

Developing a case definition for type I diabetes mellitus in a primary care electronic medical record database: A validation study using a machine learning approach

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Abstract:	<p>Background: Identifying caseness in primary care electronic medical records (EMR) is important for surveillance, research, quality improvement and clinical care. We aimed to develop and validate a case definition for type 1 diabetes using artificial intelligence machine learning methods.</p> <p>Methods: EMR data from the Canadian Primary Care Sentinel Surveillance Network (CPCSSN) in Alberta were used from 2008-2016. Patients who were identified as having diabetes mellitus according to the existing CPCSSN case definition were selected and their family physician was asked to confirm diabetes subtype, forming the reference standard. We then applied machine learning to identify variables that correctly distinguish between type 1 and 2 cases.</p> <p>Results: After excluding non-diabetes patients, a total of 1309 people with diabetes were used; 110 of these were confirmed as type 1 by physicians. Two machine learning algorithms were found to be useful: 1) definition consisting of "type 1" text words or age <30 years with sensitivity 52.3% (95% CI 42.6, 61.7), specificity 99.3% (95% CI 98.7, 99.7), PPV 87.9% (95% CI 77.0, 94.3), NPV 95.8% (95% CI 94.5, 96.8); 2) definition consisting of combinations of medications, endocrinology-specific referrals, and age criteria with sensitivity 79.3% (95% CI 70.3, 86.2), specificity</p>

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	89.4% (95% CI 87.5, 91.1), PPV 40.7% (95% CI 34.2, 47.6), NPV 88.6% (95% CI 86.7, 90.2). Interpretation: The first algorithm may be useful for cohort creation and disease registry development given its high PPV. The second algorithm may be more appropriate for public health surveillance and epidemiology, having better sensitivity and reasonably high specificity.

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Developing a case definition for type 1 diabetes mellitus in a primary care electronic medical record database: A validation study using a machine learning approach

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Abstract

Background: Identifying caseness in primary care electronic medical records (EMR) is important for surveillance, research, quality improvement and clinical care. We aimed to develop and validate a case definition for type 1 diabetes using artificial intelligence machine learning methods.

Methods: EMR data from the Canadian Primary Care Sentinel Surveillance Network (CPCSSN) in Alberta were used from 2008-2016. Patients who were identified as having diabetes mellitus according to the existing CPCSSN case definition were selected and their family physician was asked to confirm diabetes subtype, forming the reference standard. We then applied machine learning to identify variables that correctly distinguish between type 1 and type 2 diabetes cases.

Results: After excluding those without diabetes from the study, a total of 1309 people with diabetes were used; 110 of these were confirmed as type 1 by physicians. Two machine learning algorithms were found to be useful: 1) definition consisting of “type 1” text words *or* age <30 years with sensitivity 52.3% (95% CI 42.6, 61.7), specificity 99.3% (95% CI 98.7, 99.7), PPV 87.9% (95% CI 77.0, 94.3), NPV 95.8% (95% CI 94.5, 96.8); 2) definition consisting of combinations of medications, endocrinology-specific referrals, and age criteria with sensitivity 79.3% (95% CI 70.3, 86.2), specificity 89.4% (95% CI 87.5, 91.1), PPV 40.7% (95% CI 34.2, 47.6), NPV 88.6% (95% CI 86.7, 90.2).

Interpretation: The first algorithm may be useful for cohort creation and disease registry development given its high PPV. The second algorithm may be more appropriate for public health surveillance and epidemiology, having better sensitivity and reasonably high specificity.

Introduction

The use of large clinical datasets coupled with high performance computing and advanced analytics offers significant potential for understanding disease distribution in the community, effective management, risk and prevention, at levels of statistical precision that smaller datasets cannot achieve. Diabetes had an Ontario prevalence of 8.8% and an annual incidence of 8.2 per 1000 in 2007 [1]. More recently the Public Health Agency of Canada reported an age adjusted, overall population prevalence of 7.8% in 2013/4 [2], while Diabetes Canada [3] report an estimated 9.3% in 2015. But these rates aggregate all forms of diabetes, and importantly do not differentiate between type 1 and type 2 diabetes. The management of diabetes in Canada, including of type 1, has shifted to a more interdisciplinary, team-based, integrated approach based on implementation of the Chronic Care Model [4]. Therefore, developing a valid case definition for type 1 diabetes using primary care data is important and timely.

Existing validated case definitions for diabetes include those developed by Clottey et al [5], Hux et al [6], Amed et al [7] and Guttman et al [8]. A recent systematic review [9] identified 16 studies which utilized International Classification of Diseases (ICD) - coded data to derive validated case definitions for diabetes in adults using administrative data sources. None are able to differentiate between type 1 and type 2. We sought to generate and validate a case definition for type 1 diabetes using routinely collected clinical and demographic data derived from primary care EMRs. This approach eliminates the requirement for costly and delayed linkage to administrative data or other sources. The Canadian Primary Care Sentinel Surveillance Network (CPCSSN) extracts, transforms, cleans and codes the data into a standardized data model and makes the processed data available for research, surveillance, quality improvement and panel management [10]. Previously, CPCSSN developed a definition for undifferentiated diabetes that demonstrates excellent accuracy (95.3% sensitivity and 97.1% specificity) [11]. This study builds on that CPCSSN definition by identifying patients by type using artificial intelligence machine learning. This is a data-oriented method designed to find patterns or generate predictive models using large and complex datasets to identify the most accurate case definition within the data. [12]

Methods

Data source and reference standard

CPCSSN extracts de-identified clinical data from the EMR systems of around 1500 sentinel family physicians, nurse practitioners and community pediatricians, who contribute data for approximately 1.8 million patients in seven provinces and one territory across Canada. CPCSSN extracts, transforms, cleans and codes the data into a standardized data model and makes the processed data available for research, surveillance, quality improvement and panel management. These data include patient demographics, diagnoses, prescribed medications, laboratory results, physical measurement (i.e. weight, blood pressure), medical procedures, behavioural risk factors, physician billing, allergies, vaccinations, and referrals.

Data from one of CPCSSN's participating practice-based research networks, the Southern Alberta Primary Care Research Network, extracted on December 31, 2016 and derived from the

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3 period 2008-2016 inclusive, were used. A cohort of 1399 patients of all ages, believed to have
4 diabetes, was identified using the current CPCSSN case definition. Family physicians who
5 agreed to participate in this study were able to re-identify the CPCSSN-defined diabetes patients
6 in their own practice EMR system and were asked first to confirm that the patient had diabetes
7 and then to determine whether the patient had type 1, type 2, another diabetes subtype or no
8 diabetes, based on their clinical expertise and any supporting evidence they chose to make use
9 of. This list of physician-confirmed diabetes cases along with their diabetes subtype (type 1, 2 or
10 other) constituted the reference standard for the analysis.
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13 Machine Learning

14 This study employed “supervised machine learning” to combine the large, complex, multi-
15 variable CPCSSN dataset with the reference standard (physician confirmed diabetes subtype) to
16 “learn” the clinical characteristics (called ‘features’) that differentiated those with type 1 diabetes
17 mellitus from those with other subtypes of the disease.
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20 Feature Selection

21 All plausibly relevant variables within the CPCSSN data were selected and defined as binary
22 outcomes before the machine learning processing occurred. In our study, features were selected
23 using information from various parts of the patient chart: age, sex, physician billing, current and
24 historical diagnoses, referrals, and prescribed medication. Diagnoses in Canadian primary care
25 are generally coded using the International Classification of Diseases version 9 (ICD-9).
26 Therefore, every unique ICD-9 code present in the EMR database was considered as a feature.
27 Special consideration was also given to two instances of a code within one year, and two within
28 two years. A similar approach was used for all coded information in the EMR database. Any
29 diagnoses, referrals, and medications that were recorded as free text were included using a
30 simple bag-of-words approach. This creates a binary indicator for each unique word that appears
31 in any free text field within the CPCSSN database. Similarly, non-case sensitive wildcard
32 searches for keywords and phrases related to diabetes status were added. These were the
33 following phrases: “type 1”, “insulin-dependent”, “t1dm”, “type 2”, “type I”, “type II”, “insulin
34 dependent”, “insulin dep”, “t1dm”, “t2dm”, “non-insulin dependent” and “type 1 insulin
35 dependent”. The following combinations were also included as features: “type 1+ insulin
36 dependent+ insulin dep+ type 1 insulin dependent”, and “type I+ t1dm”.
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41 For each prescribed medication recorded in the EMR, CPCSSN assigns codes from the
42 Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical (ATC) classification system (WHO, 2018)[13]. Each unique
43 ATC code appearing in the medication table was included as a feature, including truncated codes
44 to identify families of drugs rather than individual ones. The frequency of ATC codes was also
45 assessed, particularly whether two instances of the same code were used within one year, and
46 two within two years.
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49 Laboratory values were also included. The diabetes-related tests available in the CPCSSN data
50 are hemoglobin A1c and fasting plasma glucose measures. Binary indicators were created for
51 whether or not a patient had certain laboratory values over ranges of thresholds (e.g., HbA1c
52 >6.3%, 6.4%, 6.5%, 6.6%, etc.).
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Age was included as a variable because 53% of type 1 cases are diagnosed before the age of 30 years, with a peak around 14 years. Recent evidence suggests that the remaining 47% of type 1 cases are diagnosed between ages 30 and 60y [14], [15]. We included each age-year between 18 and 50 inclusive as candidate features.

Algorithms

Machine learning feature selection algorithms used in this analysis include the C5.0 decision tree [16], the Classification and Regression Tree (CaRT) decision tree [17,18], the Chi-Squared Automated Interaction Detection (CHAID) decision tree [19, 20], and Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator (LASSO) logistic regression [21,22]. These algorithms are commonly used in machine learning settings and were selected for their ability to generate human-readable rule sets that can be used as case definitions [12].

Statistical Analysis

Each of the machine learning algorithms have tuning parameters that can be manipulated to control the complexity and size of the final case definition. Tuning parameters were selected using a bootstrap method. A random sample with replacement of the study population was taken for a range of possible tuning parameter values. These were repeated 30 times per tuning parameter value, until it could be determined which tuning parameter values optimized the accuracy metrics. Specifically, the misclassification rate, the F1 Score, G-Mean, and the unweighted mean of sensitivity and specificity (known as the 'naïve mean') were all investigated. The F1 score is defined as

$$F1 = \frac{\text{Sensitivity} \times PPV}{\text{Sensitivity} + PPV}$$

And the G-mean is defined as

$$G\text{-Mean} = \sqrt{\text{Sensitivity} \times PPV}$$

Once the tuning parameters were selected, 10-fold cross validation was used to determine the validity estimates [23]. This was done by splitting the study population into 10 segments or “folds”. The training of the model is conducted on 9 of them, and testing is performed on the remaining fold. This was repeated 10 times, such that each fold was used once for testing. After the validity estimates were determined, the model was fitted on the entire study population to get the final case definition. All statistical analysis was conducted using R Statistical Software version 3.3.1 [24].

Results

Of the 1399 total sample of CPCSSN diabetes patients, 1309 individuals were confirmed with the disease and were included in the analysis. Ninety (6.4%) were excluded for a variety of reasons, including being (on investigation) misclassified as having type 1 by their family physician, identified as not having diabetes at all, being deceased or no longer active in a

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3 physician's panel, having gestational diabetes or a relatively rare diabetes subtype (e.g. latent
4 autoimmune diabetes of adults (LADA), mature onset diabetes of the young (MODY), etc.). This
5 resulted in confirmation of 1199 people with type 2 diabetes (91.6%) and 110 people with type 1
6 (8.4%).
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8
9 Table 1 describes the demographic and clinical characteristics of the 1309 individuals with type
10 1 or type 2 diabetes. Type 1 patients were younger and included more females. People with type
11 1 diabetes had substantially more insulin prescriptions, both issued in the past year (27.3% vs
12 6.3%) and at any time (75.7% vs 12.9%).
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15 The 10-fold cross validation results are presented in table 2. Generally, sensitivities were found
16 to range from 40% to 55%, and specificities from 97-99%. Due to the low prevalence of type 1
17 diabetes, the natural inclination of the machine learning algorithms is to achieve high specificity
18 at the expense of sensitivity. However, the set of algorithms minimizing the naïve mean of
19 sensitivity and specificity show much higher sensitivities for the C5.0 and CaRT decision trees.
20 Here the sensitivities are 81.1% and 79.3%, and the specificities are 87.9% and 89.4%. These
21 approaches have a tuning parameter that allows a user to weight false negatives higher than false
22 positives, thereby producing a case definition with a higher sensitivity.
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26 Table 3 shows the final case definitions for two notable models from the 10-fold cross validation
27 results. The first is the CaRT case definition which minimizes the misclassification rate. This is a
28 simple case definition with high specificity (99.3%), very modest sensitivity (52.3%), but good
29 positive and negative predictive values (87.9%, 95.8% respectively).
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32 The second case definition in table 3 is the CaRT implementation maximizing the naïve mean.
33 This has good sensitivity (79.3%), specificity (89.4%) and negative predictive value (97.9%) but
34 poor positive predictive value (40.7%). This case definition includes as a feature the presence of
35 the text “metabolism” in the referral table. This feature appears when a patient is referred to an
36 “Endocrinology & Metabolism” specialist.
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38 Interpretation

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40 We have shown that machine learning methods can be used to create interpretable case
41 definitions that distinguish between type 1 and type 2 diabetes in CPCSSN processed primary
42 care EMR data. Although we found no single case definition that boasts high sensitivity,
43 specificity *and* predictive values, we judge that two useful case definitions have been
44 demonstrated here. The first (table 3) adopts the CaRT implementation minimizing
45 misclassification. This is a simple case definition that has high positive and negative predictive
46 values. High predictive values are ideal for cohort creation in observational studies, and for other
47 screening purposes because patients for whom there is a strong probability of having the
48 condition of interest are identified with high accuracy. The second adopts the CaRT approach
49 maximizing the naive mean and has good sensitivity and specificity (79.3% and 89.4%
50 respectively). This case definition is useful for epidemiologic and surveillance purposes, such as
51 examining population level temporal trends of incidence and prevalence.
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3 Clottey et al [5] developed a case definition for undifferentiated diabetes consisting of at least
4 one of the following criteria: at least two physician billing claims within a two-year period or one
5 hospitalization with an ICD code for diabetes. Hux et al [6] generated two definitions including
6 one or two claims and a hospital admission. In British Columbia, Amed and colleagues [7]
7 developed two additional definitions intended for use in children and adolescents. The first
8 consists of one hospitalization, two physician billing claims in a single year, and combinations of
9 insulin or oral anti-diabetic medications. The second consists of four billing codes over two
10 years. Guttmann and colleagues [8] developed a definition for pediatric diabetes using claims
11 data exclusively, concluding that four physician billing claims using ICD-9 250.X in a two-year
12 period provided optimal sensitivity and specificity. Each study included in the recent systematic
13 review by Khokhar et al [9] used physician claims either alone or in combination with hospital
14 discharge data. Physician billing is not necessarily an accurate reflection of the content of a given
15 encounter. Wyse [25] identified a 15% under-reporting of polypectomy validated against clinical
16 records. Mujaharane et al [26] identified similar misclassification rates for hypertension. Hux et
17 al [6] reported positive predictive values for their case definitions ranging from 0.61 to 0.80
18 indicating substantial misclassification of diabetes compared to chart review. Hence the ability of
19 our study to exploit the usefulness of data other than hospital admission and physician claims in
20 determining caseness, to create case definitions which, together, maximize sensitivity and
21 specificity as well as positive and negative predictive values, and to present case definition
22 validation metrics in support of the differentiation between type 1 and type 2 diabetes are
23 significant achievements.
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29 Limitations to our study include a fairly small number of confirmed type 1 diabetes cases (n =
30 110). We believe the under-recording of insulin prescription for patients confirmed as Type 1
31 derives from their receiving most of their diabetes-specific care from their endocrinologist or
32 other diabetes specialist in an outpatient clinic setting. These transactions are usually not
33 subsequently recorded in primary care EMRs as well. Future research on a larger sample would
34 result in more stable validity results and feature selection. The validity measures should also be
35 interpreted with caution, as our diabetes cohort was selected from patients meeting the
36 previously validated case definition for diabetes and are conditional upon CPCSSN-processed
37 data, criteria and the validity of that definition. Further study is required to determine the
38 validation metrics of case definitions for type 1 diabetes mellitus in non-CPCSSN EMR data.
39 Despite these limitations, this study has resulted for the first time in the development and
40 validation of usable case definitions about patients with type 1 diabetes in primary care settings
41 using routinely collected primary care EMR data which *has* undergone CPCSSN processing.
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45 In conclusion, we have developed and validated two case definitions using machine learning that
46 achieve different goals in distinguishing between type 1 and type 2 diabetes in CPCSSN data.
47 One case definition is suited for screening and cohort development, with high positive and
48 negative predictive values. The other is suited for epidemiological purposes, having a reasonable
49 balance between sensitivity and specificity. Further validation and testing using a larger and
50 more diverse sample are recommended.
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53 The study was funded by Alberta Innovates.
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Conflicts of Interest

We declare no conflict of interest.

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Table 1: Demographic and relevant clinical features comparing type 1 and type 2 patients from this sample. Confidence intervals for proportions are exact.

Feature	Type 2 Diabetes (n=1,199)	Type 1 Diabetes (n=110)	Total (n=1309)
Sex [% male (95% CI)]	53.5 (50.6, 56.3)	47.3 (37.7, 57)	52.9 (50.2, 55.7)
Age [mean (95% CI)]	64.6 (63.9, 65.3)	46 (42.8, 49.2)	63 (62.3, 63.8)
# Encounters in past year [Median (Q1, Q3)]	5 (2, 8)	4 (1, 6)	5 (2, 8)
# HbA1c tests in past year [Median (Q1, Q3)]	1 (1, 1)	1 (0, 1)	1 (1, 1)
Insulin Prescription in past year (A10AB) [% (95% CI)]	6.3 (5, 7.8)	27.3 (19.2, 36.6)	8 (6.6, 9.6)
Insulin at any time	12.9 (11.1, 14.9)	75.7 (66.6, 83.3)	18.2 (16.1, 20.4)
Anti-Hyperglycemic Drugs (excluding Insulin) in past year (A10B) [% (95% CI)]	44.5 (41.6, 47.3)	12.7 (7.1, 20.4)	41.8 (39.1, 44.5)
Anti-Hyperglycemic Drugs (excluding Insulin) at any time	71.2 (68.6, 73.8)	26.1 (18.2, 35.3)	67.4 (64.8, 70)
Occurrence of "type 1" in any text field	0.7 (0.3, 1.3)	40.5 (31.3, 50.3)	4 (3, 5.2)

Table 2: 10-fold cross validation results for each of the four machine learning algorithms, minimizing/maximizing different metrics. The misclassification rate is minimized, while the G-Mean, F1 Score, and Naïve mean were maximized.

Metric	Method	Sensitivity	Specificity	PPV	NPV	Accuracy
Misclassification Rate	C5.0	49.6 (40.0, 59.1)	99.3 (98.5, 99.6)	85.9 (74.5, 93.0)	95.5 (94.2, 96.6)	95.1 (93.7, 96.2)
	CaRT	52.3 (42.6, 61.7)	99.3 (98.7, 99.7)	87.9 (77.0, 94.3)	95.8 (94.5, 96.8)	95.4 (94.1, 96.4)
	CHAID	51.4 (41.7, 60.9)	99.3 (98.7, 99.7)	87.7 (76.6, 94.2)	95.7 (94.4, 96.7)	95.3 (94.0, 96.4)
	LASSO	40.5 (31.5, 50.3)	99.3 (98.7, 99.7)	84.9 (71.9, 92.8)	94.8 (93.4, 95.9)	94.4 (93.0, 95.6)
G-Mean	C5.0	46.9 (37.4, 56.5)	99.1 (98.3, 99.5)	82.5 (70.5, 90.6)	95.3 (94.0, 96.4)	94.7 (93.3, 95.8)
	CaRT	52.3 (42.6, 61.7)	99.3 (98.7, 99.7)	87.9 (77.0, 94.3)	95.8 (94.5, 96.8)	95.4 (94.1, 96.4)
	CHAID	50.5 (40.9, 60.0)	99.3 (98.7, 99.7)	87.5 (76.3, 94.1)	95.6 (94.3, 96.7)	95.2 (93.9, 96.3)
	LASSO	40.5 (31.5, 50.3)	99.3 (98.7, 99.7)	84.9 (71.9, 92.8)	94.8 (93.4, 95.9)	94.4 (93.0, 95.6)
F1-Score	C5.0	54.1 (44.4, 63.5)	97.4 (96.3, 98.2)	65.9 (55.2, 75.3)	95.9 (94.5, 96.9)	93.8 (92.3, 95.0)
	CaRT	52.3 (42.6, 61.7)	99.3 (98.7, 99.7)	87.9 (77.0, 94.3)	95.8 (94.5, 96.8)	95.4 (94.1, 96.4)
	CHAID	53.2 (43.5, 62.6)	99.0 (98.2, 99.5)	83.1 (71.9, 90.6)	95.8 (94.5, 96.9)	95.2 (93.8, 96.2)
	LASSO	40.5 (31.5, 50.3)	99.3 (98.7, 99.7)	84.9 (71.9, 92.8)	94.8 (93.4, 95.9)	94.4 (93.0, 95.6)
Naïve Mean Sens + Spec	C5.0	81.1 (72.3, 87.7)	87.9 (85.9, 89.7)	38.1 (32.0, 44.7)	98.1 (97.0, 98.8)	87.4 (85.4, 89.1)
	CaRT	79.3 (70.3, 86.2)	89.4 (87.5, 91.1)	40.7 (34.2, 47.6)	97.9 (96.8, 98.7)	88.6 (86.7, 90.2)
	CHAID	56.8 (47.0, 66.0)	98.0 (97.0, 98.7)	72.4 (61.6, 81.2)	96.1 (94.8, 97.1)	94.6 (93.2, 95.7)
	LASSO	40.5 (31.5, 50.3)	99.3 (98.7, 99.7)	84.9 (71.9, 92.8)	94.8 (93.4, 95.9)	94.4 (93.0, 95.6)

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Table 3: The final case definitions for 3 notable instances of the cross-validation results. Disease status assumed to be type 2 diabetes or a diabetes subtype, unless a patient meets the T1 criteria.

Type	Case Definition
CaRT with Minimized Misclassification	Anywhere text “Type 1” OR Age less than 30
CaRT with Maximized Naïve Mean	Medication ATC code A10AB (Insulin) and not Medication ATC code A10B twice in one year (Glucose Lowering Drugs, excluding Insulin) OR Referral text “Metabolism” and Medication ATC code A10B twice in one year and Medication ATC code A10AB OR Age less than 34 and ATC code A10AB

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