Predicting Adverse Outcomes Due to Diabetes Complications with Machine Learning Using Administrative Health Data

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Supplementary Figures

Figure 1: Precision Curves. Precision curves for all buffer sizes.

Figure 2: Recall Curves. Recall curves for all buffer sizes.

Figure 4: Negative Predictive Values Curves. Negative predictive values curves for all buffer sizes.

Figure 5: Model Performance over Different Population Subgroups. Model performance is computed across sex, age immigration status and event density subgroups. The red vertical axes correspond to the percentage of test instances in each subgroup. Histograms on the right show fraction and count of instances in each subgroup that have adverse outcomes. Due to very low incidence rates in some subgroups, complications that have fewer than 30 adverse outcomes in any subgroup are excluded from the AUC calculation. The "Age < 20" subgroup is also excluded from the analysis due to a too small incidence rate.

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Figure 8: Feature Contribution for a Buffer of One Year. Top eight feature contribution on the test set for each complication.

Figure 9: Feature Contribution for a Buffer of Five Years. Top eight feature contribution on the test set for each complication.

Supplementary Tables

Table 1: Dataset Description. Here, we provide more details regarding the used datasets. ICES hosts approximately 100 different datasets, and we used 19 of them capturing possibly all aspects related to diabetes

^a Maria Chiu et. Al. Describing the linkages of the Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada permanent resident data and vital statistics death registry to Ontario's administrative health database. BMC medical informatics and decision making, 16(1):135, 2016. ^bWe used the 2016 version of the ODD.

Table 2: Feature Engineering. We detail all the features that we manually designed, for each category of variables.

Table 3: Feature Name Guidelines. We describe the guidelines reading the feature names listed in the feature contribution tables.

Table 4: Top 15 Most Frequent Countries of Birth. We only display the top 15 as the full list of countries exceeds 60. These countries together cover more than 80% of all immigrants.

Table 5: Outcomes Definition. The list of ICD10/CCI codes from DAD and NACRS used to determine adverse outcomes for each diabetes complication.

Table 6: Electronic Medical Records (EMR) and Administrative Health Data (AHD). We compare the content of our input data with previous studies using Electronic Medical Records (EMR). Note that these studies do not tackle prediction of adverse outcomes from diabetes complications but prediction of diabetes onset. Typically, AHD lacks the presence or coverage over all patients for key variables, especially among laboratory values.

Table 7: Logistic Regression Discrimination (AUC) Test Results. We test logistic regression models on the same test set and with the same input features as the XGBoost model.

Table 8: Distribution of the mean number of instances per patient per year. We show the mean number of instances (as defined in Methods) used per patient within one year for each of the training, and validation sets, as well as for the whole population and splits of the population on several attributes: sex, age group and immigration

status.

The mean number of instances is lower in the last age group because patients are more likely to die. The mean number of instances is also slightly lower for immigrants because some of them land in Canada after the beginning of the period and thus have less information available on them.

Table 9: Mean duration of adverse outcomes. When a patient has an adverse outcome from a given complication, the whole quarter during the which it happens is flagged as a positive instance. It is possible that the quarter immediately before or immediately after also have adverse outcomes. Here we show the mean number of consecutive quarters for a given adverse outcome episode, across all training validation and test sets. As seen mean durations are close to 1 since there is typically just a single quarter during the which an adverse outcome happens.

Table 10: Fraction of positives before the last test instance. We show the average incidence throughout the test set of adverse outcomes in two setups: (*) at any time before the last test instance (which target window is the last quarter of 2016), and (**) in the quarter immediately before the last instance, which is the third quarter of 2016. In the first setup, we look back to our earliest available data, of January 1st 2006. We conclude that in the immense majority of cases, a patient does not have immediate prior adverse outcomes due to diabetes complications, and in the majority of cases, does not have at all prior history of adverse outcomes.

Table 11: Quarterly incidence rate (in %) in the target window for adverse outcomes from each complication for the training, validation and test sets. Complications (columns) are denoted by letters: A for hyper/hypo-glycemia, B for tissue infection, C for retinopathy, D for cardiovascular events and E for amputation. Rows represent quarters, where four quarters sum up to one year (separated by dashed lines).

Table 12: Mean predicted likelihood under the assumption that a given complication is positive. Similar to Table S11 above, except that we condition on complications having a positive outcome. This time the highest predicted likelihood per column is expected on the diagonal, which is the case here

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Supplementary Methods

Comparison with Logistic Regression

In this final section of the Supplementary Material, we compare our model to Logistic Regression, a model commonly used in machine learning for healthcare. However, such a comparison is not trivial. Indeed, our XGBoost model, thanks to the cross-class relevance, can deal with a multi-label target while Logistic Regression cannot. Thus, we train five different Logistic Regression models, one for the adverse outcome prediction of each diabetes complication. We train each model with the same input features as XGBoost. Unlike XGBoost, Logistic Regression needs feature normalization to reach its full potential. We experimented with several normalization techniques, and found that the one leading to the best discrimination was to scale all features to the [0;1] range. Table S7 offers a comparison of discrimination between XGBoost and the Logistic Regression models.

For the three-year buffer analyzed in the main text, we see that XGBoost outperforms Logistic Regression on all tasks, with a gain in AUC between +3.1 (Hyper/hypo-glycemia) and +0.9 (Cardiovascular events), for an average AUC gain of +1.66. While modest, we stress that at the several millions patients scale of our study, a +1-2 AUC point gain could represent costs savings in the order of tens of millions of dollars annually. For a buffer of 1 year, XGBoost also outperforms Logistic Regression on all tasks, with a mean gain of +1.55 AUC point (XGBoost: 81.04, Logistic Regression: 79.49). For a buffer of 5 years, XGBoost outperforms Logistic Regression on all tasks, as well, with a mean gain of +2.09 AUC point (XGBoost: 76.85, Logistic Regression: 74.76).

Supplementary References

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