set of 80 interviews from patients of varied demographics. These anonymized interviews were accompanied by physiologic and demographic information, such as pain in different areas of the body, education level, and alcohol/drug use frequency.

The patients were randomized to one of three treatments: pain reprocessing therapy (PRT), open-label placebo treatments, or control usual care. PRT is a therapy based on the theory that the brain constructs primary chronic pain when there is no tissue damage. By re-evaluating the causes and level of pain, PRT has potential to help patients afflicted with pain using solely a psychological basis. 26 patients were assigned to PRT, 25 patients were assigned to the placebo treatment, and the remaining 29 were asked to continue their typical treatment. The participants were interviewed before and after the treatment, and both evaluation sessions included an assessment with fMRI. Information about the participant included their level of pain before and after the treatment. After analysis of the data, PRT was proven to yield significant decreases in chronic back pain, deeming it a viable treatment option for those with chronic back pain.

In the dataset, each participant has rated their pain level before and after the treatment on a scale from 0 to 10, with 0 representing no pain and 10 representing extremely high pain. The numerical score of pain relief was calculated by the difference in these two ratings. Of the entire cohort, the highest pain relief difference is 6.5, representing a high initial pain rating and low final pain rating, resulting in significant pain relief after the treatment. The lowest pain relief difference is -1.5, indicating that the participant experienced greater pain after the treatment. These values were then scaled between 0 and 1.

We read through each interview and isolated responses to six standardized questions present in the majority of interviews that would elucidate information about the patient's pain condition and the effect of the treatment. These questions are listed as follows.

- (a) How long have you had chronic back pain?
- (b) What have you previously tried to alleviate your back pain?

- (c) What was your initial expectation at the start of the study? Did you expect the treatment to help you?
- (d) Has this study changed your relationship to your chronic back pain?
- (e) If the treatment helped, what about the treatment do you think was the most helpful?
- (f) How much pain are you in right now?

The goal of separating the interviews by questions was to determine if certain questions are more influential in predicting back pain than others.

We then manually classified each interview as 'No pain relief,' 'Slight pain relief,' or 'Significant pain relief' based on the content of the interview. The pain relief was counted regardless of whether or not the pain relief was experienced from the treatment. Of the 80 patients, 30 patients experienced no pain relief, 25 experienced slight pain relief, and 25 experienced significant pain relief. Thus, the dataset was somewhat equally split between the three classes.

2.1.2. LIWC Analysis

We used the Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC) dictionary in order to quantify sentiment within the dataset. This dictionary is a list of words associated with labels, such as 'posemo' (positive emotion) and 'negemo' (negative emotion). This lexicon was used to assess positive and negative sentiment in the interviews by calculating the percentage of posemo/negemo labels relative to the number of words in an interview. The percent sentiment was calculated for the entirety of the dataset and per treatment group.

2.1.3. Generated Dataset

Through the process of using the original dataset for model creation, we found issues relating to the low number of interviews available. In addition, the answer to each of the six questions was not found in every interview. Thus, we made the decision to generate supplementary data using prompt engineering and GPT-4.

Prompt Engineering. GPT-4 is a large, multimodal language model created by OpenAI that utilizes deep learning to accomplish conversational tasks. In this case, we used a sample prompt as an input in order to receive a response from the model from the perspective of a patient. For every question, five prompts of varying pain relief classes were used to generate 60 unique prompts. In total, 1800 responses were generated. All repeats of responses were removed.

In order to adequately simulate patients encompassing all classes of pain relief, we engineered the prompts in such a way that the model would predict a response given a certain pain relief level. Many iterations of prompts were conducted consistently guide GPT-4 towards a human-like response that would provide insight to the predictive model. There were two types of prompts that were used for generation.

The first type of prompt included the question and a starter response to indicate pain relief, but it did not include the hypothetical patient. For example, for the fifth question, a prompt would be modeled as:

Answer the question by using the prompt, and write a paragraph of three or more sentences. <s> What was your initial expectation at the start of the study? Did you expect the treatment for your chronic back pain to help you? <s> My initial expectation was that the treatment wouldn't alleviate my back pain, but I was proved wrong.

This prompt guided GPT-4 to produce responses that answered the question with an emphasis on pain relief. An appropriate sample response is:

"I think the most helpful aspect of the treatment was that it was tailored to my individual needs. My doctor took the time to understand my specific situation and develop a treatment plan that addressed my particular pain. Additionally, the combination of physical therapy, medications, and lifestyle changes I was prescribed worked together to reduce my pain and improve my quality of life. Finally, the ongoing support and guidance I received from my doctor and other healthcare providers was invaluable in helping me stay on track with my treatment plan."

In the second type of prompt, a sample prompt included a hypothetical patient with a certain pain relief label, the question, and a starter response to guide the model. For example, for the first question, a prompt would be modeled as:

"Suppose you are a patient with chronic back pain whose pain has been relieved a little bit after treatment. Answer the question by using the prompt, and write a paragraph of three or more sentences. <s> How long have you had chronic back pain? </s> I still have pain now, but it was worse earlier"

An appropriate sample response is:

"I first started to have chronic back pain a few months ago. I have been undergoing treatment for it since then, and I can feel a difference in my pain levels. It's not completely gone, but the treatment has helped to relieve it to a certain degree. I'm hopeful that with continuing treatment I can eventually find complete relief."

The initial 1800 responses were generated with the first type of prompt, but the second type of prompt was preferred as it mitigated the time needed to label these responses. However, due to time constraints with sentence generation, a mix of the two prompt types were used for the questions.

Due to prohibitive time constraints, only automatically generated responses for question 3 and question 5 were able to be manually labeled with labels of either 'No pain relief', 'Slight pain relief', or 'Significant pain relief'.

Section 2.2

Model Creation

We determined that a pretrained language model would be sufficient in predicting pain relief by language analysis. The concept of transfer learning is employed when deep learning models are trained on other large corpora to accomplish a certain task, and small changes are made to narrow the scope of the model. For this task, we used the BERT base uncased model. We finetuned different models with the intention of examining the potential of prediction for two different goals: predict pain relief level, and predict pain relief level by treatment group.

2.2.1. What is BERT?

BERT is a transformers-based model that was pretrained on a large corpora of raw texts in the English language. Transformers rely on the encoder-decoder model, which essentially transforms a sequence of words into a vector representation encapsulating the semantics of a word and its position in the phrase. Transformers also employ an attention mechanism to calculate weights for each token in the input, and then it subsequently uses these weights to generate a prediction. The core intention of this model is to be fine-tuned for a downstream task. Finetuning involves adding an additional layer on top of this model and retraining the entire model on a different set of data for a more specific task, which is the method that we have employed.

2.2.2. Goal 1: Predict pain relief level

Our initial goal primarily focused on generally predicting pain relief level.

Original dataset. First, we finetuned a model on every interview and its manually-annotated label from the original dataset and used it for the classification task of

labelling a test set of interviews with either 'No pain relief,' 'Slight pain relief,' or 'Significant pain relief.'

We then finetuned a model on the entire dataset and the numerical scores associated with the scaled pain relief difference provided by the participant, and used the finetuned model for the regression task of assigning each interview in a test set with a numerical score between 0 and 1.

As additional metrics for evaluation of the regression models, we calculated the Spearman and Pearson correlation coefficients for the data. Both the Spearman and Pearson coefficients represent the statistical strength between two sets of data. Spearman measures the monotonic relationship, while Pearson measures the linear relationship between two variables. We also calculated the Root Mean Square Error, which is a commonly used statistic for measuring the quality of predictions from a regression model. Each of these statistical measures aids in evaluating the performance of regression models.

Generated Dataset. After working with the original dataset for this goal, we turned to the generated dataset to determine if it could accomplish similar or higher levels of accuracy, as we were able to train on a significantly larger dataset with this method. As questions 3 and 5 were manually labeled, we finetuned one model on both of these questions. These models were then evaluated on a test dataset of generated and gold standard data to determine if these models could be utilized in prediction.

2.2.3. Goal 2: Predict pain relief level by treatment group

Our next goal focuses on predicting the level of pain alleviation based on the treatment group of the participant. First, models were trained on the interviews and corresponding multi-class labels to accomplish the classification task. Next, models were trained on the interviews with their numerical pain rating to complete the re-

gression task. The performance of the classification and regression tasks was then compared.

Similarly to the regression models from Goal 1, we have calculated the RMSE and Spearman/Pearson correlation coefficients to measure and compare the efficacy of these regression models.

Section 2.3

Model Analysis

Following the finetuning of these models, we analyze the model weights and attention layers to understand more about why the models make certain predictions.

2.3.1. SHAPley Analysis of classification tasks

SHAP operates by removing each token in a given textual example and measuring the difference of the model outputs when said feature is not present. This helps us understand how and to what degree each word in an interview affects the prediction of the model. The numerical difference is represented visually on a sample of text by shading a token by color and intensity. A higher intensity of color illustrates a higher importance of a feature in prediction. Red indicates features that pushed the probability of making a certain prediction higher, while blue indicates features that pushed the probability lower. By calculating these SHAP values per token, we can recognize certain features that are more important for pain prediction than others.

2.3.2. Sentiment analysis using SST-2

Lastly, we conducted an analysis in order to understand which models and which specific layers are best for sentiment analysis. We accomplished this task using the Stanford Sentiment Treebank (SST-2) dataset, available through the Huggingface AI community. This corpus contains phrases extracted from movie reviews, and each

sentence is accompanied by a binary label of negative or positive. We first started by finetuning a clean BERT model on this data and evaluating it on a test dataset from this corpus. This was used as a baseline for sentiment analysis to compare the performance of the pain models. Each finetuned model was evaluated on the SST-2 dataset, and the performance by layer of each model was recorded. Using this method, we were able to understand which layers were most important for sentiment analysis within our finetuned models, and whether sentiment was important for our models' predictions.

Chapter 3

Results and Discussion

In this section, we provide numerical and visual representations of the results and the conclusions that have been formed from this data.

Section 3.1

Dataset

Original Dataset. We conducted an analysis on the dataset to gain an initial understanding of the spread of pain relief and sentiment within the interviews. First, we counted the number of pain relief labels within the full dataset to understand if there is any class imbalance, which is displayed in table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Distribution of pain reliefs labels in full dataset

Class Labels	Full Dataset
No pain relief	30
Slight pain relief	25
Significant pain relief	25

We then calculated the number and percentage of patients experience each pain

relief class to understand the distribution of pain relief per treatment group, as displayed in table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Distribution counts of pain relief labels per treatment group

	Group 1		Group 2		Group 3	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
No Pain Relief	2	0.125	6	0.24	22	0.76
Slight Pain Relief	5	0.3125	15	0.6	5	0.17
Significant Pain Relief	9	0.5625	4	0.16	2	0.069

From this table, we can see that there is a clear class imbalance within the treatment groups. The pain relief labels are not distributed evenly within each group. In the treatment group, over half of the samples experienced significant pain relief. In the saline injection group, 60% of the samples experienced slight pain relief. Lastly, in the control group, 75% of the participants had no pain relief, which was to be expected.

Generated Dataset. We conducted a similar analysis on the generated dataset to understand the class balance within the dataset. Though responses were generated for all six questions, the resulting dataset consists of only questions 3 and 5, which were manually labeled.

Table 3.3: Distribution of pain reliefs labels in generated dataset

Class Labels	Generated Dataset
No pain relief	120
Slight pain relief	208
Significant pain relief	171

Though the prompts were written in such a way to split the distribution as evenly

as possible, there is a greater amount of slight pain relief labels than no pain relief and significant pain relief.

3.1.1. LIWC Analysis

Original Dataset. In order to understand the positive and negative sentiment present in the interview texts, we conducted an LIWC analysis by counting the number of words with 'posemo' tags (positive emotion) and 'negemo' tags throughout the entire dataset.

We then conducted an LIWC analysis by each treatment group in order to view the sentiment types per treatment, considering that we have determined there is a class imbalance of pain relief between the treatment groups.

Table 3.4: Distribution counts of sentiment-related token in the dataset using the LIWC dictionary.

	Group 1		Group 2		Group 3		Total	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Total 'Posemo'	1723	2.87%	1206	3.18%	1225	2.98%	4154	2.99%
Total 'Negemo'	1368	2.28%	656	1.73%	841	2.05%	2865	2.06%
Total 'Anx'	228	0.38%	61	0.16%	92	0.22%	381	0.27%
Total 'Anger'	70	0.12%	25	0.07%	56	0.14%	151	0.11%
Total 'Sad'	151	0.25%	63	0.17%	86	0.21%	300	0.22%

We discovered that the number of positive and negative sentiment labels are evenly distributed throughout the treatment groups, insinuating that there is no significant difference in sentiment linguistically between all treatment groups.

Generated Dataset. We then conducted a similar analysis for the generated dataset.

Table 3.5: Distribution counts of sentiment-related token in the generated dataset using the LIWC dictionary.

	Generated Dataset	
Category Names	Count	Percentage
Total 'Posemo'	1263	3.88%
Total 'Negemo'	1600	4.91%
Total 'Anx'	126	0.39%
Total 'Anger'	31	0.10%
Total 'Sad'	111	0.34%

Compared to the percentage distribution of sentiment within the original dataset, the generated dataset is very close. There is no significant imbalance of a negative or positive class within the generated dataset, similarly to the original dataset.

Section 3.2

Model Creation

Next, we finetuned models with our two goals in mind.

3.2.1. Goal 1: Predict pain relief level

Original Dataset. We first began by finetuning a clean BERT model over the observed pain ratings to accomplish a regression task. Since the original dataset was smaller, the test dataset was comprised of only 24 samples. Though the original ratings of the test dataset had a variable range of 0 to .875, the predicted pain ratings from the model had a more narrow, median-centered scope of .327 to .500. In order to evaluate the performance of this model, we calculate the root mean squared error value (RMSE). This calculation is typically performed when observing the difference

between a model’s predicted value and its corresponding observed value. We also calculated Spearman and Pearson’s correlation coefficient to measure the degree of correlation between the observed numerical values and the predicted values.

Table 3.6: Performance results for regression model trained on full dataset

	Full Dataset
Spearman Coefficient	0.0074
Pearson Coefficient	-0.011
RMSE	0.2331

The Spearman coefficient indicates that there is a very weak correlation between the observed and predicted values, as the coefficient is within the range of 0 to 0.19. The Pearson coefficient is close to 0, corroborating this finding. Thus, we can conclude that this regression model is not able to predict pain relief ratings accurately.

We then finetuned a clean BERT model over the manual labels to accomplish a classification task. The test dataset consisted of 24 samples. The classification accuracy for this task was 37.5%, which indicates that this task is unable to be completed using classification, as the performance is worse than random chance.

Generated Dataset. In order to address the issue of a small sample size, we finetuned a model on a GPT-3-generated dataset, and then evaluated this model on both a subset of the generated dataset and the entirety of the original dataset. Due to time constraints, we were able to manually label questions three and five, so the model was trained on this combined dataset of 583 samples.

The test dataset for the generated dataset consisted of 175 samples, and the test dataset for the original dataset consisted of 74 samples.

Table 3.7: Classification performance of model trained on generated data

	Generated Data	Original Data
% Accuracy	91.43%	33.78%

The model trained on generated data performed well on the dataset of generated data, but poorly on the dataset of the original dataset. This may have been a result of the lexical similarities of the generated data. Though none of the responses were identical, they contained similar phrases which may have been important in its prediction. Thus, we can conclude that the current methods of generating data are not sufficient for prediction of true human responses relating to pain.

3.2.2. Goal 2: Predict pain relief level by treatment group

We first fine-tuned separate models on each treatment group for the classification task, and the performances are reported in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8: Performance of classification model trained by treatment group

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
% Accuracy	87.50%	50%	77.80%
Number of samples	8	8	9

The results demonstrate increased accuracy for prediction of the PRT and control groups. However, the results of the model are heavily skewed by the makeup of the data, since each group has demonstrated a severe class imbalance. Since the number of samples in the training set are low, the model has a tendency to predict solely the majority class.

Next, we trained models for the regression task by treatment group. We used the Spearman correlation coefficient, Pearson correlation coefficient, and RMSE to judge the fit of these models.

Table 3.9: Performance results for regression models trained on individual treatment groups

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Spearman Coefficient	-0.05	0.26	0
Pearson Coefficient	-0.21	0.37	0.3
RMSE	0.25	0.16	0.19

For groups 1 and 3, the results indicate a very weak correlation, as both of the Spearman scores are between 0.0 and 0.19. Both of their Pearson scores are between -.3 to .3, which again indicates a low strength of association and corroborates the earlier finding.

There is a slightly greater correlation between the observed and predicted scores for group 2 as evidenced by the higher Spearman score of .26, but it is still weak. Its Pearson coefficient strengthens this finding, as it is higher and indicates a medium strength of association.

As lower RMSE indicates a better model, group 2 once again performs better than group 1 and group 3.

The class imbalance present in the treatment group split was also reflected in the predicted values of the regression models. The Group 1 model predicted values within the range of .599 to .80, Group 2 predicted within the range of .376 to .497, and Group 3 predicted within the range of .180 to .306. Clearly, the regression models detected the bias towards certain classes present in each group and predicted accordingly.

Taken together, these findings demonstrate the increased accuracy of prediction for group 2, and it outperforms models for group 1 and 3. However, this correlation is medium strength at best.

Section 3.3

Model Analysis**3.3.1. SHAP Analysis**

Due to time constraints, we were only able to analyze the classification model weights for Goal 2. We looked at the three classification models trained on the treatment group data, and calculated the SHAP scores by token for a representative correctly predicted and incorrectly predicted interview. The scores in blue represent words that strongly predict towards higher pain relief. The scores in red represent words that strongly predict towards lower pain relief. A darker hue of each color represents the most important features, while lighter hues contribute less to the prediction of the model.

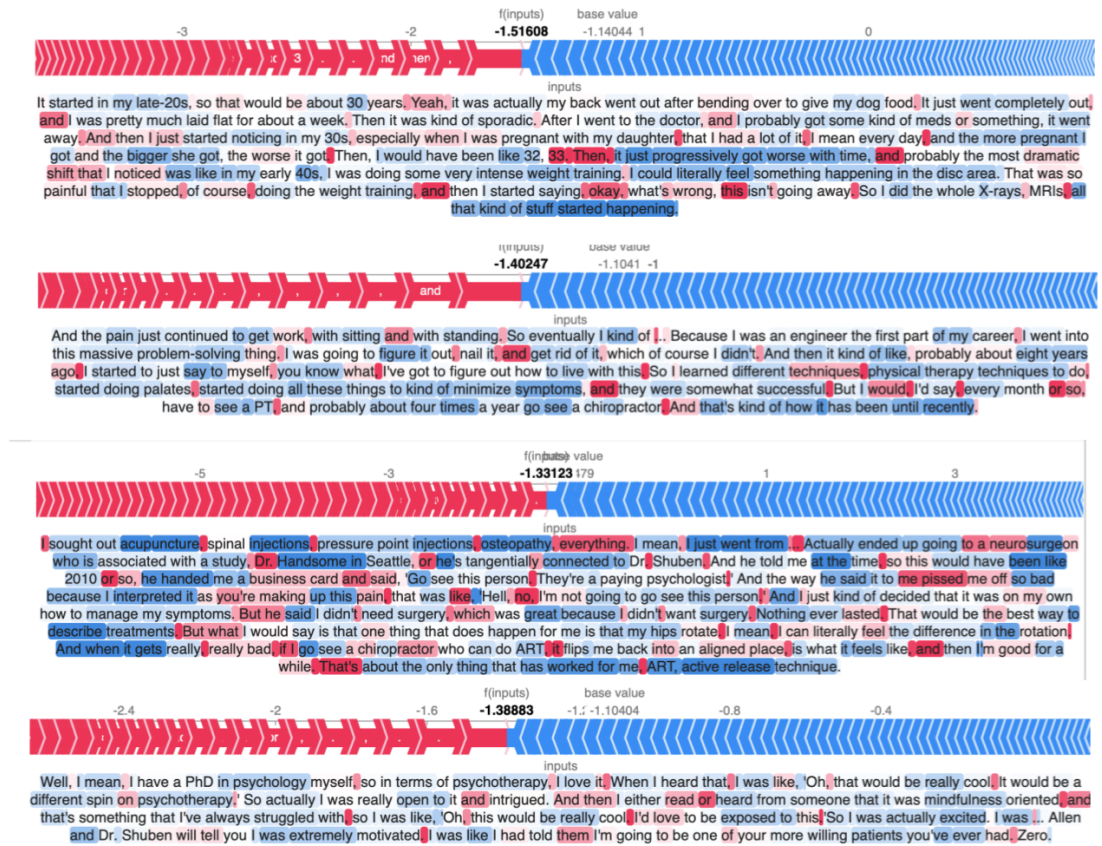


Figure 3.1: Correctly predicted interview from Group 1 - PRT. This interview was correctly predicted as Significant pain relief.

As the model for Group 1 strongly predicted Significant pain relief, it is evident that the designated important features for significant relief is much more predictive than the features for slight or no pain relief. The most important features for high pain relief involve words about treatment, such as 'acupuncture' and 'injections'. However, the model is not as strong when isolating tokens that are not predictive of pain relief. This is evidenced by the strong red markings on unimportant tokens, such as punctuation and coordinating conjunctions.

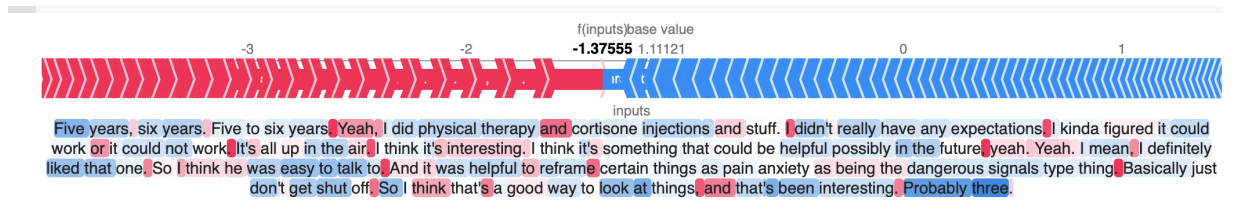


Figure 3.2: Incorrectly predicted interview from Group 1 - PRT. This interview was incorrectly predicted as Significant pain relief, but represents No pain relief.

As discussed earlier, this model has poor performance when predicting labels of slight and no pain relief. Again, the red indicators highlight filler words and punctuation. This interview also contains few mentions of pain relief, which has contributed to the incorrect prediction. The prediction was influenced by the mentions of treatments, which skewed the prediction towards Significant pain relief. The blue labels, which are indicative of high pain relief, highlight more topical words, like 'injections' and 'three' (in mentioning current pain).

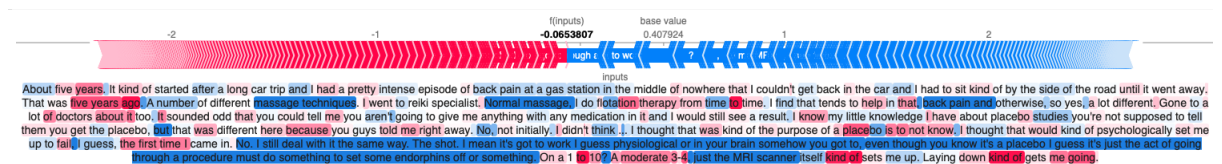


Figure 3.3: Correctly predicted interview from Group 2 - Saline Injection. This interview was correctly predicted as Slight pain relief.

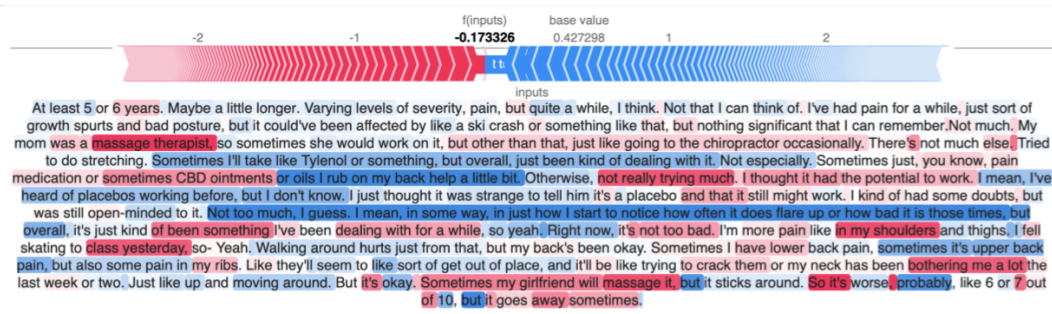


Figure 3.4: Incorrectly predicted interview from Group 2 - Saline Injection. This interview was incorrectly predicted as Slight pain relief, but represents No pain relief.

Both of the blue and red labels on the correctly and incorrectly predicted interviews are more accurately placed on the text and seems to avoid filler words more than the previous model. They address words related to pain, therapies, and locations of pain. The more equal amounts of blue and red amounts and intensities may have contributed to the Slight pain relief prediction.

Overall, Group 2 appears to mark the more important words for pain in both directions of the SHAP values than Group 1, whose red direction marked more unimportant features.

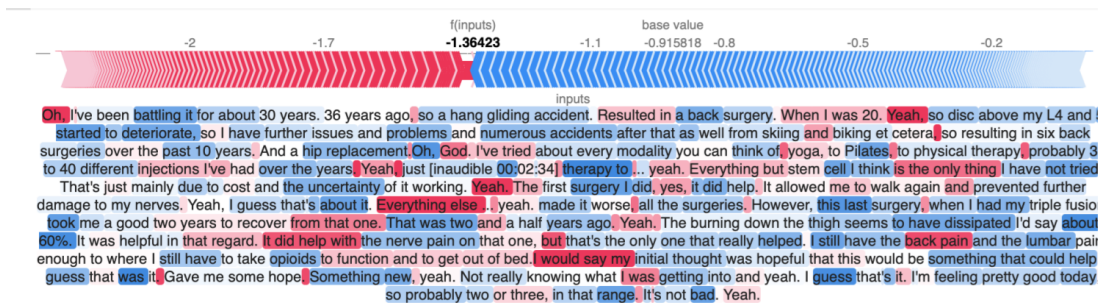


Figure 3.5: Correctly predicted interview from Group 3 - Control. This interview was correctly predicted as No pain relief.



Figure 3.6: Incorrectly predicted interview from Group 3 - Control. This interview was incorrectly predicted No pain relief, but represents Significant pain relief.

Similar to Group 1, the blue direction for Group 3 is more accurate in detecting key features for pain prediction than the red direction, which corroborates the strong bias towards prediction for No pain relief. The strong red labels are placed on unimportant phrases, such as "Yeah" and "Everything else."

Overall, Group 2 appears to mark important features well for both the No pain relief direction and the Significant pain relief direction, and this manifests by the bias towards Slight pain relief predictions. Groups 1 and 3 display increased performance towards Significant pain relief and No pain relief respectively, which explains the strong lean in performance towards the extremes.

3.3.2. Sentiment analysis using SST-2

In order to understand if sentiment was being analyzed by our models to make predictions, we employed the use of the SST-2 dataset.

These results were compared to the ordered layers for the regression and classification models of each treatment group.

Table 3.10: Ordered layers of regression models evaluated on SST-2 data

Group 1		Group 2		Group 3	
Layer Ranking	% Accuracy	Layer Ranking	% Accuracy	Layer Ranking	% Accuracy
8	54.78%	8	57.64%	8	57.58%
5	50.11%	12	50.11%	12	50.11%
12	50.11%	2	50.05%	2	50.05%
6	50.05%	5	50.05%	6	50.05%
2	50.00%	6	50.05%	5	50.00%
1	49.95%	1	49.95%	1	49.95%
7	49.95%	4	49.95%	7	49.95%
3	49.89%	7	49.95%	3	49.89%
4	49.89%	3	49.89%	4	49.89%
9	49.84%	9	49.45%	9	49.40%
10	47.97%	11	48.19%	10	48.46%
11	47.75%	10	47.47%	11	47.09%

Table 3.11: Ordered layers of classification models evaluated on SST-2 data

Group 1		Group 2		Group 3	
Layer Ranking	% Accuracy	Layer Ranking	% Accuracy	Layer Ranking	% Accuracy
8	54.78%	8	57.64%	8	57.58%
5	50.11%	12	50.11%	12	50.11%
12	50.11%	2	50.05%	2	50.05%
6	50.05%	5	50.05%	6	50.05%
2	50.00%	6	50.05%	5	50.00%
1	49.95%	1	49.95%	1	49.95%
7	49.95%	4	49.95%	7	49.95%
3	49.89%	7	49.95%	3	49.89%
4	49.89%	3	49.89%	4	49.89%
9	49.84%	9	49.45%	9	49.40%
10	47.97%	11	48.19%	10	48.46%
11	47.75%	10	47.47%	11	47.09%

From the data, it is apparent that there is no significant difference between the three regression models when considering the accuracies associated with the layer rankings. All the regression models predict sentiment equally well, which is around random choice.

The same is true for the classification models, as there is no clear difference when comparing these models to each other.

There is a slight performance difference of the layers within both the regression and classification models in that layer 8 is favored in sentiment analysis, and it is at the top of the rankings for every model. At the same time, layers 10 and 11 consistently predict sentiment at a lower accuracy than the other layers.

The model results were compared to the control model, which is a clean BERT-base-uncased model finetuned and evaluated on the SST-2 dataset.

Table 3.12: Ordered layers of clean BERT model evaluated and finetuned on SST-2 data

Clean BERT Model	
Layer Ranking	% Accuracy
11	86.91%
10	51.55%
6	49.71%
4	49.25%
8	49.25%
1	49.02%
2	49.02%
3	49.02%
7	49.02%
0	48.91%
5	48.91%
9	48.22%

The drop in performance in the finetuned model indicates that finetuning the model on the back pain dataset hinders the performance of sentiment analysis. Thus, the model is not learning sentiment-related features, and the tasks of predicting pain relief with the given dataset and sentiment analysis are only loosely related, if at all.

This is consistent with the equal levels of sentiment between the three groups that was discovered in the LIWC analysis. Since the negative and positive sentiment is equally distributed between the three treatment groups, there is little distinction between the groups for the model to learn from when making a prediction.

Section 3.4

Limitations

We faced certain limitations and obstacles when examining the dataset, which possibly inhibited the performance of these models.

The pain ratings before and after the interviews were based off of subjective numbers by the patients. However, a significant amount of time had passed between the interviews, and it is possible that the patient had forgotten their original score in order to make a viable comparison between the two scores. As ratings are subjective between participants, it is difficult to compare these scales to one another, and these ratings may have been artificially inflated or deflated by the patient's memory.

Patients may have experienced pain relief unrelated to the treatments, which could have incorrectly influenced the prediction of the model. For example, patients in the control group were asked to continue their normal treatment, and one patient attributes their pain relief to a medication they have been taking, not any treatment specifically for the study. The interviewee proceeds to state,

"Right now I don't have any pain at all. But there are external conditions that are happening...So I was diagnosed with autoimmune disease about a month ago. And started on Prednisone. And Prednisone is an anti-inflammatory drug...so that's helped the inflammation in my back. So I haven't had much pain. But it's not the shot, it's the Prednisone."

The inclusion of such cases, whether explicitly stated by the patient or not, may have affected the results.

The data was initially prepared with labels for the interviews. However, these labels were based off of the numeric pain ratings, not the textual content of the interviews. The original researchers predefined cutoffs within the pain difference range

to classify interviews into 'Significant,' 'Slight,' or 'No' pain relief labels. In spite of this, there were multiple instances of interviews that did not adequately fit into these categories. Due to this mis-categorization, the interviews were re-classified by one individual. It is important to have a team audit the labels to provide supplementary feedback and verify the accuracy.

Furthermore, the interviews were manually split up by question. Though there was some standardization in the questions being asked, not every interview was asked every question. This led to gaps in the data, with questions 4 and 5 being asked less frequently than questions 1 and 6.

In addition, some of the data was less helpful to predict on, such as one-answers ("No", "Yeah").

The incompleteness of the interviews amplified most significant limitation of this project, which was the size of the dataset. This was especially noticeable splitting up the interviews by treatment groups, as the test datasets when evaluating the fine-tuned models consisted of 7-9 interviews. As there was also a class imbalance within the treatment groups, this has led to the severe bias in predicting towards one class. Though fine-tuning is a better method for small datasets than training a model from scratch, the limited amount of data can severely limit the number and generalizability of conclusions we can make. Though we attempted to account for this by generating more sentences with GPT-4, these AI-generated sentences are no match for the variability of human responses. This conclusion was made from the discrepancy in performance when training the model on the generated data and evaluating it on the gold standard participant responses. Many of the challenges associated with the generated dataset related to prompt creation and labeling. Though none of the responses were identical, there were similar phrases that the model may have perceived that would lead to a significantly higher performance among evaluation on the generated

test set. More work must be done in the prompt creation stage to encourage GPT-4 to produce responses of a higher diversity.

Chapter 4

Future Work

In this section, we will detail approaches that will be examined in the future to better understand the general problem.

We aspire to expand the generation of sentences through number of sentences and variety of prompt generation. Rather than generating prompts by pain relief label, we will either provide a pain relief rating or ask GPT-4 to generate a pain relief rating based on the response it provides. Additionally, we could try generating data by treatment group to strengthen the findings for Goal 2. Example prompts could be modeled as,

"Suppose you are patient whose chronic back pain has decreased from a 10 to 4 after {insert treatment and explanation} on a scale from 0 to 10, with 0 representing no back pain and 10 representing extreme back pain. How would you respond to the following question: {insert question}"

Similar to the other method of generating classification data, we will train a model on this generated regression data and evaluate it both on the actual and generated dataset. In order to assess the performance of the regression models, we will again use the Spearman and Pearson coefficients alongside the RMSE score.

We also will try to generate prompts with gender, race, and/or ethnicity in mind to

develop a greater range of responses that will incorporate more viewpoints. However, the responses generated will be highly dependent on the data that was used to train GPT-4, and researchers must be careful to exclude bias that may be present in the responses. A sample prompt could be modeled as,

"Answer the following question from the perspective of an Asian woman who has been experiencing chronic back pain for ten years. {insert question}"

We hope to analyze the SHAP contributions of each token for the regression models, as we have done for the classification models for Goal 2. This analysis will give us a better understanding of the importance for each feature for the model predictions. We also plan to examine the SHAP contribution per sentence, rather than solely per token.

Finally, we intend to append one more goal to the existing two. While we have previously examined the dataset with respect to predicting pain relief generally and by treatment group, we will investigate the possibility of predicting the treatment group by the interview and the pain relief label. In order to handle multiple text inputs, one potential solution could involve appending the label to the end of the interview, separated by a special token such as <CLS>. Being able to identify treatment groups by linguistic markers could have greater implications for predicting the outcomes of certain treatments for an individual.

Chapter 5

Conclusion

In this work, we have examined the potential to predict pain relief from linguistic features. This study has implications in treating the costly problem of pain management in the United States. We have employed a variety of different methods within natural language processing to explore two different goals: 1) to predict pain relief, and 2) to predict pain relief based on treatment group. Through finetuning general classification and regression models, we have discovered no significant correlation between predicted values and observed values. We also trained models by treatment group, which resulted in greater accuracy for the classification models and a slightly stronger correlation in the placebo regression model. From SHAPley analysis of the models, we discovered certain features that contributed to making predictions. We also analyzed the weak role of sentiment analysis in model prediction. There was a significant limitation in the size of the dataset, which future work will address by further refining prompts for GPT-4 response generation. Our hope is that this research serves as a foundation for future analysis of pain relief with machine learning tools.

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