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Garbage Input, Variable Output: Variation in Model Performance by Data Cleanliness and Classification Methods in the Prediction of 30-day ICU Mortality

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2 the Prediction of 30-day ICU Mortality
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ABSTRACT

Objective: There has been a proliferation of approaches to statistical methods and missing data imputation as electronic health records become more plentiful. The relative performance on real-world problems is unclear.

Materials and Methods: Using 355,823 ICU hospitalizations at over 100 hospitals in the nationwide VA healthcare system (2014-2017), we systematically varied 3 approaches: how we extracted and cleaned physiologic variables; how we handled missing data (using mean value imputation, random forest, extremely randomized trees (extra-trees regression), ridge regression, normal value imputation, and case-wise deletion); and how we computed risk (using logistic regression, random forest, and neural networks). We applied these approaches in a 70% development sample and tested the results in an independent 30% testing sample. Area under the ROC Curve (AUROC) was used to quantify model discrimination.

Results: In 355,823 ICU stays, there were 34,867 deaths (9.8%) within 30 days of admission. The highest AUROC's obtained for each primary classification method were very similar: 0.83 (95% CI [0.83-0.83]) to 0.85 (95% CI 0.84-.0.85). Likewise, there was relatively little variation within classification method by the missing value imputation method used—except when case-wise deletion was used for missing data.

Discussion: Variation in discrimination was seen as a function of data cleanliness, with logistic regression suffering the most loss of discrimination in the least clean data. Losses in discrimination were not present in random forest and neural networks even in naively extracted data.

Conclusion: Data from a large nationwide health system revealed interactions between missing data imputation techniques, data cleanliness, and classification methods for predicting 30-day mortality.

STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

- This study focuses on a large, real world data set consisting of 355,823 ICU stays at over 100 different facilities.
- Multiple methods of model fitting and missing data imputation were implemented in standardized ways that reflect common practice.
- The approach we used for each implementation is available in an Appendix or via GitHub to allow transparency and reproducibility, and we encourage validation on other data sets.
- Due to high dimensionality of method combinations, this study only considered one outcome, and only considered one standardized and decided upon a priori approach within each dataset / categorization model / missingness imputation triad.

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INTRODUCTION

Risk adjustment plays an increasingly central role in the organization, care of, and science about critically ill patients[1, 2]. Statistical adjustment is essential for many performance measurement as well as pay-for-performance and shared savings systems, from US News and World Report to Medicare and Medicaid. It is used to stratify the care of patients for treatments and track quality improvement efforts over time[3]. It is routinely measured, even in clinical trials, to assess confounder balance between arms and may form part of RCT enrollment or drug approval criteria[4].

As a result, there has been a proliferation of risk scores both for the common task of short-term mortality prediction and for assorted more specialized tasks. Many statistical tools have been promoted. Rules of thumb have developed and existed long enough to be critiqued[5-9]. The Transparent Reporting of a multivariable prediction model for Individual Prognosis Or Diagnosis (TRIPOD) guidelines offer standardization of reporting[10]. Textbooks have emerged[11]. Yet questions remain on fundamental pragmatic issues: How clean does the data have to be to prevent the so-called “garbage in, garbage out (GIGO)” phenomenon? How sensitive are methods to missing data and how should it be handled? Do these analysis decisions interact?

To address such questions, we compared the performance of an array of methods on a single standardized common problem—the prediction of 30-day mortality from day 1 laboratory results among patients admitted to the Intensive Care Unit (ICU) at any hospital in the nationwide Veterans Health Administration system[12-14]. Using exactly the same set of real ICU admissions, we systematically varied three parameters: the approach used to extract and clean physiologic variables from the electronic health record; the approach used to handle missing data; and the approach used to compute the risk. We systematically applied these approaches in a 70% development sample and tested the results in an independent 30% testing sample, to provide real world comparisons to inform future pragmatic implementation of risk scores.

METHODS

Cohort

Data were drawn from the Veterans Affairs Patient Database (VAPD 2014-2017), which contains daily patient physiology for acute hospitalizations between January 1, 2014 and December 31, 2017. The VAPD 2014-2017 includes patient demographics, laboratory results, and diagnoses that are commonly used to predict 30-day mortality from the day of admission. Here, we included data from all ICU hospitalizations on day 1 of each hospitalization. Full details of the VAPD 2014-2017 have been published elsewhere[15].

The development of this data was reviewed and approved by the VA Ann Arbor Healthcare System's Institutional Review Board.

Four versions of the dataset were created for each hospitalization on admission: A) raw lab values extracted using only lab test names, B) raw lab values extracted using only Logical Observation Identifiers Names and Codes (LOINC), C) cleaned lab values extracted using both LOINC[16, 17] and searched text lab test names, and D) cleaned lab values converted to Acute Physiology And Chronic Health Evaluation (APACHE) points, extracted using both LOINC and lab test names.

No Patient and Public Involvement

This research was done without patient involvement. Patients were not invited to comment on the study design and were not consulted to develop patient relevant outcomes or interpret the results. Patients were not invited to contribute to the writing or editing of this document for readability or accuracy.

Predictor Variables

In our primary analyses, we adjust for 10 laboratory values that were collected within one day of hospital admission. Further patient-level adjustments included demographic characteristics (gender, age, race, and Hispanic ethnicity), 30 comorbidities, and 38 primary diagnoses. The individual comorbidities used in models are defined by methods described

1 in van Walraven's implementation of the Elixhauser comorbidity score[18]. We adjust for 38 primary diagnoses drawn
2 from the Healthcare Cost and Utilization (HCUP) Clinical Classification Software (CCS)[19], which consist of the top 20
3 most frequent single-level CCS diagnoses and 18 level-one multi-level categories of diagnoses (Appendix A.) In secondary
4 analyses, to emphasize the role of data cleanliness, we estimate risk using *only* the laboratory values since the non-
5 laboratory values do not vary in data cleanliness and curation.
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13 **Outcome Variable: 30-day mortality**

14 Our primary outcome variable is 30-day all-cause mortality, defined as death within 30 days of the admission date for
15 the index hospitalization. Mortality is evaluated using the highly reliable Veterans Administration beneficiary death files
16 which aggregate from several sources[12, 20, 21].
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25 **Statistical Analysis and Model Development**

26 Random Forests is an ensemble machine learning method that aggregates the results of multiple decision trees fit on
27 bootstrap samples of the original data[22, 23]. For each decision tree, the original data are bootstrapped to create a new
28 dataset of the same size and the tree is fit to the new data. Instead of considering all predictors to determine the splitting
29 criterion at a node, the split variable is chosen from a random subset of variables in order to reduce the correlation
30 between different trees. Many such trees are grown, creating a 'forest'. Each observation is classified by each tree, and
31 the majority classification over all trees is the predicted class. The ability of random forests to learn nonlinear and complex
32 functions contributes to its predictive performance.
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46 The neural network[24] can "learn" to classify samples without manual designed task-specific rules. The algorithm applies
47 different weights to predictors and uses these transformations in subsequent "layers" of the neural net, culminating in
48 the output layer with predictions. We applied the random forest and the neural network on our task. A traditional logistic
49 regression model was also performed and compared.
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1 Statistical analyses were performed with Python and the scikit-learn package[25].
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6 **Training and Testing Sets** 7

8 The dataset was randomly split into a 70% training set and a 30% testing set. The same split was used for all classification
9 methods. This process was replicated five times (five different training sets and corresponding testing set were generated),
10 and each time the models were fit on the training set and used to predict the 30-day mortality of the testing set.
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16 **Missing Data and Imputation** 17

18 We imputed the missing values before training and testing the models, comparing:
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- 23 ● “Mean Value”: the mean value of each variable in the training set was used to replace missing values[26].
- 24 ● “Random Forest”: use random forest to impute missing values (missForest)[27].
- 25 ● “Extremely Randomized Trees (Extra-Trees Regression)”: this method is similar to random forest but is faster[28,
26 29].
- 27 ● “Ridge Regression”: use Bayesian Ridge regression to impute missing values[30].
- 28 ● “Normal Value”[31]: use normal values to impute missing values—this is common in clinical prediction contexts
29 in which it is assumed that clinicians order tests they fear are not normal, and therefore the absence of such a test
30 is a sign that the clinician reviewed other aspects of the patient’s case and judged the odds of physiologic
31 abnormality so low that testing was not indicated.
- 32 ● “No Missing”: case-wise deletion[32].
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48 **Variable Importance and Partial Dependence Plots** 49

50 Predictor variable importance is evaluated for random forests[33]. When classifying a sample using a decision tree, a
51 predictor is used at each node. Predictors that appear more frequently and that reduce the misclassification more
52 substantially are considered more important. By combining all trees in a random forest model, we assessed the variable
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importance of each predictor. We also plotted the Partial Dependence Plots[30] to show how the value of predictors affects 30-day mortality. Partial dependence plots are used to visualize assess non-linearity among variables.

RESULTS

Cohort Description

The cohort involved 355,823 ICU hospitalizations at over 100 different hospitals, as has been described elsewhere. The mean age of the cohort was 66.9 years, and there were 34,867 deaths within 30-days of admission, a primary outcome event rate of 9.8% (Table 1.)

Table 1. ICU Patient Demographics

Variables	ICU Only Cohort
Hospitalizations, N	355,823
Age, mean (SD), y	66.9 (11.6)
Male, N (%)	341,579 (96.0)
Race, N (%)	
White	256,293 (72.0)
Black or African American	73,855 (20.8)
Other	25,675 (7.2)
Hispanic, N (%)	20,532 (5.8)
30-day Mortality, N (%)	34,867 (9.8)
Length of Stay, mean (SD), days	9.5 (13.0)

Rates of data missingness for each laboratory value in each dataset are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Proportion of Labs Missing

Dataset	Albumin (albval)	Bilirubin (bili)	Blood urea nitrogen (bun)	Creatinine (creat)	Glucose (glucose)	Hematocrit (hct)	Partial Pressure (pao2)	pH (pa)	Sodium (na)	White Blood Cell (wbc)
A	0.39	0.42	0.84	0.13	0.07	0.85	0.66	0.14	0.11	0.13
B	0.38	0.42	0.13	0.13	0.06	0.12	0.65	0.44	0.11	0.13
C	0.39	0.45	0.13	0.12	0.06	0.11	0.69	0.64	0.11	0.13

Using all Data for Model Development

1 Figure 1 shows the AUC scores of different classification models and imputation methods in the primary analysis. The
2 highest AUC's obtained for each primary classification method (rows of the figure: logistic regression, random forest, or a
3 neural network) were very similar: AUC's of 0.83 to 0.85. Likewise, there was relatively little variation within classification
4 method by the missing value imputation method used, be it mean value imputation, random forest, extremely randomized
5 trees (extra-trees regression), ridge regression, or normal value imputation. All models suffered dramatic losses in
6 discrimination when case-wise deletion was used for missing data in the least clean dataset (far right columns). Full model
7 performance for each condition can be seen in Appendix B.
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19 Variation in discrimination was seen, however, across classification methods, as a function of data cleanliness. (Note that
20 the analyst was blinded to which dataset was which during the analysis). In the logistic regression model developed using
21 the least clean data (dataset A had raw lab values extracted using only lab test names), performance was always lower
22 than the performance with the more complete and clean datasets—by AUC's of 0.05 to about 0.1, p-value < 0.05).
23 Similarly, performance in dataset B (extracted using LOINC codes without unit standardization) was lower and more
24 unstable for mean value imputation and ridge regression. In marked contrast, neither random forests nor neural networks
25 showed such reduced performance when developed in less clean data—in no case did the AUC degradations exceed 0.025
26 despite similar optimal performance.
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40 **Secondary Analysis Using only Laboratory Values**

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42 The primary analysis presented above considers the real world case in which demographics, diagnoses, and laboratory
43 values are used in combination in risk model prediction. Yet, of these, only laboratory values were subject to variation in
44 cleanliness; therefore we conducted a secondary analysis using only laboratory values in order to bring more clearly into
45 relief the impact of data quality. Results are shown in Figure 2.
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1 Average model performance with this much smaller group of predictors is, as expected, somewhat lower with less data—
2 optimal AUC's typically range from 0.73 to 0.78 across combinations of classification model and missing data imputation.
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4 No uniformly superior strategy is evident, save markedly lower performance of case-wise deletion in the least clean
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6 dataset (A). As before, logistic regression shows markedly reduced discrimination when developed in the least clean data
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8 set. Neural networks show consistent performance.
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12 Also notable is the marked reduction of discrimination of random forest models and neural network models regardless of
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14 missing data imputation model in dataset D. Dataset D is the “cleanest” data, in that it has hand-curated inclusion criteria,
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16 standardization of units, but then also conversion of all values from their continuous scale to a semi-quantitative set of
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18 “points” as is done in the APACHE scoring algorithms. Attempting to work with such standardized point values as inputs
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20 consistently resulted in markedly worse discrimination in random forest models and neural network models than using
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22 other “less clean” datasets (The difference between Dataset D and other datasets is significant with a p-value < 0.05).
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28 **Variable Importance**

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30 The most important predictors were age and laboratory values. Age had the highest importance scores, regardless of
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32 which dataset was used, indicating that age is the most important variable when predicting 30-day mortality. The 10
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34 laboratory values also got high importance scores. For datasets A, B, and C, they fell in the top-13 most important variables,
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36 and there were at least eight laboratory values in the top-10 most important variables. However, for dataset D, there were
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38 only 6 laboratory values in the top-10 most important variables, and the variable white blood cell score ranked the 20th.
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40 This may indicate that transforming laboratory values to APACHE scores results in the loss of information contained in the
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42 original values and negatively influence the performance of the random forest model.
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49 **Partial Dependence Plots**

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51 As it is hard to visualize the relationship between multiple predictors and the outcome, we created partial dependence
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53 plots to show the effect of predictors on the outcome[34]. The plots can also show whether the relationship between a
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55 specific predictor and the outcome is linear, quadratic, monotonic, or more complex. Further analysis can be done by
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1 combining the partial dependence plots and medical knowledge. **Figure 3** and **Figure 4** are the partial dependence plots
2 for the pH score and the PaO₂ score. We will take these as examples to show how the value of predictors in different
3 datasets affects 30-day mortality. The X-axis is the value of the predictor. For each value of the predictor, the Y-axis is the
4 averaged model output for all observations with the corresponding value of the predictor. As we know, the normal value
5 of the pH score is 7.4, and both higher value and lower value are abnormal. Therefore, a U-shaped partial dependence
6 plot is to be expected for datasets A, B, and C. However, only the plot for dataset C is U-shaped. It is because the dataset
7 C is the cleanest one, and the models can learn the real effect of pH score on the 30-day mortality. Datasets A and B are
8 not as clean as dataset C, as some other variables are presented in these datasets as pH score. Thus, it is difficult for the
9 models to utilize the pH score variable in datasets A and B. This result indicates that cleaner variable benefits the
10 classification models. However, not all variables have this problem. For most other variables such as the PaO₂ score, the
11 plots of datasets A, B, and C have similar trends.

28 DISCUSSION

30 We used real data from a large nationwide health system to explore the interaction between missing data imputation
31 techniques, data cleanliness, and classification methods for the common problem of predicting 30-day mortality in a
32 held-out testing dataset. In brief, we found that any of several imputation techniques other than case-wise deletion
33 performed equivalently in terms of discrimination, regardless of data cleanliness or classification method to be used. We
34 found that logistic regression showed worse discrimination with less carefully cleaned data than did random forest or
35 neural networks. Random forest models (and to a degree, neural networks) displayed diminished discrimination when
36 given data that had been too highly cleaned and standardized prior to use.

50 Relationship to Past Research

52 Missing data are ubiquitous in large datasets. Even when missingness is completely at random, missing lead to
53 significant loss in statistical power and predictive ability[32]. We have previously found that the Random Forest method

1 consistently produced the lowest imputation error compared to commonly used imputation methods[26]. Random
2 Forest had the smallest prediction difference when 10-30% of the laboratory data was missing. Yet our present analysis
3 of real data shows that as more specialized laboratory values are introduced into the prediction setting, much higher
4 levels of missingness may be present, and Random Forest continues to perform well for missing data. Our findings on
5 the poor performance of case-wise deletion as an approach to handling missing data are consonant with mainstream
6 recommendations for more than two decades[32].
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17 Our findings on missing data are of note because of the distinctive, yet real-world, way in which missing data were
18 generated. There were two missingness processes. First, clinicians in routine practice only sometimes order any given
19 laboratory, and thus the presence or absence of an order may itself provide prognostic importance. [35] Second, a given
20 effort to identify all of a given target laboratory values may or may not succeed. Even in a large system with a strong
21 tradition of centralization, the extent to which laboratory ascension and labeling practices coincide with their aspiration
22 varies over time, and often clinical insight is necessary to distinguish valid laboratory tests[36]. For any given data pull, it
23 is not trivial to understand which missing values represent failure to find data that exist, versus representing true
24 missingness.
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39 The finding of poorer discrimination of Random Forest in models where the data were fully standardized and cleaned
40 was not anticipated given past literature. The APACHE score was designed to simplify the lab results and to help doctors
41 to predict mortality by hand[2]. Even in its more recent incarnations, APACHE transforms continuous lab results into
42 discrete acute physiology scores[37]. Our data suggests that transforming lab results to APACHE scores is not necessary
43 for Random Forest and may even lead to the loss of information[23]. Remarkably, even standardization to equivalent
44 units across institutions may not be necessary—but at the same time, this means that sources of variance other than
45 simply the laboratory value may also be subtly incorporated into risk-prediction with non-standardized ways. It is a use-
46 case-specific decision as to whether incorporation of such variance is helpful for a given task or is a source of bias.
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Implications

Our findings have implications for both practitioners seeking to implement a given prediction rule and scientists interested in risk-prediction generally. For practitioners, no given method yields consistently superior results in terms of discrimination. Therefore, other performance desiderata, whether psychometric or implementation ease, may play an important role. They also suggest that missing data imputation approaches other than case-wise deletion during development are mandatory.

Our results also note that Random Forests and neural networks were strikingly robust to even quite naively prepared data, in contrast to logistic regression. This suggests that the truth of the oft-quoted aphorisms about “garbage in, garbage out” may depend on the categorization model and missing data imputation method used. In situations where ascertainment and cleaning of data are more costly, random forests may offer pragmatic advantages if these findings are replicable.

Strengths and Limitations

Strengths of our analysis include its use of real world data, with real world data generation and missingness-generation problems on a canonical real world problem. We also used multiple methods implemented in standardized ways. The approach we used for each implementation is available in an Appendix or via GitHub to allow transparency and reproducibility.

Limitations of our analysis stem fundamentally from the nearly infinite combinations of analysis factors that might be varied, and our inability to explore such a high dimensional space. Thus we only considered one outcome, and only considered one standardized and decided upon a priori approach within each dataset / categorization model /

1 missingness imputation triad. Other outcomes may yield different answers. We focus on discrimination, as measured by
2 AUC, but other measurement properties are assuredly also important. And we focused on individual-level prediction, as
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4 opposed to considering the impact on hospital-level quality assessment or other tasks for which these results may be
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6 used.
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9 **CONCLUSION**

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12 In sum, our results suggest that while there is little variation in discrimination among alternative statistical classification
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14 models in well-cleaned data using modern missing data imputation techniques, there may be important variation across
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16 models in real world situations. If these findings are replicated in other data with other outcomes, they may help inform
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18 pragmatic model selection.
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39 **Figure Captions**

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41 Figure 1. AUC Scores, Full Model

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43 Figure 2. AUC Scores for lab-only predictors

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45 Figure 3. Partial Dependence Plots for pH

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Author Contributions

Theodore J. Iwashyna: Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing

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Xiao Qing Wang: Data curation; Writing – original draft; Writing – review & editing

Sarah Seelye : Writing – original draft; Writing – review & editing

Ji Zhu : Conceptualization, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing

Akbar K. Waljee: Conceptualization, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing

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3 **Data Sharing Statement:**
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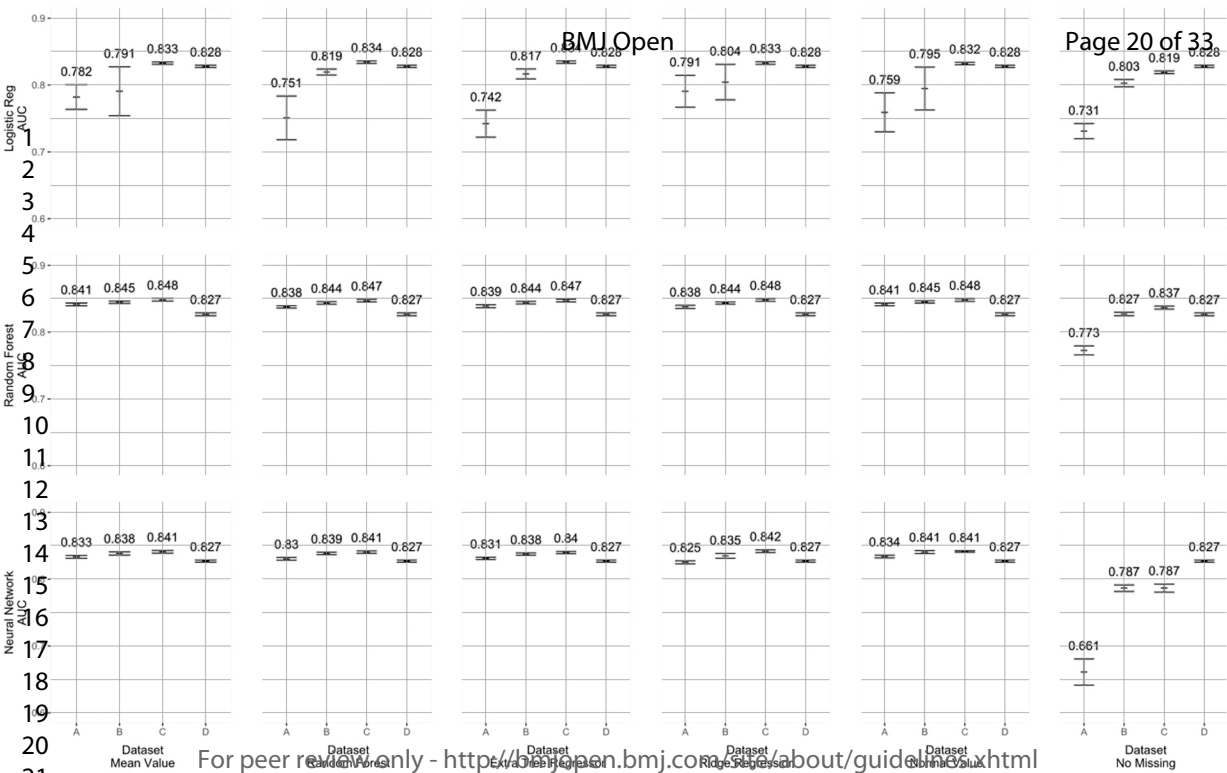
5 Appendices and statistical code are available via Github at <https://github.com/CCMRcodes/GIVO> . The dataset cannot be
6 disseminated due to inclusion of sensitive patient information under VA regulations.
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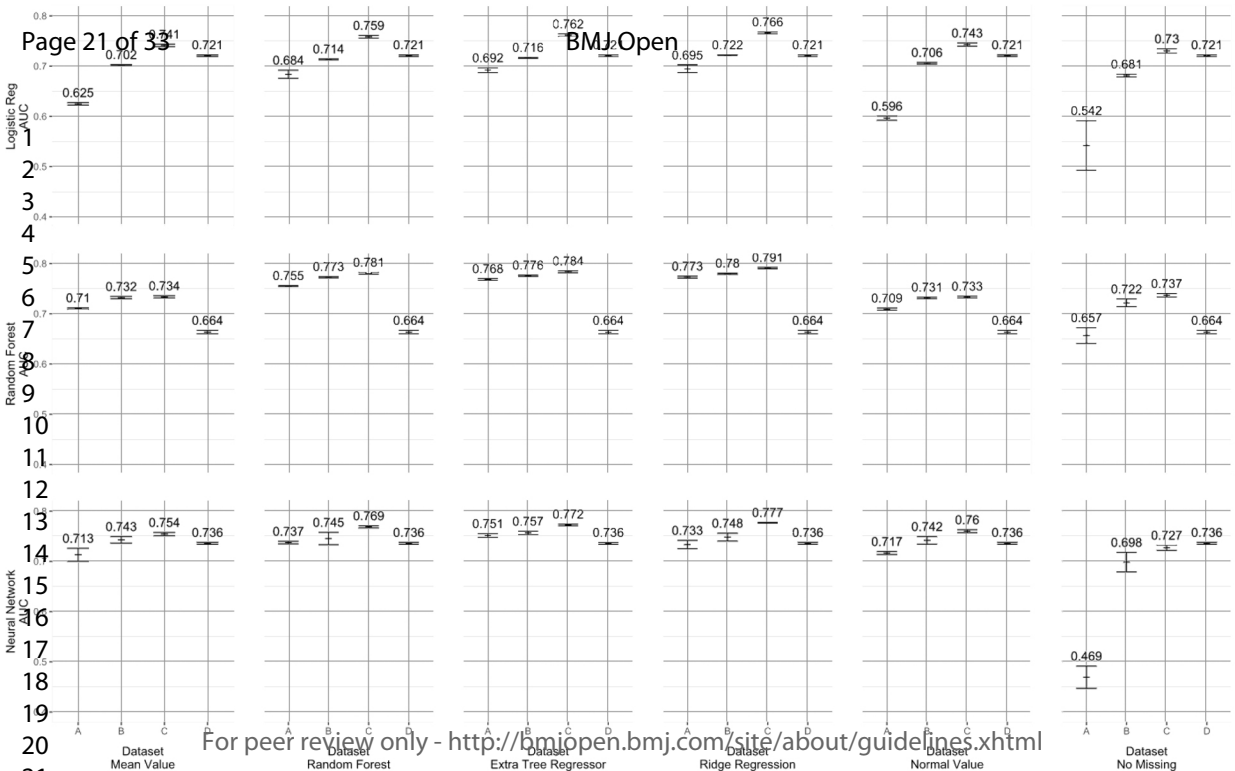
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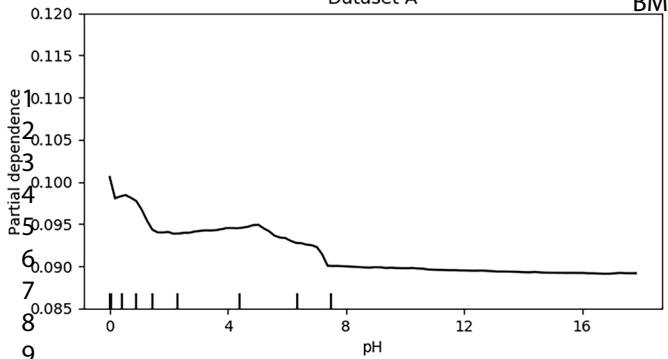
Figure 1: AUC Scores Full Model



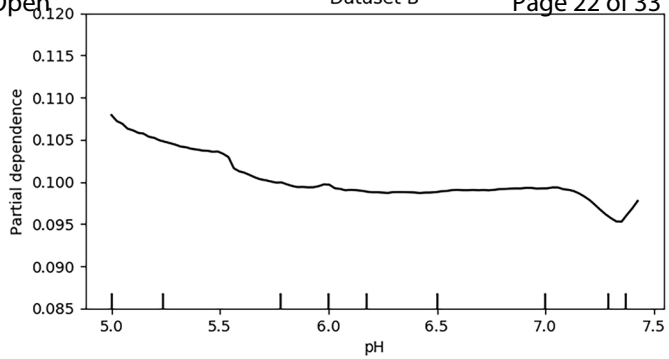
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Figure 2: AUC Scores for Lab-Only Predictors

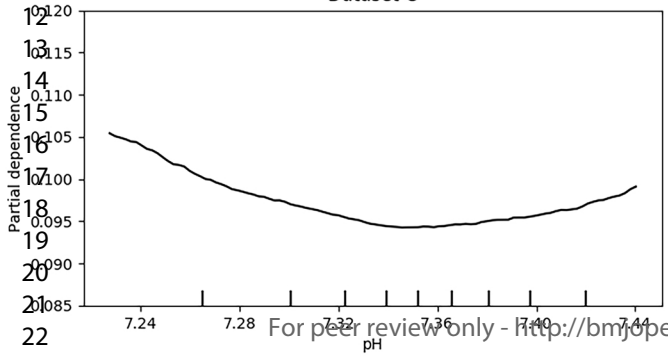
Dataset A



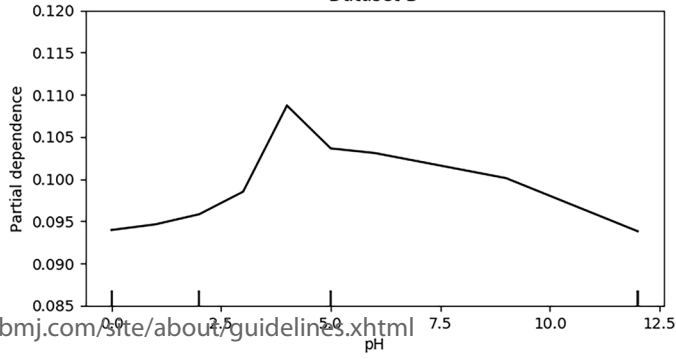
Dataset B



Dataset C



Dataset D



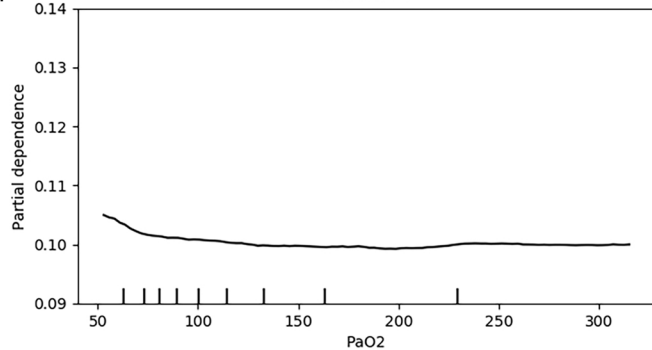
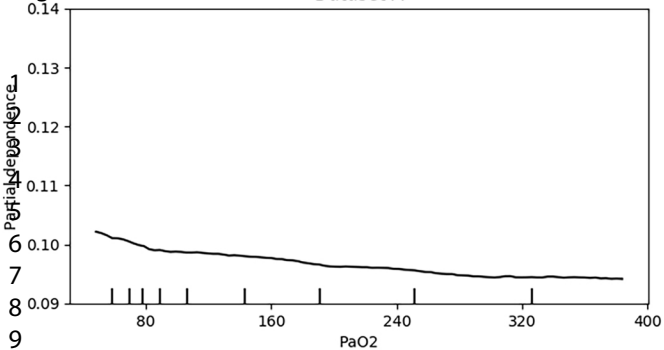
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Figure 3: Partial Dependence Plots for pH

Dataset A

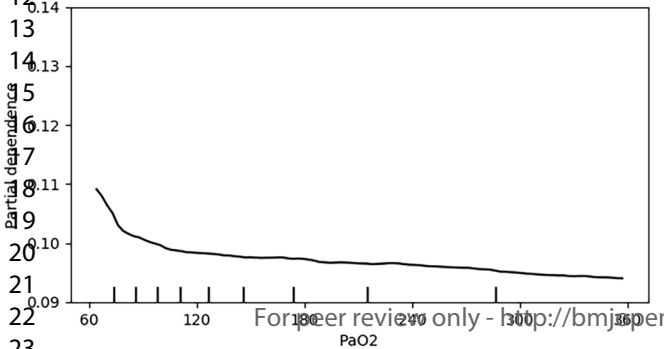
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Dataset B



Dataset C

Dataset D



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Figure 4: Partial Dependence Plots PaO2

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3 **Appendix A.** Patient-level variables included in models
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Demographics	Gender, Age, Race (White, Black or African American, Asian, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, Unknown), Hispanic ethnicity
Comorbidities, included in Elixhauser	Hypertension, Congestive Heart Failure, Cardiac Arrhythmia, Valvular Disease, Pulmonary Circulation Disorders, Peripheral Vascular Disorders, Paralysis, Other Neurological Disorders, Chronic Pulmonary Disease, Diabetes Uncomplicated, Diabetes Complicated, Hypothyroidism, Renal Failure, Liver Disease, Peptic Ulcer Disease excluding bleeding, AIDS/HIV, Lymphoma, Metastatic Cancer, Solid Tumor without Metastasis, Rheumatoid Arthritis/Collagen, Coagulopathy, Obesity, Weight Loss, Fluid and Electrolyte Disorders, Blood Loss Anemia, Deficiency Anemia, Alcohol Abuse, Drug Abuse, Psychoses, Depression
Diagnoses, HCUP CCS single-level and multi-level	<p>Top 20 most frequent single-level CCS diagnoses: Congestive Heart Failure (non-hypertensive), Non-specific Chest Pain, Coronary Atherosclerosis and Other Heart Disease, Cardiac Dysrhythmias, Alcohol-related Disorders, Septicemia (except in labor), Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease and Bronchiectasis, Pneumonia, Skin and Subcutaneous Tissue Infections, Osteoarthritis, Complication of Device (implant or graft), Complications of Surgical Procedures or Medical Care, Diabetes Mellitus with Complications, Respiratory Failure, Urinary Tract Infections, Renal Failure, Spondylosis, Acute Myocardial Infarction, Fluid and Electrolyte Disorders, Gastrointestinal Hemorrhage</p> <p>18 level 1 multi-level CCS categories: Infectious and Parasitic Diseases, Neoplasms, Endocrine Disorders, Anemia, Mental Illness, Diseases of the Nervous System, Diseases of the Circulatory System, Diseases of the Respiratory System, Diseases of the Digestive System, Diseases of the Genitourinary System, Complications of Pregnancy or Childbirth, Skin Disease, Diseases of the Musculoskeletal System, Congenital Anomalies, Perinatal Conditions, Injury and Poisoning, Other Health Status Conditions, Other Residual Codes</p>
Laboratory values	Albumin, Bilirubin, Blood Urea Nitrogen, Creatinine, Glucose, Hematocrit, Partial pressure of oxygen score, pH score, Sodium, White Blood Cell

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Appendix B

Table B.1: Model Performances (Full Model)

Classification Method	Dataset	Imputation Method	AUROC (95%CI)	Optimal Cutoff	Predicted Cases		Accurate Rate		Sensitivity	Specificity	Brier Score
					Death	Survival	Death	Survival			
Logistic Regression	A	Mean Value	0.78(0.76-0.80)	0.48	37199	69549	0.21	0.96	0.74	0.69	0.19
Logistic Regression	B	Mean Value	0.79(0.75-0.83)	0.46	34915	71833	0.24	0.97	0.80	0.72	0.17
Logistic Regression	C	Mean Value	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.46	35970	70778	0.23	0.97	0.79	0.71	0.17
Logistic Regression	A	Random Forest	0.75(0.72-0.78)	0.49	39528	67220	0.18	0.95	0.69	0.66	0.21
Logistic Regression	B	Random Forest	0.82(0.82-0.82)	0.49	31996	74752	0.25	0.97	0.77	0.75	0.17
Logistic Regression	C	Random Forest	0.83(0.83-0.84)	0.46	36017	70731	0.23	0.97	0.79	0.71	0.17
Logistic Regression	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.74(0.72-0.76)	0.46	45762	60986	0.17	0.96	0.74	0.61	0.21
Logistic Regression	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.82(0.81-0.82)	0.47	33642	73106	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.74	0.17
Logistic Regression	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.83(0.83-0.84)	0.47	34579	72169	0.24	0.97	0.78	0.73	0.17
Logistic Regression	A	Ridge Regression	0.79(0.77-0.82)	0.46	38579	68169	0.21	0.97	0.78	0.68	0.18
Logistic Regression	B	Ridge Regression	0.80(0.78-0.83)	0.46	35034	71714	0.24	0.97	0.80	0.72	0.17

Logistic Regression	C	Ridge Regression	0.83(0.83-0.84)	0.47	35220	71528	0.23	0.97	0.78	0.72	0.17
Logistic Regression	A	Normal Value	0.76(0.73-0.79)	0.50	37392	69356	0.18	0.95	0.63	0.68	0.22
Logistic Regression	B	Normal Value	0.80(0.76-0.83)	0.50	30977	75771	0.26	0.97	0.76	0.76	0.17
Logistic Regression	C	Normal Value	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.46	35676	71072	0.23	0.97	0.78	0.72	0.17
Logistic Regression	A	No Missing	0.73(0.72-0.74)	0.43	37658	69090	0.18	0.95	0.66	0.68	0.18
Logistic Regression	B	No Missing	0.8(0.80-0.81)	0.42	33153	73595	0.24	0.97	0.76	0.74	0.14
Logistic Regression	C	No Missing	0.82(0.82-0.82)	0.44	35333	71415	0.22	0.96	0.76	0.72	0.16
Logistic Regression	D	None	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.47	34184	72564	0.24	0.97	0.78	0.73	0.17
Random Forest	A	Mean Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.12	32330	74418	0.26	0.97	0.79	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	B	Mean Value	0.85(0.84-0.85)	0.11	32642	74106	0.26	0.97	0.80	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	C	Mean Value	0.85(0.85-0.85)	0.11	33548	73200	0.25	0.97	0.81	0.74	0.07
Random Forest	A	Random Forest	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.12	32659	74089	0.25	0.97	0.78	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	B	Random Forest	0.84(0.84-0.85)	0.11	34093	72655	0.25	0.97	0.81	0.73	0.07

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Random Forest	C	Random Forest	0.85(0.85-0.85)	0.11	33029	73719	0.25	0.97	0.80	0.74	0.07
Random Forest	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.11	32938	73810	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.74	0.07
Random Forest	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.84(0.84-0.85)	0.12	32411	74337	0.26	0.97	0.80	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.85(0.85-0.85)	0.11	33567	73181	0.25	0.97	0.80	0.74	0.07
Random Forest	A	Ridge Regression	0.84(0.45-0.84)	0.11	34587	72161	0.24	0.97	0.80	0.73	0.07
Random Forest	B	Ridge Regression	0.84(0.84-0.85)	0.12	31643	75105	0.26	0.97	0.79	0.76	0.07
Random Forest	C	Ridge Regression	0.85(0.85-0.85)	0.12	32531	74217	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	A	Normal Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.12	31234	75514	0.26	0.97	0.78	0.76	0.07
Random Forest	B	Normal Value	0.85(0.84-0.85)	0.11	32711	74037	0.26	0.97	0.80	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	C	Normal Value	0.85(0.85-0.85)	0.12	31159	75589	0.26	0.97	0.78	0.76	0.07
Random Forest	A	No Missing	0.77(0.77-0.78)	0.18	36332	70416	0.20	0.96	0.71	0.70	0.08
Random Forest	B	No Missing	0.83(0.82-0.83)	0.16	31836	74912	0.25	0.97	0.77	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	C	No Missing	0.84(0.83-0.84)	0.16	34517	72231	0.24	0.97	0.78	0.73	0.08

Random Forest	D	None	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.11	33407	73341	0.24	0.97	0.77	0.74	0.07
Neural Network	A	Mean Value	0.83(0.83-0.84)	0.53	35031	71717	0.24	0.97	0.80	0.72	0.19
Neural Network	B	Mean Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.52	32716	74032	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.75	0.17
Neural Network	C	Mean Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.53	32549	74199	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.75	0.17
Neural Network	A	Random Forest	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.55	32515	74233	0.25	0.97	0.77	0.75	0.19
Neural Network	B	Random Forest	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.57	30842	75906	0.26	0.97	0.77	0.76	0.18
Neural Network	C	Random Forest	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.55	34144	72604	0.24	0.97	0.79	0.73	0.18
Neural Network	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.50	37351	69397	0.23	0.97	0.82	0.70	0.19
Neural Network	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.54	33529	73219	0.25	0.97	0.80	0.74	0.18
Neural Network	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.49	33324	73424	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.74	0.16
Neural Network	A	Ridge Regression	0.83(0.82-0.83)	0.51	33864	72884	0.24	0.97	0.78	0.73	0.17
Neural Network	B	Ridge Regression	0.84(0.83-0.84)	0.52	31186	75562	0.26	0.97	0.78	0.76	0.17
Neural Network	C	Ridge Regression	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.55	32145	74603	0.25	0.97	0.78	0.75	0.18

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Neural Network	A	Normal Value	0.83(0.83-0.84)	0.58	31675	75073	0.25	0.97	0.77	0.76	0.19
Neural Network	B	Normal Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.45	35026	71722	0.24	0.97	0.81	0.72	0.16
Neural Network	C	Normal Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.55	32864	73884	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.75	0.18
Neural Network	A	No Missing	0.66(0.64-0.68)	0.76	49011	57737	0.14	0.94	0.65	0.56	0.50
Neural Network	B	No Missing	0.79(0.78-0.79)	0.59	32676	74072	0.23	0.96	0.71	0.74	0.21
Neural Network	C	No Missing	0.79(0.78-0.79)	0.59	38619	68129	0.20	0.96	0.75	0.68	0.24
Neural Network	D	None	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.52	33760	72988	0.24	0.97	0.78	0.73	0.18

Table B.2: Model Performance (Using only lab variables)

Classification Method	Dataset	Imputation Method	AUROC (95%CI)	Optimal Cutoff	Predicted Cases		Accurate Rate		Sensitivity	Specificity	Brier Score
					Death	Survival	Death	Survival			
Logistic Regression	A	Mean Value	0.63(0.62-0.63)	0.50	32327	74421	0.16	0.93	0.50	0.72	0.24
Logistic Regression	B	Mean Value	0.70(0.70-0.70)	0.47	33350	73398	0.21	0.95	0.66	0.73	0.20
Logistic Regression	C	Mean Value	0.74(0.74-0.74)	0.47	35248	71500	0.19	0.95	0.62	0.70	0.22
Logistic Regression	A	Random Forest	0.68(0.68-0.69)	0.48	39566	67182	0.17	0.94	0.63	0.66	0.23
Logistic Regression	B	Random Forest	0.71(0.71-0.71)	0.45	37758	68990	0.20	0.96	0.71	0.69	0.20
Logistic Regression	C	Random Forest	0.76(0.76-0.76)	0.47	38421	68327	0.18	0.95	0.66	0.67	0.21
Logistic Regression	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.69(0.69-0.70)	0.46	43607	63141	0.17	0.95	0.69	0.62	0.22
Logistic Regression	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.72(0.72-0.72)	0.44	39295	67453	0.20	0.96	0.73	0.67	0.19
Logistic Regression	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.76(0.76-0.76)	0.45	42675	64073	0.17	0.95	0.71	0.63	0.21
Logistic Regression	A	Ridge Regression	0.70(0.69-0.70)	0.47	42514	64234	0.17	0.95	0.69	0.63	0.22
Logistic Regression	B	Ridge Regression	0.72(0.72-0.72)	0.44	39856	66892	0.20	0.96	0.75	0.67	0.19

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Logistic Regression	C	Ridge Regression	0.77(0.76-0.77)	0.45	42737	64011	0.17	0.95	0.71	0.63	0.21
Logistic Regression	A	Normal Value	0.60(0.59-0.60)	0.49	31990	74758	0.15	0.92	0.46	0.72	0.24
Logistic Regression	B	Normal Value	0.71(0.70-0.71)	0.45	38325	68423	0.19	0.95	0.70	0.68	0.20
Logistic Regression	C	Normal Value	0.74 (0.74-0.75)	0.46	41447	65301	0.17	0.95	0.68	0.64	0.22
Logistic Regression	A	No Missing	0.54 (0.49-0.59)	0.57	17678	89070	0.15	0.91	0.25	0.84	0.27
Logistic Regression	B	No Missing	0.68 n(0.68-0.68)	0.45	32766	73982	0.20	0.95	0.64	0.73	0.19
Logistic Regression	C	No Missing	0.73(0.73-0.73)	0.50	30965	75783	0.19	0.94	0.55	0.74	0.23
Logistic Regression	D	None	0.72(0.72-0.72)	0.49	35766	70982	0.19	0.95	0.64	0.70	0.21
Random Forest	A	Mean Value	0.71(0.71-0.71)	0.09	46226	60522	0.17	0.95	0.73	0.60	0.09
Random Forest	B	Mean Value	0.73(0.73-0.73)	0.10	44628	62120	0.18	0.96	0.75	0.62	0.09
Random Forest	C	Mean Value	0.73(0.73-0.74)	0.10	44525	62223	0.18	0.96	0.75	0.62	0.09
Random Forest	A	Random Forest	0.76(0.75-0.76)	0.09	41715	65033	0.18	0.96	0.74	0.65	0.08
Random Forest	B	Random Forest	0.77(0.77-0.77)	0.10	38154	68594	0.20	0.96	0.75	0.69	0.08

Random Forest	C	Random Forest	0.78(0.78-0.78)	0.09	40709	66039	0.19	0.96	0.75	0.66	0.08
Random Forest	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.77(0.77-0.77)	0.09	43230	63518	0.19	0.96	0.77	0.64	0.08
Random Forest	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.78(0.77-0.78)	0.10	38734	68014	0.20	0.96	0.76	0.68	0.08
Random Forest	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.78(0.78-0.79)	0.10	38810	67938	0.20	0.96	0.74	0.68	0.08
Random Forest	A	Ridge Regression	0.77(0.77-0.78)	0.10	39913	66835	0.20	0.96	0.75	0.67	0.08
Random Forest	B	Ridge Regression	0.78(0.78-0.78)	0.09	39663	67085	0.20	0.97	0.77	0.67	0.08
Random Forest	C	Ridge Regression	0.79(0.79-0.79)	0.09	40249	66499	0.20	0.96	0.76	0.66	0.08
Random Forest	A	Normal Value	0.71(0.71-0.71)	0.10	46047	60701	0.17	0.95	0.73	0.60	0.09
Random Forest	B	Normal Value	0.73(0.73-0.73)	0.10	44400	62348	0.18	0.96	0.75	0.62	0.09
Random Forest	C	Normal Value	0.73(0.73-0.74)	0.09	46774	59974	0.17	0.96	0.77	0.60	0.09
Random Forest	A	No Missing	0.66(0.64-0.67)	0.26	20159	86589	0.21	0.93	0.40	0.83	0.10
Random Forest	B	No Missing	0.72(0.71-0.73)	0.14	52201	54547	0.16	0.96	0.78	0.54	0.08
Random Forest	C	No Missing	0.74(0.73-0.74)	0.21	26193	80555	0.22	0.94	0.55	0.79	0.09

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Random Forest	D	None	0.66(0.66-0.67)	0.45	33868	72880	0.18	0.94	0.57	0.71	0.18
Neural Network	A	Mean Value	0.71(0.70-0.73)	0.47	33169	73579	0.19	0.94	0.60	0.72	0.19
Neural Network	B	Mean Value	0.74(0.74-0.75)	0.49	31171	75577	0.21	0.95	0.63	0.75	0.19
Neural Network	C	Mean Value	0.75(0.75-0.76)	0.40	42096	64652	0.18	0.96	0.74	0.64	0.18
Neural Network	A	Random Forest	0.74(0.74-0.74)	0.50	37930	68818	0.19	0.95	0.68	0.68	0.19
Neural Network	B	Random Forest	0.75(0.73-0.76)	0.54	36554	70194	0.20	0.96	0.71	0.70	0.22
Neural Network	C	Random Forest	0.77(0.77-0.77)	0.42	42444	64304	0.18	0.96	0.74	0.64	0.18
Neural Network	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.75(0.75-0.76)	0.42	44585	62163	0.18	0.96	0.76	0.62	0.18
Neural Network	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.76(0.75-0.76)	0.46	40067	66681	0.20	0.96	0.75	0.67	0.19
Neural Network	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.77(0.77-0.77)	0.48	39088	67660	0.19	0.96	0.71	0.67	0.20
Neural Network	A	Ridge Regression	0.73(0.73-0.74)	0.49	43129	63619	0.18	0.96	0.74	0.63	0.21
Neural Network	B	Ridge Regression	0.75(0.74-0.76)	0.44	39388	67360	0.20	0.96	0.74	0.67	0.18
Neural Network	C	Ridge Regression	0.78(0.78-0.78)	0.53	38048	68700	0.19	0.95	0.68	0.68	0.21

Neural Network	A	Normal Value	0.72(0.71-0.72)	0.45	33193	73555	0.19	0.95	0.61	0.72	0.18
Neural Network	B	Normal Value	0.74(0.73-0.75)	0.50	37560	69188	0.20	0.96	0.71	0.69	0.20
Neural Network	C	Normal Value	0.76(0.76-0.76)	0.41	42187	64561	0.18	0.96	0.74	0.64	0.18
Neural Network	A	No Missing	0.47(0.45-0.49)	0.79	2628	104120	0.14	0.90	0.04	0.98	0.44
Neural Network	B	No Missing	0.70(0.68-0.72)	0.69	23720	83028	0.23	0.94	0.52	0.81	0.31
Neural Network	C	No Missing	0.73(0.72-0.73)	0.57	51077	55671	0.15	0.95	0.74	0.55	0.29
Neural Network	D	None	0.74(0.73-0.74)	0.50	36925	69823	0.19	0.95	0.67	0.69	0.21

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Variation in Model Performance by Data Cleanliness and Classification Methods in the Prediction of 30-day ICU Mortality, a US Nationwide Retrospective Cohort and Simulation Study

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Title: Variation in Model Performance by Data Cleanliness and Classification Methods in the Prediction of 30-day ICU Mortality, a US Nationwide Retrospective Cohort and Simulation Study

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ABSTRACT

Objective: There has been a proliferation of approaches to statistical methods and missing data imputation as electronic health records become more plentiful; however, the relative performance on real-world problems is unclear.

Materials and Methods: Using 355,823 ICU hospitalizations at over 100 hospitals in the nationwide VA healthcare system (2014-2017), we systematically varied 3 approaches: how we extracted and cleaned physiologic variables; how we handled missing data (using mean value imputation, random forest, extremely randomized trees (extra-trees regression), ridge regression, normal value imputation, and case-wise deletion); and how we computed risk (using logistic regression, random forest, and neural networks). We applied these approaches in a 70% development sample and tested the results in an independent 30% testing sample. Area under the ROC Curve (AUROC) was used to quantify model discrimination.

Results: In 355,823 ICU stays, there were 34,867 deaths (9.8%) within 30 days of admission. The highest AUROC's obtained for each primary classification method were very similar: 0.83 (95% CI [0.83-0.83]) to 0.85 (95% CI 0.84-.0.85). Likewise, there was relatively little variation within classification method by the missing value imputation method used—except when case-wise deletion was applied for missing data.

Conclusion: Variation in discrimination was seen as a function of data cleanliness, with logistic regression suffering the most loss of discrimination in the least clean data. Losses in discrimination were not present in random forest and neural networks even in naively extracted data. Data from a large nationwide health system revealed interactions between missing data imputation techniques, data cleanliness, and classification methods for predicting 30-day mortality.

STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

- This study focuses on a large, real world dataset consisting of 355,823 ICU stays at over 100 different facilities.
- Multiple methods of model fitting and missing data imputation were implemented in standardized ways that reflect common practice.
- The approach we used for each implementation is available in an Appendix or via GitHub to allow transparency and reproducibility, and we encourage validation on other datasets.
- Due to high dimensionality of method combinations, this study only considered one outcome, and only considered one standardized and decided upon an a priori approach within each dataset / categorization model / missingness imputation triad.

For peer review only

INTRODUCTION

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3 Risk adjustment plays an increasingly central role in the organization, care of, and science about critically ill patients[1, 2].
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5 Statistical adjustment, including the handling of missing data, is essential for many performance measurements as well as
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7 pay-for-performance and shared savings systems. It is used to stratify the care of patients for treatments and track quality
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9 improvement efforts over time[3]. It is routinely measured, even in clinical trials, to assess confounder balance between
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11 arms and may form part of RCT enrollment or drug approval criteria[4].
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17 As a result, there has been a proliferation of risk scores and missing data imputation tools both for the common task of
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19 short-term mortality prediction and for more specialized tasks. Many statistical tools have been promoted. Rules of thumb
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21 have developed and existed long enough to be critiqued[5-9]. The Transparent Reporting of a multivariable prediction
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23 model for Individual Prognosis Or Diagnosis (TRIPOD) guidelines offer standardization of reporting[10]. Textbooks have
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25 emerged[11]. Yet questions remain on fundamental pragmatic issues: How clean does the data have to be to prevent the
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27 so-called “garbage in, garbage out (GIGO)” phenomenon? How sensitive are methods to missing data and how should it
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29 be handled? Do these analytic decisions interact?
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35 To address such questions, we compared the performance of an array of methods on a single standardized problem—the
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37 prediction of 30-day mortality based on demographics, day 1 laboratory results, comorbidities, and diagnoses among
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39 patients admitted to the Intensive Care Unit (ICU) at any hospital in the nationwide Veterans Health Administration
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41 system[12-14]. Using the same set of real ICU admissions, we systematically varied three parameters: the approach used
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43 to extract and clean physiologic variables from the electronic health record; the approach used to handle missing data;
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45 and the approach used to compute the risk. We systematically applied these approaches in a 70% development sample
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47 and tested the results in an independent 30% testing sample, to provide real world comparisons to inform future
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49 pragmatic implementation of risk scores.
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METHODS

Cohort

Data were drawn from the Veterans Affairs Patient Database (VAPD), which contains daily patient physiology for acute hospitalizations between January 1, 2014 and December 31, 2017. The VAPD includes patient demographics, laboratory results, and diagnoses that are commonly used to predict 30-day mortality from the day of admission. Here, we included data from all ICU hospitalizations on day 1 of each hospitalization. Full details of the VAPD have been published elsewhere[15].

The development of this database was reviewed and approved by the VA Ann Arbor Healthcare System's Institutional Review Board.

Four versions of the dataset were created for each hospitalization on admission: A) raw lab values extracted using only lab test names, B) raw lab values extracted using only Logical Observation Identifiers Names and Codes (LOINC), C) cleaned lab values extracted using both LOINC[16, 17] and searched text lab test names, and D) cleaned lab values converted to Acute Physiology And Chronic Health Evaluation (APACHE) points, extracted using both LOINC and lab test names.

No Patient and Public Involvement

This research was done without patient involvement. Patients were not invited to comment on the study design and were not consulted to develop patient relevant outcomes or interpret the results. Patients were not invited to contribute to the writing or editing of this document for readability or accuracy.

Predictor Variables

In our primary analyses, we adjust for 10 laboratory values that were collected within one day of hospital admission. Further patient-level adjustments included demographic characteristics (gender, age, race, and Hispanic ethnicity), 30 comorbidities, and 38 primary diagnoses. The individual comorbidities used in models are defined by methods described in van Walraven's implementation of the Elixhauser comorbidity score[18]. We adjust for 38 primary diagnoses drawn from the Healthcare Cost and Utilization (HCUP) Clinical Classification Software (CCS)[19], which consist of the top 20 most frequent single-level CCS diagnoses and 18 level-one multi-level categories of diagnoses (Appendix A.) In secondary

1 analyses, to emphasize the role of data cleanliness, we estimate risk using *only* the laboratory values since the non-
2 laboratory values do not vary in data cleanliness and curation.
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7 **Outcome Variable: 30-day mortality**

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9 Our primary outcome variable is 30-day all-cause mortality, defined as death within 30 days of the admission date for the
10 index hospitalization. Mortality is evaluated using the highly reliable Veterans Administration beneficiary death files which
11 aggregate from multiple sources[12, 20, 21].
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18 **Statistical Analysis and Model Development**

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20 Random Forests is an ensemble machine learning method that aggregates the results of multiple decision trees fit on
21 bootstrap samples of the original data[22, 23]. For each decision tree, the original data are bootstrapped to create a new
22 dataset of the same size and the tree is fit to the new data. Instead of considering all predictors to determine the splitting
23 criterion at a node, the split variable is chosen from a random subset of variables in order to reduce the correlation
24 between different trees. Many such trees are grown, creating a ‘forest’. Each observation is classified by each tree, and
25 the majority classification over all trees is the predicted class. The ability of random forests to learn nonlinear and complex
26 functions contributes to its predictive performance.
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38 The neural network[24] can “learn” to classify samples without manual designed task-specific rules. The algorithm applies
39 different weights to predictors and uses these transformations in subsequent “layers” of the neural net, culminating in
40 the output layer with predictions. We applied the random forest and the neural network on our task. A traditional logistic
41 regression model was also performed and compared.
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49 Statistical analyses were performed with Python and the scikit-learn package[25].
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54 **Training and Testing Sets**

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1 The dataset was randomly split into a 70% training set and a 30% testing set. The same split was used for all classification
2 methods. This process was replicated five times (five different training sets and corresponding testing set were generated),
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4 and each time the models were fit on the training set and used to predict the 30-day mortality of the testing set.
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9 **Missing Data and Imputation**

11 We imputed the missing values before training and testing the models, comparing:
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- 14 ● “Mean Value”: the mean value of each variable in the training set was used to replace missing values[26].
- 16 ● “Random Forest”: used random forest to impute missing values (missForest)[27].
- 18 ● “Extremely Randomized Trees (Extra-Trees Regression)”: this method is similar to random forest but is faster[28,
20 29].
- 22 ● “Ridge Regression”: used Bayesian Ridge regression to impute missing values[30].
- 24 ● “Normal Value”[31]: normal values were used to impute missing values—this is common in clinical prediction
26 contexts in which it is assumed that clinicians order tests they fear are not normal, and therefore the absence of
28 such a test is a sign that the clinician reviewed other aspects of the patient’s case and judged the odds of
30 physiologic abnormality so low that testing was not indicated.
- 32 ● “No Missing”: case-wise deletion[32].

39 **Variable Importance and Partial Dependence Plots**

41 Predictor variable importance was evaluated for random forests[33]. When classifying a sample using a decision tree, a
42 predictor was used at each node. Predictors that appear more frequently and that reduce the misclassification more
43 substantially are considered more important. By combining all trees in a random forest model, we assessed the variable
44 importance of each predictor. Different values of the same predictor may have different effects on the prediction. We
45 plotted the Partial Dependence Plots[30] to show how the value of predictors affects the prediction of 30-day mortality.
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53 Partial dependence plots were used to visualize non-linearity among variables.
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RESULTS

Cohort Description

The cohort comprised 355,823 ICU hospitalizations at over 100 different hospitals, as described elsewhere[15]. The mean age of the cohort was 66.9 years, and there were 34,867 deaths within 30-days of admission, a primary outcome event rate of 9.8% (Table 1.)

Table 1. ICU Patient Demographics

Variables	ICU Only Cohort
Hospitalizations, N	355,823
Age, mean (SD), y	66.9 (11.6)
Male, N (%)	341,579 (96.0)
Race, N (%)	
White	256,293 (72.0)
Black or African American	73,855 (20.8)
Other	25,675 (7.2)
Hispanic, N (%)	20,532 (5.8)
30-day Mortality, N (%)	34,867 (9.8)
Length of Stay, mean (SD), days	9.5 (13.0)

Rates of data missingness for each laboratory value in each dataset are shown in Table 2. Dataset A has a high proportion of missing laboratory values for blood urea nitrogen (0.84) and hematocrit (0.85) compared to datasets B and C. This is due to dataset A using a single, broad lab test name to identify laboratory values: “BUN” for blood urea nitrogen and “hematocrit” for hematocrit. In contrast, datasets B and C incorporated LOINC codes for BUN and HCT, which result in fewer missing laboratory values.

Table 2. Proportion of Labs Missing

Dataset	Albumin (albval)	Bilirubin (bili)	Blood urea nitrogen (bun)	Creatinine (creat)	Glucose (glucose)	Hematocrit (hct)	Partial Pressure (pao2)	pH (pa)	Sodium (na)	White Blood Cell (wbc)
A	0.39	0.42	0.84	0.13	0.07	0.85	0.66	0.14	0.11	0.13
B	0.38	0.42	0.13	0.13	0.06	0.12	0.65	0.44	0.11	0.13
C	0.39	0.45	0.13	0.12	0.06	0.11	0.69	0.64	0.11	0.13

Using all Data for Model Development

1 Figure 1 shows the AUC scores of different classification models and imputation methods in the primary analysis. The
2 highest AUC's obtained for each primary classification method (rows of the figure: logistic regression, random forest, or a
3 neural network) were very similar: AUC's of 0.83 to 0.85. Likewise, there was relatively little variation within classification
4 method by the missing value imputation method used, be it mean value imputation, random forest, extremely randomized
5 trees (extra-trees regression), ridge regression, or normal value imputation. All models suffered dramatic losses in
6 discrimination when case-wise deletion was used for missing data in the least clean dataset (far right columns). Full model
7 performance for each condition can be seen in Appendix B.
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18 Variation in discrimination was seen, however, across classification methods, as a function of data cleanliness. (Note that
19 the analyst was blinded during the analysis to how each dataset was developed, and hence did not know which was
20 "cleanest"). In the logistic regression model developed using the least clean data (dataset A had raw lab values extracted
21 using only lab test names), performance was always lower than the performance with the more complete and clean
22 datasets—by AUC's of 0.05 to about 0.1, p -value < 0.05). Similarly, performance in dataset B (extracted using LOINC codes
23 without unit standardization) was lower and more unstable for mean value imputation and ridge regression. In marked
24 contrast, neither random forests nor neural networks showed such reduced performance when developed in less clean
25 data—in no case did the AUC degradations exceed 0.025 despite similar optimal performance.
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38 **Secondary Analysis Using only Laboratory Values**

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40 The primary analysis presented above considers the real world case in which demographics, diagnoses, and laboratory
41 values are used in combination with risk model prediction. Yet, of these, only laboratory values were subject to variation
42 in cleanliness. We, therefore, conducted a secondary analysis using only laboratory values to assess more clearly the
43 impact of data quality. Results are shown in Figure 2.
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51 Average model performance with this much smaller group of predictors is, as expected, somewhat lower with less data—
52 optimal AUC's typically range from 0.73 to 0.78 across combinations of classification model and missing data imputation.
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54 No uniformly superior strategy is evident, save markedly lower performance of case-wise deletion in the least clean
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dataset (A). As before, logistic regression shows markedly reduced discrimination when developed in the least clean data set. Neural networks show consistent performance.

Also notable is the marked reduction of discrimination of random forest models and neural network models regardless of the missing data imputation model used within dataset D. Dataset D has the “cleanest” data, in that it has hand-curated inclusion criteria, standardization of units, and conversion of values from their continuous scale to a semi-quantitative set of “points” as is done in the APACHE scoring algorithms. Attempting to work with such standardized point values as inputs consistently resulted in markedly worse discrimination in random forest models and neural network models than using other “less clean” datasets (the difference between Dataset D and other datasets is significant with a p-value < 0.05).

Variable Importance

The most important predictors of 30-day mortality were age and laboratory values. Age had the highest importance scores, regardless of which dataset was used, indicating that age is the most important variable when predicting 30-day mortality.

The 10 laboratory values also had high importance scores. For datasets A, B, and C, laboratory values fell in the top-13 most important variables, and there were at least 8 laboratory values in the top-10 most important variables. However, for dataset D, there were only 6 laboratory values in the top-10 most important variables, and the variable white blood cell score ranked 20th. This may indicate that transforming laboratory values to APACHE scores results in the loss of information contained in the original values and negatively influences the performance of the random forest model.

Partial Dependence Plots

As it is hard to visualize the relationship between multiple predictors and the outcome, we created partial dependence plots to show the effect of predictors on the outcome[34]. The plots can also show whether the relationship between a specific predictor and the outcome is linear, quadratic, monotonic, or more complex. Further analysis can be done by combining the partial dependence plots and medical knowledge. **Figure 3** and **Figure 4** are the partial dependence plots for the pH score and the PaO₂ score. We will take these as examples to show how the value of predictors in different datasets affects 30-day mortality. The X-axis is the value of the predictor. For each value of the predictor, the Y-axis is the averaged model output for all observations with the corresponding value of the predictor. A higher partial dependence

1 value corresponds to a higher risk of mortality. As we know, the normal value of the pH score is 7.4, and both higher values
2 and lower values are abnormal. Typically, abnormal values lead to a larger risk of death. Therefore, a U-shaped partial
3 dependence plot is to be expected for datasets A, B, and C. However, only the plot for dataset C is U-shaped. This is
4 because dataset C is "cleaner" than datasets A and B, and the models can learn the real effect of pH score on 30-day
5 mortality. Datasets A and B are not as clean as dataset C, as some other variables are presented in these datasets as pH
6 score. Thus, it is difficult for the models to utilize the pH score variable in datasets A and B. This result indicates that
7 cleaner variables benefits the classification models. However, not all variables have this problem. For most other variables
8 such as the PaO₂ score, the plots of datasets A, B, and C have similar trends.
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20 **DISCUSSION**

21 We used real data from a large nationwide health system to explore the interaction between missing data imputation
22 techniques, data cleanliness, and classification methods for the common problem of predicting 30-day mortality in a hold-
23 out testing dataset. In brief, we found that any of several imputation techniques other than case-wise deletion performed
24 equivalently in terms of discrimination, regardless of data cleanliness or classification method used. We found that logistic
25 regression showed worse discrimination with less carefully cleaned data than did random forest or neural networks.
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27 Random forest models (and to a degree, neural networks) displayed diminished discrimination when given data that had
28 been too highly cleaned and standardized prior to use.
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41 **Relationship to Past Research**

42 Missing data are ubiquitous in large datasets. Even when missingness is completely at random, missing data lead to
43 significant loss in statistical power and predictive ability[32]. We have previously found that the Random Forest method
44 consistently produced the lowest imputation error compared to commonly used imputation methods[26]. Random Forest
45 had the smallest prediction difference when 10-30% of the laboratory data was missing. Our present analysis of real data
46 shows that as more specialized laboratory values are introduced into the prediction setting, much higher levels of
47 missingness may be present. We thereby extend the previous finding that Random Forest continues to perform well for
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1 missing data. Our findings on the poor performance of case-wise deletion as an approach to handling missing data are in
2 agreement with mainstream recommendations for more than two decades[32].
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7 Our findings on missing data are of note because of the distinctive, yet real world, way in which missing data were
8 generated. There were two missingness processes. First, clinicians in routine practice only sometimes order any given
9 laboratory, and thus the presence or absence of an order may itself provide prognostic importance. [35] Second, a given
10 effort to identify all of a given target laboratory values may or may not succeed. Even in a large system with a strong
11 tradition of centralization, the extent to which laboratory ascension and labeling practices coincide with their aspiration
12 varies over time, and often clinical insight is necessary to distinguish valid laboratory tests[36]. For any given data pull, it
13 is not trivial to understand which missing values represent failure to find data that exist versus representing true
14 missingness. Past work has rarely explicitly considered these distinct missingness-generating processes (in addition to true
15 missingness at random) at their distinct implications.
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30 The finding of poorer discrimination of Random Forest in models where the data were fully standardized and cleaned was
31 not anticipated given past literature. The APACHE score was designed to simplify the lab results and to help doctors predict
32 mortality [2]. Even in its more recent incarnations, APACHE transforms continuous lab results into discrete acute
33 physiology scores[37]. Our data suggest that transforming lab results to APACHE scores is not necessary for Random Forest
34 and may even lead to the loss of information[23]. Remarkably, even standardization to equivalent units across institutions
35 may not be necessary—but at the same time, this means that sources of variance other than simply the laboratory value
36 may also be subtly incorporated into risk-prediction with non-standardized ways. It is a case-specific decision as to
37 whether incorporation of such variance is helpful for a given task or is a source of bias.
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50 **Implications**

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52 Our findings have implications for both practitioners seeking to implement a given prediction rule and scientists interested
53 in risk-prediction generally. For practitioners, no given method yields consistently superior results in terms of
54 discrimination. Therefore, other performance considerations, whether psychometric or implementation ease, may play
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1 an important role. They also suggest that missing data imputation approaches other than case-wise deletion during
2 development are mandatory.
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7 Our results also note that Random Forests and neural networks were strikingly robust to even quite naively prepared data,
8 in contrast to logistic regression. This suggests that the truth of the oft-quoted aphorisms about “garbage in, garbage out”
9 may depend on the categorization model and missing data imputation method used. In situations where ascertainment
10 and cleaning of data are more costly, random forests may offer pragmatic advantages if these findings are replicable.
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18 **Strengths and Limitations**

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21 Strengths of our analysis include its use of real world data, with real world data generation and missingness-generation
22 problems on an established problem encountered by medical researchers and clinicians. We also used multiple methods
23 implemented in standardized ways. The approach we used for each implementation is available in an Appendix or via
24 GitHub to allow transparency and reproducibility.
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32 Limitations of our analysis stem fundamentally from the nearly infinite combinations of analysis factors that might be
33 varied, and our inability to explore such a high dimensional space. Thus we only considered one outcome and one
34 standardization method, and decided upon an a priori approach for each combination of dataset, categorization model,
35 and missingness imputation method used. Other outcomes and other possible data structures (such as using trends in
36 data) may yield different answers. We focus on discrimination, as measured by AUC, but other measurement properties
37 are assuredly also important. We also focused on individual-level prediction, as opposed to considering the impact on
38 hospital-level quality assessment or other tasks for which these results may be used.
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50 **CONCLUSION**

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53 In sum, our results suggest that there is little variation in discrimination among different statistical classification models
54 in well-cleaned data using modern missing data imputation techniques. As such, the decision about which of the well-
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1 performing imputation and adjustment methods to use can be made based on other factors relevant to the particular
2 application—as long as the lower performing methods are avoided. If these findings are replicated in other data with other
3 outcomes, they may help inform pragmatic model selection.
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Figure Captions

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2 Figure 1. AUC Scores, Full Model

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4 Figure 2. AUC Scores for lab-only predictors

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6 Figure 3. Partial Dependence Plots for pH

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8 Figure 4. Partial Dependence Plots for PaO₂

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Author Contributions

Theodore J. Iwashyna: Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing

Cheng Ma: Formal analysis, software, visualization, writing-original draft, and writing-review & editing

Xiao Qing Wang: Data curation; Writing – original draft; Writing – review & editing

Sarah Seelye : Writing – original draft; Writing – review & editing

Ji Zhu : Conceptualization, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing

Akbar K. Waljee: Conceptualization, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing

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Data Sharing Statement:

Appendices and statistical code are available via Github at <https://github.com/CCMRcodes/GIVO> . The dataset cannot be disseminated due to inclusion of sensitive patient information under VA regulations.

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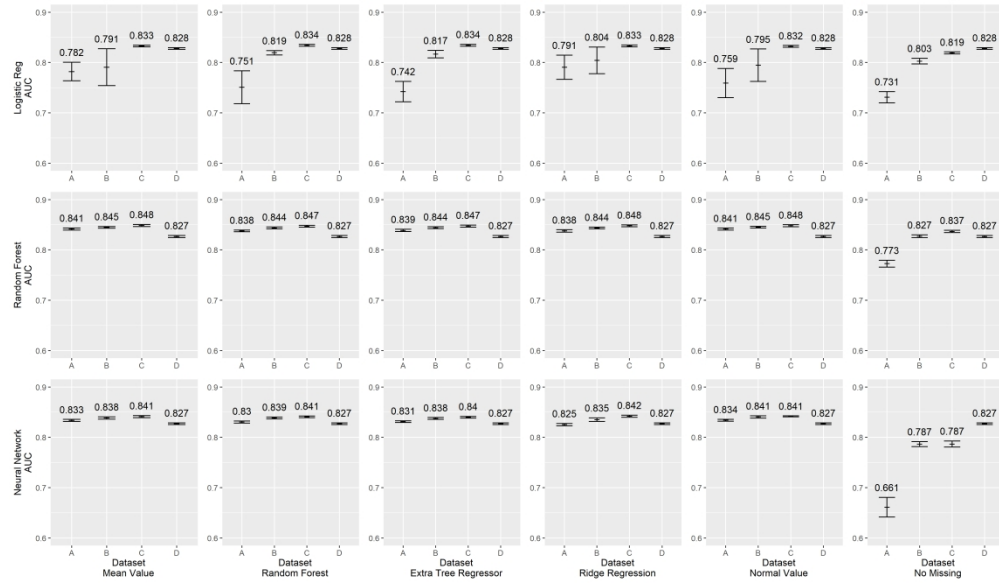


Figure 1: AUC Scores, Full Model

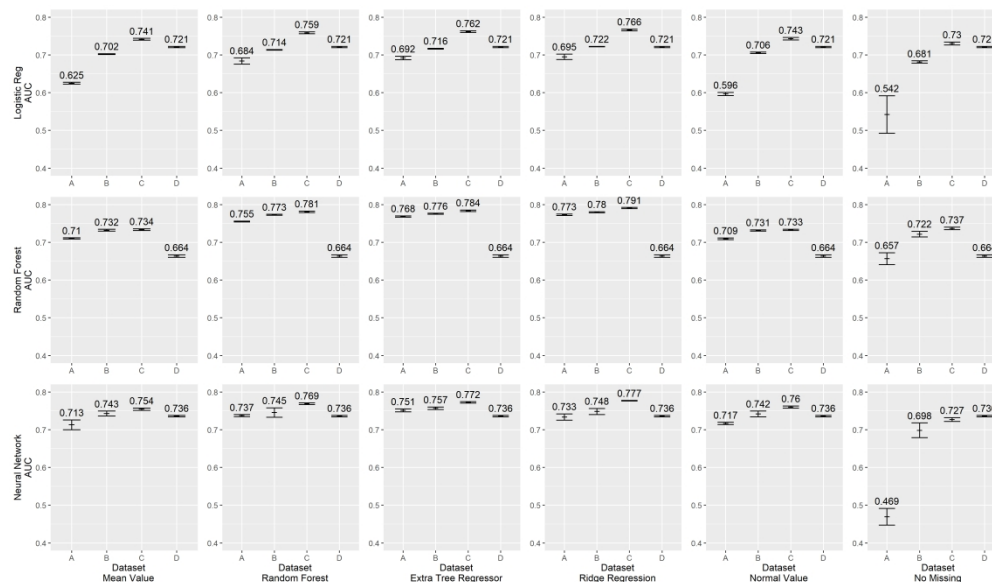
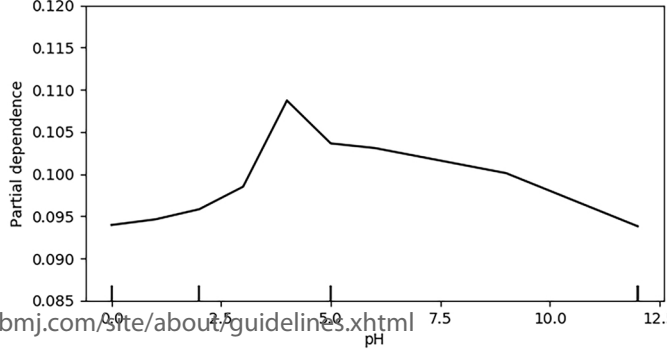
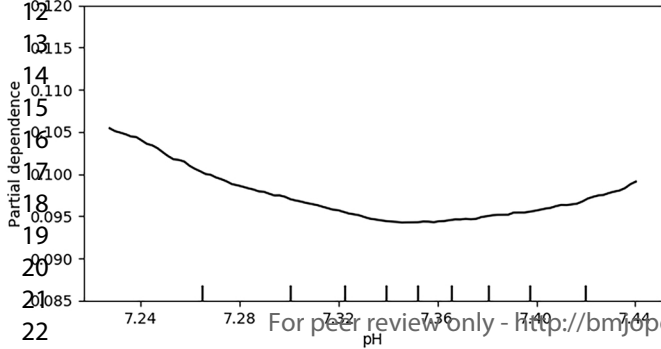
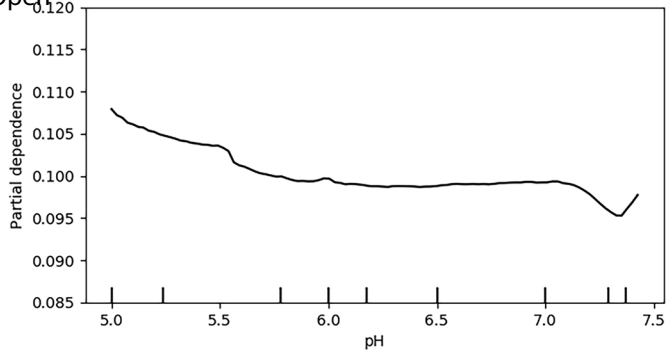
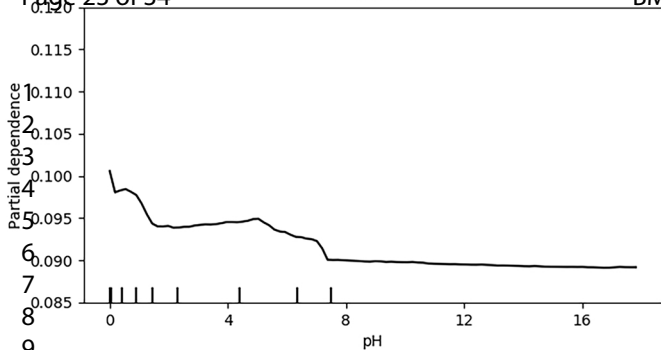


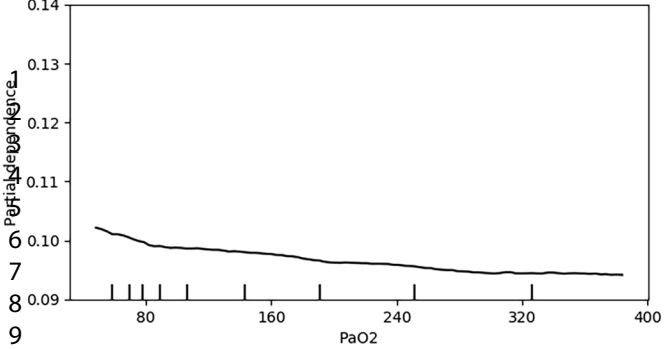
Figure 2. AUC Scores for lab-only predictors



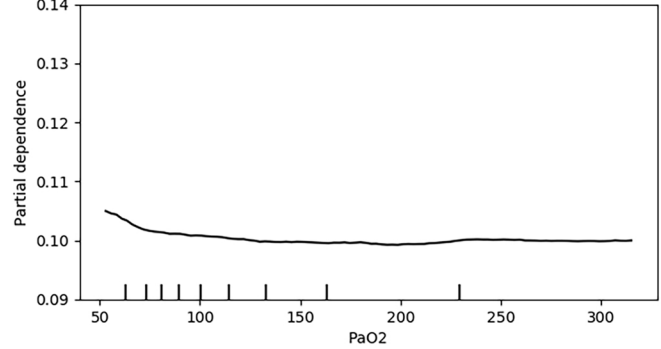
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Figure 3: Partial Dependence Plots for pH

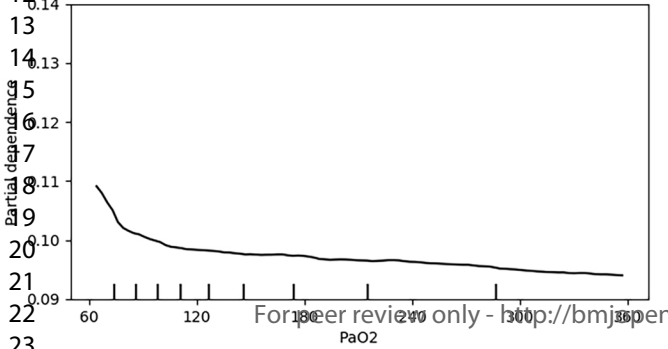
Dataset A



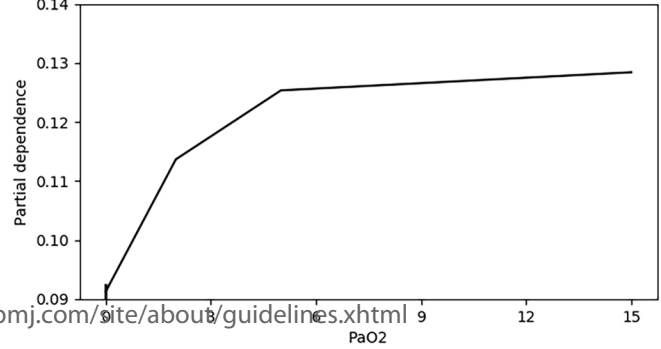
Dataset B



Dataset C



Dataset D



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Figure 4: Partial Dependence Plots PaO2

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3 **Appendix A.** Patient-level variables included in models
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Demographics	Gender, Age, Race (White, Black or African American, Asian, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, Unknown), Hispanic ethnicity
Comorbidities, included in Elixhauser	Hypertension, Congestive Heart Failure, Cardiac Arrhythmia, Valvular Disease, Pulmonary Circulation Disorders, Peripheral Vascular Disorders, Paralysis, Other Neurological Disorders, Chronic Pulmonary Disease, Diabetes Uncomplicated, Diabetes Complicated, Hypothyroidism, Renal Failure, Liver Disease, Peptic Ulcer Disease excluding bleeding, AIDS/HIV, Lymphoma, Metastatic Cancer, Solid Tumor without Metastasis, Rheumatoid Arthritis/Collagen, Coagulopathy, Obesity, Weight Loss, Fluid and Electrolyte Disorders, Blood Loss Anemia, Deficiency Anemia, Alcohol Abuse, Drug Abuse, Psychoses, Depression
Diagnoses, HCUP CCS single-level and multi-level	<p>Top 20 most frequent single-level CCS diagnoses: Congestive Heart Failure (non-hypertensive), Non-specific Chest Pain, Coronary Atherosclerosis and Other Heart Disease, Cardiac Dysrhythmias, Alcohol-related Disorders, Septicemia (except in labor), Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease and Bronchiectasis, Pneumonia, Skin and Subcutaneous Tissue Infections, Osteoarthritis, Complication of Device (implant or graft), Complications of Surgical Procedures or Medical Care, Diabetes Mellitus with Complications, Respiratory Failure, Urinary Tract Infections, Renal Failure, Spondylosis, Acute Myocardial Infarction, Fluid and Electrolyte Disorders, Gastrointestinal Hemorrhage</p> <p>18 level 1 multi-level CCS categories: Infectious and Parasitic Diseases, Neoplasms, Endocrine Disorders, Anemia, Mental Illness, Diseases of the Nervous System, Diseases of the Circulatory System, Diseases of the Respiratory System, Diseases of the Digestive System, Diseases of the Genitourinary System, Complications of Pregnancy or Childbirth, Skin Disease, Diseases of the Musculoskeletal System, Congenital Anomalies, Perinatal Conditions, Injury and Poisoning, Other Health Status Conditions, Other Residual Codes</p>
Laboratory values	Albumin, Bilirubin, Blood Urea Nitrogen, Creatinine, Glucose, Hematocrit, Partial pressure of oxygen score, pH score, Sodium, White Blood Cell

Appendix B

Table B.1: Model Performances (Full Model)

Classification Method	Dataset	Imputation Method	AUROC (95%CI)	Optimal Cutoff	Predicted Cases		Accurate Rate		Sensitivity	Specificity	Brier Score
					Death	Survival	Death	Survival			
Logistic Regression	A	Mean Value	0.78(0.76-0.80)	0.48	37199	69549	0.21	0.96	0.74	0.69	0.19
Logistic Regression	B	Mean Value	0.79(0.75-0.83)	0.46	34915	71833	0.24	0.97	0.80	0.72	0.17
Logistic Regression	C	Mean Value	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.46	35970	70778	0.23	0.97	0.79	0.71	0.17
Logistic Regression	A	Random Forest	0.75(0.72-0.78)	0.49	39528	67220	0.18	0.95	0.69	0.66	0.21
Logistic Regression	B	Random Forest	0.82(0.82-0.82)	0.49	31996	74752	0.25	0.97	0.77	0.75	0.17
Logistic Regression	C	Random Forest	0.83(0.83-0.84)	0.46	36017	70731	0.23	0.97	0.79	0.71	0.17
Logistic Regression	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.74(0.72-0.76)	0.46	45762	60986	0.17	0.96	0.74	0.61	0.21
Logistic Regression	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.82(0.81-0.82)	0.47	33642	73106	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.74	0.17
Logistic Regression	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.83(0.83-0.84)	0.47	34579	72169	0.24	0.97	0.78	0.73	0.17
Logistic Regression	A	Ridge Regression	0.79(0.77-0.82)	0.46	38579	68169	0.21	0.97	0.78	0.68	0.18
Logistic Regression	B	Ridge Regression	0.80(0.78-0.83)	0.46	35034	71714	0.24	0.97	0.80	0.72	0.17

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Logistic Regression	C	Ridge Regression	0.83(0.83-0.84)	0.47	35220	71528	0.23	0.97	0.78	0.72	0.17
Logistic Regression	A	Normal Value	0.76(0.73-0.79)	0.50	37392	69356	0.18	0.95	0.63	0.68	0.22
Logistic Regression	B	Normal Value	0.80(0.76-0.83)	0.50	30977	75771	0.26	0.97	0.76	0.76	0.17
Logistic Regression	C	Normal Value	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.46	35676	71072	0.23	0.97	0.78	0.72	0.17
Logistic Regression	A	No Missing	0.73(0.72-0.74)	0.43	37658	69090	0.18	0.95	0.66	0.68	0.18
Logistic Regression	B	No Missing	0.8(0.80-0.81)	0.42	33153	73595	0.24	0.97	0.76	0.74	0.14
Logistic Regression	C	No Missing	0.82(0.82-0.82)	0.44	35333	71415	0.22	0.96	0.76	0.72	0.16
Logistic Regression	D	None	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.47	34184	72564	0.24	0.97	0.78	0.73	0.17
Random Forest	A	Mean Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.12	32330	74418	0.26	0.97	0.79	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	B	Mean Value	0.85(0.84-0.85)	0.11	32642	74106	0.26	0.97	0.80	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	C	Mean Value	0.85(0.85-0.85)	0.11	33548	73200	0.25	0.97	0.81	0.74	0.07
Random Forest	A	Random Forest	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.12	32659	74089	0.25	0.97	0.78	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	B	Random Forest	0.84(0.84-0.85)	0.11	34093	72655	0.25	0.97	0.81	0.73	0.07

Random Forest	C	Random Forest	0.85(0.85-0.85)	0.11	33029	73719	0.25	0.97	0.80	0.74	0.07
Random Forest	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.11	32938	73810	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.74	0.07
Random Forest	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.84(0.84-0.85)	0.12	32411	74337	0.26	0.97	0.80	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.85(0.85-0.85)	0.11	33567	73181	0.25	0.97	0.80	0.74	0.07
Random Forest	A	Ridge Regression	0.84(0.45-0.84)	0.11	34587	72161	0.24	0.97	0.80	0.73	0.07
Random Forest	B	Ridge Regression	0.84(0.84-0.85)	0.12	31643	75105	0.26	0.97	0.79	0.76	0.07
Random Forest	C	Ridge Regression	0.85(0.85-0.85)	0.12	32531	74217	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	A	Normal Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.12	31234	75514	0.26	0.97	0.78	0.76	0.07
Random Forest	B	Normal Value	0.85(0.84-0.85)	0.11	32711	74037	0.26	0.97	0.80	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	C	Normal Value	0.85(0.85-0.85)	0.12	31159	75589	0.26	0.97	0.78	0.76	0.07
Random Forest	A	No Missing	0.77(0.77-0.78)	0.18	36332	70416	0.20	0.96	0.71	0.70	0.08
Random Forest	B	No Missing	0.83(0.82-0.83)	0.16	31836	74912	0.25	0.97	0.77	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	C	No Missing	0.84(0.83-0.84)	0.16	34517	72231	0.24	0.97	0.78	0.73	0.08

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Random Forest	D	None	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.11	33407	73341	0.24	0.97	0.77	0.74	0.07
Neural Network	A	Mean Value	0.83(0.83-0.84)	0.53	35031	71717	0.24	0.97	0.80	0.72	0.19
Neural Network	B	Mean Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.52	32716	74032	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.75	0.17
Neural Network	C	Mean Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.53	32549	74199	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.75	0.17
Neural Network	A	Random Forest	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.55	32515	74233	0.25	0.97	0.77	0.75	0.19
Neural Network	B	Random Forest	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.57	30842	75906	0.26	0.97	0.77	0.76	0.18
Neural Network	C	Random Forest	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.55	34144	72604	0.24	0.97	0.79	0.73	0.18
Neural Network	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.50	37351	69397	0.23	0.97	0.82	0.70	0.19
Neural Network	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.54	33529	73219	0.25	0.97	0.80	0.74	0.18
Neural Network	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.49	33324	73424	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.74	0.16
Neural Network	A	Ridge Regression	0.83(0.82-0.83)	0.51	33864	72884	0.24	0.97	0.78	0.73	0.17
Neural Network	B	Ridge Regression	0.84(0.83-0.84)	0.52	31186	75562	0.26	0.97	0.78	0.76	0.17
Neural Network	C	Ridge Regression	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.55	32145	74603	0.25	0.97	0.78	0.75	0.18

Neural Network	A	Normal Value	0.83(0.83-0.84)	0.58	31675	75073	0.25	0.97	0.77	0.76	0.19
Neural Network	B	Normal Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.45	35026	71722	0.24	0.97	0.81	0.72	0.16
Neural Network	C	Normal Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.55	32864	73884	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.75	0.18
Neural Network	A	No Missing	0.66(0.64-0.68)	0.76	49011	57737	0.14	0.94	0.65	0.56	0.50
Neural Network	B	No Missing	0.79(0.78-0.79)	0.59	32676	74072	0.23	0.96	0.71	0.74	0.21
Neural Network	C	No Missing	0.79(0.78-0.79)	0.59	38619	68129	0.20	0.96	0.75	0.68	0.24
Neural Network	D	None	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.52	33760	72988	0.24	0.97	0.78	0.73	0.18

Table B.2: Model Performance (Using only lab variables)

Classification Method	Dataset	Imputation Method	AUROC (95%CI)	Optimal Cutoff	Predicted Cases		Accurate Rate		Sensitivity	Specificity	Brier Score
					Death	Survival	Death	Survival			
Logistic Regression	A	Mean Value	0.63(0.62-0.63)	0.50	32327	74421	0.16	0.93	0.50	0.72	0.24
Logistic Regression	B	Mean Value	0.70(0.70-0.70)	0.47	33350	73398	0.21	0.95	0.66	0.73	0.20
Logistic Regression	C	Mean Value	0.74(0.74-0.74)	0.47	35248	71500	0.19	0.95	0.62	0.70	0.22
Logistic Regression	A	Random Forest	0.68(0.68-0.69)	0.48	39566	67182	0.17	0.94	0.63	0.66	0.23
Logistic Regression	B	Random Forest	0.71(0.71-0.71)	0.45	37758	68990	0.20	0.96	0.71	0.69	0.20
Logistic Regression	C	Random Forest	0.76(0.76-0.76)	0.47	38421	68327	0.18	0.95	0.66	0.67	0.21
Logistic Regression	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.69(0.69-0.70)	0.46	43607	63141	0.17	0.95	0.69	0.62	0.22
Logistic Regression	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.72(0.72-0.72)	0.44	39295	67453	0.20	0.96	0.73	0.67	0.19
Logistic Regression	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.76(0.76-0.76)	0.45	42675	64073	0.17	0.95	0.71	0.63	0.21
Logistic Regression	A	Ridge Regression	0.70(0.69-0.70)	0.47	42514	64234	0.17	0.95	0.69	0.63	0.22
Logistic Regression	B	Ridge Regression	0.72(0.72-0.72)	0.44	39856	66892	0.20	0.96	0.75	0.67	0.19

Logistic Regression	C	Ridge Regression	0.77(0.76-0.77)	0.45	42737	64011	0.17	0.95	0.71	0.63	0.21
Logistic Regression	A	Normal Value	0.60(0.59-0.60)	0.49	31990	74758	0.15	0.92	0.46	0.72	0.24
Logistic Regression	B	Normal Value	0.71(0.70-0.71)	0.45	38325	68423	0.19	0.95	0.70	0.68	0.20
Logistic Regression	C	Normal Value	0.74 (0.74-0.75)	0.46	41447	65301	0.17	0.95	0.68	0.64	0.22
Logistic Regression	A	No Missing	0.54 (0.49-0.59)	0.57	17678	89070	0.15	0.91	0.25	0.84	0.27
Logistic Regression	B	No Missing	0.68 n(0.68-0.68)	0.45	32766	73982	0.20	0.95	0.64	0.73	0.19
Logistic Regression	C	No Missing	0.73(0.73-0.73)	0.50	30965	75783	0.19	0.94	0.55	0.74	0.23
Logistic Regression	D	None	0.72(0.72-0.72)	0.49	35766	70982	0.19	0.95	0.64	0.70	0.21
Random Forest	A	Mean Value	0.71(0.71-0.71)	0.09	46226	60522	0.17	0.95	0.73	0.60	0.09
Random Forest	B	Mean Value	0.73(0.73-0.73)	0.10	44628	62120	0.18	0.96	0.75	0.62	0.09
Random Forest	C	Mean Value	0.73(0.73-0.74)	0.10	44525	62223	0.18	0.96	0.75	0.62	0.09
Random Forest	A	Random Forest	0.76(0.75-0.76)	0.09	41715	65033	0.18	0.96	0.74	0.65	0.08
Random Forest	B	Random Forest	0.77(0.77-0.77)	0.10	38154	68594	0.20	0.96	0.75	0.69	0.08

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Random Forest	C	Random Forest	0.78(0.78-0.78)	0.09	40709	66039	0.19	0.96	0.75	0.66	0.08
Random Forest	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.77(0.77-0.77)	0.09	43230	63518	0.19	0.96	0.77	0.64	0.08
Random Forest	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.78(0.77-0.78)	0.10	38734	68014	0.20	0.96	0.76	0.68	0.08
Random Forest	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.78(0.78-0.79)	0.10	38810	67938	0.20	0.96	0.74	0.68	0.08
Random Forest	A	Ridge Regression	0.77(0.77-0.78)	0.10	39913	66835	0.20	0.96	0.75	0.67	0.08
Random Forest	B	Ridge Regression	0.78(0.78-0.78)	0.09	39663	67085	0.20	0.97	0.77	0.67	0.08
Random Forest	C	Ridge Regression	0.79(0.79-0.79)	0.09	40249	66499	0.20	0.96	0.76	0.66	0.08
Random Forest	A	Normal Value	0.71(0.71-0.71)	0.10	46047	60701	0.17	0.95	0.73	0.60	0.09
Random Forest	B	Normal Value	0.73(0.73-0.73)	0.10	44400	62348	0.18	0.96	0.75	0.62	0.09
Random Forest	C	Normal Value	0.73(0.73-0.74)	0.09	46774	59974	0.17	0.96	0.77	0.60	0.09
Random Forest	A	No Missing	0.66(0.64-0.67)	0.26	20159	86589	0.21	0.93	0.40	0.83	0.10
Random Forest	B	No Missing	0.72(0.71-0.73)	0.14	52201	54547	0.16	0.96	0.78	0.54	0.08
Random Forest	C	No Missing	0.74(0.73-0.74)	0.21	26193	80555	0.22	0.94	0.55	0.79	0.09

Random Forest	D	None	0.66(0.66-0.67)	0.45	33868	72880	0.18	0.94	0.57	0.71	0.18
Neural Network	A	Mean Value	0.71(0.70-0.73)	0.47	33169	73579	0.19	0.94	0.60	0.72	0.19
Neural Network	B	Mean Value	0.74(0.74-0.75)	0.49	31171	75577	0.21	0.95	0.63	0.75	0.19
Neural Network	C	Mean Value	0.75(0.75-0.76)	0.40	42096	64652	0.18	0.96	0.74	0.64	0.18
Neural Network	A	Random Forest	0.74(0.74-0.74)	0.50	37930	68818	0.19	0.95	0.68	0.68	0.19
Neural Network	B	Random Forest	0.75(0.73-0.76)	0.54	36554	70194	0.20	0.96	0.71	0.70	0.22
Neural Network	C	Random Forest	0.77(0.77-0.77)	0.42	42444	64304	0.18	0.96	0.74	0.64	0.18
Neural Network	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.75(0.75-0.76)	0.42	44585	62163	0.18	0.96	0.76	0.62	0.18
Neural Network	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.76(0.75-0.76)	0.46	40067	66681	0.20	0.96	0.75	0.67	0.19
Neural Network	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.77(0.77-0.77)	0.48	39088	67660	0.19	0.96	0.71	0.67	0.20
Neural Network	A	Ridge Regression	0.73(0.73-0.74)	0.49	43129	63619	0.18	0.96	0.74	0.63	0.21
Neural Network	B	Ridge Regression	0.75(0.74-0.76)	0.44	39388	67360	0.20	0.96	0.74	0.67	0.18
Neural Network	C	Ridge Regression	0.78(0.78-0.78)	0.53	38048	68700	0.19	0.95	0.68	0.68	0.21

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Neural Network	A	Normal Value	0.72(0.71-0.72)	0.45	33193	73555	0.19	0.95	0.61	0.72	0.18
Neural Network	B	Normal Value	0.74(0.73-0.75)	0.50	37560	69188	0.20	0.96	0.71	0.69	0.20
Neural Network	C	Normal Value	0.76(0.76-0.76)	0.41	42187	64561	0.18	0.96	0.74	0.64	0.18
Neural Network	A	No Missing	0.47(0.45-0.49)	0.79	2628	104120	0.14	0.90	0.04	0.98	0.44
Neural Network	B	No Missing	0.70(0.68-0.72)	0.69	23720	83028	0.23	0.94	0.52	0.81	0.31
Neural Network	C	No Missing	0.73(0.72-0.73)	0.57	51077	55671	0.15	0.95	0.74	0.55	0.29
Neural Network	D	None	0.74(0.73-0.74)	0.50	36925	69823	0.19	0.95	0.67	0.69	0.21

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Variation in Model Performance by Data Cleanliness and Classification Methods in the Prediction of 30-day ICU Mortality, a US Nationwide Retrospective Cohort and Simulation Study

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Title: Variation in Model Performance by Data Cleanliness and Classification Methods in the Prediction of 30-day ICU Mortality, a US Nationwide Retrospective Cohort and Simulation Study

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Word count: 3,259

ABSTRACT

Objective: There has been a proliferation of approaches to statistical methods and missing data imputation as electronic health records become more plentiful; however, the relative performance on real-world problems is unclear.

Materials and Methods: Using 355,823 ICU hospitalizations at over 100 hospitals in the nationwide VA healthcare system (2014-2017), we systematically varied 3 approaches: how we extracted and cleaned physiologic variables; how we handled missing data (using mean value imputation, random forest, extremely randomized trees (extra-trees regression), ridge regression, normal value imputation, and case-wise deletion); and how we computed risk (using logistic regression, random forest, and neural networks). We applied these approaches in a 70% development sample and tested the results in an independent 30% testing sample. Area under the ROC Curve (AUROC) was used to quantify model discrimination.

Results: In 355,823 ICU stays, there were 34,867 deaths (9.8%) within 30 days of admission. The highest AUROC's obtained for each primary classification method were very similar: 0.83 (95% CI [0.83-0.83]) to 0.85 (95% CI 0.84-.0.85). Likewise, there was relatively little variation within classification method by the missing value imputation method used—except when case-wise deletion was applied for missing data.

Conclusion: Variation in discrimination was seen as a function of data cleanliness, with logistic regression suffering the most loss of discrimination in the least clean data. Losses in discrimination were not present in random forest and neural networks even in naively extracted data. Data from a large nationwide health system revealed interactions between missing data imputation techniques, data cleanliness, and classification methods for predicting 30-day mortality.

STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

- This study focuses on a large, real world dataset consisting of 355,823 ICU stays at over 100 different facilities.
- Multiple methods of model fitting and missing data imputation were implemented in standardized ways that reflect common practice.
- The approach we used for each implementation is available in an Appendix or via GitHub to allow transparency and reproducibility, and we encourage validation on other datasets.
- Due to high dimensionality of method combinations, this study only considered one outcome, and only considered one standardization method and decided upon an a priori approach within each dataset / categorization model / missingness imputation triad.

For peer review only

INTRODUCTION

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3 Risk adjustment plays an increasingly central role in the organization, care of, and science about critically ill patients[1, 2].
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5 Statistical adjustment, including the handling of missing data, is essential for many performance measurements as well as
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7 pay-for-performance and shared savings systems. It is used to stratify the care of patients for treatments and track quality
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9 improvement efforts over time[3]. It is routinely measured, even in clinical trials, to assess confounder balance between
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11 arms and may form part of RCT enrollment or drug approval criteria[4].
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17 As a result, there has been a proliferation of risk scores and missing data imputation tools both for the common task of
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19 short-term mortality prediction and for more specialized tasks. Many statistical tools have been promoted. Rules of thumb
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21 have developed and existed long enough to be critiqued[5-9]. The Transparent Reporting of a multivariable prediction
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23 model for Individual Prognosis Or Diagnosis (TRIPOD) guidelines offer standardization of reporting[10]. Textbooks have
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25 emerged[11]. Yet questions remain on fundamental pragmatic issues: How clean does the data have to be to prevent the
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27 so-called “garbage in, garbage out (GIGO)” phenomenon? How sensitive are methods to missing data and how should it
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29 be handled? Do these analytic decisions interact?
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35 To address such questions, we compared the performance of an array of methods on a single standardized problem—the
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37 prediction of 30-day mortality based on demographics, day 1 laboratory results, comorbidities, and diagnoses among
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39 patients admitted to the Intensive Care Unit (ICU) at any hospital in the nationwide Veterans Health Administration
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41 system[12-14]. Using the same set of real ICU admissions, we systematically varied three parameters: the approach used
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43 to extract and clean physiologic variables from the electronic health record; the approach used to handle missing data;
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45 and the approach used to compute the risk. We systematically applied these approaches in a 70% development sample
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47 and tested the results in an independent 30% testing sample, to provide real world comparisons to inform future
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49 pragmatic implementation of risk scores.
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METHODS

Cohort

Data were drawn from the Veterans Affairs Patient Database (VAPD), which contains daily patient physiology for acute hospitalizations between January 1, 2014 and December 31, 2017. The VAPD includes patient demographics, laboratory results, and diagnoses that are commonly used to predict 30-day mortality from the day of admission. Here, we included data from all ICU hospitalizations on day 1 of each hospitalization. Full details of the VAPD have been published elsewhere[15].

The development of this database was reviewed and approved by the VA Ann Arbor Healthcare System's Institutional Review Board.

Four versions of the dataset were created for each hospitalization on admission: A) raw lab values extracted using only lab test names, B) raw lab values extracted using only Logical Observation Identifiers Names and Codes (LOINC), C) cleaned lab values extracted using both LOINC[16, 17] and searched text lab test names, and D) cleaned lab values converted to Acute Physiology And Chronic Health Evaluation (APACHE) points, extracted using both LOINC and lab test names.

No Patient and Public Involvement

This research was done without patient involvement. Patients were not invited to comment on the study design and were not consulted to develop patient relevant outcomes or interpret the results. Patients were not invited to contribute to the writing or editing of this document for readability or accuracy.

Predictor Variables

In our primary analyses, we adjust for 10 laboratory values that were collected within one day of hospital admission. Further patient-level adjustments included demographic characteristics (gender, age, race, and Hispanic ethnicity), 30 comorbidities, and 38 primary diagnoses. The individual comorbidities used in models are defined by methods described in van Walraven's implementation of the Elixhauser comorbidity score[18]. We adjust for 38 primary diagnoses drawn from the Healthcare Cost and Utilization (HCUP) Clinical Classification Software (CCS)[19], which consist of the top 20 most frequent single-level CCS diagnoses and 18 level-one multi-level categories of diagnoses (Appendix A.) In secondary

1 analyses, to emphasize the role of data cleanliness, we estimate risk using *only* the laboratory values since the non-
2 laboratory values do not vary in data cleanliness and curation.
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7 **Outcome Variable: 30-day mortality**

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9 Our primary outcome variable is 30-day all-cause mortality, defined as death within 30 days of the admission date for the
10 index hospitalization. Mortality is evaluated using the highly reliable Veterans Administration beneficiary death files which
11 aggregate from multiple sources[12, 20, 21].
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18 **Statistical Analysis and Model Development**

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20 Random Forests is an ensemble machine learning method that aggregates the results of multiple decision trees fit on
21 bootstrap samples of the original data[22, 23]. For each decision tree, the original data are bootstrapped to create a new
22 dataset of the same size and the tree is fit to the new data. Instead of considering all predictors to determine the splitting
23 criterion at a node, the split variable is chosen from a random subset of variables in order to reduce the correlation
24 between different trees. Many such trees are grown, creating a ‘forest’. Each observation is classified by each tree, and
25 the majority classification over all trees is the predicted class. The ability of random forests to learn nonlinear and complex
26 functions contributes to its predictive performance.
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38 The neural network[24] can “learn” to classify samples without manual designed task-specific rules. The algorithm applies
39 different weights to predictors and uses these transformations in subsequent “layers” of the neural net, culminating in
40 the output layer with predictions. We applied the random forest and the neural network on our task. A traditional logistic
41 regression model was also performed and compared.
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49 Statistical analyses were performed with Python and the scikit-learn package[25].
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54 **Training and Testing Sets**

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1 The dataset was randomly split into a 70% training set and a 30% testing set. The same split was used for all classification
2 methods. This process was replicated five times (five different training sets and corresponding testing set were generated),
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4 and each time the models were fit on the training set and used to predict the 30-day mortality of the testing set.
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9 **Missing Data and Imputation**

11 We imputed the missing values before training and testing the models, comparing:
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- 14 • “Mean Value”: the mean value of each variable in the training set was used to replace missing values[26].
 - 15 • “Random Forest”: used random forest to impute missing values (missForest)[27].
 - 16 • “Extremely Randomized Trees (Extra-Trees Regression)”: this method is similar to random forest but is faster[28,
17 29].
 - 18 • “Ridge Regression”: used Bayesian Ridge regression to impute missing values[30].
 - 19 • “Normal Value”[31]: normal values were used to impute missing values—this is common in clinical prediction
20 contexts in which it is assumed that clinicians order tests they fear are not normal, and therefore the absence of
21 such a test is a sign that the clinician reviewed other aspects of the patient’s case and judged the odds of
22 physiologic abnormality so low that testing was not indicated.
 - 23 • “No Missing”: case-wise deletion[32].
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40 **Variable Importance and Partial Dependence Plots**

41 Predictor variable importance was evaluated for random forests[33]. When classifying a sample using a decision tree, a
42 predictor was used at each node. Predictors that appear more frequently and that reduce the misclassification more
43 substantially are considered more important. By combining all trees in a random forest model, we assessed the variable
44 importance of each predictor. Different values of the same predictor may have different effects on the prediction. We
45 plotted the Partial Dependence Plots[30] to show how the value of predictors affects the prediction of 30-day mortality.
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53 Partial dependence plots were used to visualize non-linearity among variables.
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RESULTS

Cohort Description

The cohort comprised 355,823 ICU hospitalizations at over 100 different hospitals, as described elsewhere[15]. The mean age of the cohort was 66.9 years, and there were 34,867 deaths within 30-days of admission, a primary outcome event rate of 9.8% (Table 1.)

Table 1. ICU Patient Demographics

Variables	ICU Only Cohort
Hospitalizations, N	355,823
Age, mean (SD), y	66.9 (11.6)
Male, N (%)	341,579 (96.0)
Race, N (%)	
White	256,293 (72.0)
Black or African American	73,855 (20.8)
Other	25,675 (7.2)
Hispanic, N (%)	20,532 (5.8)
30-day Mortality, N (%)	34,867 (9.8)
Length of Stay, mean (SD), days	9.5 (13.0)

Rates of data missingness for each laboratory value in each dataset are shown in Table 2. Dataset A has a high proportion of missing laboratory values for blood urea nitrogen (0.84) and hematocrit (0.85) compared to datasets B and C. This is due to dataset A using a single, broad lab test name to identify laboratory values: “BUN” for blood urea nitrogen and “hematocrit” for hematocrit. In contrast, datasets B and C incorporated LOINC codes for BUN and HCT, which result in fewer missing laboratory values.

Table 2. Proportion of Labs Missing

Dataset	Albumin (albval)	Bilirubin (bili)	Blood urea nitrogen (bun)	Creatinine (creat)	Glucose (glucose)	Hematocrit (hct)	Partial Pressure (pao2)	pH (pa)	Sodium (na)	White Blood Cell (wbc)
A	0.39	0.42	0.84	0.13	0.07	0.85	0.66	0.14	0.11	0.13
B	0.38	0.42	0.13	0.13	0.06	0.12	0.65	0.44	0.11	0.13
C	0.39	0.45	0.13	0.12	0.06	0.11	0.69	0.64	0.11	0.13

Using all Data for Model Development

1 Figure 1 shows the AUC scores of different classification models and imputation methods in the primary analysis. The
2 highest AUC's obtained for each primary classification method (rows of the figure: logistic regression, random forest, or a
3 neural network) were very similar: AUC's of 0.83 to 0.85. Likewise, there was relatively little variation within classification
4 method by the missing value imputation method used, be it mean value imputation, random forest, extremely randomized
5 trees (extra-trees regression), ridge regression, or normal value imputation. All models suffered dramatic losses in
6 discrimination when case-wise deletion was used for missing data in the least clean dataset (far right columns). Full model
7 performance for each condition can be seen in Appendix B.
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18 Variation in discrimination was seen, however, across classification methods, as a function of data cleanliness. (Note that
19 the analyst was blinded during the analysis to how each dataset was developed, and hence did not know which was
20 "cleanest"). In the logistic regression model developed using the least clean data (dataset A had raw lab values extracted
21 using only lab test names), performance was always lower than the performance with the more complete and clean
22 datasets—by AUC's of 0.05 to about 0.1, p -value < 0.05). Similarly, performance in dataset B (extracted using LOINC codes
23 without unit standardization) was lower and more unstable for mean value imputation and ridge regression. In marked
24 contrast, neither random forests nor neural networks showed such reduced performance when developed in less clean
25 data—in no case did the AUC degradations exceed 0.025 despite similar optimal performance.
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38 **Secondary Analysis Using only Laboratory Values**

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40 The primary analysis presented above considers the real world case in which demographics, diagnoses, and laboratory
41 values are used in combination with risk model prediction. Yet, of these, only laboratory values were subject to variation
42 in cleanliness. We, therefore, conducted a secondary analysis using only laboratory values to assess more clearly the
43 impact of data quality. Results are shown in Figure 2.
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51 Average model performance with this much smaller group of predictors is, as expected, somewhat lower with less data—
52 optimal AUC's typically range from 0.73 to 0.78 across combinations of classification model and missing data imputation.
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54 No uniformly superior strategy is evident, save markedly lower performance of case-wise deletion in the least clean
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dataset (A). As before, logistic regression shows markedly reduced discrimination when developed in the least clean data set. Neural networks show consistent performance.

Also notable is the marked reduction of discrimination of random forest models and neural network models regardless of the missing data imputation model used within dataset D. Dataset D has the “cleanest” data, in that it has hand-curated inclusion criteria, standardization of units, and conversion of values from their continuous scale to a semi-quantitative set of “points” as is done in the APACHE scoring algorithms. Attempting to work with such standardized point values as inputs consistently resulted in markedly worse discrimination in random forest models and neural network models than using other “less clean” datasets (the difference between Dataset D and other datasets is significant with a p-value < 0.05).

Variable Importance

The most important predictors of 30-day mortality were age and laboratory values. Age had the highest importance scores, regardless of which dataset was used, indicating that age is the most important variable when predicting 30-day mortality.

The 10 laboratory values also had high importance scores. For datasets A, B, and C, laboratory values fell in the top-13 most important variables, and there were at least 8 laboratory values in the top-10 most important variables. However, for dataset D, there were only 6 laboratory values in the top-10 most important variables, and the variable white blood cell score ranked 20th. This may indicate that transforming laboratory values to APACHE scores results in the loss of information contained in the original values and negatively influences the performance of the random forest model.

Partial Dependence Plots

As it is hard to visualize the relationship between multiple predictors and the outcome, we created partial dependence plots to show the effect of predictors on the outcome[34]. The plots can also show whether the relationship between a specific predictor and the outcome is linear, quadratic, monotonic, or more complex. Further analysis can be done by combining the partial dependence plots and medical knowledge. **Figure 3** and **Figure 4** are the partial dependence plots for the pH score and the PaO₂ score. We will take these as examples to show how the value of predictors in different datasets affects 30-day mortality. The X-axis is the value of the predictor. For each value of the predictor, the Y-axis is the averaged model output for all observations with the corresponding value of the predictor. A higher partial dependence

1 value corresponds to a higher risk of mortality. As we know, the normal value of the pH score is 7.4, and both higher values
2 and lower values are abnormal. Typically, abnormal values lead to a larger risk of death. Therefore, a U-shaped partial
3 dependence plot is to be expected for datasets A, B, and C. However, only the plot for dataset C is U-shaped. This is
4 because dataset C is "cleaner" than datasets A and B, and the models can learn the real effect of pH score on 30-day
5 mortality. Datasets A and B are not as clean as dataset C, as some other variables are presented in these datasets as pH
6 score. Thus, it is difficult for the models to utilize the pH score variable in datasets A and B. This result indicates that
7 cleaner variables benefits the classification models. However, not all variables have this problem. For most other variables
8 such as the PaO₂ score, the plots of datasets A, B, and C have similar trends.
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20 DISCUSSION

21 We used real data from a large nationwide health system to explore the interaction between missing data imputation
22 techniques, data cleanliness, and classification methods for the common problem of predicting 30-day mortality in a hold-
23 out testing dataset. In brief, we found that any of several imputation techniques other than case-wise deletion performed
24 equivalently in terms of discrimination, regardless of data cleanliness or classification method used. We found that logistic
25 regression showed worse discrimination with less carefully cleaned data than did random forest or neural networks.
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27 Random forest models (and to a degree, neural networks) displayed diminished discrimination when given data that had
28 been too highly cleaned and standardized prior to use.
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41 Relationship to Past Research

42 Missing data are ubiquitous in large datasets. Even when missingness is completely at random, missing data lead to
43 significant loss in statistical power and predictive ability[32]. We have previously found that the Random Forest method
44 consistently produced the lowest imputation error compared to commonly used imputation methods[26]. Random Forest
45 had the smallest prediction difference when 10-30% of the laboratory data was missing. Our present analysis of real data
46 shows that as more specialized laboratory values are introduced into the prediction setting, much higher levels of
47 missingness may be present. We thereby extend the previous finding that Random Forest continues to perform well for
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1 missing data. Our findings on the poor performance of case-wise deletion as an approach to handling missing data are in
2 agreement with mainstream recommendations for more than two decades[32].
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7 Our findings on missing data are of note because of the distinctive, yet real world, way in which missing data were
8 generated. There were two missingness processes. First, clinicians in routine practice only sometimes order any given
9 laboratory, and thus the presence or absence of an order may itself provide prognostic importance. [35] Second, an effort
10 to identify all target laboratory values may or may not succeed. Even in a large system with a strong tradition of
11 centralization, laboratory labeling practices vary over time and clinical insight is often necessary to distinguish valid
12 laboratory tests[36]. For any given data pull, it is not trivial to understand which missing values represent failure to find
13 data that exist versus representing true missingness. Past work has rarely explicitly considered these distinct missingness-
14 generating processes (in addition to true missingness at random) at their distinct implications.
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28 The finding of poorer discrimination of Random Forest in models where the data were fully standardized and cleaned was
29 not anticipated given past literature. The APACHE score was designed to simplify the lab results and to help doctors predict
30 mortality [2]. Even in its more recent incarnations, APACHE transforms continuous lab results into discrete acute
31 physiology scores[37]. Our data suggest that transforming lab results to APACHE scores is not necessary for Random Forest
32 and may even lead to the loss of information[23]. Remarkably, even standardization to equivalent units across institutions
33 may not be necessary—but at the same time, this means that sources of variance other than simply the laboratory value
34 may also be subtly incorporated into risk-prediction with non-standardized ways. It is a case-specific decision as to
35 whether incorporation of such variance is helpful for a given task or is a source of bias.
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48 **Implications**

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50 Our findings have implications for both practitioners seeking to implement a given prediction rule and scientists interested
51 in risk-prediction generally. For practitioners, no given method yields consistently superior results in terms of
52 discrimination. Therefore, other performance considerations, whether psychometric or implementation ease, may play
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1 an important role. They also suggest that missing data imputation approaches other than case-wise deletion during
2 development are mandatory.
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7 Our results also note that Random Forests and neural networks were strikingly robust to even quite naively prepared data,
8 in contrast to logistic regression. This suggests that the truth of the oft-quoted aphorisms about “garbage in, garbage out”
9 may depend on the categorization model and missing data imputation method used. In situations where ascertainment
10 and cleaning of data are more costly, random forests may offer pragmatic advantages if these findings are replicable.
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16 **Strengths and Limitations**

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22 Strengths of our analysis include its use of real world data, with real world data generation and missingness-generation
23 problems on an established problem encountered by medical researchers and clinicians. We also used multiple methods
24 implemented in standardized ways. The approach we used for each implementation is available in an Appendix or via
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GitHub to allow transparency and reproducibility.

Limitations of our analysis stem fundamentally from the nearly infinite combinations of analysis factors that might be
varied, and our inability to explore such a high dimensional space. Thus we only considered one outcome and one
standardization method, and decided upon an a priori approach for each combination of dataset, categorization model,
and missingness imputation method used. Other outcomes and other possible data structures (such as using trends in
data) may yield different answers. We focus on discrimination, as measured by AUC, but other measurement properties
are assuredly also important. We also focused on individual-level prediction, as opposed to considering the impact on
hospital-level quality assessment or other tasks for which these results may be used.

51 **CONCLUSION**

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In sum, our results suggest that there is little variation in discrimination among different statistical classification models
in well-cleaned data using modern missing data imputation techniques. As such, the decision about which of the well-

1 performing imputation and adjustment methods to use can be made based on other factors relevant to the particular
2 application—as long as the lower performing methods are avoided. If these findings are replicated in other data with other
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4 outcomes, they may help inform pragmatic model selection.
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Figure Captions

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2 Figure 1. AUC Scores, Full Model

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4 Figure 2. AUC Scores for lab-only predictors

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6 Figure 3. Partial Dependence Plots for pH

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8 Figure 4. Partial Dependence Plots for PaO₂

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Author Contributions

Theodore J. Iwashyna: Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing

Cheng Ma: Formal analysis, software, visualization, writing-original draft, and writing-review & editing

Xiao Qing Wang: Data curation; Writing – original draft; Writing – review & editing

Sarah Seelye : Writing – original draft; Writing – review & editing

Ji Zhu : Conceptualization, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing

Akbar K. Waljee: Conceptualization, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing

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Data Sharing Statement:

Appendices and statistical code are available via Github at <https://github.com/CCMRcodes/GIVO> . The dataset cannot be disseminated due to inclusion of sensitive patient information under VA regulations.

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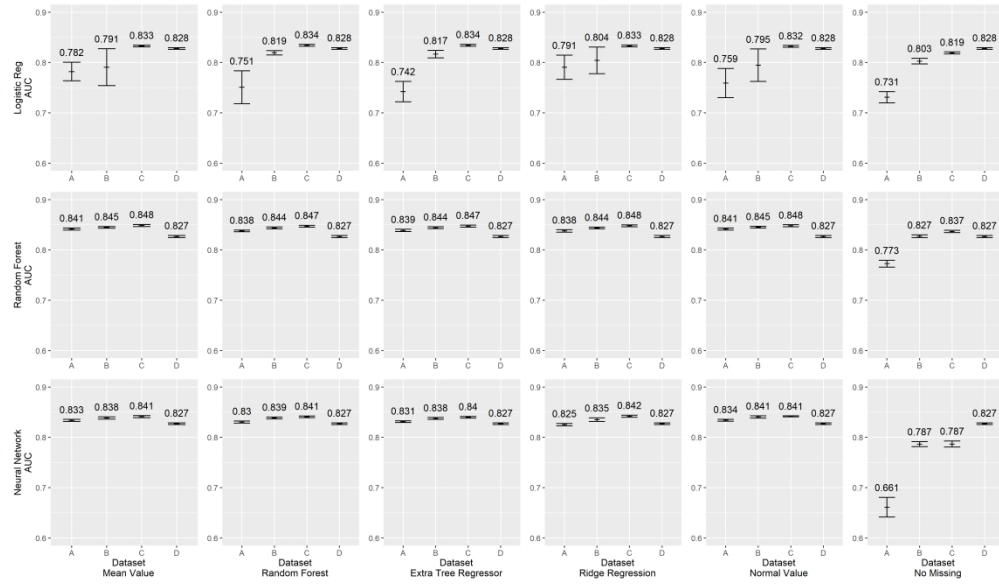


Figure 1: AUC Scores, Full Model

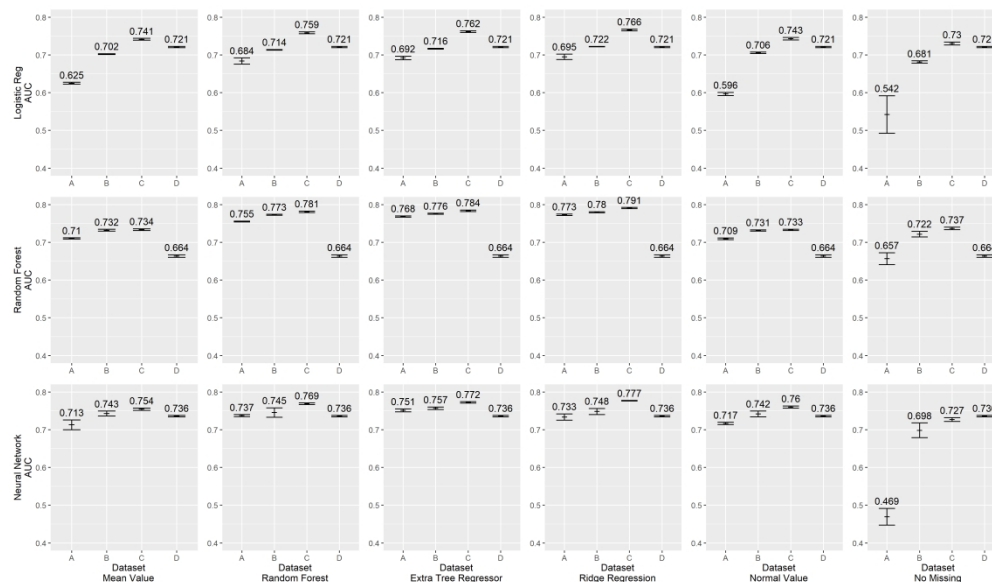
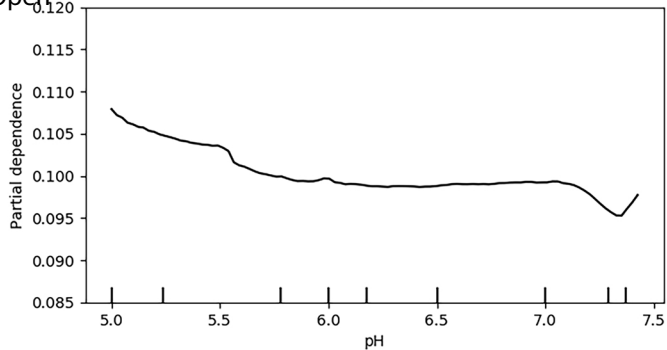
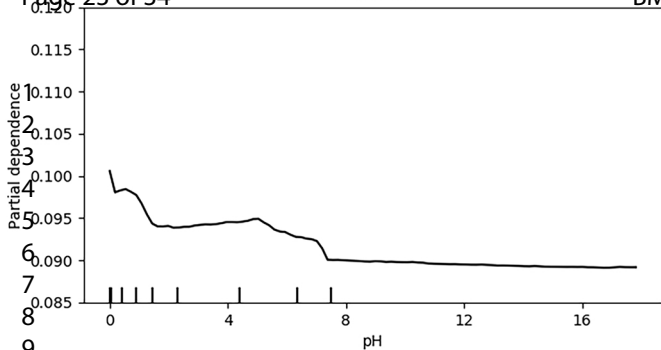
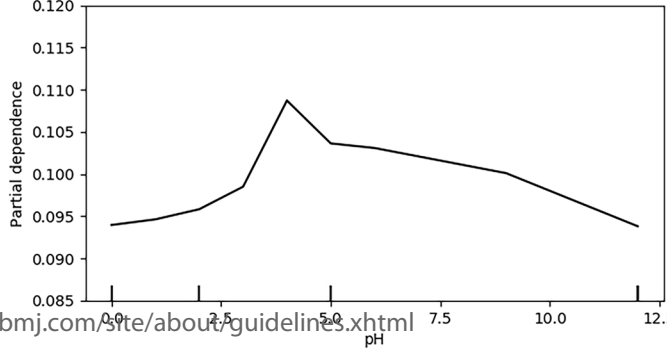
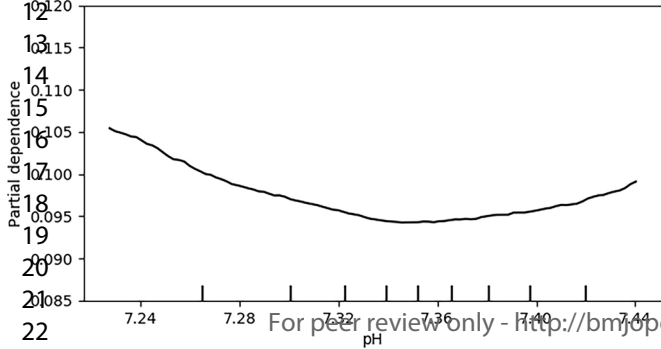


Figure 2. AUC Scores for lab-only predictors



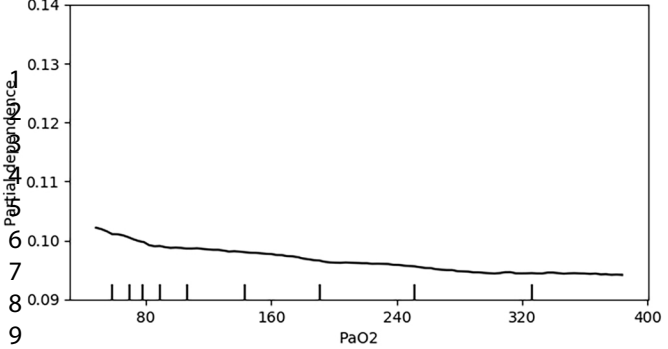
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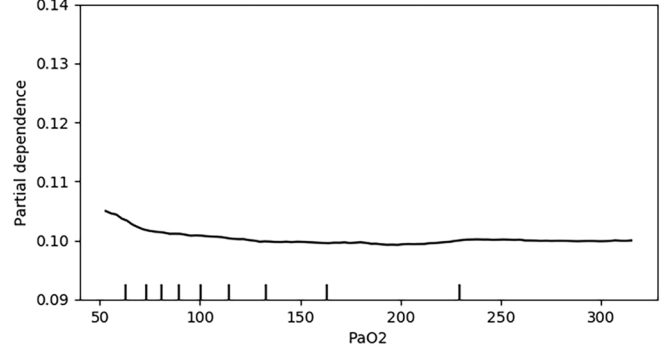
For peer review only - <http://bmjopen.bmj.com/site/about/guidelines.xhtml>

Figure 3: Partial Dependence Plots for pH

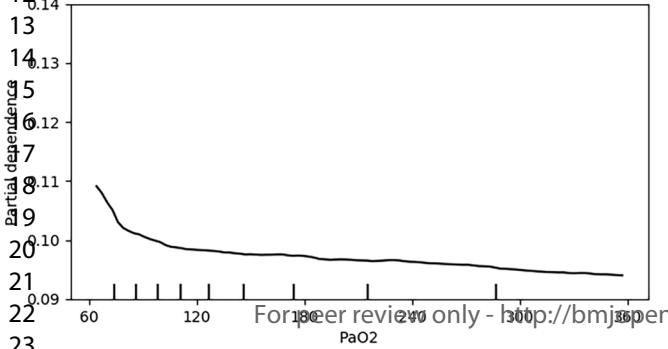
Dataset A



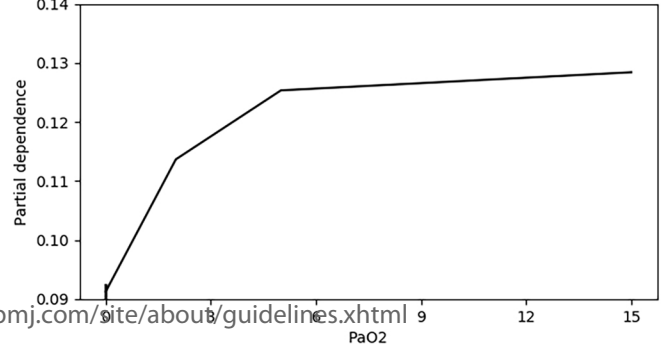
Dataset B



Dataset C



Dataset D



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Figure 4: Partial Dependence Plots PaO2

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3 **Appendix A.** Patient-level variables included in models
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Demographics	Gender, Age, Race (White, Black or African American, Asian, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, Unknown), Hispanic ethnicity
Comorbidities, included in Elixhauser	Hypertension, Congestive Heart Failure, Cardiac Arrhythmia, Valvular Disease, Pulmonary Circulation Disorders, Peripheral Vascular Disorders, Paralysis, Other Neurological Disorders, Chronic Pulmonary Disease, Diabetes Uncomplicated, Diabetes Complicated, Hypothyroidism, Renal Failure, Liver Disease, Peptic Ulcer Disease excluding bleeding, AIDS/HIV, Lymphoma, Metastatic Cancer, Solid Tumor without Metastasis, Rheumatoid Arthritis/Collagen, Coagulopathy, Obesity, Weight Loss, Fluid and Electrolyte Disorders, Blood Loss Anemia, Deficiency Anemia, Alcohol Abuse, Drug Abuse, Psychoses, Depression
Diagnoses, HCUP CCS single-level and multi-level	<p>Top 20 most frequent single-level CCS diagnoses: Congestive Heart Failure (non-hypertensive), Non-specific Chest Pain, Coronary Atherosclerosis and Other Heart Disease, Cardiac Dysrhythmias, Alcohol-related Disorders, Septicemia (except in labor), Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease and Bronchiectasis, Pneumonia, Skin and Subcutaneous Tissue Infections, Osteoarthritis, Complication of Device (implant or graft), Complications of Surgical Procedures or Medical Care, Diabetes Mellitus with Complications, Respiratory Failure, Urinary Tract Infections, Renal Failure, Spondylosis, Acute Myocardial Infarction, Fluid and Electrolyte Disorders, Gastrointestinal Hemorrhage</p> <p>18 level 1 multi-level CCS categories: Infectious and Parasitic Diseases, Neoplasms, Endocrine Disorders, Anemia, Mental Illness, Diseases of the Nervous System, Diseases of the Circulatory System, Diseases of the Respiratory System, Diseases of the Digestive System, Diseases of the Genitourinary System, Complications of Pregnancy or Childbirth, Skin Disease, Diseases of the Musculoskeletal System, Congenital Anomalies, Perinatal Conditions, Injury and Poisoning, Other Health Status Conditions, Other Residual Codes</p>
Laboratory values	Albumin, Bilirubin, Blood Urea Nitrogen, Creatinine, Glucose, Hematocrit, Partial pressure of oxygen score, pH score, Sodium, White Blood Cell

Appendix B

Table B.1: Model Performances (Full Model)

Classification Method	Dataset	Imputation Method	AUROC (95%CI)	Optimal Cutoff	Predicted Cases		Accurate Rate		Sensitivity	Specificity	Brier Score
					Death	Survival	Death	Survival			
Logistic Regression	A	Mean Value	0.78(0.76-0.80)	0.48	37199	69549	0.21	0.96	0.74	0.69	0.19
Logistic Regression	B	Mean Value	0.79(0.75-0.83)	0.46	34915	71833	0.24	0.97	0.80	0.72	0.17
Logistic Regression	C	Mean Value	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.46	35970	70778	0.23	0.97	0.79	0.71	0.17
Logistic Regression	A	Random Forest	0.75(0.72-0.78)	0.49	39528	67220	0.18	0.95	0.69	0.66	0.21
Logistic Regression	B	Random Forest	0.82(0.82-0.82)	0.49	31996	74752	0.25	0.97	0.77	0.75	0.17
Logistic Regression	C	Random Forest	0.83(0.83-0.84)	0.46	36017	70731	0.23	0.97	0.79	0.71	0.17
Logistic Regression	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.74(0.72-0.76)	0.46	45762	60986	0.17	0.96	0.74	0.61	0.21
Logistic Regression	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.82(0.81-0.82)	0.47	33642	73106	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.74	0.17
Logistic Regression	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.83(0.83-0.84)	0.47	34579	72169	0.24	0.97	0.78	0.73	0.17
Logistic Regression	A	Ridge Regression	0.79(0.77-0.82)	0.46	38579	68169	0.21	0.97	0.78	0.68	0.18
Logistic Regression	B	Ridge Regression	0.80(0.78-0.83)	0.46	35034	71714	0.24	0.97	0.80	0.72	0.17

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Logistic Regression	C	Ridge Regression	0.83(0.83-0.84)	0.47	35220	71528	0.23	0.97	0.78	0.72	0.17
Logistic Regression	A	Normal Value	0.76(0.73-0.79)	0.50	37392	69356	0.18	0.95	0.63	0.68	0.22
Logistic Regression	B	Normal Value	0.80(0.76-0.83)	0.50	30977	75771	0.26	0.97	0.76	0.76	0.17
Logistic Regression	C	Normal Value	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.46	35676	71072	0.23	0.97	0.78	0.72	0.17
Logistic Regression	A	No Missing	0.73(0.72-0.74)	0.43	37658	69090	0.18	0.95	0.66	0.68	0.18
Logistic Regression	B	No Missing	0.8(0.80-0.81)	0.42	33153	73595	0.24	0.97	0.76	0.74	0.14
Logistic Regression	C	No Missing	0.82(0.82-0.82)	0.44	35333	71415	0.22	0.96	0.76	0.72	0.16
Logistic Regression	D	None	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.47	34184	72564	0.24	0.97	0.78	0.73	0.17
Random Forest	A	Mean Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.12	32330	74418	0.26	0.97	0.79	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	B	Mean Value	0.85(0.84-0.85)	0.11	32642	74106	0.26	0.97	0.80	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	C	Mean Value	0.85(0.85-0.85)	0.11	33548	73200	0.25	0.97	0.81	0.74	0.07
Random Forest	A	Random Forest	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.12	32659	74089	0.25	0.97	0.78	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	B	Random Forest	0.84(0.84-0.85)	0.11	34093	72655	0.25	0.97	0.81	0.73	0.07

Random Forest	C	Random Forest	0.85(0.85-0.85)	0.11	33029	73719	0.25	0.97	0.80	0.74	0.07
Random Forest	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.11	32938	73810	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.74	0.07
Random Forest	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.84(0.84-0.85)	0.12	32411	74337	0.26	0.97	0.80	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.85(0.85-0.85)	0.11	33567	73181	0.25	0.97	0.80	0.74	0.07
Random Forest	A	Ridge Regression	0.84(0.45-0.84)	0.11	34587	72161	0.24	0.97	0.80	0.73	0.07
Random Forest	B	Ridge Regression	0.84(0.84-0.85)	0.12	31643	75105	0.26	0.97	0.79	0.76	0.07
Random Forest	C	Ridge Regression	0.85(0.85-0.85)	0.12	32531	74217	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	A	Normal Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.12	31234	75514	0.26	0.97	0.78	0.76	0.07
Random Forest	B	Normal Value	0.85(0.84-0.85)	0.11	32711	74037	0.26	0.97	0.80	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	C	Normal Value	0.85(0.85-0.85)	0.12	31159	75589	0.26	0.97	0.78	0.76	0.07
Random Forest	A	No Missing	0.77(0.77-0.78)	0.18	36332	70416	0.20	0.96	0.71	0.70	0.08
Random Forest	B	No Missing	0.83(0.82-0.83)	0.16	31836	74912	0.25	0.97	0.77	0.75	0.07
Random Forest	C	No Missing	0.84(0.83-0.84)	0.16	34517	72231	0.24	0.97	0.78	0.73	0.08

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Random Forest	D	None	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.11	33407	73341	0.24	0.97	0.77	0.74	0.07
Neural Network	A	Mean Value	0.83(0.83-0.84)	0.53	35031	71717	0.24	0.97	0.80	0.72	0.19
Neural Network	B	Mean Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.52	32716	74032	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.75	0.17
Neural Network	C	Mean Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.53	32549	74199	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.75	0.17
Neural Network	A	Random Forest	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.55	32515	74233	0.25	0.97	0.77	0.75	0.19
Neural Network	B	Random Forest	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.57	30842	75906	0.26	0.97	0.77	0.76	0.18
Neural Network	C	Random Forest	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.55	34144	72604	0.24	0.97	0.79	0.73	0.18
Neural Network	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.50	37351	69397	0.23	0.97	0.82	0.70	0.19
Neural Network	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.54	33529	73219	0.25	0.97	0.80	0.74	0.18
Neural Network	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.49	33324	73424	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.74	0.16
Neural Network	A	Ridge Regression	0.83(0.82-0.83)	0.51	33864	72884	0.24	0.97	0.78	0.73	0.17
Neural Network	B	Ridge Regression	0.84(0.83-0.84)	0.52	31186	75562	0.26	0.97	0.78	0.76	0.17
Neural Network	C	Ridge Regression	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.55	32145	74603	0.25	0.97	0.78	0.75	0.18

Neural Network	A	Normal Value	0.83(0.83-0.84)	0.58	31675	75073	0.25	0.97	0.77	0.76	0.19
Neural Network	B	Normal Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.45	35026	71722	0.24	0.97	0.81	0.72	0.16
Neural Network	C	Normal Value	0.84(0.84-0.84)	0.55	32864	73884	0.25	0.97	0.79	0.75	0.18
Neural Network	A	No Missing	0.66(0.64-0.68)	0.76	49011	57737	0.14	0.94	0.65	0.56	0.50
Neural Network	B	No Missing	0.79(0.78-0.79)	0.59	32676	74072	0.23	0.96	0.71	0.74	0.21
Neural Network	C	No Missing	0.79(0.78-0.79)	0.59	38619	68129	0.20	0.96	0.75	0.68	0.24
Neural Network	D	None	0.83(0.83-0.83)	0.52	33760	72988	0.24	0.97	0.78	0.73	0.18

Table B.2: Model Performance (Using only lab variables)

Classification Method	Dataset	Imputation Method	AUROC (95%CI)	Optimal Cutoff	Predicted Cases		Accurate Rate		Sensitivity	Specificity	Brier Score
					Death	Survival	Death	Survival			
Logistic Regression	A	Mean Value	0.63(0.62-0.63)	0.50	32327	74421	0.16	0.93	0.50	0.72	0.24
Logistic Regression	B	Mean Value	0.70(0.70-0.70)	0.47	33350	73398	0.21	0.95	0.66	0.73	0.20
Logistic Regression	C	Mean Value	0.74(0.74-0.74)	0.47	35248	71500	0.19	0.95	0.62	0.70	0.22
Logistic Regression	A	Random Forest	0.68(0.68-0.69)	0.48	39566	67182	0.17	0.94	0.63	0.66	0.23
Logistic Regression	B	Random Forest	0.71(0.71-0.71)	0.45	37758	68990	0.20	0.96	0.71	0.69	0.20
Logistic Regression	C	Random Forest	0.76(0.76-0.76)	0.47	38421	68327	0.18	0.95	0.66	0.67	0.21
Logistic Regression	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.69(0.69-0.70)	0.46	43607	63141	0.17	0.95	0.69	0.62	0.22
Logistic Regression	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.72(0.72-0.72)	0.44	39295	67453	0.20	0.96	0.73	0.67	0.19
Logistic Regression	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.76(0.76-0.76)	0.45	42675	64073	0.17	0.95	0.71	0.63	0.21
Logistic Regression	A	Ridge Regression	0.70(0.69-0.70)	0.47	42514	64234	0.17	0.95	0.69	0.63	0.22
Logistic Regression	B	Ridge Regression	0.72(0.72-0.72)	0.44	39856	66892	0.20	0.96	0.75	0.67	0.19

Logistic Regression	C	Ridge Regression	0.77(0.76-0.77)	0.45	42737	64011	0.17	0.95	0.71	0.63	0.21
Logistic Regression	A	Normal Value	0.60(0.59-0.60)	0.49	31990	74758	0.15	0.92	0.46	0.72	0.24
Logistic Regression	B	Normal Value	0.71(0.70-0.71)	0.45	38325	68423	0.19	0.95	0.70	0.68	0.20
Logistic Regression	C	Normal Value	0.74 (0.74-0.75)	0.46	41447	65301	0.17	0.95	0.68	0.64	0.22
Logistic Regression	A	No Missing	0.54 (0.49-0.59)	0.57	17678	89070	0.15	0.91	0.25	0.84	0.27
Logistic Regression	B	No Missing	0.68 n(0.68-0.68)	0.45	32766	73982	0.20	0.95	0.64	0.73	0.19
Logistic Regression	C	No Missing	0.73(0.73-0.73)	0.50	30965	75783	0.19	0.94	0.55	0.74	0.23
Logistic Regression	D	None	0.72(0.72-0.72)	0.49	35766	70982	0.19	0.95	0.64	0.70	0.21
Random Forest	A	Mean Value	0.71(0.71-0.71)	0.09	46226	60522	0.17	0.95	0.73	0.60	0.09
Random Forest	B	Mean Value	0.73(0.73-0.73)	0.10	44628	62120	0.18	0.96	0.75	0.62	0.09
Random Forest	C	Mean Value	0.73(0.73-0.74)	0.10	44525	62223	0.18	0.96	0.75	0.62	0.09
Random Forest	A	Random Forest	0.76(0.75-0.76)	0.09	41715	65033	0.18	0.96	0.74	0.65	0.08
Random Forest	B	Random Forest	0.77(0.77-0.77)	0.10	38154	68594	0.20	0.96	0.75	0.69	0.08

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Random Forest	C	Random Forest	0.78(0.78-0.78)	0.09	40709	66039	0.19	0.96	0.75	0.66	0.08
Random Forest	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.77(0.77-0.77)	0.09	43230	63518	0.19	0.96	0.77	0.64	0.08
Random Forest	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.78(0.77-0.78)	0.10	38734	68014	0.20	0.96	0.76	0.68	0.08
Random Forest	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.78(0.78-0.79)	0.10	38810	67938	0.20	0.96	0.74	0.68	0.08
Random Forest	A	Ridge Regression	0.77(0.77-0.78)	0.10	39913	66835	0.20	0.96	0.75	0.67	0.08
Random Forest	B	Ridge Regression	0.78(0.78-0.78)	0.09	39663	67085	0.20	0.97	0.77	0.67	0.08
Random Forest	C	Ridge Regression	0.79(0.79-0.79)	0.09	40249	66499	0.20	0.96	0.76	0.66	0.08
Random Forest	A	Normal Value	0.71(0.71-0.71)	0.10	46047	60701	0.17	0.95	0.73	0.60	0.09
Random Forest	B	Normal Value	0.73(0.73-0.73)	0.10	44400	62348	0.18	0.96	0.75	0.62	0.09
Random Forest	C	Normal Value	0.73(0.73-0.74)	0.09	46774	59974	0.17	0.96	0.77	0.60	0.09
Random Forest	A	No Missing	0.66(0.64-0.67)	0.26	20159	86589	0.21	0.93	0.40	0.83	0.10
Random Forest	B	No Missing	0.72(0.71-0.73)	0.14	52201	54547	0.16	0.96	0.78	0.54	0.08
Random Forest	C	No Missing	0.74(0.73-0.74)	0.21	26193	80555	0.22	0.94	0.55	0.79	0.09

Random Forest	D	None	0.66(0.66-0.67)	0.45	33868	72880	0.18	0.94	0.57	0.71	0.18
Neural Network	A	Mean Value	0.71(0.70-0.73)	0.47	33169	73579	0.19	0.94	0.60	0.72	0.19
Neural Network	B	Mean Value	0.74(0.74-0.75)	0.49	31171	75577	0.21	0.95	0.63	0.75	0.19
Neural Network	C	Mean Value	0.75(0.75-0.76)	0.40	42096	64652	0.18	0.96	0.74	0.64	0.18
Neural Network	A	Random Forest	0.74(0.74-0.74)	0.50	37930	68818	0.19	0.95	0.68	0.68	0.19
Neural Network	B	Random Forest	0.75(0.73-0.76)	0.54	36554	70194	0.20	0.96	0.71	0.70	0.22
Neural Network	C	Random Forest	0.77(0.77-0.77)	0.42	42444	64304	0.18	0.96	0.74	0.64	0.18
Neural Network	A	Extra Trees Regression	0.75(0.75-0.76)	0.42	44585	62163	0.18	0.96	0.76	0.62	0.18
Neural Network	B	Extra Trees Regression	0.76(0.75-0.76)	0.46	40067	66681	0.20	0.96	0.75	0.67	0.19
Neural Network	C	Extra Trees Regression	0.77(0.77-0.77)	0.48	39088	67660	0.19	0.96	0.71	0.67	0.20
Neural Network	A	Ridge Regression	0.73(0.73-0.74)	0.49	43129	63619	0.18	0.96	0.74	0.63	0.21
Neural Network	B	Ridge Regression	0.75(0.74-0.76)	0.44	39388	67360	0.20	0.96	0.74	0.67	0.18
Neural Network	C	Ridge Regression	0.78(0.78-0.78)	0.53	38048	68700	0.19	0.95	0.68	0.68	0.21

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Neural Network	A	Normal Value	0.72(0.71-0.72)	0.45	33193	73555	0.19	0.95	0.61	0.72	0.18
Neural Network	B	Normal Value	0.74(0.73-0.75)	0.50	37560	69188	0.20	0.96	0.71	0.69	0.20
Neural Network	C	Normal Value	0.76(0.76-0.76)	0.41	42187	64561	0.18	0.96	0.74	0.64	0.18
Neural Network	A	No Missing	0.47(0.45-0.49)	0.79	2628	104120	0.14	0.90	0.04	0.98	0.44
Neural Network	B	No Missing	0.70(0.68-0.72)	0.69	23720	83028	0.23	0.94	0.52	0.81	0.31
Neural Network	C	No Missing	0.73(0.72-0.73)	0.57	51077	55671	0.15	0.95	0.74	0.55	0.29
Neural Network	D	None	0.74(0.73-0.74)	0.50	36925	69823	0.19	0.95	0.67	0.69	0.21