

1   **An LLM-based pipeline for understanding decision choices in data analysis from  
2   published literature**

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4   Decision choices, such as those made when building regression models, and their rationale are essential for interpreting results and  
5   understanding uncertainty in an analysis. However, these decisions are rarely studied because tracing every alternatives considered  
6   by authors is often impractical, and reworking a completed analysis is generally of limited interest. Consequently, researchers must  
7   manually review large bodies of published analyses to identify common choices and understand how choices are made. In this work,  
8   we propose a workflow to automatically extract analytic decisions and their reasons from published literature using Large Language  
9   Models. Our method also introduces a paper similarity measure based on decision similarity and visualization methods using clustering  
10   algorithms. As an example, this workflow is applied to analyses studying the effect of particulate matter on mortality. This approach  
11   enables scalable and automated studies of decision choices in applied data analysis, providing an alternative to existing qualitative and  
12   interview-based studies.

13   CCS Concepts: • **Applied computing** → *Document analysis*; • **Human-centered computing** → *Empirical studies in HCI*.

14   Additional Key Words and Phrases: Large language models

15   **ACM Reference Format:**

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18   **1 Introduction**

19   Decisions are made at every stage of data analysis: from initial data collection and pre-processing to modelling choices.  
20   Different decision choices can have a direct impact to the final results, which can lead to different interpretation and  
21   policy recommendations that follow. When independent analysts analyzing the same dataset even to answer the same  
22   research questions, through many-analysts experiments, they often arrive at markedly different conclusions [8, 19, 46].  
23   This variability in results can be attributed to the flexibility analysts have in making decisions throughout the data  
24   analysis process, which Gelman and Loken [18] describe as the “garden of forking paths”. When such flexibility is  
25   misused, data analysis can lead to p-hacking, selective reporting, inflated effect sizes, and other issues, undermining the  
26   quality and credibility of the findings.

27   [This is not okay — Multiple recommendations have been proposed to improve data analysis practices, such as  
28   pre-registration and multiverse analysis. Bayesian methods also offer a different paradigm to p-value driven inference  
29   for interpreting statistical evidence. Most empirical studies of data analysis practices focus on specially designed and  
30   simplified analysis scenarios. While informative, these setups may not adequately capture the complexity of the data  
31   analysis with significant policy implications. [In practice, studying the data analysis decisions with actual applications is  
32   challenging.] Analysts may no longer be available for interviews due to job changes, and even when they are, recalling

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53 the full set of decisions and thinking process made during the analysis is often infeasible. Moreover, only until the last  
54 decades, analysis scripts and reproducible materials were not commonly required by journals for publishing. – up till  
55 here]

56 In this work, we propose a new approach to study data analysis decision choices through automatic extraction of  
57 decisions from scientific literature using LLMs. We develop a tabular format to record analytical decisions in data  
58 analysis and automate the extraction of these decisions from published papers using large language models (Gemini  
59 and Claude). The workflow also include a component to calculate paper similarity based on both the decisions and the  
60 semantic similarity of their rationales, and use clustering methods to visualize papers according to distance based on  
61 decision similarity. We apply this workflow to a set of 56 air pollution modelling studies estimating the effect size of  
62 particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub> or PM<sub>10</sub>) on mortality and hospital admissions, typically modeled using Poisson generalised  
63 linear models (GLMs) or generalized additive models (GAMs). Analysis of the extracted decisions reveals common  
64 choices in this type of analysis (number of knots or degree of freedom for smoothing methods for time, temperature  
65 and humidity) and find three distinct clusters corresponding to different smoothing methods (LOESS, natural spline,  
66 and smoothing spline) used in European and U.S. studies, consistent with findings from the APHENA project [28].

67 In summary, the contribution of this work includes:

- 68 • A new approach to study data analysis decision choices through automatic extraction of decisions from scientific  
69 literature using LLMs,
- 70 • A method to construct paper similarities based on the decisions and the semantic similarity of their rationale,
- 71 • A shiny GUI tool for validation LLM outputs in this context, and
- 72 • A dataset of decisions and rationale, along with metadata, compiled from 62 studies in air pollution mortality  
73 modelling.

## 74 2 Related work

### 75 2.1 Decision-making in data analysis

76 Data analysis involves making choices at every step, from initial data collection, data pre-processing to model specification,  
77 and post-processing. Each decision represents a branching point where analysts choose a specific path to follow,  
78 and the vast number of possible choices analysts can take forms what Gelman and Loken [18] describe as the “garden  
79 of forking paths”. While researchers may hope their inferential results are robust to the specific path taken through  
80 the garden, in practice, different choices can lead to substantially different conclusions. This has been empirically  
81 demonstrated through “many analyst experiments”, where independent research groups analyze the same dataset to  
82 address the same research questions with their own chosen analytic approach. A classic example is Silberzahn et al.  
83 [46], where researchers reported an odds ratio from 0.89 to 2.93 for the effect of soccer players’ skin tone on the number  
84 of red cards awarded by referees. Similar variability has been observed in structural equation modeling [44], applied  
85 microeconomics [22], neuroimaging [8], and ecology and evolutionary biology [19].

86 Examples like above have rendered decision-making in data analysis as a subject to study in human computer  
87 interaction. To understand how analysts making decisions during data analysis and navigating the garden of forking  
88 path, researchers have conducted qualitative interviews with analysts on data analysis practices [2, 24, 31]. Visualization  
89 tools have also been explored to communicate the decision process through analytic decision graphics (ADG) [32]. In  
90 fairness machine learning literature, Simson et al. [47] contributed a reusable workflow that supports participatory input  
91 to democratize decisions in machine learning algorithms related to fairness, privacy, interpretability and performance.

105 Conducting qualitative studies through interviews to study how assumptions and decisions are made in data analysis  
106 practices takes a significant amount of time and effort, and the findings may not generalize to other contexts. While  
107 published research papers may not provide a complete picture of the decision-making process, they do contain valuable  
108 information about the choices made by analysts and the rationale behind them. With recent advances in Large Language  
109 Models (LLMs), it has become possible to automatically extract structured information from unstructured text. This  
110 could provide a scalable way to study decision-making practices in data analysis.  
111

112 On top of qualitative studies, software tools have also developed to incorporate potential alternatives in the analysis  
113 workflow. The `DeclareDesign` package [7] introduces the MIDA framework for researchers to declare, diagnose, and  
114 redesign their analyses to produce a distribution of the statistic of interest, which has been applied in the randomized  
115 controlled trial study [6]. The `multiverse` package [33, 43] provides a framework for researchers to conduct multiverse  
116 analysis to systematically explore how different choices affect results and to report the range of plausible outcomes that  
117 arise from alternative analytic paths.  
118

## 120 2.2 Visualization on scientific literature

121 With the growing volume of scientific publications and the difficulty of navigating the literature to stay informed,  
122 there is increasing interest in developing tools to visualize and recommend scientific papers. These systems link papers  
123 based on their similarity and relevance, typically determined by keywords [23], citation information (e.g. citation list,  
124 co-citation) [13], or combinations with other relevant paper metadata (e.g. author, title) [5, 14, 17, 20]. Recent approaches  
125 incorporate text-based information using topic modelling [1], argumentation-based information retrieval [48], and  
126 text embedding [39]. While metadata and high-level text-based information are useful for finding relevant papers,  
127 researchers also need tools that help them *make sense* of the literature rather than simply *locating* it. In applied data  
128 analysis, one interest is to understand how studies differ or align in their analytical approaches. Capturing the decisions  
129 and reasoning expressed in analyses on a shared theme enables the calculation of similarity metrics based on these  
130 choice and their underlying rationale, which supports clustering and visualizing paper to identify common practices in  
131 the field.  
132

## 133 3 Methods

134 TODO: a generic summary of the workflow, maybe an illustration  
135

### 136 3.1 Record decisions in data analysis

137 In the study of the health effects of outdoor air pollution, one area of interest is the association between short-term,  
138 day-to-day changes in particulate matter air pollution and daily mortality counts. This question has been studied  
139 extensively by researchers across the globe and in the US, it serves to provide scientific evidence for to guide public policy  
140 on setting the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) for air pollutants. While individual modelling choices  
141 vary, these studies often share a common structure: they adjust for meteorological covariates such as temperature and  
142 humidity, apply temporal or spatial treatments, like including lagged variables and may estimate the effect by city or  
143 region before combining results. This naturally forms a “many-analyst” experiment setting where different researchers  
144 analyze similar data to address the same scientific question and the analyses are documented in published papers.  
145

146 Consider the following excerpt from Ostro et al. [40] that describes the modelling approach to provide evidence of  
147 an association between daily counts of mortality and ambient particulate matter (PM10):  
148

157 Based on previous findings reported in the literature (e.g., Samet et al. 2000), the basic model included a  
 158 smoothing spline for time with 7 degrees of freedom (df) per year of data. This number of degrees of  
 159 freedom controls well for seasonal patterns in mortality and reduces and often eliminates autocorrelation.  
 160

161 This sentence encode the following components of a decision:

- 162 • **variable**: time
- 163 • **method**: smoothing spline
- 164 • **parameter**: degree of freedom (df)
- 165 • **reason**: Based on previous findings reported in the literature (e.g., Samet et al. 2000); This number of degrees of  
 166 freedom controls well for seasonal patterns in mortality and reduces and often eliminates autocorrelation.
- 167 • **decision**: 7 degrees of freedom (df) per year of data

168 To record these decisions in a tabular format, we follow the tidy data principle [51], which states each variable should  
 169 be in a column and each observation in a row. For our purpose, each row represents a decision made by the authors  
 170 in a paper and an analysis often include multiple decisions. To retain the original context of the decision, we extract  
 171 the original text in the paper, without paraphrase or summarization. The decision choice above is a parameter choice  
 172 of a statistical method applied to the variable. Analyses also include other types of decisions, such as temporal and  
 173 spatial treatments, for example, the choice of lagged exposure for certain variables or whether the model is estimated  
 174 collectively or separated for individual locations. These decisions don't have a specific method or parameter, but should  
 175 still be recorded with the variable, type (spatial or temporal), reason, and decision fields.

176 Given the writing style and the quality of the analysis itself, multiple decisions may be combined in one sentence  
 177 and certain fields, e.g. decision and reason, may be omitted. Consider the following excerpt from Ostro et al. [40]:

178 Other covariates, such as day of the week and smoothing splines of 1-day lags of average temperature  
 179 and humidity (each with 3 df), were also included in the model because they may be associated with  
 180 daily mortality and are likely to vary over time in concert with air pollution levels.

181 This sentence contains four decisions: two for temperature (the temporal lag and the smoothing spline parameter)  
 182 and two for humidity and should be structured as separate entries:

Paper	ID	variable	method	parameter	type	reason	decision
ostro	1	temperature	smoothing spline	degree of freedom	parameter	3 degree of freedom	NA
ostro	2	relative humidity	smoothing spline	degree of freedom	parameter	3 degree of freedom	NA
ostro	3	temperature	NA	NA	temporal	1-day lags	NA
ostro	4	relative humidity	NA	NA	temporal	1-day lags	NA

202 Notice in the example above, the reason field are recorded as NA. This is because the stated rationale ("and are  
 203 likely to vary over time in concert with air pollution levels") only supports the general inclusion of temporal lags but  
 204 does not justify the specific choice of 1-day lag over other alternatives, for example, 2-day average of lags 0 and 1 and  
 205 single-day lag of 2 days. Similar scenario can happen when a direct decision is missing while a reason is provided  
 206 ("done by minimizing Akaike's information criterion"), as in Katsouyanni et al. [27]:

209 The inclusion of lagged weather variables and the choice of smoothing parameters for all of the weather  
210 variables were done by minimizing Akaike's information criterion.  
211

### 212 3.2 Extract decisions automatically from literature with LLMs

213 Manually extracting decisions from published papers is labor-intensive and time-consuming. With Large Language  
214 Models (LLMs), it has become possible to automatically extract structured information from unstructured text by  
215 supplying a set of PDF documents and a prompt for instruction. Text recognition from PDF document relies on Optical  
216 Character Recognition (OCR) to convert scanned images into machine-readable text – capability currently offered by  
217 Anthropic Claude and Google Gemini. In the prompt, we assign the LLM a role as an applied statistician and instruct it  
218 to generate a markdown file containing a JSON block that extract decisions from the PDF in the format described in  
219 Section 3.1. We also provide a set of instructions and examples on the potential missing of reason and decision fields.  
220 Prompt engineering techniques [12, 54] are used to optimize the prompt script. The full prompt feed to the LLM is  
221 provided in the Appendix. We use the `chat_PROVIDER()` functions from the `ellmer` package [53] in R to obtain the  
222 output with Gemini and Claude API.  
223

### 224 3.3 Validate and standardize LLM outputs

225 The LLM outputs need to be validated and standardized before further analysis. Validation focuses on ensuring the  
226 correctness of the extracted decisions by LLMs, while standardization aims to ensure consistency in variable and model  
227 names across papers, given authors may express the same concept in different ways. For example, “mean temperature”,  
228 “average temperature”, and “temperature” all refer to the same variable, which can be all standardized to “temperature”  
229 for consistency. To help with the validation and standardization process, we developed a Shiny application that provides  
230 an interactive interface for users to review and edit the LLM outputs. A Shiny application takes a CSV of extracted  
231 decisions as input and allows three types of edits: 1) *overwrite* – modify the content of a particular cell, 2) *delete* –  
232 remove a particular irrelevant decision, and 3) *add* – manually enter a missing decision. Figure 1 illustrates the *overwrite*  
233 action for standardizing the variable NCtot (The number concentration of urban background particles <100 nm in  
234 diameter) to “pollution”: the user enters a predicate function in the filter condition box on the left panel, and the filtered  
235 data will appear interactively in the right panel. The user can then specify the variable to overwrite and the new value  
236 and the corresponding cells in the right panel will be updated. This change need to be confirmed by pressing the “Apply  
237 changes” button to update the full dataset. The corresponding `tidyverse` [52] code will then be generated in the left  
238 panel to be included in an R script, and the edited table can be downloaded for future analysis.  
239

### 240 3.4 Calculate paper similarity and visualization

241 Once the output has been extracted and validated, the decisions can be treated as data for further analysis. In this  
242 section, we construct a distance metric between pairs of papers based on the similarity of their decision choices. This  
243 metric can then be used as a distance matrix among papers for clustering, dimension reduction, and visualization.  
244

245 For each paper pair, a decision is considered comparable if the papers share the same variable and decision type, for  
246 example, a parameter decision on temperature or the temporal decision on humidity. For two decisions to be considered  
247 similar, both the decision choice and the rationale are taken into account. A similar choice indicates a similar final  
248 decisions are made in the analysis, whereas a similar reason reflects a shared rationale or justification for the choice,  
249 even when the choices themselves differ, potentially due to differences in the underlying data. To assign numerical  
250 value for measuring the similarity, we use the semantic similarity from text model, using the `text` package [29]. We  
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**Edit decision table output**

Upload CSV  
Browse... gemini\_raw.csv  
Upload complete  
Overwrite Delete Add  
Filter condition (e.g., variable == 'PM10')  
The variable to overwrite  
The value modified to  
Apply changes Confirm  
Download CSV  
Generated tidyverse code  
df %>%  
d1 %>%  
mutate(variable = ifelse(paper == "andersen2008size" & id %in% "pollutant", "variable")) %>%

**Initial view**

paper	id	model	variable	method	parameter	type	reason	decision
andersen2008size	1	generalized additive Poisson time series regression model	temperature	smoothing spline	degrees of freedom	parameter	NA	4 or 5 df
andersen2008size	2	generalized additive Poisson time series regression model	dew-point temperature	smoothing spline	degrees of freedom	parameter	NA	4 or 5 df
andersen2008size	3	generalized additive Poisson time series regression model	calendar time	smoothing spline	degrees of freedom	parameter	to control for long-term trend and seasonality	3, 4, or 5 df/year
andersen2008size	4	generalized additive Poisson time series regression model	NCtot	NA	NA	temporal	to include days with the strongest lag effects	4-day pollutant average (lag 0-3)
andersen2008size	5	generalized additive Poisson time series regression model	NCtot	NA	NA	temporal	to include days with the strongest lag effects	5-day average (lag 0-4)
andersen2008size	6	generalized additive Poisson time series regression model	NCtot	NA	NA	temporal	to include days with the strongest lag effects	6-day average (lag 0-5)

**Edit decision table output**

Upload CSV  
Browse... gemini\_raw.csv  
Upload complete  
Overwrite Delete Add  
Filter condition (e.g., variable == 'PM10')  
paper == "andersen2008size" & id %in% 4:6  
The variable to overwrite  
variable  
The value modified to  
pollutant  
Apply changes Confirm  
Download CSV  
Generated tidyverse code  
df %>%  
d1 %>%  
mutate(variable = ifelse(paper == "andersen2008size" & id %in% "pollutant", "variable")) %>%

**Upon pressing the "Apply changes" button, the data panel will update to reflect the edit**

paper	id	model	variable	method	parameter	type	reason	decision	reference
andersen2008size	1	Generalized additive Poisson time series regression model	pollutant	NA	NA	temporal	to include days with the strongest lag effects	4-day pollutant average (lag 0-3)	NA
andersen2008size	5	Generalized additive Poisson time series regression model	pollutant	NA	NA	temporal	to include days with the strongest lag effects	5-day average (lag 0-4)	NA
andersen2008size	6	Generalized additive Poisson time series regression model	pollutant	NA	NA	temporal	to include days with the strongest lag effects	6-day average (lag 0-5)	NA

**Edit decision table output**

Upload CSV  
Browse... gemini\_raw.csv  
Upload complete  
Overwrite Delete Add  
Filter condition (e.g., variable == 'PM10')  
The variable to overwrite  
The value modified to  
Apply changes Confirm  
Download CSV  
Generated tidyverse code  
df %>%  
d1 %>%  
mutate(variable = ifelse(paper == "andersen2008size" & id %in% "pollutant", "variable")) %>%

**Upon confirmation, the changes will be applied to the full dataset**

paper	id	model	variable	method	parameter	type	reason	decision
andersen2008size	1	generalized additive Poisson time series regression model	temperature	smoothing spline	degrees of freedom	parameter	NA	4 or 5 df
andersen2008size	2	generalized additive Poisson time series regression model	dew-point temperature	smoothing spline	degrees of freedom	parameter	NA	4 or 5 df
andersen2008size	3	generalized additive Poisson time series regression model	calendar time	smoothing spline	degrees of freedom	parameter	to control for long-term trend and seasonality	3, 4, or 5 df/year
andersen2008size	4	generalized additive Poisson time series regression model	pollutant	NA	NA	temporal	to include days with the strongest lag effects	4-day pollutant average (lag 0-3)
andersen2008size	5	generalized additive Poisson time series regression model	pollutant	NA	NA	temporal	to include days with the strongest lag effects	5-day average (lag 0-4)
andersen2008size	6	generalized additive Poisson time series regression model	pollutant	NA	NA	temporal	to include days with the strongest lag effects	6-day average (lag 0-5)

Fig. 1. The Shiny application interface to validate and standardize Large Language Model (LLM)-generated output. (1) the default interface after loading the input CSV file. (2) The table view will update interactively to reflect the edit: for paper with handle “andersen2008size” and id in 4, 5, 6, replace the variable NCtot with “pollutant”. (3) After clicking the Confirm button, the corresponding tidyverse code is generated, and the table view returns to its original unfiltered view with the edits applied. The edited data can be downloaded by clicking the Download CSV button.

first obtain the text embedding for all the reason and decisions and calculate the cosine similarity between the matched reason and decisions. For parameter type decisions, the statistical method used also contributes to the similarity of the decision. Since semantic similarity cannot fully capture the difference between it statistical methods (the difference between smoothing spline and natural spline is not well represented by the textual difference of “smoothing” and “natural”), method similarity is encoded as binary: 1 if the two papers used the same method, and 0 otherwise. The paper similarity is then computed as the average similarity across all the matched methods, decisions, and reasons. The resulting paper similarity metric can be interpreted as a distance measure to cluster and visualize papers based on their decision choices.

Because analyses vary in the decisions they report, the number of matched decisions differs across paper pairs. In practice, some studies may not fully report the decision and reason for every choice made, leading to missing data for the matched decisions. Although paper similarity can be calculated based on all available matched decisions, care should be taken for pairs with only a small number of matches, as the paper similarity may be overly influenced by one or two decisions. To address this, users may focus on a set of decisions shared across papers and on papers that report a minimal number of these decisions when calculating paper similarity.

## 4 Results

From the 56 studies examining the effect of particulate matters ( $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$ ) on mortality and hospital admission, we focus on the baseline model reported in each paper, excluding secondary models (e.g. lag-distributed models) and sensitivity analysis. We also exclude decisions on other pollutants, such as nitrogen dioxide ( $NO_2$ ). This yields 242 decisions extracted using Gemini, averaging approximately 4 decisions per paper.

### 4.1 Validation and standardization of LLM outputs

Table 2. Summary of validation and standardization edits made during the review process.

Reason	Count
Remove decisions out of scope: other pollutants and sensitivity analysis	50
Edit made to recode smoothing parameters unit to per year	45
Duplicates	9
Fix incorrect capture	9
Edit made due to decisions are too general, e.g. minimum of 1 df per year was required	6
Remove decisions related to definition of variables, e.g. season	5
Total	124

Table 2 summarizes the number of edits made during the review process using the Shiny application. These edits fall into two main categories: 1) correcting LLM outputs and 2) standardizing extracted decision. The first category includes fixing incorrect captures, removing non-decision (e.g. definition of variables), removing duplication, excluding irrelevant decisions (e.g. sensitivity analyses), and excluding decisions whose stated reasons reflect general guidelines rather than actual choices (e.g. “minimum of 1 degree of freedom per year is required”).

365 Table 3. Missingness of decision and reason fields in the Gemini-extracted decisions. Most decisions report the choice (35.5 + 57.1 =  
 366 92%), but 57.1% lacks a stated reason.

Reason	Decision	
	Non-missing	Missing
Non-missing	90 (37.2%)	14 (5.8%)
Missing	134 (55.4%)	4 (1.7%)

374 Standardization addresses variation in how authors express variable names and decisions. For example, variable  
 375 names such as “mean temperature” and “average temperature” refer to the same variable and should be aligned for  
 376 comparison for later decision similarity calculation. Variable names are manually standardized into four main categories:

- 377 • **temperature**: “mean temperature”, “average temperature”, “temperature”, “air temperature”, “ambient temperature”
- 378 • **humidity**: “dewpoint temperature” and its hyphenated variants, relative humidity”, “humidity”
- 379 • **PM**: “pollutant”, “pollution”, “particulate matter”, “particulate”, “PM10”, “PM2.5”
- 380 • **time**: “date”, “time”, “trends”, “trend”

381 Notice that “dewpoint temperature” is standardized under humidity because it serves as a proxy for temperature in  
 382 achieving a 100% relative humidity.

383 Decisions themselves also require standardization. For example, the smoothing parameter (number of knots and  
 384 degree of freedom) may be expressed *per year* or *in total*, and temporal lag decision may be expressed in different  
 385 formats (e.g. “6-day average”, “mean of lags 0+1”, “lagged exposure up to 6 days”). Smoothing parameter units are  
 386 manually recoded to a *per year* basis for consistency, as reflected in Table 2. Temporal decision show a wider variety,  
 387 generally falling into two categories:

- 388 • **multi-day average lags**, such as “6-day average”, “3-d moving average”, “mean of lags 0+1”, “cumulative lags,  
 389 mean 0+1+2” and
- 390 • **single-day lags**, such as “lagged exposure up to 6 days”, “lag days from 0 to 5”.

391 This variability makes manual standardization impractical, hence we apply a secondary LLM process (claude-3-  
 392 7-sonnet-latest) using the ellmer package to convert temporal decisions into a consistent format: multi-day: lag  
 393 [start]-[end] and single-day: lag [start], . . . , lag [end]. For instance, “6-day average” is converted to  
 394 “multi-day: lag 0-5” and “lagged exposure up to 6 days” is converted to “single-day: lag 0, lag 1, lag 2, lag 3, lag 4, lag 5”.

## 403 4.2 Exploratory analysis of decision choices

404 As raised in Section 3.1, not all decisions reported in the literature include both the decision choice and the rationale.  
 405 Some decisions may only report the choice without a stated reason, while others may provide a reason without  
 406 specifying the exact choice made. Table 3 summarizes the missingness of the decisions and reason for the extracted  
 407 decisions. While 2% of decisions are complete for both decision and reasons, 55% of decisions lack a stated rationale  
 408 for the choice. This reflects a common reporting practice in the field, where authors often present the decision itself  
 409 without providing a justification, e.g. “We decide to use  $x$  degree of freedom for variable  $y_1$  and  $y_2$ ”. This also includes  
 410 cases where authors provide general guidelines for selecting the parameter, but the rationale is too broad to justify the  
 411 specific choice made (hence validated as NA in Section 4.1).

417 Table 4. Count of variable-type decisions in the Gemini-extracted decisions. The most commonly reported decision are the parameter  
 418 choices and temporal lags for time, PM, temperature, and humidity.

Variable	Type	Count
time	parameter	44
PM	temporal	39
temperature	parameter	35
humidity	parameter	25
temperature	temporal	23
humidity	temporal	19
PM	parameter	9
time	temporal	3

433 Table 4 lists the eight most frequently reported decision: parameter and temporal choice for time, PM, temperature,  
 434 and humidity. While a wider list of variables have been used in the analysis, these four variables are most commonly  
 435 included in baseline models. Parameter choices for time, temperature, and humidity are typically made on the use of  
 436 smoothing parameter for the smoothing method (natural spline and smoothing spline), whereas temporal choices are  
 437 commonly reported for PM, temperature, and humidity for the number of lag to consider in the model.  
 438

440 Table 5. Options captured for parameter choices for time, humidity, and temperature variables in the Gemini-extracted decisions.  
 441 The choices for natural spline knots are generally less varied than the degree of freedom choices for smoothing spline. Choices for  
 442 temperature and humidity tend to be close, given they are both weather related variables, while the choices for time are more varied  
 443 inherently.

Method	Variable	Decision
natural spline	humidity	3, 4
natural spline	temperature	3, 4, 6
natural spline	time	1, 1.5, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 12, 15, 30
smoothing spline	humidity	2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 50% of the data
smoothing spline	temperature	2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 50% of the data
smoothing spline	time	1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 7.7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 30, 100, 5% of the data

456 Table 5 presents the parameter-related decisions extracted for spline methods (natural and smoothing spline) applied  
 457 to variable time, humidity and temperature. These decisions concern the number of knots or degree of freedom, with all  
 458 values standardized to a *per year* scale for consistency. The selection of knot for natural spline has less variation than  
 459 the degree of freedom choices for smoothing spline. Choices for temperature and humidity are generally similar, given  
 460 they are both weather related variables, whereas choices for time are more varied. This tabulation provides a reference  
 461 set for common parameter choices for future studies and help to identify anomalies and special treatment in practice.  
 462 For example, the choice of 7.7 degree of freedom reported in Castillejos et al. [11] may prompt analysts to seek further  
 463 justification. By cross comparing with other reporting, some decisions appear ambiguous. For example, in Moolgavkar  
 464 [37] and Moolgavkar [38], the reported value of 30 and 100 degrees of freedom for time may be understandable for  
 465

469 experienced domain researcher, it could be unclear for junior analysts as to whether they apply to the full 9 year period  
 470 or on a per-year basis. We also observe a different report style from Schwartz [45], where smoothing spline parameters  
 471 are expressed as a proportion of the data (“5% of the data” and “5% of the data”) rather than fixed numerical value.  
 472

473 Table 6. Options captured for temporal lag choices for PM, temperature, and humidity variables in the Gemini-extracted decisions.  
 474 Both single-day lags and multi-day average lags are commonly used, generally considering up to five days prior (lag 5).  
 475

Lag type	Variable	Decision
multi-day average	PM	lag 0-1, 0-2, 0-3, 0-4, 0-5, 0-6
multi-day average	humidity	lag 0-1, 0-2, 0-3, 0-5, 1-5, 2-4
multi-day average	temperature	lag 0-1, 0-2, 0-3, 0-5, 2-4
single-day lag	PM	lag 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13
single-day lag	humidity	lag 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13
single-day lag	temperature	lag 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13

476 Similarly, Table 6 summarizes the temporal lag choices for PM, temperature, and humidity. For single-day lags, the  
 477 lags are considered up to 13 days (approximately two weeks). For multi-day averages, 3-day and 5-day averages are  
 478 most common, although other choices such as 2-4 day average are also observed as in López-Villarrubia et al. [35]:  
 479

480 In particular, lags 0 to 1 and lags 2 to 4 averages of temperature, relative humidity, and barometric  
 481 pressure were considered as meteorological variables.  
 482

### 483 4.3 Paper similarity and clustering

484 Given the number of decisions reported in Table 4, we focus on the six most common variable-type decisions for  
 485 calculating paper similarity: parameter choices for time, temperature, and humidity, and temporal lag choices for PM,  
 486 temperature, and humidity. We also restrict our analysis to papers that report at least three of these six decisions, resulting  
 487 in 48 papers for the similarity analysis. This ensures that the paper similarity metric is based on a sufficient number of  
 488 comparable decisions. We use the default text embedding model (BERT) in the `text` package and cosine similarity to  
 489 compute the similarity score. Sensitivity analysis on different text embedding model is checked in Section 4.4.3. Paper  
 490 similarity is then calculated as the average of decision similarity for each paper pair. The resulting distance matrix  
 491 is then used for hierarchical clustering in `?@fig-hc` and multi-dimensional scaling (MDS) in Figure 2. The two MDS  
 492 dimension reveals three clusters correspond to the three smoothing methods used in these analyses: LOESS, natural  
 493 spline, and smoothing spline. This grouping aligns with the modelling strategies seen in large-scale analysis, such as  
 494 the U.S. NMMAPS study [42] and the European APHEA [26] and APHEA2 [27] project.  
 495

496 To reconcile these differences, the APHENA project [28] was launched with the aim to “assess the consistency across  
 497 Europe and North America when estimated using a common analytic protocol and to explore possible explanations for  
 498 any remaining variation”. While multi-dimensional scaling in Figure 2 shows the match of three clusters with three  
 499 smoothing methods, this is not inconsistent with the APHENA project [28] that the amount of smoothing to have a  
 500 more important role than the method of smoothing for estimating the effect of PM on public health variables. The  
 501 similarity metric we proposed focuses on the variation of choices across analyses, without directly assessing how those  
 502 choices influence results. By pooling decision choices from multiple studies with LLMs, it becomes much easier to  
 503 reveal common practices and difference in research practices, highlighting decisions that require further sensitivity  
 504

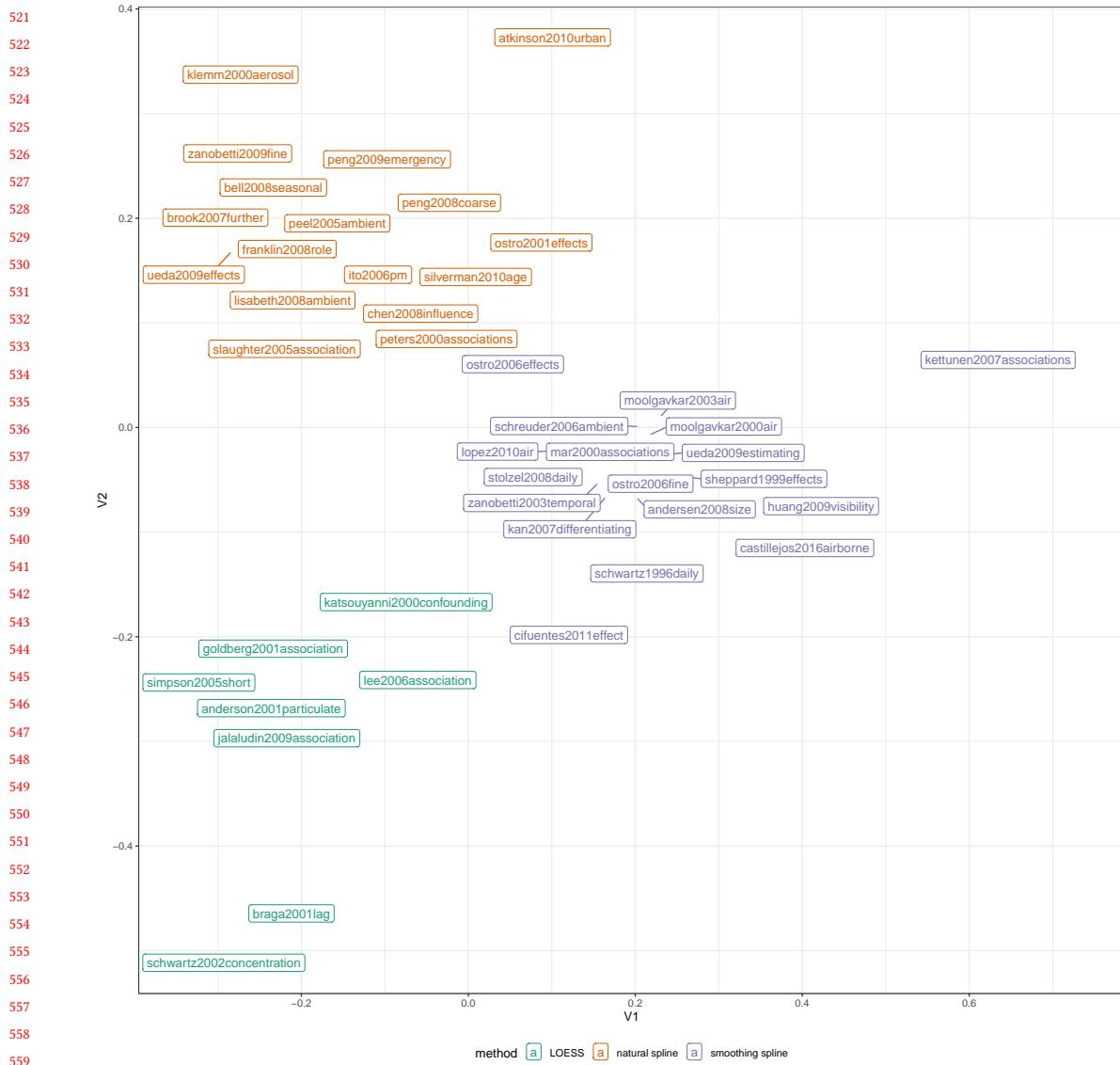


Fig. 2. The multi-dimensional scaling (MDS) based on paper similarity distance for length(good\_pp) air pollution mortality modelling papers, colored by the smoothing method used. The MDS reveals the three distinct groups of papers, corresponds to LOESS, natural spline, and smoothing spline. These groups corresponds to the different modelling strategies debated in the European and U.S. studies, as documented in the APHENNA project [28].

analyses to assess their impact. The different smoothing methods revealed in Figure 2 are consistent with the analysis by Peng et al. [41] and Touloumi et al. [49] that compares different smoothing methods and rationale for selecting smoothing parameters.

#### 573 4.4 Sensitivity analysis

574 A series of sensitivity analysis has been conducted to explore the reproducibility for using LLMs for text extraction  
 575 tasks (Section 4.4.1), discrepancies in decision extraction between different LLM models: Gemini (gemini-2.0-flash)  
 576 and Claude (claude-3-7-sonnet-latest) (Section 4.4.2), and the sensitivity of text model for computing the semantic  
 577 decision similarity (Section 4.4.3).

580 *4.4.1 LLM reproducibility.* We assess the reproducibility of Gemini’s text extraction (gemini-2.0-flash) by repeating  
 581 the task five times for each of the 62 papers and perform pairwise comparison between runs. This generates  $5 \times 4 / 2 \times 62 =$   
 582 620 possible comparisons for both “reason” and “decisions” fields. Comparisons where the runs produced a different  
 583 number of decisions were excluded, as this would require manual alignment. After filtering, 449 out of 620 (72%)  
 584 remained. Table 7 prints the decisions in Andersen et al. [3] across two runs and all the four decisions are identical with  
 585 no difference.

588 589 Table 7. Example comparing Gemini’s text extraction for Andersen et al. [3] across two runs. The extracted decisions are identical in  
 590 both runs.

591 Variable	Run1	Run2
594 NCtot	6day average (lag 05)	6day average (lag 05)
595 calendar time	3 4 or 5 dfyear	3 4 or 5 dfyear
596 dew-point temperature	4 or 5 df	4 or 5 df
598 temperature	4 or 5 df	4 or 5 df

600 601 602 Table 8. Number of differences in the reason and decision fields across Gemini runs for papers with consistent number of decisions  
 603 across runs.

605	606 Num. of difference	606 Count	606 Proportion (%)
607	0	358	79.73
608	1	12	2.67
609	2	8	1.78
610	3	0	0.00
611	4	24	5.35
612	5	12	2.67
613	6	3	0.67
614	7	0	0.00
615	8	10	2.23
616	9	6	1.34
617	10	10	2.23
618	11	6	1.34
619	Total	449	100.00

625 Table 8 summarizes the number of differences observed in each pairwise comparison. Among all comparisons, 80%  
 626 produce the identical text in reason and decision. The discrepancies come from the following two reasons: 1) Gemini  
 627 extracted different length for the same decision, e.g. in Kan et al. [25], some runs may extract “singleday lag models  
 628 underestimate the cumulative effect of pollutants on mortality 2day moving average **of current and previous day**  
 629 **concentrations** (lag=01)”, while others extract “singleday lag models underestimate the cumulative effect of pollutants  
 630 on mortality 2day moving average (lag=01)”. Similarly, for decisions, some runs yield “10 df for total mortality”, while  
 631 other runs yield “10 df”. 2) Gemini fails to extract reasons in some runs but not others, e.g. in Burnett et al. [9], the first  
 632 run generates NAs in the reasons, but the remaining four runs are identical. In Ueda et al. [50] and Castillejos et al. [11]  
 633 , runs 1 and 5 fail to extract the reasons and produce the same incomplete version, whereas runs 2, 3, and 4 produce  
 634 accurate versions with reasons populated.  
 635

636  
 637  
 638  
 639 4.4.2 *LLM models.* Reading text from PDF document requires Optical Character Recognition (OCR) to convert images  
 640 into machine-readable text, which currently is only supported by Anthropic Claude (claude-3-7-sonnet-latest) and  
 641 Google Gemini (gemini-2.0-flash). We compare the number of decisions extracted by Claude and Gemini across all  
 642 62 papers in Figure 3. Each point represents a paper, with the x- and y-axes showing the number of decisions extracted  
 643 by Claude and Gemini, respectively. The dashed 1:1 line marks where both models extract the same number of decisions.  
 644 While both models extract decisions irrelevant to our analysis, such as sensitivity analyses and secondary analyses,  
 645 Claude’s extractions tend to include more of these irrelevant decisions, examples of these include 1) the definition  
 646 of “cold day” and “hot day” indicators in Dockery et al. [16] (“defined at the 5th/ 95th percentile”), 2) decisions relate  
 647 to other pollutants: NO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub> using a “24 hr average on variable” in Huang et al. [21], and 3) the definition  
 648 of black smoke and in Katsouyanni et al. [27] for secondary analysis (“restrict to days with BS concentrations below  
 649 150  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^2$ ”). While Gemini also capture these irrelevant decisions, such as “0-4 lag days” for air pollution exposure  
 650 variables (CO, EC, K<sub>S</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, OC, Pb, S, SO<sub>2</sub>, TC, Zn) in Mar et al. [36]. However, these cases are less frequent than  
 651 Gemini’s extraction and has been validated and standardized in Section 4.1.  
 652

653 For both Claude and Gemini, we find they fail to link the general term “weather variables” to the specific weather  
 654 variables (e.g. Dockery et al. [16] and Burnett et al. [10] for Gemini and Dockery et al. [16] and Katsouyanni et al. [27]  
 655 for Claude). Although our prompt specified that some decisions may require linking information across sentences and  
 656 paragraphs to identify the correct variable, this instruction doesn’t appear to be applied consistently.  
 657

658  
 659 4.4.3 *Text model.* We have conducted sensitivity analysis on the text model for obtaining the decision similarity score  
 660 from the Gemini outputs. The tested language models tested include 1) BERT by Google [15], 2) RoBERTa by Facebook  
 661 AI [34], trained on a larger dataset (160GB v.s. BERT’s 15GB), 3) XLNet by Google Brain [55], and two domain-trained  
 662 BERT models: 4) sciBERT [4], trained on scientific literature, and 5) bioBERT [30], trained on PubMed and PMC data.  
 663

664 Figure 4 shows the distribution of the decision similarity and the corresponding multi-dimensional scaling visualiza-  
 665 tion, where distance are calcualted from the paper similarity for each text model. At decision level, the BERT model  
 666 produces the widest variation across all five models, while the similarity scores from XLNet are all close to 1. While the  
 667 raw scores are not directly comparable across models due to the difference in the underlying transformer architecture,  
 668 the multi-dimensional scaling (MDS) based on paper similarity scores shows a similar clustering pattern corresponding  
 669 to the three main smoothing methods (LOESS, natural spline, and smoothing spline).  
 670

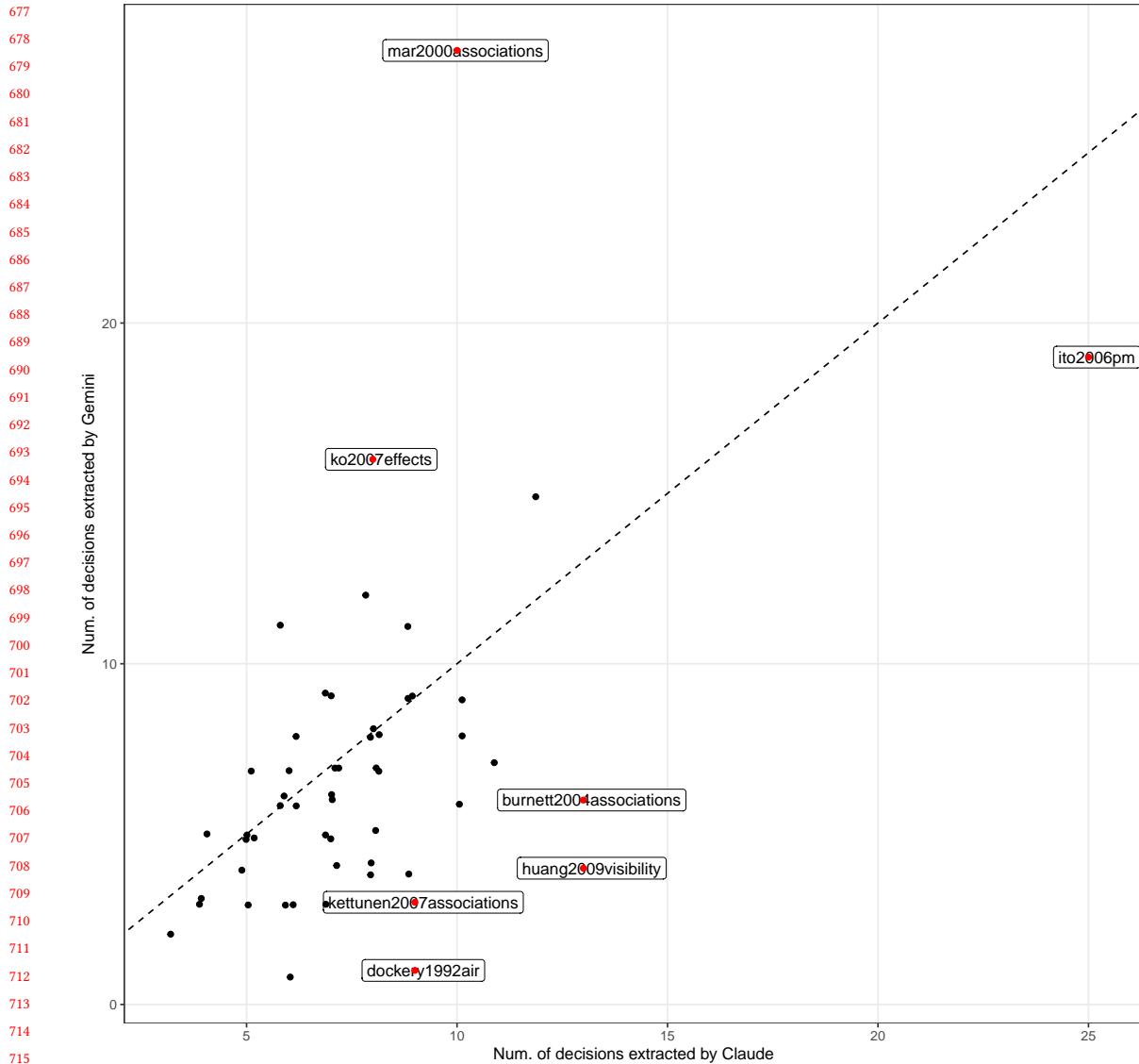


Fig. 3. Comparison of decisions extracted by Claude and Gemini. Each point represents a paper, with the x- and y-axes showing the number of decisions extracted by Claude and Gemini, respectively. The dashed 1:1 line marks where both models extract the same number of decisions. More points fall below this line, suggesting Claude extracts more decisions – often including noise from data pre-processing or secondary data analysis steps – which requires additional manual validation.

## 5 Discussion

While the extraction of decisions from literature could be largely automated with LLMs, manual validations remains essential to ensure the quality of the extracted decisions for further analysis. The quality from the LLM ouput directly affects the amount of manual effort needed for validation and standardization. Using a default temperature of 1 and Manuscript submitted to ACM

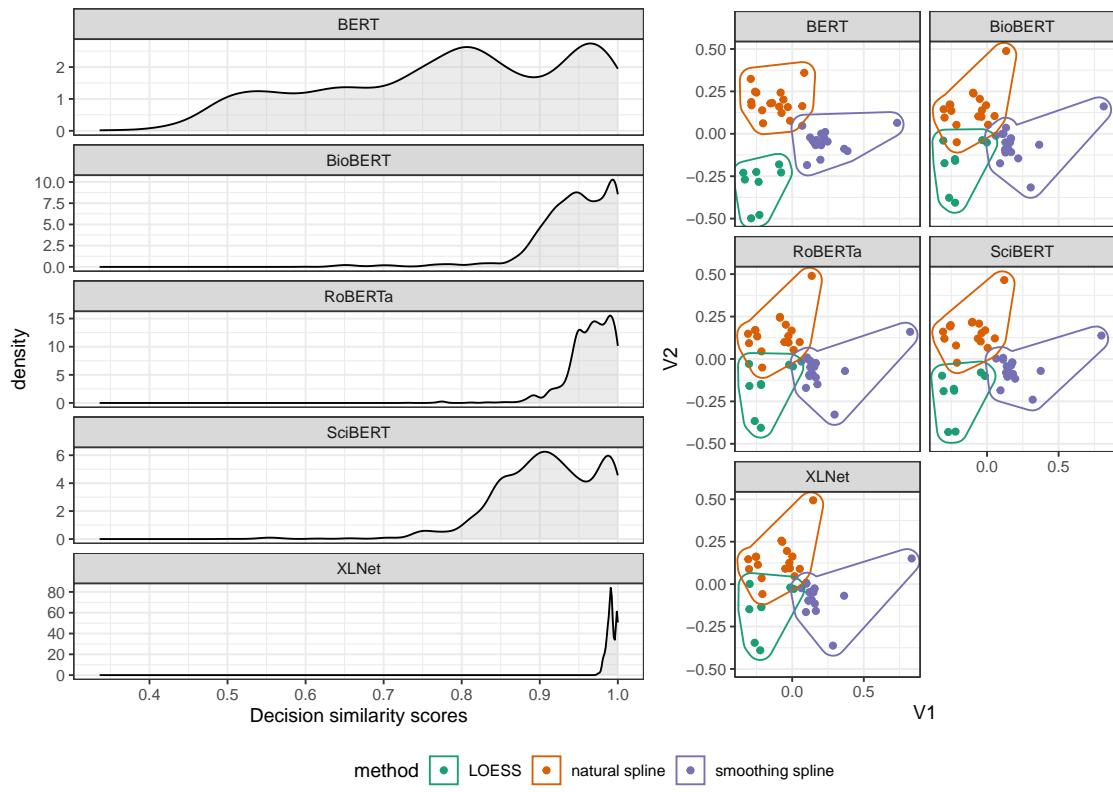


Fig. 4. Distribution of decision similarity (left) and multi-dimensional scaling (MDS) of the paper similarity scores (right) computed for five different text models (BERT, BioBERT, RoBERTa, SciBERT, and XLNet). The default language model, BERT, produces the widest variation across the five models, while the similarity scores form XLNet are all close to 1. The model BioBERT, RoBERTa, and SciBERT yield decision similar scores mostly between 0.7 to 1. All the text models shows a similar clustering structure based on the three main smoothing methods (LOESS, natural spline and smoothing spline).

instructing the model to extract original text rather than paraphrase, we find hallucination is not a major issue with Claude and Gemini for this application. While prompt engineering is used in this work to optimize the prompt for decision extraction, an alternative is to fine-tune a local model to improve LLM performance. Such approach could be beneficial for a systematic literature review, although it would require a labelled decision dataset for training and significantly more training efforts.

As a demonstration, we focus on the modelling decision for the baseline model in the air pollution epidemiology literature. Analyses in this fields often fit multiple models for different health outcomes. Other models, such as distributed lag models and multi-pollutant models are also commonly used to estimate relative risks and the interaction among pollutants. These factors increase the complexity of the decision extraction for LLM, as for additional models, authors often describe only the differences from the baseline model specification, assuming other decisions remain unchanged. The LLMs will need to be able to link the decisions across different models and identify the full set of decision for each

781 model for cross-comparison among papers. Apart from modelling choices, other decisions in data pre-processing are  
 782 also worth comparing. This would include how variables are defined and computed from the raw data.  
 783

784 With the advocacy for reproducibility in science, it is expected that more papers will share their code and data. Code  
 785 availability can serve as a supplementary source for understanding the choices made in the analysis and cross-check  
 786 against the description in the manuscript. However, decision choices could be extracted from the scripts, but the  
 787 rationale behind these choices may not be easily discernible given the lack of comments in the current practice.  
 788

## 789 6 Conclusion

790 In this paper, we aim to study how analysts make decisions in their data analysis practice. While classic interviews  
 791 are often conducted in small scale with toy examples, we developed a pipeline for automatically extracting decisions  
 792 using LLMs (Claude and Gemini) from scientific literature. We also introduced a method for calculating paper similarity  
 793 through comparing the similarities among decisions and the similarity metric can be used as a distance to cluster  
 794 papers by their decision choices and visualization with dimension reduction algorithms, such as multidimensional  
 795 scaling. We applied this pipeline to a set of air pollution modelling literature that associates daily particulate matter  
 796 and daily mortality and hospital admission. From the extracted modelling decisions, we identify the most common  
 797 decision choices in this type of analysis and the paper similarity score calculation revealed the three clusters of paper  
 798 corresponding to different modelling strategies. These findings are all consistent with the general understanding of the  
 799 field, as documented in the APHENA project [28] and other methodological comparison studies [41, 49].  
 800

801 While sensitivity analyses are commonly used to assess the robustness of findings to different analytical choices, the  
 802 set of choices tested is often limited and selected subjectively by the authors. Our approach offers a new perspective by  
 803 pooling decisions made in analyses across studies in the fields. This allows for a holistic account on the alternatives in  
 804 the field and identification of both consensus and divergence within the field, providing insights for future research and  
 805 methodological development.  
 806

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