# **Logic Programming and Artificial Neural Networks** in Breast Cancer Detection

José Neves<sup>1(\omega)</sup>, Tiago Guimarães<sup>2</sup>, Sabino Gomes<sup>2</sup>, Henrique Vicente<sup>3</sup>, Mariana Santos<sup>4</sup>, João Neves<sup>5</sup>, José Machado<sup>1</sup>, and Paulo Novais<sup>1</sup>

**Abstract.** About 90% of breast cancers do not cause or are capable of producing death if detected at an early stage and treated properly. Indeed, it is still not known a specific cause for the illness. It may be not only a beginning, but also a set of associations that will determine the onset of the disease. Undeniably, there are some factors that seem to be associated with the boosted risk of the malady. Pondering the present study, different breast cancer risk assessment models where considered. It is our intention to develop a hybrid decision support system under a formal framework based on Logic Programming for knowledge representation and reasoning, complemented with an approach to computing centered on Artificial Neural Networks, to evaluate the risk of developing breast cancer and the respective Degree-of-Confidence that one has on such a happening.

**Keywords:** Breast cancer  $\cdot$  Tyrer-cuzick model  $\cdot$  Knowledge representation and reasoning  $\cdot$  Logic programing  $\cdot$  Artificial Neural Networks

# 1 Introduction

Breast cancer is the most frequent malignancy in female [1], affecting one million women worldwide and 4500 in Portugal, every year. In Portugal, even though the occurrence rate is high, i.e., 75/100000 in 2005 [2], the mortality rate was reduced, exposing the role of screening at an early stage of the illness [3]. This type of tumor has a large impact in our society, not only because of its frequency and severity, but also due to its social and domestic standing.

© Springer International Publishing Switzerland 2015
I. Rojas et al. (Eds.): IWANN 2015, Part II, LNCS 9095, pp. 211–224, 2015.
DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-19222-2\_18

Mammography is the most common screening tool since it uses low dose X-rays to create an image of the breast to find breast cancer. Screening mammograms are used to look for breast disease in women who are asymptomatic. The American Cancer Society recommends that all women aged over 40 should undergo screening mammography once in a year.

Masses and microcalcification are an important early signs of breast cancer. However, it is often difficult to distinguish abnormalities from normal breast tissues because of their subtle appearance and ambiguous margins. Younger women, who tend to have denser breasts, can make mammograms harder to interpret and can provoke false positive results. According Kolb et al. [4], depending on the density of the breasts radiologists may miss up to 30% of breast cancers. Moreover, mass lesions vary in appearance from patient to patient and similar attributes are shared by some benign and malignant masses, as it is the mammography classification of mass lesions is a difficult task. Indeed, even experienced radiologists have difficulty to interpret screening mammograms in large numbers. Hence, computer-aided diagnostics is a promising tool for radiologists to produce an accurate and faster diagnosis result for breast cancer patients. Some general computer-aided diagnostics systems have been presented based on Kohonen's self-organizing map [5], neuro-fuzzy approach [6, 7], support vector machines [8], Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) [9] ANNs combined with techniques for reducing the dimension of initial database like association rules [10], sequential forward selection, sequential backward selection, and principal component analysis [11], or clustering [12]. Other authors have developed computer-aided diagnostics systems combining different methodologies like genetic algorithms and ANNs [13] or swarm intelligence and wavelet neural networks [14, 15].

The computer-aided diagnostics systems presented above are related with the problem of distinguishing between abnormalities and normal breast tissues. However, the development of an all-inclusive risk assessment models should include other characteristics of patient like genetic risk factors (about 5% to 10% of breast cancer cases can to be hereditary) or hormonal factors (women who have had more menstrual cycles have a slightly higher risk of breast cancer, due to a longer lifetime exposure to the hormones estrogen and progesterone) [16, 17, 18].

Breast cancer is typically asymptomatic until the development of clinical complications. Unfortunately, these complications appear at a relatively late stage of the progression of the disease. Thus, it is difficult to make an early diagnosis of the disease, since it needs to consider different conditions with intricate relations among them, where the available data may be incomplete, contradictory and even unknown, i.e., where the most common limitations are related with the poor quality of the available information. Those drawbacks are mainly due to their reliance on known risk factors like oral contraceptive pill use, ethnic group, breast density, and higher than seconddegree relatives with breast cancer, which are yet to be studied.

In order to overcome the problems related with incomplete, contradictory and/or unknown information, the present work reports the founding of a computational framework that uses knowledge representation and reasoning techniques to set the structure of the information and the associate inference mechanisms. We will centre on a Logic Programming (LP) approach to knowledge representation and reasoning [19, 20], and look at a soft computing approach to data processing based on ANNs [21].

# 2 Knowledge Representations and Reasoning

Many approaches to knowledge representation and reasoning have been proposed using the Logic Programming (LP) archetype, namely in the area of Model Theory [22, 23], and Proof Theory [19, 20]. In this work it is followed the proof theoretical approach in terms of an extension to the LP language to knowledge representations and reasoning. An Extended Logic Program is a finite set of clauses in the form:

```
 \left\{ \begin{array}{l} p \leftarrow p_{1}, \cdots, p_{n}, not \ q_{1}, \cdots, not \ q_{m} \\ ? \left(p_{1}, \cdots, p_{n}, not \ q_{1}, \cdots, not \ q_{m}\right) \ \left(n, m \geq 0\right) \\ exception_{p_{1}} \\ \cdots \\ exception_{p_{j}} \ \left(j \leq m, n\right) \\ \right\} :: scoring_{value}
```

where "?" is a domain atom denoting falsity, the  $p_i$ ,  $q_j$ , and p are classical ground literals, i.e., either positive atoms or atoms preceded by the classical negation sign  $\neg$  [19]. Under this formalism, every program is associated with a set of abducibles [22, 23], given here in the form of exceptions to the extensions of the predicates that make the program. The term  $scoring_{value}$  stands for the relative weight of the extension of a specific predicate with respect to the extensions of the peers ones that make the overall program.

In order to evaluate the knowledge that stems from a logic program an evaluation of the *Quality-of-Information* (*QoI*) was set in dynamic environments aiming at decision-making purposes [24, 25]. The objective is to build a quantification process of *QoI* and an assessment of the argument values of a given predicate with relation to their domains (here understood as *Degree-of-Confidence* (*DoC*), which stands for one's belief that its unknown values fits into the arguments ranges, taking into account their domains).

The QoI with respect to the extension of a predicate i will be given by a truth-value in the interval [0, 1], i.e., if the information is known (positive) or false (negative) the QoI for the extension of  $predicate_i$  is 1. For situations where the information is unknown, the QoI is given by:

$$QoI_{predicate_i} = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{N} = 0 \qquad (N \gg 0)$$
 (1)

where N denotes the cardinality of the set of terms or clauses of the extension of  $pre-dicate_i$  that stand for the incompleteness under consideration. For situations where the extension of  $predicate_i$  is unknown but can be taken from a set of values, the QoI is given by:

$$QoI_{predicate_i} = \frac{1}{Card}$$
 (2)

where Card denotes the cardinality of the abducible set for i, if the abducible set is disjoint. If the abducible set is not disjoint, the QoI is given by:

$$QoI_{predicate_i} = \frac{1}{C_1^{Card} + \dots + C_{Card}^{Card}}$$
 (3)

where  $C_{Card}^{Card}$  is a card-combination subset, with Card elements. The next element of the model to be considered is the relative importance that a predicate assigns to each of its attributes under observation, i.e.,  $w_i^k$ , which stands for the relevance of attribute k in the extension of  $predicate_i$ . It is also assumed that the weights of all the attribute predicates are normalized, i.e.:

$$\sum_{1 \le k \le n} w_i^k = 1, \forall_i \tag{4}$$

where  $\forall$  denotes the universal quantifier. It is now possible to define a predicate's scoring function  $V_i(x)$  so that, for a value  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ , defined in terms of the attributes of  $predicate_i$ , one may have:

$$V_{i}(x) = \sum_{1 \le k \le n} w_{i}^{k} * QoI_{i}(x)/n$$
(5)

allowing one to set:

$$predicate_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) :: V_i(x)$$
 (6)

that denotes the inclusive quality of  $predicate_i$  with respect to all the predicates that make the program. It is now possible to set a logic program (here understood as the predicates' extensions that make the program) scoring function, in the form:

$$LP_{Scoring\ Function} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} V_i(x) * p_i$$
 (7)

where  $p_i$  stands for the relevance of the *predicate*<sub>i</sub> in relation to the other predicates whose extensions denote the logic program. It is also assumed that the weights of all the predicates' extensions are normalized, i.e.:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i = 1, \forall_i \tag{8}$$

where  $\forall$  denotes the universal quantifier.

It is now possible to engender the universe of discourse, according to the information given in the logic programs that endorse the information about the problem under consideration, according to productions of the type:

$$predicate_i - \bigcup_{1 \le j \le m} clause_j(x_1, \dots, x_n) :: Qol_i :: DoC_i$$
(9)

where U and m stand, respectively, for *set union* and the *cardinality* of the extension of  $predicate_i$ .  $DoC_i$  denotes one's confidence on the attribute's values of a particular term of the extension of  $predicate_i$ , whose evaluation is given in [26]. In order to advance with a broad-spectrum, let us suppose that the *Universe of Discourse* is described by the extension of the predicates:

$$f_1(\cdots), f_2(\cdots), \cdots, f_n(\cdots) \text{ where } (n \ge 0)$$
 (10)

Assuming that a clause denotes a happening, a clause has as argument all the attributes that make the event. The argument values may be of the type unknown or members of a set, or may be in the scope of a given interval, or may qualify a particular observation.

# 3 A Case Study

In order to exemplify the applicability of our method, we will look at the relational database model, since it provides a basic framework that fits into our prospects, and is understood as the genesis of the *LP* approach to Knowledge Representation and Reasoning [19].

As a case study, consider the scenario where a relational database is given in terms of the extensions of the relations (or tables) depicted in Fig. 1, which stands for a situation where one has to manage information about breast cancer. Under this scenario some incomplete and/or default data is also available. For instance, in the *Hormonal Factors* table, the age of menarche in case 2 is unknown, while in the last case the age of menopause ranges in the interval [1, 2].

In Fig. 1 one may find four large groups of variables, i.e., *Personal Information*, *Hormonal Factors*, *Family History* and *Personal Breast Disease*. The *Personal Information* can be affected by the *Age* (whose value is either 0 (zero) if the age is below 50 (fifty) or 1 (one) if it is above 50 (fifty); and by the *Body Mass Index* (whose value is 0 (zero) if it is below 25 (twenty five), 1 (one) if it is above 25 (twenty five) but below 35 (thirty five), and 2 (two) if it is above 35 (thirty five).

The *Hormonal Factors* are affected by the age when menarche happened (0 (zero) if it occurred below 12 (twelve) or 1 (one) if it is above); by the age when an individual had her first born child (0 (zero) if it is nulliparous or with an age below 30 (thirty), or 1 (one) if it is above); and by the age when menopause happened (0 (zero) if the individual is not yet in the menopause, 1 (one) if it happened before the age of 50 (fifty), and 2 (two) if the age is above 50 (fifty)).

The *Family History* and *Personal Breast Disease* columns can be affected by five and three parameters, respectively. Each one can be either 0 (zero) or 1 (one), where 0 (zero) means the absence and 1 (one) the presence of the disease on the first and second degree relatives, an early onset of cancer in any relative, bilateral breast cancer and ovarian cancer for the first column and breast biopsies, atypical hyperplasia and Lobular Carcinoma In Situ (LCIS) for the second [16, 17].

	Personal Information							Hormonal Factor								
		#	Age	Body	Mass I	ndex		#	Men	arche	Fir	st Live	e Birth	Mei	nopause	
		1	37		24		Ī	1		0		1			0	
		2 58 28				2				1			1			
	<b>\</b>	217	55		32			217		1		0			[1,2]	J ↓
F	Breast Cancer Diagnosis															
lt	#	Age	Bod	y Mass	Index									nal Breast Disease		
П	1 0 0				1			1			0					
Ш	2	1 1						3			2					
Ш																
Ľ	217	7 1 2				[2,3]				1			2			
	Personal Breast Disease															
	#			#	Breast Biopsi						lasia	LCIS	_			
			1			0			0		0					
				2		0				1			1			
				217		1				1			0			
Γ	Family History															
ŀ	,,	First Degree S		Seco	Second Degree			Early onset of		Bilateral Breast		east	Ovari	ian		
J	#	Relatives			Relatives				,					Canc		
Ī	1	0			1				0				0		0	
	2				1				0			1			1	
						•••			. <u>.</u> .				. <u></u>			

Fig. 1. An extension of the relational database model

Now, applying the rewritten algorithm presented in [26], to all the tables that make the Extension of the Relational Database model for Liver Diseases Diagnosis (Fig. 1), excluding of such a process the *Breast Cancer Diagnosis* one, and looking to the  $DoC_s$  values obtained in this manner, it is possible to set the arguments of the predicate referred to below, that also denotes the objective function with respect to the problem under analyze.

 $breast\_cancer: Age, B_{ody}M_{ass}I_{ndex}, H_{ormonal}F_{actors},$ 

$$F_{amily}H_{istory}, P_{ersonal}B_{reast}D_{isease} \rightarrow \{0,1\}$$

where 0 (zero) and 1 (one) denote, respectively, the truth values *false* and *true*. Indeed, the arguments of this predicate where set by a process of sensibility analysis, where the arguments chosen where those that present the higher  $DoC_s$  values, i.e., the ones that have a greater influence on the output of the objective function referred to above. Their terms also make the training and test sets of the Artificial Neural Network (ANN) given in Fig. 2.

Now, let us consider a patient that presents the symptoms Age = 1, BMI = 2, HF = [3, 4],  $FH = \bot$ , PBD = 1, to which it is applied the rewritten algorithm presented in [23]. One may get:

# Begin,

```
The predicate's extensions that make the Universe-of-Discourse for the patient under observation are set \leftarrow
```

¬breast\_cancer(Age,BMI,HF,FH,PBD)

 $\leftarrow$  not breast\_cancer(Age, BMI, HF, FH, PBD)

$$breast\_cancer\left(\underbrace{1, \quad 2, \ [3,4], \ \bot, \ 1}_{attribute's \ values}\right) :: 1 :: DoC$$

} :: 1

The attribute's values ranges are rewritten  $\leftarrow$ 

 $\neg breast\_cancer(Age, BMI, HF, FH, PBD)$ 

← not breast\_cancer(Age, BMI, HF, FH, PBD)

$$breast\_cancer\left(\underbrace{[1,1],[2,2],[3,4],[0,5],[1,1]}_{attribute's values ranges}\right) :: 1 :: DoC$$

} :: 1

The attribute's boundaries are set to the interval  $[0,1] \leftarrow$ 

 $\neg breast\_cancer(Age, BMI, HF, FH, PBD)$ 

← not breast\_cancer(Age, BMI, HF, FH, PBD)

$$breast\_cancer\left(\underbrace{[1,1],[1,1],[0.75,1],[0,1],[0.33,0.33]}_{attribute`s\ values\ ranges\ once\ normalized}\right):: 1:: DoC$$

$$[0,1]\ [0,1]\ [0,1]\ [0,1]$$

attribute's domains once normalized

```
J. Neves et al.
```

```
The DoC's values are evaluated \leftarrow

{

¬breast_cancer(Age, BMI, HF, FH, PBD)

\leftarrow not breast_cancer(Age, BMI, HF, FH, PBD)

breast_cancer \left(\underbrace{1, 1, 0.97, 0, 1}_{attribute's confidence values}\right) :: 1 :: 0.79

\underbrace{[1, 1][1, 1][0.75, 1][0, 1][0.33, 0.33]}_{attribute's values ranges once normalized}

\underbrace{[0, 1][0, 1] [0, 1] [0, 1]}_{attribute's domains once normalized}
```

} :: 1

#### End.

where its argument values, i.e., (1, 1, 0.97, 0, 1) make the input to the Artificial Neural Network (ANN) given in Fig. 2. The output of ANN stands for the patient diagnosis.

# 4 Artificial Neural Networks

It was set a soft computing approach to model the universe of discourse of any patient suffering from breast cancer, based on Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs), which are used to structure data and capture complex relationships between inputs and outputs [27, 28, 29]. ANNs simulate the structure of the human brain, being populated by multiple layers of neurons, with a valuable set of activation functions. As an example, let us consider the case listed above, where one may have a situation in which the diagnosis of breast cancer is needed. In Fig. 2 it is shown how the normalized values of the interval boundaries and their  $DoC_s$  and  $QoI_s$  values work as inputs to the ANN. The output depicts a breast cancer diagnostic, plus the confidence that one has on such a happening.

In this study were considered 217 patients with an age average of 58.2 years, ranging from 28 to 87 years old. Breast cancer was diagnosed in 41 patients, i.e., 18.9% of the analysed population. The data came from a main health care center in the north of Portugal. The dataset holds information about risk factors considered critical in the prediction of breast cancer. Thirteen variables were selected allowing one to have a multivariable dataset with 217 records (Fig. 1). Table 1 shows a brief description of each variable and the data type, i.e., numeric or nominal.

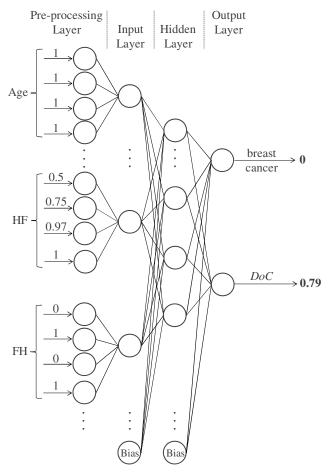


Fig. 2. The Artificial Neural Network topology

To ensure statistical significance of the attained results, 25 (twenty five) experiments were applied in all tests. In each simulation, the available data was randomly divided into two mutually exclusive partitions, i.e., the training set with 70% of the available data and, the test set with the remaining 30% of the cases. The back propagation algorithm was used in the learning process of the ANN. As the output function in the pre-processing layer it was used the identity one. In the other layers we used the sigmoid function.

A common tool to evaluate the results presented by the classification models is the coincidence matrix, a matrix of size  $L \times L$ , where L denotes the number of possible classes. This matrix is created by matching the predicted and target values. L was set to 2 (two) in the present case. Table 2 present the coincidence matrix (the values denote the average of the 25 experiments). Table 2 shows that the model accuracy was 96.1% for the training set (146 correctly classified in 152) and 95.4% for test set (62 correctly classified in 65).

Table 1. Variables characterization

Variable	Description	Data type
Age	Patient's age	Numeric
Body Mass Index	Patient's body mass index	Numeric
Menarche	Age when menarche happened	Nominal
First Live Birth	Age when patient had her first born child	Nominal
Menopause	Age when menarche happened	Nominal
Breast Biopsies	Had breast biopsies	Nominal
Atypical Hyperplasia	Has atypical hyperplasia	Nominal
LCIS	Has lobular carcinoma in situ	Nominal
First Degree Relatives	Presence of disease on first degree relatives	Nominal
Second Degree Relatives	Presence of disease on second degree relatives	Nominal
Early onset of Cancer	Early onset of cancer in any relative	Nominal
Bilateral Breast Cancer	Presence of disease in any relative	Nominal
Ovarian Cancer	Presence of disease in any relative	Nominal

Based on coincidence matrix it is possible to compute sensitivity, specificity, Positive Predictive Value (PPV) and Negative Predictive Value (NPV) of the classifier. Briefly, sensitivity and specificity are statistical measures of the performance of a binary classifier, while sensitivity measures the proportion of true positives that are correctly identified as such. Specificity measures the proportion of true negatives that are correctly identified. Moreover, it is necessary to know the probability of the classifier that give the correct diagnosis. Thus, it is also calculated both PPV and NPV, while PPV stands for the proportion of cases with positive results which are correctly diagnosed, NPV is the proportion of cases with negative results which are successfully labeled. The corresponding sensitivity, specificity, PPV and NPV values are displayed in Table 3 for training and test sets.

Table 2. The coincidence matrix for the ANN model

	Predictive					
Target	Train	ing set	Test set			
	True (1)	False (0)	True (1)	False (0)		
True (1)	28	1	12	0		
False (0)	5	118	3	50		

**Table 3.** Sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value (PPV) and negative predictive value (NPV) for for the ANN model

	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)	PPV (%)	NPV (%)
Training set	96.6	95.9	84.8	99.2
Test set	100.0	94.3	80.0	100.0

A perusal of Table 3 shows that the sensitivity ranges from 96.6% to 100%, while the specificity ranges from 94.3% to 95.9%. The sensitivity of the proposed model is higher than the reported in literature for medical imaging diagnosis, ranging from 70.21% to 94.17% [13, 14, 15]. PPV ranges from 80.0% to 84.8%, while NPV ranges from 99.2% to 100%. For comparison, the reported PPV for medical imaging diagnosis ranges between 64.03% and 87.09%, while the corresponding NPV ranges between 90.96% and 94.71% [13]. Thus, it is our claim that the proposed model is able to predict breast cancer predisposition properly. The inclusion of other patient's characteristics, like genetic risk and hormonal factors may be responsible for the good performance exhibited by the presented model.

## 5 Conclusions and Future Work

This risk assessment system is able to give an adequate response to the need for a good method of breast cancer prediction. To go around the problem, more effectively, much more variables must be studied and considered, thus fulfilling important gaps in the existent risk assessment methods.

Being an area filled with incomplete and unknown data it may be tackled by Artificial Intelligence based methodologies and techniques for problem solving. This work presents the founding of a computational framework that uses powerful knowledge representation and reasoning techniques to set the structure of the information and the associate inference mechanisms.

The knowledge representation and reasoning techniques presented above are very versatile and capable of covering almost every possible instance, namely by considering incomplete, contradictory, and even unknown data, a marker that is not present in existing systems. Indeed, this method brings a new approach that can revolutionize prediction tools in all its variants, making it more complete than the existing methodologies and tools available. The new paradigm of knowledge representation and reasoning enables the use of the normalized values of the interval boundaries and their *DoC* values, as inputs to the ANN. The output translates a diagnosis of liver disease and the confidence that one has on such a happening.

Our main contribution relies on the fact that at the end, the extensions of the predicates that make the universe of discourse are given in terms of *DoCs* that stand for one's confidence that the predicates arguments values fit into their respective domains. It also encapsulates, in itself, a new vision of Multi-value Logics, once a proof of a theorem in a conventional way, is evaluated to the interval [0, 1]. Indeed, some interesting results have been obtained, namely in the fields of Coronary Risk Evaluation [30], Hyperactivity Disorder [31] and Length of Hospital Stay [32] among others. Furthermore, this approach potentiates the use of diverse computational paradigms, in particular the *Logic Programming* one. Future work may recommend that the same problem must be approached using others computational frameworks like Genetic Programming [20], Case Based Reasoning [33] or Particle Swarm [34], just to name a few.

**Acknowledgments.** This work has been supported by FCT – Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia within the Project Scope UID/CEC/00319/2013.

## References

- McPherson, K., Steel, C.M., Dixon, J.M.: ABC of Breast Diseases: Breast Cancer Epidemiology, Risk Factors, and Genetics. British Medical Journal 321, 624–628 (2000)
- 2. National Oncological Registry 2001 (in Portuguese). Instituto Português de Oncologia de Francisco Gentil Edition, Lisbon (2003)
- 3. Gøtzsche, P.C., Jørgensen, K.J.: Screening for breast cancer with mammography. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, Issue 6, Art. N°. CD001877 (2013)
- 4. Kolb, T.M., Lichy, J., Newhouse, J.H.: Comparison of the performance of screening mammography, physical examination, and breast US and evaluation of factors that influence them: an analysis of 27,825 patient evaluations. Radiology 225, 165–175 (2002)
- Markey, M.K., Lo, J.Y., Tourassi, G.D., Floyd Jr., C.E.: Self-organizing map for cluster analysis of a breast cancer database. Artificial Intelligence in Medicine 27, 113–127 (2003)
- Keles, A., Keles, A., Yavuz, U.: Expert system based on neuro-fuzzy rules for diagnosis breast cancer. Expert Systems with Applications 38, 5719–5726 (2011)
- 7. Nieto, J., Torres, A.: Midpoint for fuzzy sets and their application in medicine. Artificial Intelligence in Medicine 27, 321–355 (2003)
- 8. Addeh, J., Ebrahimzadeh, A.: Breast cancer recognition using a novel hydride intelligent method. Journal of Medical Signals and Sensors 2, 95–102 (2012)
- 9. Ubeyli, E.D.: Implementing automated diagnostic systems for breast cancer detection. Expert Systems with Applications **33**, 1054–1062 (2007)
- Karabatak, M., Ince, M.C.: An expert system for detection of breast cancer based on association rules and neural network. Expert Systems with Applications 36, 3465–3469 (2009)
- Uzer, M.S., Inan, O., Yilmaz, N.: A hybrid breast cancer detection system via neural network and feature selection based on SBS, SFS and PCA. Neural Computing and Applications 23, 719–728 (2013)
- 12. Kalteh, A.A., Zarbakhsh, P., Jirabadi, M., Addeh, J.: A research about breast cancer detection using different neural networks and K-MICA algorithm. Journal of Cancer Research and Therapeutics **9**, 456–466 (2013)
- 13. Belciug, S., Gorunescu, F.: A hybrid neural network/genetic algorithm applied to breast cancer detection and recurrence. Expert Systems **30**, 243–254 (2013)
- Dheeba, J., Selvi, S.T.: An Improved Decision Support System for Detection of Lesions in Mammograms Using Differential Evolution Optimized Wavelet Neural Network. Journal of Medical Systems 36, 3223–3232 (2012)
- Dheeba, J., Singh, N.A., Selvi, S.T.: Computer-aided detection of breast cancer on mammograms: A swarm intelligence optimized wavelet neural network approach. Journal of Biomedical Informatics 49, 45–52 (2014)
- Powell, M., Jamshidian, F., Cheyne, K., Nititham, J., Prebil, L.A., Ereman, R.: Assessing Breast Cancer Risk Models in Marin County, a Population With High Rates of Delayed Childbirth. Clinical Breast Cancer 14, 212–220 (2014)
- Amir, E., Freedman, O.C., Seruga, B., Evans, G.G.: Assessing Women at High Risk of Breast Cancer: A Review of Risk Assessment Models. Journal of the National Cancer Institute 102, 680–691 (2010)
- 18. Jacobi, C.E., de Bock, G.H., Siegerink, B., van Asperen, C.J.: Differences and similarities in breast cancer risk assessment models in clinical practice: which model to choose? Breast Cancer Research and Treatment 115, 381–390 (2009)

- Neves, J.: A logic interpreter to handle time and negation in logic databases. In: Muller, R.L., Pottmyer, J.J. (eds.) ACM 1984 Proceedings of the 1984 annual conference of the ACM on The Fifth Generation Challenge, pp. 50–54. Association for Computing Machinery, New York (1984)
- Neves, J., Machado, J., Analide, C., Abelha, A., Brito, L.: The halt condition in genetic programming. In: Neves, J., Santos, M.F., Machado, J.M. (eds.) EPIA 2007. LNCS (LNAI), vol. 4874, pp. 160–169. Springer, Heidelberg (2007)
- Cortez, P., Rocha, M., Neves, J.: Evolving Time Series Forecasting ARMA Models. Journal of Heuristics 10, 415–429 (2004)
- 22. Kakas, A., Kowalski, R., Toni, F.: The role of abduction in logic programming. In: Gabbay, D., Hogger, C., Robinson, I. (eds.) Handbook of Logic in Artificial Intelligence and Logic Programming, vol. 5, pp. 235–324. Oxford University Press, Oxford (1998)
- Pereira, L.M., Anh, H.T.: Evolution prospection. In: Nakamatsu, K., Phillips-Wren, G., Jain, L.C., Howlett, R.J. (eds.) New Advances in Intelligent Decision Technologies. SCI, vol. 199, pp. 51–63. Springer, Heidelberg (2009)
- Lucas, P.: Quality checking of medical guidelines through logical abduction. In: Coenen, F., Preece, A., Mackintosh, A. (eds.) Proceedings of AI-2003 (Research and Developments in Intelligent Systems XX), pp. 309–321. Springer, London (2003)
- Machado, J., Abelha, A., Novais, P., Neves, J., Neves, J.: Quality of Service in healthcare units. International Journal of Computer Aided Engineering and Technology 2, 436–449 (2010)
- Cardoso, L., Marins, F., Magalhães, R., Marins, N., Oliveira, T., Vicente, H., Abelha, A., Machado, J., Neves, J.: Abstract Computation in Schizophrenia Detection through Artificial Neural Network based Systems. The Scientific World Journal 2015, 1–10 (2015). Article ID 467178
- Caldeira, A.T., Arteiro, J., Roseiro, J., Neves, J., Vicente, H.: An Artificial Intelligence Approach to Bacillus amyloliquefaciens CCMI 1051 Cultures: Application to the Production of Antifungal Compounds. Bioresource Technology 102, 1496–1502 (2011)
- Vicente, H., Dias, S., Fernandes, A., Abelha, A., Machado, J., Neves, J.: Prediction of the Quality of Public Water Supply using Artificial Neural Networks. Journal of Water Supply: Research and Technology – AQUA 61, 446–459 (2012)
- Salvador, C., Martins, M.R., Vicente, H., Neves, J., Arteiro, J.M., Caldeira, A.T.: Modelling Molecular and Inorganic Data of Amanita ponderosa Mushrooms using Artificial Neural Networks. Agroforestry Systems 87, 295–302 (2013)
- Rodrigues, B., Gomes, S., Vicente, H., Abelha, A., Novais, P., Machado, J., Neves, J.: Systematic coronary risk evaluation through artificial neural networks based systems. In: Goto, T. (ed.) Proceedings of the 27th International Conference on Computer Applications in Industry and Engineering – CAINE 2014, pp. 21–26. ISCA, Winona (2014)
- 31. Pereira, S., Gomes, S., Vicente, H., Ribeiro, J., Abelha, A., Novais, P., Machado, J., Neves, J.: An artificial neuronal network approach to diagnosis of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. In: Proceedings of 2014 IEEE International Conference on Imaging Systems and Techniques IST 2014, pp. 410–415. Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers, Inc., New Jersey (2014)

## J. Neves et al.

- 32. Abelha, V., Vicente, H., Machado, J., Neves, J.: An Assessment on the Length of Hospital Stay through Artificial Neural Networks. In: Papadopoulos, G. (ed.) Proceedings of the 9th International Conference on Knowledge, Information and Creativity Support Systems KICSS 2014, pp. 219–230. Cyprus Library, Nicosia (2014)
- 33. Carneiro, D., Novais, P., Andrade, F., Zeleznikow, J., Neves, J.: Using Case-Based Reasoning and Principled Negotiation to provide decision support for dispute resolution. Knowledge and Information Systems **36**, 789–826 (2013)
- 34. Mendes, R., Kennedy, J., Neves, J.: The Fully Informed Particle Swarm: Simpler, Maybe Better. IEEE Transactions on Evolutionary Computation **8**, 204–210 (2004)