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Protocol for the Anesthesiology Control Tower: Forecasting Algorithms to Support Treatments (ACTFAST 2) Trial

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Complete List of Authors:	Fritz, Bradley; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology Chen, Yixin; Washington University in Saint Louis, Computer Science and Engineering Murray-Torres, Teresa; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology Gregory, SH; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology Ben Abdallah, Arbi; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology Kronzer, Alex; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology McKinnon, Sherry; Washington University School of Medicine, Anesthesiology Budelier, Thaddeus; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology Helsten, Daniel; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology Wildes, Troy; Washington University in Saint Louis School of Medicine, Anesthesiology Sharma, Anshuman; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology Avidan, Michael; Washington University School of Medicine, Anesthesiology
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3 **Protocol for the Anesthesiology Control Tower: Forecasting Algorithms to Support Treatments**
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5 **(ACTFAST 2) Trial**
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11 Bradley A Fritz, MD, Resident Physician¹
12

13
14 Yixin Chen, PhD, Professor²
15

16
17 Teresa M Murray-Torres, MD, Resident Physician¹
18

19
20 Stephen Gregory, MD, Instructor¹
21

22
23 Arbi Ben Abdallah, PhD, Assistant Professor¹
24

25
26 Alex Kronzer, Database Analyst¹
27

28
29 Sherry McKinnon, Project Manager¹
30

31
32 Thaddeus Budelier, Research Coordinator¹
33

34
35 Daniel L Helsten, MD, Associate Professor¹
36

37
38 Troy S Wildes, MD, Associate Professor¹
39

40
41 Anshuman Sharma, MD, Professor¹
42

43
44 Michael S Avidan, MBBCh, Professor¹
45
46
47
48
49
50

51 1 – Department of Anesthesiology, Washington University in St. Louis, St. Louis, MO, USA
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2 – Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Washington University in St. Louis, St. Louis, MO,

USA

Corresponding Author: Bradley Fritz

1 Barnes Jewish Hospital Plaza

St. Louis, MO, 63108

(314) 747-4155

bafriz@wustl.edu

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ABSTRACT

Introduction – Mortality and morbidity following surgery are pressing public health concerns in the United States. Traditional prediction models for postoperative adverse outcomes demonstrate good discrimination at the population level, but the ability to forecast an individual patient's trajectory in real time remains poor. We propose to apply machine-learning techniques to perioperative time-series data to develop algorithms for predicting adverse perioperative outcomes.

Methods and Analysis – This study will include all adult patients who had surgery at our tertiary care hospital over a four-year period. Patient history, laboratory values, minute-by-minute intraoperative vital signs, and medications administered will be extracted from the electronic medical record. Outcomes will include in-hospital mortality, postoperative acute kidney injury, and postoperative respiratory failure. Forecasting algorithms for each of these outcomes will be constructed using density-based logistic regression after employing a Nadaraya-Watson kernel density estimator. Time-series variables will be analyzed using first- and second-order feature extraction, shapelet methods, and convolutional neural networks. The algorithms will be validated using bootstrap methods.

Ethics and Dissemination – The successful development of these forecasting algorithms will allow perioperative health care clinicians to predict more accurately an individual patient's risk for specific adverse perioperative outcomes in real time. Knowledge of a patient's dynamic risk profile may allow clinicians to make targeted changes in the care plan that will alter the patient's outcome trajectory. This hypothesis will be tested in a future randomized controlled trial.

STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

- Will utilize modeling techniques that take advantage of the rich time-series data that are available, rather than data from a single time point
- Will utilize efficient modeling techniques that can process large amounts of data quickly
- Will utilize group-based learning to increase model accuracy by separating groups of patients who likely have different relationship between underlying features and predicted outcomes
- Dissemination to other health care facilities may be limited by the availability of high-quality preoperative and intraoperative input data in a usable format

INTRODUCTION

An estimated 40 million people undergo surgery every year in the United States. Postoperative mortality rate at one year for surgical inpatients is between 5 and 10 percent,^{1,2} and an estimated 10 percent of surgical patients suffer major in-hospital morbidity.³⁻⁸ Perioperative morbidity and mortality are therefore pressing public health concerns. Many patient characteristics, including comorbid medical conditions, associate strongly and independently with perioperative mortality and major morbidity.^{1,2,9-11} While many of these characteristics are not modifiable, some perioperative risk factors, such as intraoperative blood pressures and anesthetic concentrations,^{1,2,9,10} can be modified in real time. Although the association between perioperative variables and postoperative outcomes has been well established at the population level using approaches such as standard logistic regression,^{1,2,9,10,12} the ability to utilize deviations in physiological parameters in real time to dynamically forecast the trajectory of each individual patient remains poor.

There is a gap in the field with an opportunity to assess the potential utility of machine learning-based forecasting algorithms to anticipate adverse perioperative outcomes, guide interventions, and improve overall quality of care. Standard forecasting models, such as logistic regression, linear regression, and other statistical modeling procedures, have long been used to identify and prioritize risk factors for adverse outcomes. Although most of these statistical techniques have been shown to have moderate predictive values, they are limited in their prognostic ability and practical use.^{1,2,6,9,10} In contrast to standard forecasting models, we have demonstrated machine learning and data mining approaches for patients on intensive care units that generate markedly superior prediction for outcomes such as mortality.¹³ Our methods differ from standard statistical techniques in their ability to effectively incorporate time-series data. Most standard modeling techniques for surgical patients are based on a snapshot scheme, which only considers the data values at a given moment. They are not competent in

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3 extracting features from time-series data, especially in real-time fashion, such as temporal trends and
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5 shapes. Therefore, the objective of this study is to utilize machine-learning techniques to build
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7 forecasting algorithms that use patient characteristics and high-fidelity intraoperative time-series data
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10 to predict adverse perioperative outcomes.
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METHODS AND ANALYSIS

Study Design

Our central hypothesis is that with sufficient knowledge of patient characteristics coupled with repeated, high-fidelity time series data from the perioperative electronic medical record, advanced models can be constructed for individual patients that will forecast adverse perioperative outcomes. To test this hypothesis, we will conduct an observational cohort study of adult patients who undergo surgery at Barnes-Jewish Hospital in St. Louis, Missouri. First, we plan to develop forecasting algorithms for specific adverse perioperative outcomes using historical data. Next, we plan to validate these algorithms by determining whether they can be used to reliably forecast individual adverse perioperative outcomes.

Patient Population and Sample Size

This study will include all adult patients who had surgery in the 48 operating rooms at Barnes-Jewish Hospital in St. Louis, Missouri between June 1, 2012 and August 31, 2016. Patients who receive anesthesia care in areas outside the main operating rooms, such as the obstetric suite or the outpatient surgery suite, will not be included. Barnes-Jewish Hospital is a 1,252-bed academic university-affiliated adult tertiary care hospital, performing approximately 19,000 surgeries a year. On average, 125 surgeries take place in these operating rooms every business day. To be conservative, we estimate that information on 50 to 100 surgeries per day will be available for analysis. We therefore anticipate a minimum total sample size of 50,000 to 100,000 surgeries for algorithm development and validation.

The Human Research Protection Office at Washington University in St. Louis has granted a waiver of informed consent for all subjects enrolled in this study. This study has been determined to involve no more than minimal risk to participants, as no additional data will be collected beyond that

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3 already contained in the electronic record. For the same reason, the waiver of consent will not adversely
4 affect the participants' rights and welfare. It is impracticable to conduct this research without a waiver
5 of consent because 100% participation from the patients is imperative to obtain scientifically sound
6 data.
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13 ***Data Acquisition***

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16 For this project, we will use high-dimensional and complex data from a variety of electronic
17 medical record sources to cover the entire perioperative period. Much of the relevant information will
18 be imported from MetaVision®(iMDsoft, Wakefield, MA), an anesthesiology information management
19 software system that is the perioperative electronic clinical documentation system currently utilized by
20 the Department of Anesthesiology. MetaVision® captures comprehensive clinical data beginning with
21 the preoperative assessment and continuing throughout the duration of the perioperative period.
22 Information captured preoperatively includes patients' past medical and surgical histories, chronic
23 medical issues, medications used, and functional capacity. Intraoperatively, minute-by-minute vital signs
24 are captured, in addition to fluid balances, ventilator parameters, and anesthetic medications
25 administered. All data fields are alphanumeric and are captured in a uniform and granular manner
26 allowing for easy coding and data analysis. Reports from MetaVision® are commonly used to support
27 many patient safety and quality improvement initiatives in addition to numerous research studies.
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44 Postoperative outcome data will be obtained from Sunrise Clinical Manager (Allscripts, Chicago,
45 IL), the electronic medical record currently used for inpatient care at Barnes-Jewish Hospital. Data will
46 also be obtained from several registries, including the Systematic Assessment and Targeted
47 Improvement of Services Following Yearlong Surgical Outcomes Surveys (SATISFY-SOS) patient-reported
48 outcomes registry (NCT02032030), the National Surgical Quality Improvement Program (NSQIP)
49 database, the Society of Thoracic Surgeons (STS) database. Preoperative and postoperative laboratory
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3 values will be obtained from the Center for Biomedical Informatics at Washington University, which
4 hosts the data repository where these data are stored once they are processed by the laboratory. A
5 data dictionary has been included as an online appendix detailing all the data elements that will be
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10 captured for this study.

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13 The specific outcomes that will be predicted by the forecasting algorithms will include in-
14 hospital mortality, postoperative acute kidney injury, and postoperative respiratory failure. In-hospital
15 mortality will be ascertained from Sunrise Clinical Manager. Postoperative acute renal failure will be
16 defined according to the KDIGO criteria¹⁴: an increase in serum creatinine of 0.3 mg/dL, increase in
17 serum creatinine to 1.5 times the baseline value, or initiation of renal replacement therapy within 48
18 hours of surgery end time. Patients receiving renal replacement therapy prior to surgery, patients with
19 no baseline creatinine available within 30 days prior to surgery, and patients undergoing kidney
20 transplant or dialysis access procedures will be excluded from analysis of this outcome. Postoperative
21 respiratory failure will be defined as mechanical ventilation for greater than 48 hours or unplanned
22 postoperative intubation within 48 hours. These events will be extracted from clinical documentation
23 recorded by respiratory therapists in Sunrise Clinical Manager.

34 35 36 37 38 **Data Analysis, Part 1 – Forecasting Algorithm Development**

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41 We will develop hybrid learning techniques to combine the strength of nonparametric
42 (generative) models such as histogram and kernel density estimation and parametric (discriminative)
43 models such as support vector machines, logistic regressions, and kernel machines to improve
44 predictions of adverse perioperative outcomes (in-hospital mortality, postoperative acute renal failure,
45 postoperative respiratory failure). The goal is to deliver superior prediction quality with good
46 interpretability and high computational efficiency that supports fast processing of big data. Based on
47 our preliminary work using density-based logistic regression (DLR) to develop an early clinical
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3 deterioration warning system for patients in the general wards of Barnes-Jewish Hospital,^{15 16} we
4 propose to develop novel hybrid data mining/machine learning algorithms that exploit both non-
5 parametric and parametric techniques. Also, the resulting algorithms can be viewed as hybrid
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8 generative/discriminative learning models.
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13 DLR is a hybrid algorithm combining the distribution-free nonlinear separation ability of non-
14 parametric (generative) models and the efficiency and interpretability of parametric (discriminative)
15 models. It first applies a Nadaraya-Watson kernel density estimator, a non-parametric transformation,
16 on the input data to extract features that conform best to the true distribution of data, and then applies
17 the parametric logistic regression model on the transformed features. The resulting model exhibits five
18 desirable properties: nonlinear separation ability, high efficiency, good interpretability, ability to handle
19 mixed data types including numerical and categorical ones, and support for multi-way classification. Our
20 previous results using Barnes-Jewish Hospital clinical data showed that DLR achieves better classification
21 accuracy than state-of-the-art nonlinear classifiers such as support vector machines and KLR but is also
22 much more efficient than nonlinear models.¹⁷ In fact, DLR has the same asymptotic complexity as linear
23 classifiers and can scale up to very large datasets in practice.¹⁷
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38 To analyze the collected time-series data, we need to extract features that capture temporal
39 patterns, such as a rapid temperature increases or abnormal heart rate fluctuations. We will first
40 extract a large pool of time-series features including: first-order features such as variance, skewness,
41 and kurtosis, and second-order features such as energy, entropy, correlation, inertia, and local
42 homogeneity.^{18 19} The second-order features are known to be robust under noises.^{20 21} Self-similarity is
43 widely observed in human physiological signs. Detrended fluctuation analysis²² measures the degree of
44 self-similarity in time series and has been applied to analyze heartbeat and oxygen levels.²³
45 Approximate entropy measures the degree of unpredictability in a time series.²⁴ Spectral analysis has
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3 also been used to analyze clinical time-series.²² We will also consider cross-sign features including
4 correlation,²⁵ coherence,²⁵ lagged regression, nonlinear regression,¹⁹ and the synchronization index.²⁶
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6 We will also extract features based on the bag-of-patterns approach²⁷⁻²⁹ and autocorrelation.³⁰⁻³² In
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8 addition, we will also generate features based on shapelets.³³ A shapelet is a subseries that is used to
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10 compare against each time-series. For a shapelet with length l and a time series T , the shapelet gives a
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12 feature value which is the minimum Euclidean distance between the shapelet and any subseries of T
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14 with length l . Efficient methods have been developed to find good shapelets, based on length estimation
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16 and optimized search.³⁴⁻³⁶

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22 We will also develop a novel deep learning method to extract more robust features from time-
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24 series. A leading method for feature selection from time series has been the shapelet method. However,
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26 we have shown that deep learning methods can significantly improve over shapelet. Deep learning
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28 methods, especially those using convolutional neural networks (CNNs),³⁷ have achieved great success in
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30 learning useful representations (features) from images.^{38,39} However, its uses in time-series
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32 classification are very limited. We plan to apply CNNs to time-series data to generate good
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34 representations. We note that the convolutional layers in CNNs can be viewed as a collection of local
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36 filters over the input space; the filters' weights are learnt through back propagation. The filters in CNNs
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38 regulate the time series in different frequency bands, and the dot product operations in the CNNs
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40 measure distances between two subseries. Thus, CNNs can be viewed as a more general framework
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42 than shapelet learning which can adaptively find the suitable down-sampling rates and scales of the
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44 shapelets.
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49 Our preliminary work has shown that it is beneficial to use a large feature set: the modeling
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51 accuracy increases as more features are used and the top features in the final model include features
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53 from different categories.²³ With the above features, we will address overfitting. An overfit model will
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3 generally have poor predictive performance and interpretability. We will investigate three schemes to
4 avoid over-fitting including: 1) using feature selection methods, such as forward feature selection based
5 on F-score or area-under-curve score,⁴⁰ to find the most discriminative features; 2) adding regularization
6 terms (such as L1,⁴¹ L2,⁴² Akaike information criterion, Bayesian information criterion,⁴³ minimum
7 description length,⁴⁴ or a probabilistic prior) to the optimization objective; and 3) using meta-techniques
8 such as bootstrap aggregation⁴⁵ and exploratory undersampling⁴⁶ to further address overfitting and
9 class imbalance.
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20 We plan to develop novel classification algorithms that best fit our data. In our preliminary
21 work, we proposed DLR, a novel nonlinear hybrid classification algorithm that integrates kernel density
22 estimation with logistic regression. DLR can achieve nonlinear separability by utilizing a nonlinear
23 feature transformation, but is much more efficient than other nonlinear models since it fits a linear
24 model. It can naturally handle mixed data types. It also offers good interpretability. In this task, we
25 plan to develop more powerful algorithms on top of DLR.
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34 A key area of improvement is feature transformation. In DLR, we use the Nadaraya-Watson
35 kernel density estimator for each data point in each dimension, which has time complexity of $O(mN^2)$
36 where m is the number of dimensions and N is the number of data points. Therefore, it is still slow for
37 big datasets with a large N . We propose to use bin-based kernel density estimation, another non-
38 parametric technique, to process the input features in each dimension. The idea is to divide each
39 dimension into equal-sized bins and estimate the density for each bin instead of each data point. This
40 will reduce the time into $O(mB^2)$ where $B \ll N$ is the number of bins. Note that instead of using a simple
41 histogram count for each bin, we will use a Gaussian kernel function to smooth the density estimation
42 across bins. The time complexity can be further reduced to $O(mB)$ using techniques such as Gauss
43 transformation.⁴⁷ Such dramatic reduction of computing time will enable us to process large datasets
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3 and perform quick model-building. We will also combine the kernel density estimator-based features
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5 with other parametric models such as Cox regression.
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8 We will also develop efficient training algorithms. We will leverage a hierarchical optimization
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10 algorithm for training DLR,¹⁷ which automatically learns free parameters in the model under a maximum
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12 likelihood framework. This optimization formulation not only learns the coefficients in the model, but
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14 also provides a way to automatically select the kernel bandwidth in the Nadaraya-Watson estimator or
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16 the bin size in the bin-based kernel density estimation, which is absent in previous work. We will also
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18 employ techniques including stochastic gradient descent⁴⁸ and its parallelized implementation⁴⁹ to
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20 further enhance the scalability of the training algorithm.
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25 We will study another novel approach called group-based modeling. The idea is to first use a
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27 few key features to divide the patients into some major categories, and then train a separate classifier
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29 for each category. The intuition is that from clinical knowledge, we know that some different groups of
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31 patients have drastically different behaviors and should correspond to different statistical models.
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33 Mixing such vastly different groups together to train a single model may not give the best result.
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35 Therefore, it is instrumental to identify important sub-populations of patients, before we use
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37 sophisticated hybrid algorithms to accurately model the patients in each group. For a simple example,
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39 we can group the patients into a few age ranges, e.g., <45, 45-55, 56-65, etc. Although age can be used
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41 as a feature in a single classifier for all patients, such explicit division leads to multiple, more specific
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43 classifiers. It can be viewed as a hybrid algorithm combining a decision tree with other classifiers. We
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45 may also use metrics defined on multiple attributes to group the patients. Features that will be used as
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47 classifiers will include age, sex, and surgery type (cardiac versus non-cardiac). To systematically
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49 integrate such clinical knowledge into modeling, we plan to study hybrid models that are mixture of two
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51 or more classifiers. For example, we can construct a global decision tree whose nodes denote patient
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3 groups, where each group is modeled by a local classifier such as DLR. Different nodes may use different
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5 types of classifiers. Previous work on a similar idea has demonstrated improved performance⁵⁰ in an
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7 intensive care prognosis application.
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10 ***Data Analysis, Part 2 – Forecasting Algorithm Validation***

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14 After algorithm development, the forecasting algorithms will be tested for accuracy of their
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16 predictive performances in two ways. First, algorithm validity will be tested within the training database
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18 using the bootstrap method. Second, the performance of the developed algorithms will be additionally
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20 validated prospectively (out-of-sample performance), using standard measures of model predictive
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22 accuracy, including measures of accuracy, precision and robustness.
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26 The performance of any predictive modeling process is always evaluated by the accuracy of its
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28 predictions. Data mining techniques are used specifically to explain as well as forecast events. Their
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30 predictive accuracy needs therefore to be evaluated before they can be deployed and used for clinical
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32 decision-making. The proposed hybrid approach will be first tested using the bootstrap method.
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36 In the bootstrap method, a large number of independent random samples are drawn with replacement
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38 from the entire database. These surrogate data sets are then used iteratively as the training sets for the
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40 development of the machine-learning algorithm, and the remaining data from the original sample are
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42 used for testing. The overall mean-squared prediction error and its variation is then used as an
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44 evaluation and test tools of stability of the algorithm development process.⁵¹ We propose to draw 100
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46 surrogate samples for this evaluation.
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50 Additionally, we propose to perform a validation test of the predictive performance of the
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52 developed algorithms prospectively, using patient records that did not belong to the learning database.
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54 For this evaluation, we will apply the most commonly used criteria for predictive model performance,
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including accuracy (defined as the overall percentage of correct forecasts), precision (defined as the percentage of correctly forecasted events), and robustness (defined as predictive ability when data includes noise and missing values).

Prespecified Secondary Analyses

In addition to the primary algorithms described above (in-hospital mortality, postoperative acute kidney injury, and postoperative respiratory failure), we anticipate using the acquired data to develop prediction algorithms for additional outcomes. These outcomes are outlined in Table 1.

Table 1. Prespecified Secondary Outcomes

Data Source	Outcome
Sunrise Clinical Manager	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Thirty-day hospital readmission - Intensive care unit admission - Postoperative delirium
National Surgical Quality Improvement Program (NSQIP) database	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Thirty-day mortality - Thirty-day hospital readmission - Unplanned intubation - Postoperative sepsis - Postoperative myocardial infarction - Postoperative cerebrovascular accident - Postoperative pulmonary embolism - Postoperative deep vein thrombosis - Postoperative cardiac arrest requiring cardiopulmonary resuscitation

<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3 Society of Thoracic</p> <p>4</p> <p>5 Surgeons database</p> <p>6</p> <p>7</p> <p>8</p> <p>9</p> <p>10</p> <p>11</p> <p>12</p> <p>13</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Thirty-day mortality - Thirty-day hospital readmission - Postoperative atrial fibrillation - Postoperative venous thromboembolism - Postoperative acute respiratory distress syndrome
<p>14</p> <p>15 SATISFY-SOS registry</p> <p>16</p> <p>17</p> <p>18</p> <p>19</p> <p>20</p> <p>21</p> <p>22</p> <p>23</p> <p>24</p> <p>25</p> <p>26</p> <p>27</p> <p>28</p> <p>29</p> <p>30</p> <p>31</p> <p>32</p> <p>33</p> <p>34</p> <p>35</p> <p>36</p> <p>37</p> <p>38</p> <p>39</p> <p>40</p> <p>41</p> <p>42</p> <p>43</p> <p>44</p> <p>45</p> <p>46</p> <p>47</p> <p>48</p> <p>49</p> <p>50</p> <p>51</p> <p>52</p> <p>53</p> <p>54</p> <p>55</p> <p>56</p> <p>57</p> <p>58</p> <p>59</p> <p>60</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Patient-reported thirty-day readmission - Patient-reported postoperative myocardial infarction - Patient-reported postoperative cardiac arrest - Patient-reported postoperative heart failure - Patient-reported postoperative cerebrovascular accident - Patient-reported postoperative venous thromboembolism - Patient-reported postoperative respiratory arrest - Patient-reported postoperative pneumonia - Patient-reported severe postoperative pain lasting greater than one day - Patient-reported severe postoperative nausea and vomiting lasting greater than one day - Return to work 30 days after surgery - Quality of life 30 days after surgery - Ability to perform activities of daily living 30 days after surgery

DISCUSSION

Implications and Future Directions

We predict that the successful development of machine learning-based algorithms for predicting adverse postoperative outcomes will impact the perioperative care of surgical patients in important ways. Because our algorithms will utilize time-series data, we expect to be able to use them in real time to provide perioperative health care clinicians with dynamic predictions of their patients' risks for specific adverse outcomes. Because the features in our models will include modifiable risk factors such as blood pressure and concentrations of anesthetic agents, we believe clinicians will be able to make changes that may alter their patients' risk trajectories. To be feasible and efficient, we suggest that the forecasting algorithms could be incorporated into a telemedicine paradigm, such as an anesthesiology control tower for a perioperative suite. Once the forecasting algorithms are developed, we intend to conduct a randomized controlled trial to investigate whether implementation of the algorithms in the operating rooms leads to a reduction in the incidence of adverse postoperative outcomes. The incorporation of machine-learning forecasting algorithms into perioperative care will complement the expertise of clinicians, and has the potential to increase both safety and efficiency.

Strengths and Limitations

One of the greatest strengths of this project is the novel use of machine learning techniques to harness the abundant data in the perioperative electronic medical record. Unlike traditional risk prediction models, which utilize data from a single time point and therefore incorporate only a small fraction of the available information about the patient, our algorithms will take advantage of the rich time-series data generated in the operating rooms and, more broadly, in perioperative settings (e.g., preoperative assessment clinic, postoperative recovery area). Another strength is the efficiency of the proposed modeling techniques, which will need to quickly process large amounts of data. The use of

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3 group-based learning will increase the accuracy of the derived models by separating groups of patients
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5 who likely have different relationships between underlying features and the predicted outcomes.
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8 This project does have limitations that should be noted. Because the forecasting algorithms will
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10 utilize large quantities of data, generalizability of the results and implementation of the algorithms at
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12 other health care facilities will depend upon the availability of high-quality input data. In particular, the
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14 preoperative evaluation and medical history may not be documented in an electronic format with
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16 discrete analyzable fields at some other institutions. Even when such data are available, differences in
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18 formatting will require caution during implementation at other hospitals.
19
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21 22 ***Ethics and Dissemination***

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25 This study has been approved by the Human Research Protection Office at Washington
26
27 University in St. Louis. As noted earlier in this document, a waiver of informed consent has been
28
29 granted for all participants. This work will be funded largely by a grant from the National Science
30
31 Foundation (award number 1622678) and from a grant from the Agency for Healthcare Research and
32
33 Quality (R21 HS24581-01).
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38 Once this investigation has been completed, we intend to publish the results in a peer-reviewed
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40 publication. We also intend to present the results of this work at professional conferences for both the
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42 anesthesiology and computer science communities. In accordance with the recent proposal from the
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44 International Committee of Medical Journal Editors, patient-level data will be made available within six
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46 months after publication of the primary manuscript.⁵² Data will be provided to researchers who submit
47
48 a methodologically sound research proposal including a protocol and statistical analysis plan.
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AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

Bradley A Fritz, MD, contributed to overall study design, initial draft of protocol, and critical revision of protocol.

Yixin Chen, PhD, contributed to development of methods for creation of forecasting algorithms

Teresa M Murray-Torres, MD, contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Stephen Gregory, MD, contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Arbi Ben Abdallah, PhD, contributed to statistical methods for validation of forecasting algorithms and to critical revision of protocol

Alex Kronzer contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Sherry McKinnon contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Thaddeus Budelier contributed to critical revision of protocol

Daniel L Helsten, MD, contributed to critical revision of protocol

Troy S Wildes, MD, contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Anshuman Sharma, MD, contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Michael S Avidan, MBBCh, contributed to overall study design and critical revision of protocol

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COMPETING INTERESTS STATEMENT

All authors have completed the ICMJE uniform disclosure form at www.icmje.org/coi_disclosure.pdf and declare: all authors had financial support from the National Science Foundation and the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality for the submitted work; no financial relationships with any organisations that might have an interest in the submitted work in the previous three years; no other relationships or activities that could appear to have influenced the submitted work."

BMJ Open

Protocol for a Retrospective Study Using Machine Learning Techniques to Develop Forecasting Algorithms for Postoperative Complications: The ACTFAST-2 Study

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Keywords:	Adult anaesthesia < ANAESTHETICS, Information technology < BIOTECHNOLOGY & BIOINFORMATICS, Health informatics < BIOTECHNOLOGY & BIOINFORMATICS
<p>Note: The following files were submitted by the author for peer review, but cannot be converted to PDF. You must view these files (e.g. movies) online.</p> <p>Data Dictionary v4 Tab1 - Preop.xls Data Dictionary v4 Tab2 - Intraop.xls</p>	

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Data Dictionary v4 Tab3 - SATISFY-SOS Outcomes.xls
Data Dictionary v4 Tab4 - Sunrise Outcomes.xls



For peer review only

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3 **Protocol for a Retrospective Study Using Machine Learning Techniques to Develop Forecasting**

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5 **Algorithms for Postoperative Complications: The ACTFAST-2 Study**

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11 Bradley A Fritz, MD, Resident Physician¹

12
13
14 Yixin Chen, PhD, Professor²

15
16
17 Teresa M Murray-Torres, MD, Resident Physician¹

18
19
20 Stephen Gregory, MD, Instructor¹

21
22
23 Arbi Ben Abdallah, PhD, Assistant Professor¹

24
25
26 Alex Kronzer, Database Analyst¹

27
28
29 Sherry McKinnon, Project Manager¹

30
31
32 Thaddeus Budelier, Research Coordinator¹

33
34
35 Daniel L Helsten, MD, Associate Professor¹

36
37
38 Troy S Wildes, MD, Associate Professor¹

39
40
41 Anshuman Sharma, MD, Professor¹

42
43
44 Michael S Avidan, MBBCh, Professor¹

45
46
47
48
49
50
51 1 – Department of Anesthesiology, Washington University in St. Louis, St. Louis, MO, USA

1
2
3 2 – Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Washington University in St. Louis, St. Louis, MO,
4

5 USA
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9
10

11 Corresponding Author: Bradley Fritz
12

13
14 1 Barnes Jewish Hospital Plaza
15

16
17 St. Louis, MO, 63108
18

19
20
21 (314) 747-4155
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ABSTRACT

Introduction – Mortality and morbidity following surgery are pressing public health concerns in the United States. Traditional prediction models for postoperative adverse outcomes demonstrate good discrimination at the population level, but the ability to forecast an individual patient's trajectory in real time remains poor. We propose to apply machine-learning techniques to perioperative time-series data to develop algorithms for predicting adverse perioperative outcomes.

Methods and Analysis – This study will include all adult patients who had surgery at our tertiary care hospital over a four-year period. Patient history, laboratory values, minute-by-minute intraoperative vital signs, and medications administered will be extracted from the electronic medical record. Outcomes will include in-hospital mortality, postoperative acute kidney injury, and postoperative respiratory failure. Forecasting algorithms for each of these outcomes will be constructed using density-based logistic regression after employing a Nadaraya-Watson kernel density estimator. Time-series variables will be analyzed using first- and second-order feature extraction, shapelet methods, and convolutional neural networks. The algorithms will be validated through measurement of precision and recall.

Ethics and Dissemination – This study has been approved by the Human Research Protection Office at Washington University in St. Louis. The successful development of these forecasting algorithms will allow perioperative health care clinicians to predict more accurately an individual patient's risk for specific adverse perioperative outcomes in real time. Knowledge of a patient's dynamic risk profile may allow clinicians to make targeted changes in the care plan that will alter the patient's outcome trajectory. This hypothesis will be tested in a future randomized controlled trial.

STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

- Will utilize modeling techniques that take advantage of the rich time-series data that are available, rather than data from a single time point
- Will utilize efficient modeling techniques that can process large amounts of data quickly
- Will utilize group-based learning to increase model accuracy by separating groups of patients who likely have different relationship between underlying features and predicted outcomes
- Dissemination to other health care facilities may be limited by the availability of high-quality preoperative and intraoperative input data in a usable format

INTRODUCTION

An estimated 40 million people undergo surgery every year in the United States. Postoperative mortality rate at one year for surgical inpatients is between 5 and 10 percent,(1, 2) and an estimated 10 percent of surgical patients suffer major in-hospital morbidity.(3-8) Perioperative morbidity and mortality are therefore pressing public health concerns. Many patient characteristics, including comorbid medical conditions, associate strongly and independently with perioperative mortality and major morbidity.(1, 2, 9-11) While many of these characteristics are not modifiable, some perioperative risk factors, such as intraoperative blood pressures and anesthetic concentrations,(1, 2, 9, 10) can be modified in real time. Although the association between perioperative variables and postoperative outcomes has been well established at the population level using approaches such as standard logistic regression, (1, 2, 9, 10, 12) the ability to utilize deviations in physiological parameters in real time to dynamically forecast the trajectory of each individual patient remains poor.

There is a gap in the field with an opportunity to assess the potential utility of machine learning-based forecasting algorithms to anticipate adverse perioperative outcomes, guide interventions, and improve overall quality of care. Standard forecasting models, such as logistic regression, linear regression, and other statistical modeling procedures, have long been used to identify and prioritize risk factors for adverse outcomes. Although most of these statistical techniques have been shown to have moderate predictive values, they are limited in their prognostic ability and practical use.(1, 2, 6, 9, 10) In contrast to standard forecasting models, we have demonstrated machine learning and data mining approaches for patients on intensive care units that generate markedly superior prediction for outcomes such as mortality.(13) Our methods differ from standard statistical techniques in their ability to effectively incorporate time-series data. Most standard modeling techniques for surgical patients are based on a snapshot scheme, which only considers the data values at a given moment. They are not

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3 competent in extracting features from time-series data, especially in real-time fashion, such as temporal
4 trends and shapes. Therefore, the objective of this study is to utilize machine-learning techniques to
5 build forecasting algorithms that use patient characteristics and high-fidelity intraoperative time-series
6 data to predict adverse perioperative outcomes.
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METHODS AND ANALYSIS

Study Design

Our central hypothesis is that with sufficient knowledge of patient characteristics coupled with repeated, high-fidelity time series data from the perioperative electronic medical record, advanced models can be constructed for individual patients that will forecast adverse perioperative outcomes. To test this hypothesis, we will conduct an observational cohort study of adult patients who undergo surgery at Barnes-Jewish Hospital in St. Louis, Missouri. First, we plan to develop forecasting algorithms for specific adverse perioperative outcomes using historical data. Next, we plan to validate these algorithms by determining whether they can be used to reliably forecast individual adverse perioperative outcomes.

Patient Population and Sample Size

This study will include all adult patients who had surgery in the 48 operating rooms at Barnes-Jewish Hospital in St. Louis, Missouri between June 1, 2012 and August 31, 2016. Patients who receive anesthesia care in areas outside the main operating rooms, such as the obstetric suite or the outpatient surgery suite, will not be included. Barnes-Jewish Hospital is a 1,252-bed academic university-affiliated adult tertiary care hospital, performing approximately 19,000 surgeries a year. We therefore anticipate that gathering data from a 4.25-year period will lead to a total sample size of approximately 80,000-90,000 surgeries for algorithm development and validation.

The Human Research Protection Office at Washington University in St. Louis has granted a waiver of informed consent for all subjects enrolled in this study. This study has been determined to involve no more than minimal risk to participants, as no additional data will be collected beyond that already contained in the electronic record. For the same reason, the waiver of consent will not adversely

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3 affect the participants' rights and welfare. It is impracticable to conduct this research without a waiver
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5 of consent because 100% participation from the patients is imperative to obtain scientifically sound
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7 data.
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10 ***Data Acquisition***

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13 For this project, we will use a variety of electronic medical record sources to cover the entire
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15 perioperative period. Much of the relevant information will be imported from MetaVision®(iMDsoft,
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17 Wakefield, MA), an anesthesiology information management software system that is the perioperative
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19 electronic clinical documentation system currently utilized by the Department of Anesthesiology.
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21 MetaVision® captures comprehensive clinical data beginning with the preoperative assessment and
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23 continuing throughout the duration of the perioperative period. Information captured preoperatively
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25 includes patients' past medical and surgical histories, chronic medical issues, medications used, and
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27 functional capacity. Intraoperatively, minute-by-minute vital signs are captured, in addition to fluid
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29 balances, ventilator parameters, and anesthetic medications administered. Blood pressure
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31 measurements are available at intervals ranging from once per minute to once every five minutes, while
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33 other vital signs are captured once per minute. Thus, a three-hour procedure would have about 180
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35 measurements for each vital sign. All data fields are alphanumeric and are captured in a uniform and
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37 granular manner allowing for easy coding and data analysis. Reports from MetaVision® are commonly
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39 used to support many patient safety and quality improvement initiatives in addition to numerous
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41 research studies.
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48 Postoperative outcome data will be obtained from Sunrise Clinical Manager (Allscripts, Chicago,
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50 IL), the electronic medical record currently used for inpatient care at Barnes-Jewish Hospital. Data will
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52 also be obtained from several registries, including the Systematic Assessment and Targeted
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54 Improvement of Services Following Yearlong Surgical Outcomes Surveys (SATISFY-SOS) patient-reported
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3 outcomes registry (NCT02032030), the National Surgical Quality Improvement Program (NSQIP)
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5 database, the Society of Thoracic Surgeons (STS) database. Preoperative and postoperative laboratory
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7 values will be obtained from the Center for Biomedical Informatics at Washington University, which
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9 hosts the data repository where these data are stored once they are processed by the laboratory. In
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11 general, a preoperative complete blood count is available if the patient is undergoing major surgery with
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13 potential significant blood loss or if other clinical reasons are present. Electrolytes and renal function
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15 are available if there is clinical reason to suspect an abnormality (including, but not limited to, patients
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17 with hypertension, diabetes mellitus, or chronic kidney disease). Additional tests, such as hepatic
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19 function and coagulation studies, are available on smaller sets of patients in whom the tests are
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21 clinically indicated. A data dictionary has been included as supplementary files (Data Dictionary v4 Tab1,
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23 Tab2, Tab3, and Tab4) detailing all the data elements that will be captured for this study.
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29 The specific outcomes that will be predicted by the forecasting algorithms will include in-
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31 hospital mortality, postoperative acute kidney injury, and postoperative respiratory failure. In-hospital
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33 mortality will be ascertained from Sunrise Clinical Manager. Postoperative acute renal failure will be
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35 defined according to the KDIGO criteria(14): an increase in serum creatinine of 0.3 mg/dL, increase in
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37 serum creatinine to 1.5 times the baseline value, or initiation of renal replacement therapy within 48
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39 hours of surgery end time. Patients receiving renal replacement therapy prior to surgery, patients with
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41 no baseline creatinine available within 30 days prior to surgery, and patients undergoing kidney
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43 transplant or dialysis access procedures will be excluded from analysis of this outcome. Postoperative
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45 respiratory failure will be defined as mechanical ventilation for greater than 48 hours or unplanned
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47 postoperative intubation within 48 hours. These events will be extracted from clinical documentation
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49 recorded by respiratory therapists in Sunrise Clinical Manager. Patients receiving mechanical ventilation
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51 prior to surgery will be excluded from analysis of this outcome.
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Data Analysis, Part 1 – Forecasting Algorithm Development

We will develop hybrid learning techniques to combine the strength of generative models such as histogram and kernel density estimation and discriminative models such as support vector machines, logistic regressions, and kernel machines to improve predictions of adverse perioperative outcomes (in-hospital mortality, postoperative acute renal failure, postoperative respiratory failure). The goal is to deliver superior prediction quality with good interpretability and high computational efficiency that supports fast processing of big data. Based on our preliminary work using density-based logistic regression (DLR) to develop an early clinical deterioration warning system for patients in the general wards of Barnes-Jewish Hospital,(15, 16) we propose to develop novel hybrid data mining/machine learning algorithms that exploit both non-parametric and parametric techniques. For each target outcome, we plan to develop a model that will predict the likelihood of the postoperative outcome in real time using preoperative features and time-series data from the preceding 60 minutes.

DLR first applies a Nadaraya-Watson kernel density estimator, a non-parametric transformation, on the input data to extract features that conform best to the true distribution of data, and then applies the parametric logistic regression model on the transformed features. The resulting model exhibits five desirable properties: nonlinear separation ability, high efficiency, good interpretability, ability to handle mixed data types including numerical and categorical ones, and support for multi-way classification. Our previous results using Barnes-Jewish Hospital clinical data showed that DLR achieves better classification accuracy than state-of-the-art nonlinear classifiers such as support vector machines and KLR but is also much more efficient than nonlinear models.(17) In fact, DLR has the same asymptotic complexity as linear classifiers and can scale up to very large datasets in practice.(17)

To analyze the collected time-series data, we need to extract features that capture temporal patterns, such as a rapid temperature increases or abnormal heart rate fluctuations. To make

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3 predictions at a given point in time, time-series values from the preceding 60 minutes will be used.
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5 Missing values will be handled using linear interpolation. We will first extract a large pool of time-series
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7 features including: first-order features such as variance, skewness, and kurtosis, and second-order
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9 features such as energy, entropy, correlation, inertia, and local homogeneity.(18, 19) The second-order
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11 features are known to be robust under noises.(20, 21) Self-similarity is widely observed in human
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13 physiological signs. Detrended fluctuation analysis (22) measures the degree of self-similarity in time
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15 series and has been applied to analyze heartbeat and oxygen levels.(23) Approximate entropy measures
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17 the degree of unpredictability in a time series.(24) Spectral analysis has also been used to analyze
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19 clinical time-series.(22) We will also consider cross-sign features including correlation,(25)
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21 coherence,(25) lagged regression, nonlinear regression,(19) and the synchronization index.(26) We will
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23 also extract features based on the bag-of-patterns approach(27-29) and autocorrelation.(30-32) In
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25 addition, we will also generate features based on shapelets.(33) A shapelet is a subseries that is used to
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27 compare against each time-series. For a shapelet with length l and a time series T , the shapelet gives a
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29 feature value which is the minimum Euclidean distance between the shapelet and any subseries of T
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31 with length l . Efficient methods have been developed to find good shapelets, based on length estimation
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33 and optimized search.(34-36)

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40 We will also develop a novel deep learning method to extract more robust features from time-
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42 series. A leading method for feature selection from time series has been the shapelet method. However,
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44 we have shown that deep learning methods can significantly improve over shapelet. Deep learning
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46 methods, especially those using convolutional neural networks (CNNs),(37) have achieved great success
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48 in learning useful representations (features) from images.(38, 39) However, its uses in time-series
49
50 classification are very limited. We plan to apply CNNs to time-series data to generate good
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52 representations. We note that the convolutional layers in CNNs can be viewed as a collection of local
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54 filters over the input space; the filters' weights are learnt through back propagation. The filters in CNNs
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3 regulate the time series in different frequency bands, and the dot product operations in the CNNs
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5 measure distances between two subseries. Thus, CNNs can be viewed as a more general framework
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7 than shapelet learning which can adaptively find the suitable down-sampling rates and scales of the
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9 shapelets.
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13 Our preliminary work has shown that it is beneficial to use a large feature set: the modeling
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15 accuracy increases as more features are used and the top features in the final model include features
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17 from different categories.(23) With the above features, we will address overfitting. An overfit model
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19 will generally have poor predictive performance and interpretability. We will investigate three schemes
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21 to avoid over-fitting including: 1) using feature selection methods, such as forward feature selection
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23 based on F-score or area-under-curve score,(40) to find the most discriminative features; 2) adding
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25 regularization terms (such as L1,(41) L2,(42) Akaike information criterion, Bayesian information
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27 criterion,(43) minimum description length,(44) or a probabilistic prior) to the optimization objective; and
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29 3) using meta-techniques such as bootstrap aggregation (45) and exploratory undersampling (46) to
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31 further address overfitting and class imbalance.
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36 We plan to use bin-based kernel density estimation, another non-parametric technique, to
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38 process the input features in each dimension. In previously described DLR, we use the Nadaraya-
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40 Watson kernel density estimator for each data point in each dimension, which has time complexity of
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42 $O(mN^2)$ where m is the number of dimensions and N is the number of data points. Therefore, it is still
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44 slow for big datasets with a large N . Bin-based kernel density estimation differs from the Nadaraya-
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46 Watson kernel density estimator in that we divide each dimension into equal-sized bins and estimate
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48 the density for each bin instead of each data point. This will reduce the time into $O(mB^2)$ where $B \ll N$ is
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50 the number of bins. Note that instead of using a simple histogram count for each bin, we will use a
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52 Gaussian kernel function to smooth the density estimation across bins. The time complexity can be
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3 further reduced to $O(mB)$ using techniques such as Gauss transformation.(47) Such dramatic reduction
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5 of computing time will enable us to process large datasets and perform quick model-building. We will
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7 also combine the kernel density estimator-based features with other parametric models such as Cox
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9 regression.
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13 We will leverage a hierarchical optimization algorithm for training DLR,(17) which automatically
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15 learns free parameters in the model under a maximum likelihood framework. This optimization
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17 formulation not only learns the coefficients in the model, but also provides a way to automatically select
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19 the kernel bandwidth in the Nadaraya-Watson estimator or the bin size in the bin-based kernel density
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21 estimation, which is absent in previous work. We will also employ techniques including stochastic
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23 gradient descent (48) and its parallelized implementation (49) to further enhance the scalability of the
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25 training algorithm.
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29 Our algorithm will utilize group-based modeling. The idea is to first use a few key features to
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31 divide the patients into some major categories, and then train a separate classifier for each category.
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33 The intuition is that from clinical knowledge, we know that some different groups of patients have
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35 drastically different behaviors and should correspond to different statistical models. Mixing such vastly
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37 different groups together to train a single model may not give the best result. Therefore, it is
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39 instrumental to identify important sub-populations of patients, before we use sophisticated hybrid
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41 algorithms to accurately model the patients in each group. For a simple example, we can group the
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43 patients into a few age ranges, e.g., <45, 45-55, 56-65, etc. Although age can be used as a feature in a
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45 single classifier for all patients, such explicit division leads to multiple, more specific classifiers. It can be
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47 viewed as a hybrid algorithm combining a decision tree with other classifiers. We may also use metrics
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49 defined on multiple attributes to group the patients. Features that will be used as classifiers will include
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51 age, sex, and surgery type (cardiac versus non-cardiac). To systematically integrate such clinical
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3 knowledge into modeling, we plan to study hybrid models that are mixture of two or more classifiers.
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5 For example, we can construct a global decision tree whose nodes denote patient groups, where each
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7 group is modeled by a local classifier such as DLR. Different nodes may use different types of classifiers.
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10 Previous work on a similar idea has demonstrated improved performance (50) in an intensive care
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12 prognosis application.
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15 ***Data Analysis, Part 2 – Forecasting Algorithm Validation***

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18 After algorithm development, the forecasting algorithms will be tested for accuracy of their
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20 predictive performances in two ways. First, algorithm validity will be tested within the historical
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22 database by dividing the database into training, validation, and testing datasets. Second, the
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24 performance of the developed algorithms will be additionally validated prospectively (out-of-sample
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26 performance), using precision and recall.
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31 For initial model training and validation, the historical database will be divided into a training
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33 dataset (60% of the database), a validation dataset (20% of the database), and a testing dataset (20% of
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35 the database). Because we expect that our target outcomes will be relatively rare events, overall
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37 classification accuracy is not likely to be a useful measure of model performance. Instead, we will use
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39 precision (true positives/[true positives + false positives]) and recall (true positives/[true positives + false
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41 negatives]). We will optimize model parameters using the training dataset. Then we will pre-specify our
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43 desired recall and use the validation dataset to select the decision threshold that leads to the highest
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45 precision without sacrificing our desired recall. Then we will apply our model to the testing dataset and
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47 report the observed precision and recall.
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52 Additionally, we propose to perform a validation test of the predictive performance of the
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54 developed algorithms prospectively, using patient records that did not belong to the learning database.
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For this evaluation, we will apply our model to the prospectively-collected data. We will report the observed precision and recall as measures of model performance.

Prespecified Secondary Analyses

In addition to the primary algorithms described above (in-hospital mortality, postoperative acute kidney injury, and postoperative respiratory failure), we anticipate using the acquired data to develop prediction algorithms for additional outcomes. These outcomes are outlined in Table 1.

Table 1. Prespecified Secondary Outcomes

Data Source	Outcome
Sunrise Clinical Manager	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Thirty-day hospital readmission - Intensive care unit admission - Postoperative delirium
National Surgical Quality Improvement Program (NSQIP) database	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Thirty-day mortality - Thirty-day hospital readmission - Unplanned intubation - Postoperative sepsis - Postoperative myocardial infarction - Postoperative cerebrovascular accident - Postoperative pulmonary embolism - Postoperative deep vein thrombosis - Postoperative cardiac arrest requiring cardiopulmonary resuscitation
Society of Thoracic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Thirty-day mortality

Surgeons database	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Thirty-day hospital readmission - Postoperative atrial fibrillation - Postoperative venous thromboembolism - Postoperative acute respiratory distress syndrome
SATISFY-SOS registry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Patient-reported thirty-day readmission - Patient-reported postoperative myocardial infarction - Patient-reported postoperative cardiac arrest - Patient-reported postoperative heart failure - Patient-reported postoperative cerebrovascular accident - Patient-reported postoperative venous thromboembolism - Patient-reported postoperative respiratory arrest - Patient-reported postoperative pneumonia - Patient-reported severe postoperative pain lasting greater than one day - Patient-reported severe postoperative nausea and vomiting lasting greater than one day - Return to work 30 days after surgery - Quality of life 30 days after surgery - Ability to perform activities of daily living 30 days after surgery

DISCUSSION

Implications and Future Directions

We anticipate that the successful development of machine learning-based algorithms for predicting adverse postoperative outcomes will impact the perioperative care of surgical patients in important ways. Because our algorithms will utilize time-series data, we expect to be able to use them in real time to provide perioperative health care clinicians with dynamic predictions of their patients' risks for specific adverse outcomes. Because the features in our models will include modifiable risk factors such as blood pressure and concentrations of anesthetic agents, we believe clinicians will be able to make changes that may alter their patients' risk trajectories. The models may also help clinicians make decisions regarding their patients' postoperative disposition (intensive care unit versus hospital ward; inpatient admission versus discharge). To be feasible and efficient, we suggest that the forecasting algorithms could be incorporated into a telemedicine paradigm, such as an anesthesiology control tower for a perioperative suite. Once the forecasting algorithms are developed, we intend to conduct a randomized controlled trial to investigate whether implementation of the algorithms in the operating rooms leads to a reduction in the incidence of adverse postoperative outcomes. The incorporation of machine-learning forecasting algorithms into perioperative care will complement the expertise of clinicians, and has the potential to increase both safety and efficiency.

Strengths and Limitations

One of the greatest strengths of this project is the novel use of machine learning techniques to harness the abundant data in the perioperative electronic medical record. Unlike traditional risk prediction models, which utilize data from a single time point and therefore incorporate only a small fraction of the available information about the patient, our algorithms will take advantage of the rich time-series data generated in the operating rooms and, more broadly, in perioperative settings (e.g.,

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3 preoperative assessment clinic, postoperative recovery area). Another strength is the efficiency of the
4 proposed modeling techniques, which will need to quickly process large amounts of data. The use of
5 group-based learning will increase the accuracy of the derived models by separating groups of patients
6 who likely have different relationships between underlying features and the predicted outcomes.
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13 This project does have limitations that should be noted. Because the forecasting algorithms will
14 utilize large quantities of data, generalizability of the results and implementation of the algorithms at
15 other health care facilities will depend upon the availability of high-quality input data. In particular, the
16 preoperative evaluation and medical history may not be documented in an electronic format with
17 discrete analyzable fields at some other institutions. Even when such data are available, differences in
18 formatting will require caution during implementation at other hospitals.
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27 ***Ethics and Dissemination***

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30 This study has been approved by the Human Research Protection Office at Washington
31 University in St. Louis. As noted earlier in this document, a waiver of informed consent has been
32 granted for all participants. This work will be funded largely by a grant from the National Science
33 Foundation (award number 1622678) and from a grant from the Agency for Healthcare Research and
34 Quality (R21 HS24581-01).
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42 Once this investigation has been completed, we intend to publish the results in a peer-reviewed
43 publication. We also intend to present the results of this work at professional conferences for both the
44 anesthesiology and computer science communities. In accordance with the recent proposal from the
45 International Committee of Medical Journal Editors, patient-level data will be made available within six
46 months after publication of the primary manuscript.⁽⁵¹⁾ Data will be provided to researchers who
47 submit a methodologically sound research proposal including a protocol and statistical analysis plan. No
48 patient-identifying fields (including dates) will be included in the shared dataset. Age will be provided in
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3 years, unless the patient is older than 89 years. In this case, age will be reported as ">89 years." Any
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5 dates will be presented as "number of days since index surgery."
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AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

Bradley A Fritz, MD, contributed to overall study design, initial draft of protocol, and critical revision of protocol.

Yixin Chen, PhD, contributed to development of methods for creation of forecasting algorithms

Teresa M Murray-Torres, MD, contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Stephen Gregory, MD, contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Arbi Ben Abdallah, PhD, contributed to statistical methods for validation of forecasting algorithms and to critical revision of protocol

Alex Kronzer contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Sherry McKinnon contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Thaddeus Budelier contributed to critical revision of protocol

Daniel L Helsten, MD, contributed to critical revision of protocol

Troy S Wildes, MD, contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Anshuman Sharma, MD, contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Michael S Avidan, MBBCh, contributed to overall study design and critical revision of protocol

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2
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7
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9

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11 **COMPETING INTERESTS STATEMENT**
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13

14 All authors have completed the ICMJE uniform disclosure form at www.icmje.org/coi_disclosure.pdf
15 and declare: all authors had financial support from the National Science Foundation and the Agency
16 for Healthcare Research and Quality for the submitted work; no financial relationships with any
17 organisations that might have an interest in the submitted work in the previous three years; no other
18 relationships or activities that could appear to have influenced the submitted work."
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BMJ Open

Protocol for a Retrospective Study Using Machine Learning Techniques to Develop Forecasting Algorithms for Postoperative Complications: The ACTFAST-2 Study

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Complete List of Authors:	Fritz, Bradley; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology Chen, Yixin; Washington University in Saint Louis, Computer Science and Engineering Murray-Torres, Teresa; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology Gregory, SH; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology Ben Abdallah, Arbi; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology Kronzer, Alex; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology McKinnon, Sherry; Washington University School of Medicine, Anesthesiology Budelier, Thaddeus; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology Helsten, Daniel; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology Wildes, Troy; Washington University in Saint Louis School of Medicine, Anesthesiology Sharma, Anshuman; Washington University School of Medicine in St. Louis, Anesthesiology Avidan, Michael; Washington University School of Medicine, Anesthesiology
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3 **Protocol for a Retrospective Study Using Machine Learning Techniques to Develop Forecasting**

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5 **Algorithms for Postoperative Complications: The ACTFAST-2 Study**

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11 Bradley A Fritz, MD, Resident Physician¹

12
13
14 Yixin Chen, PhD, Professor²

15
16
17 Teresa M Murray-Torres, MD, Resident Physician¹

18
19
20 Stephen Gregory, MD, Instructor¹

21
22
23 Arbi Ben Abdallah, PhD, Assistant Professor¹

24
25
26 Alex Kronzer, Database Analyst¹

27
28
29 Sherry McKinnon, Project Manager¹

30
31
32 Thaddeus Budelier, Research Coordinator¹

33
34
35 Daniel L Helsten, MD, Associate Professor¹

36
37
38 Troy S Wildes, MD, Associate Professor¹

39
40
41 Anshuman Sharma, MD, Professor¹

42
43
44 Michael S Avidan, MBBCh, Professor¹

45
46
47
48
49
50
51 1 – Department of Anesthesiology, Washington University in St. Louis, St. Louis, MO, USA

1
2
3 2 – Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Washington University in St. Louis, St. Louis, MO,
4
5 USA
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9
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11 Corresponding Author: Bradley Fritz
12
13

14 1 Barnes Jewish Hospital Plaza
15
16

17 St. Louis, MO, 63108
18
19

20 (314) 747-4155
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23 bafritz@wustl.edu
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ABSTRACT

Introduction – Mortality and morbidity following surgery are pressing public health concerns in the United States. Traditional prediction models for postoperative adverse outcomes demonstrate good discrimination at the population level, but the ability to forecast an individual patient’s trajectory in real time remains poor. We propose to apply machine-learning techniques to perioperative time-series data to develop algorithms for predicting adverse perioperative outcomes.

Methods and Analysis – This study will include all adult patients who had surgery at our tertiary care hospital over a four-year period. Patient history, laboratory values, minute-by-minute intraoperative vital signs, and medications administered will be extracted from the electronic medical record. Outcomes will include in-hospital mortality, postoperative acute kidney injury, and postoperative respiratory failure. Forecasting algorithms for each of these outcomes will be constructed using density-based logistic regression after employing a Nadaraya-Watson kernel density estimator. Time-series variables will be analyzed using first- and second-order feature extraction, shapelet methods, and convolutional neural networks. The algorithms will be validated through measurement of precision and recall.

Ethics and Dissemination – This study has been approved by the Human Research Protection Office at Washington University in St. Louis. The successful development of these forecasting algorithms will allow perioperative health care clinicians to predict more accurately an individual patient’s risk for specific adverse perioperative outcomes in real time. Knowledge of a patient’s dynamic risk profile may allow clinicians to make targeted changes in the care plan that will alter the patient’s outcome trajectory. This hypothesis will be tested in a future randomized controlled trial.

STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

- Will utilize modeling techniques that take advantage of the rich time-series data that are available, rather than data from a single time point
- Will utilize efficient modeling techniques that can process large amounts of data quickly
- Will utilize group-based learning to increase model accuracy by separating groups of patients who likely have different relationship between underlying features and predicted outcomes
- Dissemination to other health care facilities may be limited by the availability of high-quality preoperative and intraoperative input data in a usable format

INTRODUCTION

An estimated 40 million people undergo surgery every year in the United States. Postoperative mortality rate at one year for surgical inpatients is between 5 and 10 percent,(1, 2) and an estimated 10 percent of surgical patients suffer major in-hospital morbidity.(3-8) Perioperative morbidity and mortality are therefore pressing public health concerns. Many patient characteristics, including comorbid medical conditions, associate strongly and independently with perioperative mortality and major morbidity.(1, 2, 9-11) While many of these characteristics are not modifiable, some perioperative risk factors, such as intraoperative blood pressures and anesthetic concentrations,(1, 2, 9, 10) can be modified in real time. Although the association between perioperative variables and postoperative outcomes has been well established at the population level using approaches such as standard logistic regression, (1, 2, 9, 10, 12) the ability to utilize deviations in physiological parameters in real time to dynamically forecast the trajectory of each individual patient remains poor.

There is a gap in the field with an opportunity to assess the potential utility of machine learning-based forecasting algorithms to anticipate adverse perioperative outcomes, guide interventions, and improve overall quality of care. Standard forecasting models, such as logistic regression, linear regression, and other statistical modeling procedures, have long been used to identify and prioritize risk factors for adverse outcomes. Although most of these statistical techniques have been shown to have moderate predictive values, they are limited in their prognostic ability and practical use.(1, 2, 6, 9, 10) In contrast to standard forecasting models, we have demonstrated machine learning and data mining approaches for patients on intensive care units that generate markedly superior prediction for outcomes such as mortality.(13) Our methods differ from standard statistical techniques in their ability to effectively incorporate time-series data. Most standard modeling techniques for surgical patients are based on a snapshot scheme, which only considers the data values at a given moment. They are not

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3 competent in extracting features from time-series data, especially in real-time fashion, such as temporal
4 trends and shapes. Therefore, the objective of this study is to utilize machine-learning techniques to
5 build forecasting algorithms that use patient characteristics and high-fidelity intraoperative time-series
6 data to predict adverse perioperative outcomes.
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METHODS AND ANALYSIS

Study Design

Our central hypothesis is that with sufficient knowledge of patient characteristics coupled with repeated, high-fidelity time series data from the perioperative electronic medical record, advanced models can be constructed for individual patients that will forecast adverse perioperative outcomes. To test this hypothesis, we will conduct an observational cohort study of adult patients who undergo surgery at Barnes-Jewish Hospital in St. Louis, Missouri. First, we plan to develop forecasting algorithms for specific adverse perioperative outcomes using historical data. Next, we plan to validate these algorithms by determining whether they can be used to reliably forecast individual adverse perioperative outcomes.

Patient Population and Sample Size

This study will include all adult patients who had surgery in the 48 operating rooms at Barnes-Jewish Hospital in St. Louis, Missouri between June 1, 2012 and August 31, 2016. Patients who receive anesthesia care in areas outside the main operating rooms, such as the obstetric suite or the outpatient surgery suite, will not be included. Barnes-Jewish Hospital is a 1,252-bed academic university-affiliated adult tertiary care hospital, performing approximately 19,000 surgeries a year. We therefore anticipate that gathering data from a 4.25-year period will lead to a total sample size of approximately 80,000-81,000 surgeries for algorithm development and validation.

The Human Research Protection Office at Washington University in St. Louis has granted a waiver of informed consent for all subjects enrolled in this study. This study has been determined to involve no more than minimal risk to participants, as no additional data will be collected beyond that already contained in the electronic record. For the same reason, the waiver of consent will not adversely

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3 affect the participants' rights and welfare. It is impracticable to conduct this research without a waiver
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5 of consent because 100% participation from the patients is imperative to obtain scientifically sound
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7 data.
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10 **Data Acquisition**

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14 For this project, we will use a variety of electronic medical record sources to cover the entire
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16 perioperative period. Much of the relevant information will be imported from MetaVision®(iMDsoft,
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18 Wakefield, MA), an anesthesiology information management software system that is the perioperative
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20 electronic clinical documentation system currently utilized by the Department of Anesthesiology.
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22 MetaVision® captures comprehensive clinical data beginning with the preoperative assessment and
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24 continuing throughout the duration of the perioperative period. Information captured preoperatively
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26 includes patients' past medical and surgical histories, chronic medical issues, medications used, and
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28 functional capacity. Intraoperatively, minute-by-minute vital signs are captured, in addition to fluid
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30 balances, ventilator parameters, and anesthetic medications administered. Blood pressure
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32 measurements are available at intervals ranging from once per minute to once every five minutes, while
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34 other vital signs are captured once per minute. Thus, a three-hour procedure would have about 180
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36 measurements for each vital sign. All data fields are alphanumeric and are captured in a uniform and
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38 granular manner allowing for easy coding and data analysis. Reports from MetaVision® are commonly
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40 used to support many patient safety and quality improvement initiatives in addition to numerous
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42 research studies.
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48 Postoperative outcome data will be obtained from Sunrise Clinical Manager (Allscripts, Chicago,
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50 IL), the electronic medical record currently used for inpatient care at Barnes-Jewish Hospital. Data will
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52 also be obtained from several registries, including the Systematic Assessment and Targeted
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54 Improvement of Services Following Yearlong Surgical Outcomes Surveys (SATISFY-SOS) patient-reported
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3 outcomes registry (NCT02032030), the National Surgical Quality Improvement Program (NSQIP)
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5 database, the Society of Thoracic Surgeons (STS) database. Preoperative and postoperative laboratory
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7 values will be obtained from the Center for Biomedical Informatics at Washington University, which
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9 hosts the data repository where these data are stored once they are processed by the laboratory. In
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11 general, a preoperative complete blood count is available if the patient is undergoing major surgery with
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13 potential significant blood loss or if other clinical reasons are present. Electrolytes and renal function
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15 are available if there is clinical reason to suspect an abnormality (including, but not limited to, patients
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17 with hypertension, diabetes mellitus, or chronic kidney disease). Additional tests, such as hepatic
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19 function and coagulation studies, are available on smaller sets of patients in whom the tests are
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21 clinically indicated. A data dictionary has been included as supplementary files (Data Dictionary v4 Tab1,
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23 Tab2, Tab3, and Tab4) detailing all the data elements that will be captured for this study.
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29 The specific outcomes that will be predicted by the forecasting algorithms will include in-
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31 hospital mortality, postoperative acute kidney injury, and postoperative respiratory failure. In-hospital
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33 mortality will be ascertained from Sunrise Clinical Manager. Postoperative acute renal failure will be
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35 defined according to the KDIGO criteria(14): an increase in serum creatinine of 0.3 mg/dL, increase in
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37 serum creatinine to 1.5 times the baseline value, or initiation of renal replacement therapy within 48
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39 hours of surgery end time. Patients receiving renal replacement therapy prior to surgery, patients with
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41 no baseline creatinine available within 30 days prior to surgery, and patients undergoing kidney
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43 transplant or dialysis access procedures will be excluded from analysis of this outcome. Postoperative
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45 respiratory failure will be defined as mechanical ventilation for greater than 48 hours or unplanned
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47 postoperative intubation within 48 hours. These events will be extracted from clinical documentation
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49 recorded by respiratory therapists in Sunrise Clinical Manager. Patients receiving mechanical ventilation
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51 prior to surgery will be excluded from analysis of this outcome.
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Data Analysis, Part 1 – Forecasting Algorithm Development

We will develop hybrid learning techniques to combine the strength of generative models such as histogram and kernel density estimation and discriminative models such as support vector machines, logistic regressions, and kernel machines to improve predictions of adverse perioperative outcomes (in-hospital mortality, postoperative acute renal failure, postoperative respiratory failure). The goal is to deliver superior prediction quality with good interpretability and high computational efficiency that supports fast processing of big data. Based on our preliminary work using density-based logistic regression (DLR) to develop an early clinical deterioration warning system for patients in the general wards of Barnes-Jewish Hospital,(15, 16) we propose to develop novel hybrid data mining/machine learning algorithms that exploit both non-parametric and parametric techniques. For each target outcome, we plan to develop a model that will predict the likelihood of the postoperative outcome in real time using preoperative features and time-series data from the preceding 60 minutes.

DLR first applies a Nadaraya-Watson kernel density estimator, a non-parametric transformation, on the input data to extract features that conform best to the true distribution of data, and then applies the parametric logistic regression model on the transformed features. The resulting model exhibits five desirable properties: nonlinear separation ability, high efficiency, good interpretability, ability to handle mixed data types including numerical and categorical ones, and support for multi-way classification. Our previous results using Barnes-Jewish Hospital clinical data showed that DLR achieves better classification accuracy than state-of-the-art nonlinear classifiers such as support vector machines and kernel logistic regression but is also much more efficient than nonlinear models.(17) In fact, DLR has the same asymptotic complexity as linear classifiers and can scale up to very large datasets in practice.(17)

To analyze the collected time-series data, we need to extract features that capture temporal patterns, such as a rapid temperature increases or abnormal heart rate fluctuations. To make

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3 predictions at a given point in time, time-series values from the preceding 60 minutes will be used.
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5 Missing values will be handled using linear interpolation. We will first extract a large pool of time-series
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7 features including: first-order features such as variance, skewness, and kurtosis, and second-order
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9 features such as energy, entropy, correlation, inertia, and local homogeneity.(18, 19) The second-order
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11 features are known to be robust under noises.(20, 21) Self-similarity is widely observed in human
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13 physiological signs. Detrended fluctuation analysis (22) measures the degree of self-similarity in time
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15 series and has been applied to analyze heartbeat and oxygen levels.(23) Approximate entropy measures
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17 the degree of unpredictability in a time series.(24) Spectral analysis has also been used to analyze
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19 clinical time-series.(22) We will also consider cross-sign features including correlation,(25)
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21 coherence,(25) lagged regression, nonlinear regression,(19) and the synchronization index.(26) We will
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23 also extract features based on the bag-of-patterns approach(27-29) and autocorrelation.(30-32) In
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25 addition, we will also generate features based on shapelets.(33) A shapelet is a subseries that is used to
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27 compare against each time-series. For a shapelet with length l and a time series T , the shapelet gives a
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29 feature value which is the minimum Euclidean distance between the shapelet and any subseries of T
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31 with length l . Efficient methods have been developed to find good shapelets, based on length estimation
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33 and optimized search.(34-36)

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40 We will also develop a novel deep learning method to extract more robust features from time-
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42 series. A leading method for feature selection from time series has been the shapelet method. However,
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44 we have shown that deep learning methods can significantly improve over shapelet. Deep learning
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46 methods, especially those using convolutional neural networks (CNNs),(37) have achieved great success
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48 in learning useful representations (features) from images.(38, 39) However, its uses in time-series
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50 classification are very limited. We plan to apply CNNs to time-series data to generate good
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52 representations. We note that the convolutional layers in CNNs can be viewed as a collection of local
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54 filters over the input space; the filters' weights are learnt through back propagation. The filters in CNNs
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3 regulate the time series in different frequency bands, and the dot product operations in the CNNs
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5 measure distances between two subseries. Thus, CNNs can be viewed as a more general framework
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7 than shapelet learning which can adaptively find the suitable down-sampling rates and scales of the
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9 shapelets.
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13 Our preliminary work has shown that it is beneficial to use a large feature set: the modeling
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15 accuracy increases as more features are used and the top features in the final model include features
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17 from different categories.(23) With the above features, we will address overfitting. An overfit model
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19 will generally have poor predictive performance and interpretability. We will investigate three schemes
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21 to avoid over-fitting including: 1) using feature selection methods, such as forward feature selection
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23 based on F-score or area-under-curve score,(40) to find the most discriminative features; 2) adding
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25 regularization terms (such as L1,(41) L2,(42) Akaike information criterion, Bayesian information
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27 criterion,(43) minimum description length,(44) or a probabilistic prior) to the optimization objective; and
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29 3) using meta-techniques such as bootstrap aggregation (45) and exploratory undersampling (46) to
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31 further address overfitting and class imbalance.
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36 We plan to use bin-based kernel density estimation, another non-parametric technique, to
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38 process the input features in each dimension. In previously described DLR, we use the Nadaraya-
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40 Watson kernel density estimator for each data point in each dimension, which has time complexity of
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42 $O(mN^2)$ where m is the number of dimensions and N is the number of data points. Therefore, it is still
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44 slow for big datasets with a large N . Bin-based kernel density estimation differs from the Nadaraya-
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46 Watson kernel density estimator in that we divide each dimension into equal-sized bins and estimate
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48 the density for each bin instead of each data point. This will reduce the time into $O(mB^2)$ where $B \ll N$ is
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50 the number of bins. Note that instead of using a simple histogram count for each bin, we will use a
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52 Gaussian kernel function to smooth the density estimation across bins. The time complexity can be
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3 further reduced to $O(mB)$ using techniques such as Gauss transformation.(47) Such dramatic reduction
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5 of computing time will enable us to process large datasets and perform quick model-building. We will
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7 also combine the kernel density estimator-based features with other parametric models such as Cox
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9 regression.
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13 We will leverage a hierarchical optimization algorithm for training DLR,(17) which automatically
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15 learns free parameters in the model under a maximum likelihood framework. This optimization
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17 formulation not only learns the coefficients in the model, but also provides a way to automatically select
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19 the kernel bandwidth in the Nadaraya-Watson estimator or the bin size in the bin-based kernel density
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21 estimation, which is absent in previous work. We will also employ techniques including stochastic
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23 gradient descent (48) and its parallelized implementation (49) to further enhance the scalability of the
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25 training algorithm.
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29 Our algorithm will utilize group-based modeling. The idea is to first use a few key features to
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31 divide the patients into some major categories, and then train a separate classifier for each category.
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33 The intuition is that from clinical knowledge, we know that some different groups of patients have
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35 drastically different behaviors and should correspond to different statistical models. Mixing such vastly
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37 different groups together to train a single model may not give the best result. Therefore, it is
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39 instrumental to identify important sub-populations of patients, before we use sophisticated hybrid
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41 algorithms to accurately model the patients in each group. For a simple example, we can group the
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43 patients into a few age ranges, e.g., <45, 45-55, 56-65, etc. Although age can be used as a feature in a
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45 single classifier for all patients, such explicit division leads to multiple, more specific classifiers. It can be
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47 viewed as a hybrid algorithm combining a decision tree with other classifiers. We may also use metrics
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49 defined on multiple attributes to group the patients. Features that will be used as classifiers will include
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51 age, sex, and surgery type (cardiac versus non-cardiac). To systematically integrate such clinical
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3 knowledge into modeling, we plan to study hybrid models that are mixture of two or more classifiers.
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5 For example, we can construct a global decision tree whose nodes denote patient groups, where each
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7 group is modeled by a local classifier such as DLR. Different nodes may use different types of classifiers.
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10 Previous work on a similar idea has demonstrated improved performance (50) in an intensive care
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12 prognosis application.
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14 15 ***Data Analysis, Part 2 – Forecasting Algorithm Validation*** 16

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18 After algorithm development, the forecasting algorithms will be tested for accuracy of their
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20 predictive performances in two ways. First, algorithm validity will be tested within the historical
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22 database by dividing the database into training, validation, and testing datasets. Second, the
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24 performance of the developed algorithms will be additionally validated prospectively (out-of-sample
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26 performance), using precision and recall.
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30 For initial model training and validation, the historical database will be divided into a training
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32 dataset (60% of the database), a validation dataset (20% of the database), and a testing dataset (20% of
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34 the database). Each training, validation, or testing example will be a 60-minute epoch randomly
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36 selected from a single surgery. More than one epoch from the same surgery may be included if the
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38 surgery lasted long enough to generate more than one distinct 60-minute epoch. However, all epochs
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40 from the same surgery will be included either all in the training dataset, all in the validation dataset, or
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42 all in the testing dataset. Because we expect that our target outcomes will be relatively rare events,
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44 overall classification accuracy is not likely to be a useful measure of model performance. Instead, we
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46 will use precision (true positives/[true positives + false positives]) and recall (true positives/[true
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48 positives + false negatives]). We will optimize model parameters using the training dataset. Then we
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50 will pre-specify our desired recall and use the validation dataset to select the decision threshold that
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52 leads to the highest precision without sacrificing our desired recall. Then we will apply our model to the
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3 testing dataset and report the observed precision and recall. The overall flow of algorithm training and
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5 validation is outlined in Figure 1.
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9 Additionally, we propose to perform a validation test of the predictive performance of the
10 developed algorithms prospectively, using patient records that did not belong to the learning database.
11 For this evaluation, we will apply our model to the prospectively-collected data. We will report the
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13 observed precision and recall as measures of model performance.
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18 ***Prespecified Secondary Analyses***

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21 In addition to the primary algorithms described above (in-hospital mortality, postoperative
22 acute kidney injury, and postoperative respiratory failure), we anticipate using the acquired data to
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24 develop prediction algorithms for additional outcomes. These outcomes are outlined in Table 1.
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29 **Table 1. Prespecified Secondary Outcomes**

Data Source	Outcome
Sunrise Clinical Manager	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Thirty-day hospital readmission - Intensive care unit admission - Postoperative delirium
National Surgical Quality Improvement Program (NSQIP) database	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Thirty-day mortality - Thirty-day hospital readmission - Unplanned intubation - Postoperative sepsis - Postoperative myocardial infarction - Postoperative cerebrovascular accident

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Postoperative pulmonary embolism - Postoperative deep vein thrombosis - Postoperative cardiac arrest requiring cardiopulmonary resuscitation
<p>Society of Thoracic Surgeons database</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Thirty-day mortality - Thirty-day hospital readmission - Postoperative atrial fibrillation - Postoperative venous thromboembolism - Postoperative acute respiratory distress syndrome
<p>SATISFY-SOS registry</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Patient-reported thirty-day readmission - Patient-reported postoperative myocardial infarction - Patient-reported postoperative cardiac arrest - Patient-reported postoperative heart failure - Patient-reported postoperative cerebrovascular accident - Patient-reported postoperative venous thromboembolism - Patient-reported postoperative respiratory arrest - Patient-reported postoperative pneumonia - Patient-reported severe postoperative pain lasting greater than one day - Patient-reported severe postoperative nausea and vomiting lasting greater than one day - Return to work 30 days after surgery - Quality of life 30 days after surgery - Ability to perform activities of daily living 30 days after surgery

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DISCUSSION

Implications and Future Directions

We anticipate that the successful development of machine learning-based algorithms for predicting adverse postoperative outcomes will impact the perioperative care of surgical patients in important ways. Because our algorithms will utilize time-series data, we expect to be able to use them in real time to provide perioperative health care clinicians with dynamic predictions of their patients' risks for specific adverse outcomes. Because the features in our models will include modifiable risk factors such as blood pressure and concentrations of anesthetic agents, we believe clinicians will be able to make changes that may alter their patients' risk trajectories. The models may also help clinicians make decisions regarding their patients' postoperative disposition (intensive care unit versus hospital ward; inpatient admission versus discharge). To be feasible and efficient, we suggest that the forecasting algorithms could be incorporated into a telemedicine paradigm, such as an anesthesiology control tower for a perioperative suite. Once the forecasting algorithms are developed, we intend to conduct a randomized controlled trial to investigate whether implementation of the algorithms in the operating rooms leads to a reduction in the incidence of adverse postoperative outcomes. The incorporation of machine-learning forecasting algorithms into perioperative care will complement the expertise of clinicians, and has the potential to increase both safety and efficiency.

Strengths and Limitations

One of the greatest strengths of this project is the novel use of machine learning techniques to harness the abundant data in the perioperative electronic medical record. Unlike traditional risk prediction models, which utilize data from a single time point and therefore incorporate only a small fraction of the available information about the patient, our algorithms will take advantage of the rich time-series data generated in the operating rooms and, more broadly, in perioperative settings (e.g.,

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3 preoperative assessment clinic, postoperative recovery area). Another strength is the efficiency of the
4 proposed modeling techniques, which will need to quickly process large amounts of data. The use of
5 group-based learning will increase the accuracy of the derived models by separating groups of patients
6 who likely have different relationships between underlying features and the predicted outcomes.
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13 This project does have limitations that should be noted. Because the forecasting algorithms will
14 utilize large quantities of data, generalizability of the results and implementation of the algorithms at
15 other health care facilities will depend upon the availability of high-quality input data. In particular, the
16 preoperative evaluation and medical history may not be documented in an electronic format with
17 discrete analyzable fields at some other institutions. Even when such data are available, differences in
18 formatting will require caution during implementation at other hospitals.
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27 ***Ethics and Dissemination***

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30 This study has been approved by the Human Research Protection Office at Washington
31 University in St. Louis. As noted earlier in this document, a waiver of informed consent has been
32 granted for all participants. This work will be funded largely by a grant from the National Science
33 Foundation (award number 1622678) and from a grant from the Agency for Healthcare Research and
34 Quality (R21 HS24581-01).
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42 Once this investigation has been completed, we intend to publish the results in a peer-reviewed
43 publication. We also intend to present the results of this work at professional conferences for both the
44 anesthesiology and computer science communities. In accordance with the recent proposal from the
45 International Committee of Medical Journal Editors, patient-level data will be made available within six
46 months after publication of the primary manuscript.⁽⁵¹⁾ Data will be provided to researchers who
47 submit a methodologically sound research proposal including a protocol and statistical analysis plan. No
48 patient-identifying fields (including dates) will be included in the shared dataset. Age will be provided in
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3 years, unless the patient is older than 89 years. In this case, age will be reported as ">89 years." Any
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5 dates will be presented as "number of days since index surgery."
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3 **FIGURE LEGEND**
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6 **Figure 1.** Data flow for algorithm training and validation using the historical database.
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AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

Bradley A Fritz, MD, contributed to overall study design, initial draft of protocol, and critical revision of protocol.

Yixin Chen, PhD, contributed to development of methods for creation of forecasting algorithms

Teresa M Murray-Torres, MD, contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Stephen Gregory, MD, contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Arbi Ben Abdallah, PhD, contributed to statistical methods for validation of forecasting algorithms and to critical revision of protocol

Alex Kronzer contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Sherry McKinnon contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Thaddeus Budelier contributed to critical revision of protocol

Daniel L Helsten, MD, contributed to critical revision of protocol

Troy S Wildes, MD, contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Anshuman Sharma, MD, contributed to study design and critical revision of protocol

Michael S Avidan, MBBCh, contributed to overall study design and critical revision of protocol

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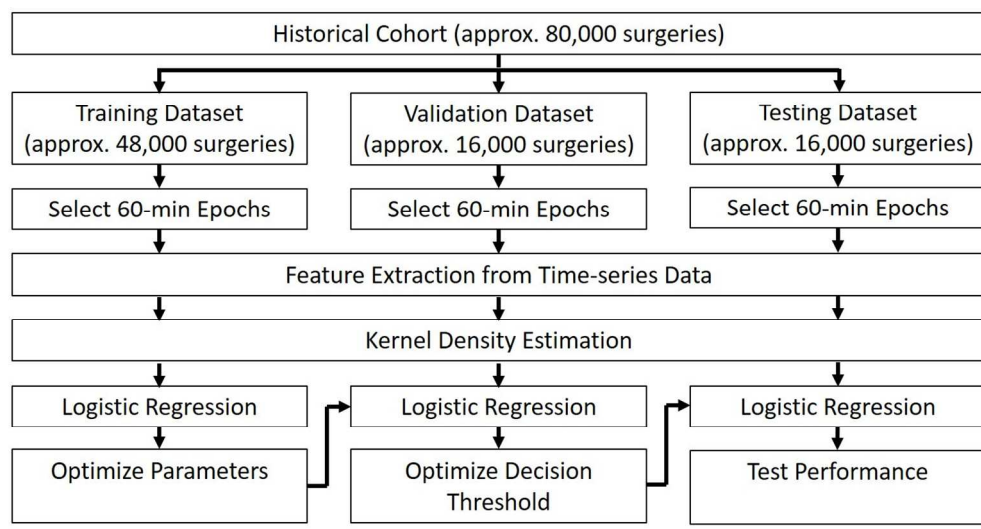


Figure 1. Data flow for algorithm training and validation using the historical database.

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Field	Output	Description
PatientID		Identifier
Surg_Type		Text field
Anesthesia_Type		1 General
		2 Block
		3 MAC
		4 Spinal
		5 Epidural
		6 CSE
		8 Cancelled Procedure
		9 Cancelled Procedure after selected anesthesia type(s)
		10 converted to General
SEX		1 Male
		2 Female
		3 Unknown
RACE		5 Unknown
		6 Hispanic
		7 Black American
		8 Other
		9 White
		10 American Indian
		11 Asian
		12 American Indian or Alaska Native
		13 Black or African American
		14 Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
		15 Some other Race
HEIGHT	Continuous	CM
WEIGHT	Continuous	KG
Ideal_Body_Weight	Continuous	Ideal weight at designated height, sex, etc.
BMI	Continuous	Body Mass Index
CCI	Integer score 0-41	Charlson Comorbidity Index
FUNCTIONAL_CAPACITY		5 -
		6 >10 METs
		7 6-10 METs

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- 8 4-6 METS
- 9 <4 METS
- 10 Ambulates with assistance only
- 11 Cannot assess
- 1 1
- 2 2
- 3 3
- 4 4
- 5 5
- 6 1E
- 7 2E
- 8 3E
- 9 4E
- 10 5E
- 11 6
- 1 Patient has hypertension
- 1 Patient has coronary artery disease
- 1 Patient has previous Myocardial Infarction
- 1 Patient has congestive heart failure
- 20 normal
- 21 stage I - Impaired relaxation
- 22 stage II - Pseudonormal
- 23 stage III - Restrictive
- 24 unknown/unspecified
- 25 --
- 26 unspecified dysfunction
- 30 unknown
- 31 >70%
- 32 60-70%
- 33 50-60%
- 34 40-50%
- 35 30-40%
- 36 20-30%
- 37 10-20%

ASA

HTN

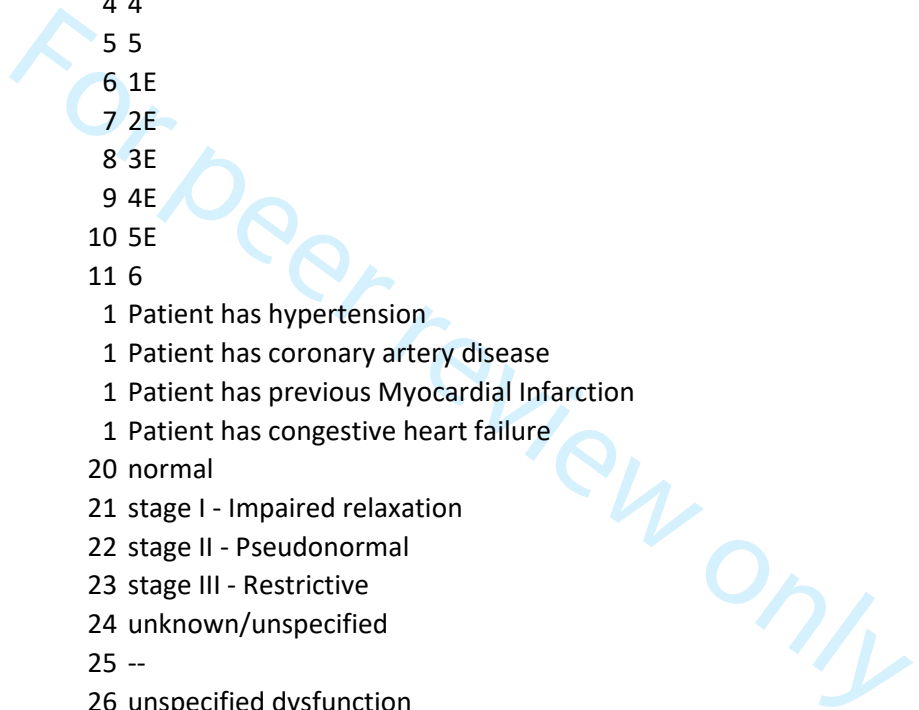
CAD

CAD_PRIORMI

CHF

CHF_Diastolic_Function

LVEF



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2		38 <10%
3		39 unspecified normal
4		40 unspecified mildly reduced
5		41 unspecified moderately reduced
6		42 unspecified severely reduced
7		43 --
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9	VALVULAR_DISEASE	61 Mild
10		62 Mild-moderate
11		63 Moderate
12		64 Moderate-Severe
13		65 Severe
14		66 Unknown/unspecified
15		67 --
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17	AFIB	4 permanent (AF episode greater than 1 year)
18		5 first/one detected episode (less than 7 day duration)
19		6 paroxysmal (multiple episodes <7 days)
20		7 persistent (one or more episodes >7 days)
21		8 unknown
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25	PPM_ICD	1 Patient has pacemaker
26	CV_TIA_STROKE	1 Patient has had a stroke
27	PAD	1 Patient has peripheral artery disease
28	DVT	1 Patient has had deep vein thrombosis
29	PE	1 Patient has had a pulmonary embolism
30	DM	1 Patient has Diabetes
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32	Outpatient_Insulin	103 none
33		104 previous
34		105 current
35		106 insulin pump
36		107 --
37		
38	CKD	1 Patient has chronic kidney disease
39	Dialysis_History	90 ongoing peritoneal dialysis
40		95 never
41		96 ongoing hemodialysis
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2			97 past dialysis
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4	PHTN		1 Patient has pulmonary hypertension
5	COPD		1 Patient has chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
6	ASTHMA		1 Patient has asthma
7	OSA		1 Patient has sleep apnea
8	StopBang_Total	continuous	Higher score is worse
9	StopBang_Observed		1 Yes
10			2 No
11			3 Don't know
12	StopBang_Pressure		1 Yes
13			2 No
14			3 Don't know
15	StopBang_Snore		1 Yes
16			2 No
17			3 Don't know
18	StopBang_Tired		1 Yes
19			2 No
20			3 Don't know
21	CIRRHOSIS		1 Patient has cirrhosis
22	CANCER_HX		1 patient has history of cancer
23	GERD		1 Patient has Gastroesophageal Reflux Disease
24	ANEMIA		1 Patinet has history of anemia
25	COOMBS_POS		1 Patient has has a positive Coombs test
26	DEMENTIA		1 Patient has history of dementia
27	SMOKING_EVER		1 Patient reports having smoked
28	ULCER		1 Patient has history of Ulcer
29	CREATININE	continuous	Most recent serum creatinine value, manually entered during preoperative examination
30	PLATELET	continuous	Most recent platelet count, manually entered during preoperative examination
31	PreOp_Diastolic	continuous	Diastolic blood pressure during preoperative examination
32	PreOp_Systolic	Continuous	Systolic blood pressure during preoperative examination
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1	Field	Output	Description
2	PatientID	Identifier	
3	ANESTHESIA START	Time	
4	TIME	Time	
5	DESIN	Continuous	Inhaled desflurane concentration (volume percent)
6	DESOUT	Continuous	Exhaled desflurane concentration (volume percent)
7	ISOIN	Continuous	Inhaled isoflurane concentration (volume percent)
8	ISOOOUT	Continuous	Exhaled isoflurane concentration (volume percent)
9	N2OIN	Continuous	Inhaled nitrous oxide concentration (volume percent)
10	N2OOUT	Continuous	Exhaled nitrous oxide concentration (volume percent)
11	SEVOIN	Continuous	Inhaled sevoflurane concentration (volume percent)
12	SEVOOUT	Continuous	Exhaled sevoflurane concentration (volume percent)
13	TOTALMAC	Continuous	End-tidal anesthetic concentration (MAC [minimum alveolar concentration] units)
14	TOTALMACAGEADJ	Continuous	End-tidal anesthetic concentration (Age-adjusted MAC units)
15	BIS_INDEX	Continuous	Bispectral index
16	BIS_SR	Continuous	Suppression ratio (output from bispectral index monitor)
17	DIASTOLIC	Continuous	Diastolic blood pressure
18	SYSTOLIC	Continuous	Systolic blood pressure
19	BP_MEAN	Continuous	Mean arterial blood pressure
20	HR	Continuous	Heart rate
21	PULSE	Continuous	Pulse
22	TEMP	Continuous	Temperature
23	TEMP_CORE	Continuous	Temperature
24	SPO2	Continuous	Pulse Oximeter
25	CO2	Continuous	End-tidal carbon dioxide
26	RR	Continuous	Respiratory Rate
27	PEEP	Continuous	Positive End-Expiratory Pressure
28	PIP	Continuous	Positive Inspiratory Pressure
29	MV	Continuous	Minvute Ventilation
30	CVP	Continuous	Central Venous Pressure
31	URINE_OUTPUT	Continuous	Urine Output
32	Est_Blood_Loss	Continuous	Estimated Blood Loss
33	TIDAL_VOLUME	Continuous	Tidal Volume
34	GLU_ART	Continuous	Glucose value

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2	GLU_VEN	Continuous	Glucose value
3	HCT	Continuous	Hematocrit
4	INR	Continuous	International normalized ratio
5	Plateau pressure	Continuous	Plateau Pressure (airway)
6	PLATELET	Continuous	Platelet Count
7	POTASSIUM	Continuous	Potassium level
8	SECSURPPRESSED	Continuous	Seconds of electroencephalogram suppression
9	DRUG_TYPE	DRUGS	Types of medication
10		DRUGS IMPORT	
11		DRUGS IMPORT Allergies	
12		DRUGS REMOVED FROM SERVICE	
13		DRUGS-ANTIBIOTICS	
14		DRUGS-ANTIEMETICS	
15		DRUGS-Beta blockers	
16		DRUGS-CARDIACS	
17		DRUGS-HYPNOTICS	
18		DRUGS-LOCAL ANESTHESIA	
19		DRUGS-NARCOTICS	
20		DRUGS-OTHER	
21		DRUGS-OTHER A-E	
22		DRUGS-OTHER F-J	
23		DRUGS-OTHER K-O	
24		DRUGS-OTHER P-T	
25		DRUGS-OTHER U-Z	
26		DRUGS-OXYTOCICS	
27		DRUGS-RELAXANTS	
28		DRUGS-REVERSALS	
29		DRUGS-TIMERS	
30		FLUIDS	
31	DRUGS	See below	
32	DRUG_AMT	Continuous	
33	DRUG_MINUTES	Continuous	
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Parameter	Drug	Drug Type
	68 Morphine	DRUGS-NARCOTICS
	69 FentaNYL	DRUGS-NARCOTICS
	74 Midazolam	DRUGS-HYPNOTICS
	76 Propofol	DRUGS-HYPNOTICS
	81 Succinylcholine	DRUGS-RELAXANTS
	83 Pancuronium	DRUGS-RELAXANTS
	84 Vecuronium	DRUGS-RELAXANTS
	85 Rocuronium	DRUGS-RELAXANTS
	86 Atropine	DRUGS-CARDIACS
	87 Neostigmine	DRUGS-REVERSALS
	88 Naloxone	DRUGS-REVERSALS
	89 Flumazenil	DRUGS-REVERSALS
	100 DOPamine	DRUGS-CARDIACS
	101 EPHEDrine	DRUGS-CARDIACS
	102 Esmolol	DRUGS-Beta blockers
	103 HydrALAZINE	DRUGS-CARDIACS
	105 Labetalol	DRUGS-Beta blockers
	108 Nitroglycerin	DRUGS-CARDIACS
	110 Norepinephrine	DRUGS-CARDIACS
	112 Phenylephrine	DRUGS-CARDIACS
	195 Vasopressin	DRUGS-CARDIACS
	200 Dexamethasone	DRUGS-OTHER
	203 Hydrocortisone	DRUGS-OTHER
	207 MethylPREDNISolone	DRUGS-OTHER
	218 Lactated Ringers	FLUIDS
	220 Normal Saline	FLUIDS
	226 Mannitol 20%	FLUIDS
	232 Packed RBC	BLOOD PRODUCTS
	234 Platelets	BLOOD PRODUCTS
	235 Fresh frozen plasma	BLOOD PRODUCTS
	236 Cryoprecipitate	BLOOD PRODUCTS
	237 Albumin 5%	BLOOD PRODUCTS
	238 Albumin 25%	BLOOD PRODUCTS

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2	573 Other fluid	FLUIDS
3	766 Cisatracurium	DRUGS-RELAXANTS
4	780 Ondansetron	DRUGS-ANTIEMETICS
5	968 Glycopyrrolate	DRUGS-CARDIACS
6	1023 Chloroprocaine 3%	DRUGS-LOCAL ANESTHESIA
7	1121 Ketamine	DRUGS-HYPNOTICS
8	1198 Metoprolol	DRUGS-Beta blockers
9	1204 HYDROMORPHONE	DRUGS-NARCOTICS
10	1205 Meperidine hydrochloride	DRUGS-NARCOTICS
11	1444 1/2 Normal saline	FLUIDS
12	1446 D10-W	FLUIDS
13	1450 D5 Ringers Lactate	FLUIDS
14	1451 D5-1/2 Normal Saline	FLUIDS
15	1452 D5-1/4 Normal Saline	FLUIDS
16	1455 D5-Normal Saline	FLUIDS
17	1456 NaHCO3 150mEq in D5W	FLUIDS
18	1457 D5-W	FLUIDS
19	1458 D50	FLUIDS
20	1461 Hextend	FLUIDS
21	1670 Albuterol MDI	DRUGS-OTHER
22	1671 Albuterol Neb 0.5%	DRUGS-OTHER
23	1794 Diphenhydramine	DRUGS-OTHER
24	1846 Glucagon	DRUGS-OTHER
25	1950 EPINEPHRINE	DRUGS-CARDIACS
26	1951 Mannitol 25%	FLUIDS
27	1961 Dexmedetomidine	DRUGS-OTHER
28	1968 Hyperal	FLUIDS
29	2071 Packed RBC (ml)	BLOOD PRODUCTS
30	2073 Platelets (ml)	BLOOD PRODUCTS
31	2074 FFP (ml)	BLOOD PRODUCTS
32	2989 Atracurium	DRUGS-RELAXANTS
33	3057 Hespan	FLUIDS
34	3387 NaHCO3 150mEq in Water	FLUIDS
35	3460 Phenylephrine SA	DRUGS-LOCAL ANESTHESIA
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2	3489 FentaNYL SA	DRUGS-LOCAL ANESTHESIA
3	9097 D5-1/2 Normal Saline 20K	FLUIDS
4	10291 OxyCODONE/Acetaminophen 5/325 (DRUGS-NARCOTICS
5	10297 OxyCODONE CR (for OxyCONTIN)	DRUGS-NARCOTICS
6	10298 EPINEPHrine inh 2.25%	DRUGS-CARDIACS
7	10585 Albuterol Neb 2.5mg	DRUGS-OTHER
8	10647 Racepinephrine Neb 2.25%	DRUGS-OTHER P-T
9	10648 D5-Normal Saline 20 KCL	FLUIDS
10	10652 Ketorolac Tromethamine (for Toradol	DRUGS-OTHER K-O
11	10665 OxyCODONE IR	DRUGS-NARCOTICS
12	10667 Morphine Sulfate 1mg/ml PCA	DRUGS-NARCOTICS
13	10672 HYDROmorphone 0.5mg/ml PCA	DRUGS-NARCOTICS
14	10689 Propofol (ml)	DRUGS-HYPNOTICS
15	10821 1/2 Normal Saline 20 KCL	FLUIDS
16	10910 Voluven	FLUIDS
17	11292 Normal Saline 20 KCL	FLUIDS
18	11951 Racepinephrine Neb 2.25% (ml)	DRUGS-OTHER P-T
19	14162 Ropivacaine 0.2% w/HYDROmorphon	DRUGS-LOCAL ANESTHESIA
20	14163 Ropivacaine 0.2% w/HYDROmorphon	DRUGS-LOCAL ANESTHESIA
21	14166 Ropivacaine 0.125% w/HYDROmorph	DRUGS-LOCAL ANESTHESIA
22	14325 Recomb Factor VII (ml)	BLOOD PRODUCTS
23	14796 Albuterol Neb	DRUGS-OTHER
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2	SurveyHea	0 Reported No Heart Attack on Survey
3		1 Reported Heart Attack on Survey
4		3 Prefer not to answer
5	SurveyCard	0 Reported No Cardiac Arrest on Survey
6		1 Reported Cardiac Arrest on Survey
7		3 Prefer not to answer
8	SurveyHea	0 Reported No Heart Failure on Survey
9		1 Reported Heart Failure on Survey
10		3 Prefer not to answer
11	SurveyStro	0 Reported No Stroke on Survey
12		1 Reported Stroke on Survey
13		3 Prefer not to answer
14	SurveyBloo	0 Reported No Leg Blood Clot on Survey
15		1 Reported Leg Blood Clot on Survey
16		3 Prefer not to answer
17	SurveyBloo	0 Reported No Lung Blood Clot on Survey
18		1 Reported Lung Blood Clot on Survey
19		3 Prefer not to answer
20	SurveyWou	0 Reported No Wound Infection on Survey
21		1 Reported Wound Infection on Survey
22		3 Prefer not to answer
23	SurveyResp	0 Reported No Respiratory Failure on Survey
24		1 Reported Respiratory Failure on Survey
25		3 Prefer not to answer
26	SurveyPnei	0 Reported No Pneumonia on Survey
27		1 Reported Pneumonia on Survey
28		3 Prefer not to answer
29	SurveyNerv	0 Reported No Nerve Injury on Survey
30		1 Reported Nerve Injury on Survey
31		3 Prefer not to answer
32	SurveyGIBl	0 Reported No GI Bleed on Survey
33		1 Reported GI Bleed on Survey
34		3 Prefer not to answer
35	SurveyUlce	0 Reported No Ulcer on Survey
36		1 Reported Ulcer on Survey
37		3 Prefer not to answer
38	SurveyDelir	0 Reported No Delerium on Survey
39		1 Reported Delerium on Survey
40		3 Prefer not to answer
41	30d_Surve	0 Reported No Readdmission within 30 days on Survey
42		1 Reported Readdmission within 30 days on Survey
43		3 Prefer not to answer
44	1y_Surve	0 Reported No Readdmission within 1 year on Survey
45		1 Reported Readdmission within 1 year on Survey
46		3 Prefer not to answer
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1	Info_Type	SubField	Output	Description	
2	ADT	AdmitDtm	[DateTime]	Hospital Admit DateTime	
3		DischargeDtm	[DateTime]	Hospital Discharge DateTime	
4		ICU_Unit	10400 ICU	ICU Name - Neurosurgery ICU	
5			4400 ICU	ICU Name - Surgical/Burn/Trauma ICU	
6			5600 ICU	ICU Name - Cardiothoracic ICU	
7			8200 ICU	ICU Name - Cardiac ICU	
8			83 CTICU	ICU Name - Cardiothoracic ICU	
9			ICU_InDtm	[DateTime]	ICU Admit DateTime
10		ICU_OutDtm	[DateTime]	ICU Discharge DateTime	
11		Diagnoses	Value	[Text]	Diagnoses related to delirium/encephalopathy
12			DischargeDX	[Text]	Discharge Diagnosis
13		Readmissions	Re_Adm_IDCode	[Continuous]	Medical record number for readmission
14			Re_adm_VisitIDCode	[Continuous]	Patient account number (registration) for readmission
15	Re_Adm_Location		[Text]	Bed assignment for readmission	
16	Re_Adm_AdmitDtm		[DateTime]	DateTime of Readmission	
17	Re_Adm_AdmitDx		[Text]	Diagnosis for readmission	
18	DurationBetweenVisits_Days		[Continuous]	Duration (days) between initial discharge and readmission	
19	Labs	SignificantDtm	[DateTime]	DateTime of Lab Test	
20		Label	A-a Gradient	Alveolar-Arterial Oxygen Gradient (mmHg)	
21			Albumin Level	Plasma albumin level (g/dL)	
22		Alkaline Phosphatase Total	Plasma alkaline phosphatase level (units/L)		
23		ALT	Plasma alanine transaminase level (units/L)		
24		Anion Gap	Plasma anion gap (mmol/L)		
25		AST	Plasma aspartate transaminase level (units/L)		
26					
27					

1		Concentration of basophils in blood
2		(K/mm ³)
3	Basophil Absolute Automated	Percent of basophils in blood (%)
4	Basophil Percent Automated	Plasma direct bilirubin level (mg/dL)
5	Bilirubin Direct	Plasma total bilirubin level (mg/dL)
6	Bilirubin Total	Plasma calcium level (mg/dL)
7	Calcium Total	Plasma chloride level (mmol/L)
8	Chloride Level	Plasma bicarbonate level, measured
9		(mmol/L)
10	CO2 Total	Plasma bicarbonate level, calculated from
11		arterial blood gas (mmol/L)
12	CO2, Total Calculated, Arterial	Plasma creatinine level (mg/dL)
13	Creatinine Level	Concentration of eosinophils in blood
14		(K/mm ³)
15	Eosinophil Absolute Automated	Percent of eosinophils in blood (%)
16	Eosinophil Percent Automated	Plasma glucose level, fasting (mg/dL)
17	Glucose Level Fasting	Plasma glucose level (mg/dL)
18	Glucose Level Random	Urine glucose, qualitative (negative, 1+, 2+,
19		3+)
20	Glucose Ur Qual	Plasma glucose level, point of care (mg/dL)
21		Hematocrit (%)
22	Glucose WB f POC	Hemoglobin A1c (%)
23	HCT	Hemoglobin level (g/dL)
24	Hemoglobin A1c	
25	HGB	International normalized ratio (no units)
26		Concentration of lymphocytes in blood
27	INR ePOC	(K/mm ³)
28		Percent of lymphocytes in blood (%)
29	Lymphocyte Absolute Automated	Mean corpuscular hemoglobin (pg)
30	Lymphocyte Percent Automated	Mean corpuscular hemoglobin
31	MCH	concentration (g/dL)
32		Mean corpuscular volume (fL)
33	MCHC	
34	MCV	

		Concentration of monocytes in blood (K/mm ³)
1	Monocyte Absolute Automated	
2	Monocyte Percent Automated	Percent of monocytes in blood (%)
3	MPV	Mean platelet volume (fL)
4		Concentration of neutrophils in blood (K/mm ³)
5	Neutrophil Absolute Automated	
6	Neutrophil Percent Automated	Percent of neutrophils in blood (%)
7		Concentration of nucleated red blood cells in blood (K/mm ³)
8	NRBC Abs Auto	
9	NRBC Pct Auto	Percent of nucleated red blood cells in blood (%)
10		Arterial Partial Pressure of Carbon Dioxide (mmHg)
11	pCO2 Art gPOC	
12		Venous Partial Pressure of Carbon Dioxide (mmHg)
13	pCO2 Ven gPOC	
14		Arterial Partial Pressure of Carbon Dioxide (mmHg)
15	pCO2, Arterial	
16	Percent Inspired Oxygen, Arterial	Percent Inspired Oxygen (%)
17	pH Art gPOC	Arterial pH (no units)
18	pH Arterial	Arterial pH (no units)
19		Concentration of platelets in blood (K/mm ³)
20	platelet cPOC	
21		Concentration of platelets in blood (K/mm ³)
22	Plt	
23		Arterial Partial Pressure of Oxygen (mmHg)
24	pO2 Art gPOC	
25		Venous Partial Pressure of Oxygen (mmHg)
26	pO2 Ven gPOC	
27		Arterial Partial Pressure of Oxygen (mmHg)
28	pO2, Arterial	
29	Potassium Level Plasma	Plasma potassium level (mmol/L)
30	Protein Level Plasma	Plasma protein level (g/dL)
31	PT (Seconds)	Prothrombin time (sec)
32	PT ePOC	Prothrombin time (sec)

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For peer review only

PTT Activated	Partial thromboplastin time, activated (sec)
PTT Activated.	Partial thromboplastin time, activated (sec)
RBC	Concentration of red blood cells in blood (M/mm ³)
RDW CV	Red cell distribution width (%)
RDW SD	Red cell distribution width (fL)
Sodium gPOC	Plasma sodium level (mmol/L)
Sodium iPOC	Plasma sodium level (mmol/L)
Sodium Level	Plasma sodium level (mmol/L)
Urea Nitrogen	Plasma urea nitrogen (BUN) level (mg/dL)
Volume Inspired Oxygen Arterial	--
WBC	Concentration of white blood cells in blood (K/mm ³)
[Continuous]	Value of lab test
[DateTime]	DateTime medication order is placed in electronic medical record
ALPRAZolam Tablet	
Ampicillin/Sulbactam - CRITICAL SHORTAGE	
CeFAZolin IVPB	
Cefepime IVPB - CRITICAL SHORTAGE	
CefOXitin IVPB	
CefTRIAxone IVPB	
Clotrimazole Troche	
Darunavir	
Dexmedetomidine Infusion	
DiazePAM Injection	
DiphenhydrAMINE Oral	
Eszopiclone	
FentaNYL Bolus from CADD	
FentaNYL Infusion	

Medications

Value

SignificantDtm
Label

1
2 FentaNYL Injection
3 Fluconazole Tablet
4 Haloperidol (immediate-acting) Lactate
5 Injection
6 HYDROmorphone Bolus from CADD
7 HYDROmorphone Injection
8 HYDROmorphone PCA
9 Insulin Glargine for LANTUS
10 Insulin Lispro for HumaLOG
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14 Insulin Lispro-Sliding Scale for HumaLOG
15 Insulin NPH for HumuLIN-N
16 Insulin Regular for HumuLIN-R
17 Insulin Regular Infusion
18 LORazepam Injection
19 LORazepam Tablet
20 Maraviroc
21 Metoclopramide Injection
22 Micafungin IVPB
23 Midazolam Infusion
24 Midazolam Injection
25 Morphine Injection
26 Nystatin Liquid
27 Ondansetron Injection
28 Oxacillin IVPB
29 OxyCODONE Liquid
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34 OxyCODONE Tablet Immediate-Release
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37 OxyCODONE/Acetaminophen 5/325 mg
38 Piperacillin/Tazobactam
39 QUETiapine Tablet
40 Raltegravir
41 Ramelteon
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1			Ritonavir Tablet	
2			Trimethobenzamide Injection	
3				Medication dose (low end of range, if applicable)
4				Medication dose (high end of range)
5		DosageLow	[Continuous]	Unit of measure for dosage
6		DosageHigh	[Continuous]	Frequency of medication order
7		UOM	[Categorical]	Number of days during which medication order was active
8		FrequencyCode	[Categorical]	
9				
10		Duration_Days	[Continuous]	
11				
12				
13				
14	Clinical Documentation			
15	- 01. Vital Signs	SignificantDtm	[DateTime]	DateTime of vital sign record
16		Intensity	[Continuous]	Numeric rating scale (0-10) pain score
17		Behaviors	Calm	
18			Agitated	
19			0-10 Scale	
20		Tool Used	Faces	
21			Non Communicative	
22			[Continuous]	Patient's target pain score
23		Patient Goal	[Continuous]	Location of pain
24		Location	[Categorical]	Nurse response to current pain score
25		Pain Management	[Categorical]	
26				
27				
28		Effectiveness of Pain Interventions	Obtaining relief	
29			Partial relief	
30			No relief	
31				
32				
33	Clinical Documentation			
34	- 03. Assessment/IPOC	SignificantDtm	[DateTime]	DateTime of CAM-ICU Assessment
35		CAM-ICU Overall Score	[Negative/Positive]	CAM-ICU Result (delirium assessment)
36		Feature 1: Acute Onset or		
37		Fluctuating Course	[Negative/Positive]	Feature 1 of CAM-ICU
38		Feature 2: Inattention	[Negative/Positive]	Feature 2 of CAM-ICU
39		Feature 3: Altered Level of		
40		Consciousness	[Negative/Positive]	Feature 3 of CAM-ICU
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2		Feature 4: Disorganized Thinking	[Negative/Positive]	Feature 4 of CAM-ICU
3				Indicates whether CAM-ICU is
4				contraindicated (e.g., because patient is too
5		RASS: If -4 or -5, STOP Reassess later	[Categorical]	sedated)
6				
7				
8	Clinical Documentation			
9	- Fall Event Note	SignificantDtm	[DateTime]	
10		Fall Date/Time	[DateTime]	DateTime of Fall
11				Indicates whether fall resulted in patient
12		Injury	[Yes/No]	injury
13		Injury Details	[Text]	Description of injury
14				
15				
16	Clinical Documentation			
17	- Neuro Flowsheet	SignificantDtm	[DateTime]	DateTime of RASS Assessment
18		Behaviors	Calm	
19			Agitated	
20			Restless	
21				
22				Richmond Agitation Sedation Scale score (-4
23		RASS Score Numeric	[Continuous]	to 4)
24				
25		RASS Sedation Scale	[Categorical]	Verbal description of RASS numeric score
26				
27				
28	Clinical Documentation			
29	- Intubation Procedure			
30	Note	SignificantDtm	[DateTime]	DateTime of Intubation Note
31		Intubation Type	[Emergent/Elective]	
32		Paralytics Given	[Yes/No]	
33		Procedure Date/Time	[DateTime]	DateTime of Intubation
34		Sedation Given	[Yes/No]	
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38	Clinical Documentation			
39	- Patient Profile	SignificantDtm	[DateTime]	DateTime of assessment
40		Does patient currently have a		
41		tracheostomy tube?	[Yes/No]	
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Does patient have a history of laryngectomy? [Yes/No]

Clinical Documentation

- Ventilator Flowsheet	SignificantDtm	[DateTime]	DateTime of ventilator event
	Modes/Bagged	A/C - VC	Assist control - volume control (AC-VC)
		A/C - VC+	Assist control - volume control + (AC-VC+)
		A/C - PC	Assist control - pressure control (AC-PC)
		BiPAP	Bilevel positive airway pressure (BiPAP)
		Continuous Positive Airway Pressure	Continuous positive airway pressure (CPAP)
		SIMV - VC	Synchronized intermittent mandatory ventilation (SIMV)
		SIMV-PC	Synchronized intermittent mandatory ventilation (SIMV)
		SIMV-VC	Synchronized intermittent mandatory ventilation (SIMV)
		SPONT-VC	Pressure support (PSV)
		Synchronized intermittent mandatory ventilation	Synchronized intermittent mandatory ventilation (SIMV)
Ventilator Pulmonary Event	Extubation		
	Re-intubation		
	Ventilator start		Start of mechanical ventilation
	Ventilator stop		End of mechanical ventilation
	Weaning end		
	Weaning start		