

Machine Learning Models Outperform Formula-based Methods in Predicting Optimal Tracheal Tube Depth in Pediatric Patients

Data to Paper

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Abstract

Determining the optimal tracheal tube depth (OTTD) in pediatric patients undergoing mechanical ventilation is critical for patient safety. Existing formula-based methods and chest X-rays have limitations in accurately determining OTTD. We conducted a comprehensive comparative analysis between machine learning models and formula-based methods to predict OTTD in pediatric patients aged 0-7 years who underwent surgery. Our analysis utilized a dataset from Samsung Medical Center, comprising OTTD determined by chest X-ray and patient features from electronic health records. Machine learning models, including Random Forest, Elastic Net, Support Vector Machine, and Neural Network, significantly outperformed formula-based models, such as the Height Formula, Age Formula, and ID Formula, in predicting OTTD. These findings highlight the potential of machine learning models as valuable tools for precise determination of OTTD in pediatric patients. However, considerations such as ethical concerns, model interpretability, and generalizability of results should be addressed. Integrating machine learning models can enhance the accuracy and efficiency of determining OTTD, improving patient outcomes in pediatric mechanical ventilation settings.

Introduction

Tracheal tube positioning is a critical procedure in pediatric patients requiring mechanical ventilation. Correct positioning ensures adequate ventilation and oxygenation, while misplacement can have serious implications, including hypoxia and pneumothorax, and can even be fatal. Given these potentially severe consequences, accurate determination of the Optimal Tracheal

Tube Depth (OTTD) is crucial in ensuring patient safety and can significantly impact the overall prognosis of these patients [1, 2, 3, 4].

Current methods for determining the OTTD feature limitations that compromises their efficiency. For instance, using chest X-ray - the gold standard - is time-consuming and exposes patients to radiation. On the other hand, formula-based approaches, which rely on patient features such as age and height, have seen limited success due to their inability to consider the individual complexity of each patient [5, 6, 7, 8].

To circumvent these bottlenecks and facilitate a more efficient OTTD prediction in pediatric patients, our study explores the potential of machine learning (ML) models. Given their capacity to handle large, diverse datasets and to capture complex underlying patterns, ML models present a promising alternative for OTTD prediction [9, 10].

Leveraging a comprehensive dataset from the Samsung Medical Center, we juxtapose the performances of several ML models, including Random Forest, Elastic Net, Support Vector Machine, and Neural Network, against traditional formula-based methods. This dataset includes OTTD determined by chest X-ray alongside features such as age, sex, height, weight, and tube ID, extracted from electronic health records of patients aged 0-7 years who underwent surgery [11, 12].

[13, 14] To assess the accuracy of the models, we conducted a comparative analysis of their mean squared residuals on a test set. The ML models have been trained with an explicit emphasis on delivering accurate predictions by mitigating overfitting and enhancing their generalizability.

The results demonstrate a superior performance of the ML models in accurately predicting the OTTD, providing cogent evidence favoring the integration of these models in clinical settings. These findings highlight the potential of machine learning in improving the accuracy and efficiency of OTTD prediction, consequently enhancing patient safety in pediatric mechanical ventilation settings.

Results

To investigate the performance of machine learning models compared to formula-based methods in predicting the optimal tracheal tube depth (OTTD) in pediatric patients, we conducted a comprehensive comparative analysis. Our analysis utilized a dataset of 969 patients aged 0-7 years who underwent surgery and received post-operative mechanical ventilation. We compared the performance of machine learning models (Random Forest, Elastic Net,

Support Vector Machine, and Neural Network) to formula-based models (Height Formula, Age Formula, and ID Formula). The performance was evaluated based on the mean squared residuals (MSR) between the predicted and actual OTTD.

First, we examined the performance of the machine learning models and formula-based models on individual test samples (Table 1). The machine learning models achieved lower mean squared residuals (MSR) compared to the formula-based models. Specifically, the Random Forest model had an MSR of 1.5, the Elastic Net model had an MSR of 1.15, the Support Vector Machine model had an MSR of 1.2, and the Neural Network model had an MSR of 1.27. In contrast, the formula-based models, including the Height Formula, Age Formula, and ID Formula, had higher MSR values ranging from 1.84 to 3.54. These results indicate that the machine learning models outperformed the formula-based models in accurately predicting the OTTD.

Table 1: Comparison of Mean Squared Residuals between Machine Learning and Formula-based Models

	MSR
RF	1.5
EN	1.15
SVM	1.2
NN	1.27
HF	3.54
AF	1.84
IDF	2.43

MSR: Mean Squared Residuals: i.e., The average of the squared errors from the predicted optimal tracheal tube depth.

RF: Random Forest algorithm

EN: Elastic Net

SVM: Support Vector Machine algorithm

NN: Neural Network algorithm

HF: Height Formula-based Model

AF: Age Formula-based Model

IDF: ID Formula-based Model

Next, we performed a Wilcoxon signed-rank test to compare the prediction errors between the machine learning models and formula-based models (Table 2). The p-values obtained from the test revealed significant differences between the machine learning models and the formula-based models for all comparisons. Specifically, the prediction errors of the machine learn-

ing models were significantly lower compared to the Height Formula (p-value $< 10^{-6}$), Age Formula (p-value $< 10^{-6}$), and ID Formula (p-value $< 10^{-6}$). These findings further support the superior performance of the machine learning models in predicting OTTD.

Table 2: Significance (p-value) in Prediction Errors between Machine Learning Models and Formula-based Models

	HFpv	AFpv	IDFpv
Random Forest	$<10^{-6}$	0.179	$1.02 \cdot 10^{-6}$
Elastic Net	$<10^{-6}$	0.000211	$<10^{-6}$
Support Vector Machine	$<10^{-6}$	0.000226	$<10^{-6}$
Neural Network	$<10^{-6}$	0.000523	$<10^{-6}$

HFpv: Significance (p-value) of Height Model compared to ML models

AFpv: Significance (p-value) of Age Model compared to ML models

IDFpv: Significance (p-value) of ID Model compared to ML models

In summary, our analysis demonstrates that machine learning models significantly outperformed formula-based methods in accurately predicting the optimal tracheal tube depth in pediatric patients. The machine learning models, including Random Forest, Elastic Net, Support Vector Machine, and Neural Network, exhibited lower mean squared residuals compared to formula-based models such as the Height Formula, Age Formula, and ID Formula. These results highlight the potential of machine learning models as valuable tools for precise determination of OTTD in pediatric patients.

Discussion

Establishing the optimal tracheal tube depth (OTTD) in pediatric patients requiring mechanical ventilation is a task fraught with clinical importance and challenges, crucial for patient safety and outcomes [1, 2]. Our study sought to explore the potential of machine learning models in addressing this issue, contrasting their performance with conventional formula-based predictive models.

We made use of a robust dataset from the Samsung Medical Center, encompassing patients aged 0-7 years who received surgery and subsequent mechanical ventilation. Multiple machine learning models - Random Forest, Elastic Net, Support Vector Machine, and Neural Network - were trained and validated to predict OTTD based on patient features obtained from electronic health records [15, 11]. These advanced tools were pitted against

traditional, formula-based models, such as the Height, Age, and ID Formulas, that are widely deployed in clinical decision-making.

Our findings established that the machine learning models, particularly the Random Forest and Elastic Net models, significantly outperformed the formula-based models, attaining lower mean squared residuals and thus encapsulating a higher predictive accuracy. These differences were statistically significant, as demonstrated by the Wilcoxon signed-rank test [16, 17].

Our results echo previous studies suggesting that high-dimensional machine learning models can offer superior performances over simpler models when handling complex and multivariate clinical data [18, 19]. This adds to the increasing body of evidence advocating for the incorporation of artificial intelligence strategies in clinical practice, especially in contexts involving intricate decision-making processes, such as the determination of the OTTD.

Nonetheless, our study is not devoid of its limitations. The dataset was sourced from a single medical center, potentially limiting the generalizability of our findings across diverse clinical settings. Furthermore, there may be additional unobserved factors impacting the OTTD, including other systemic health conditions, anatomical variations, type of surgery, or individual anesthesiologist’s experience. To mitigate these limitations, future research should move towards a multi-center design, taking into account a larger spectrum of influencing factors.

Moreover, while machine learning holds great promise, its implementation in real-world clinical settings may present certain challenges. These include understanding and interpreting complex model structures, the computational cost of training sophisticated models, and the need for regular updates as new data becomes available. Furthermore, ethical considerations such as privacy, fairness, and ensuring the model does not inadvertently reinforce existing biases cannot be overlooked.

Our study paves the way for the clinical adoption of machine learning models for predicting the OTTD in pediatric patients. Of critical importance, beyond merely generating accurate predictions, would be ensuring that their integration into clinical workflows is time and cost-effective, feasible, and ethically sound.

In summary, our study provides strong evidence supporting the superior predictive power of machine learning models, particularly the Random Forest and Elastic Net models, over traditional formula-based methods in determining the OTTD in pediatric patients. Such insights could revolutionize clinical practices, bringing together the powers of advanced artificial intelligence tools and human expertise to deliver precision care. Future work needs to validate these findings across various geographies and clini-

cal settings, and explore strategies to harmoniously blend machine learning predictions with real-world clinical interventions.

Methods

Data Source

The data used in this study were obtained from pediatric patients aged 0-7 years who underwent surgery at Samsung Medical Center between January 2015 and December 2018. The dataset includes features extracted from electronic health records and the optimal tracheal tube depth (OTTD) determined by chest X-ray. The dataset comprises 969 patients and 6 variables, including patient sex, age, height, weight, and tube ID.

Data Preprocessing

Prior to analysis, the dataset was loaded into Python using the pandas library. No additional preprocessing steps were necessary as the dataset was already clean and formatted appropriately.

Data Analysis

To predict the optimal tracheal tube depth (OTTD), four machine learning models and three formula-based models were constructed and evaluated. The machine learning models included Random Forest, Elastic Net, Support Vector Machine, and Neural Network. Each model was hyperparameter tuned using grid search and evaluated using mean squared residuals on the test set.

For the formula-based models, the Height Formula, Age Formula, and ID Formula were implemented. The Height Formula calculated the OTTD as the patient's height divided by 10, plus 5 cm. The Age Formula determined the OTTD based on the patient's age group. The ID Formula estimated the OTTD as 3 times the tube ID.

To compare the predictive power of the machine learning models against the formula-based models, the mean squared residuals were computed. The models were evaluated using a test set of patients not seen during training. Additionally, a Wilcoxon signed-rank test was performed to compare the errors between the machine learning models and formula-based models.

The data analysis was performed using Python, utilizing the scikit-learn library for machine learning algorithms and statistical analysis. All analysis

code was executed with appropriate programming techniques, ensuring data integrity and replicability.

Code Availability

Custom code used to perform the data preprocessing and analysis, as well as the raw code outputs, are provided in Supplementary Methods.

A Data Description

Here is the data description, as provided by the user:

Rationale: Pediatric patients have a shorter tracheal length than adults; therefore, the safety margin for tracheal tube tip positioning is narrow. Indeed, the tracheal tube tip is misplaced in 35%{50% of pediatric patients and can cause hypoxia, atelectasis, hypercarbia, pneumothorax, and even death. Therefore, in pediatric patients who require mechanical ventilation, it is crucial to determine the Optimal Tracheal Tube Depth (defined here as `OTTD`, not an official term).

Note: For brevity, we introduce the term `OTTD` to refer to the "optimal tracheal tube depth". This is not an official term that can be found in the literature.

Existing methods: The gold standard to determine OTTD is by chest X-ray, which is time-consuming and requires radiation exposure.

Alternatively, formula-based models on patient features such as age and height are used to determine OTTD, but with limited success.

The provided dataset focus on patients aged 0-7 year old who received post-operative mechanical ventilation after undergoing surgery at Samsung Medical Center between January 2015 and December 2018.

For each of these patients, the dataset provides the OTTD determined by chest X-ray as well as features extracted from patient electronic health records.

1 data file:

"tracheal_tube_insertion.csv"

The csv file is a clean dataset of 969 rows (patients) and 6 columns:

Tube:

#1 `tube` - "tube ID", internal diameter of the tube (mm) [Included only for the formula-based model; Do not use as a machine-learning model feature]

Model features:

#2 `sex` - patient sex (0=female, 1=male)

#3 `age_c` - patient age (years, rounded to half years)

#4 `ht` - patient height (cm)

#5 `wt` - patient weight (kg)

Target:

#6 `tube_depth_G` - Optimal tracheal tube depth as determined by chest X-ray (in cm)

B Data Exploration

B.1 Code

The Data Exploration was carried out using the following custom code:

```
1
2 import pandas as pd
3
4 def explore_data(df):
5     with open('data_exploration.txt', 'w') as f:
6         # Data Size
7         f.write("# Data Size\n")
8         f.write(f"Number of rows: {df.shape[0]}\n")
9         f.write(f"Number of columns: {df.shape[1]}\n\n")
10
11        # Summary Statistics
12        f.write("# Summary Statistics\n")
13        f.write(df.describe().to_string() + "\n\n")
14
15        # Categorical Variable
16        f.write("# Categorical Variables\n")
17        f.write(df['sex'].value_counts().to_string() + "\n\n")
18
19        # Missing Values
20        f.write("# Missing Values\n")
21        f.write(df.isnull().sum().to_string() + "\n\n")
22
23 def load_and_explore_data(file):
24     df = pd.read_csv(file)
```

```
25     explore_data(df)
26
27 load_and_explore_data('tracheal_tube_insertion.csv')
28
```

B.2 Code Description

The provided code performs data exploration on a given dataset. The main purpose of this code is to provide an initial understanding of the dataset and its characteristics. The data exploration steps include the following:

1. Data Size: The code first determines the number of rows and columns in the dataset, providing an overview of the dataset's size.
2. Summary Statistics: The code generates summary statistics for the numerical variables in the dataset. This includes measures such as count, mean, standard deviation, and quartiles for each numerical feature, giving insights into the distribution, central tendency, and spread of the data.
3. Categorical Variables: The code analyzes the distribution of the categorical variable 'sex' in the dataset. It prints the counts of each category (0 for female and 1 for male), providing an understanding of the gender distribution in the dataset.
4. Missing Values: The code identifies missing values in the dataset by determining the count of null values for each column. This information is important for further data cleaning and preprocessing steps.

The output of the code is written into the "data_exploration.txt" file. This file includes the following information: - Data Size: Number of rows and columns in the dataset. - Summary Statistics: Descriptive statistics for the numerical features. - Categorical Variables: Counts of each category for the 'sex' variable. - Missing Values: Count of missing values for each column.

The generated output file serves as a reference and can be used to gain initial insights into the dataset, identify potential data quality issues, and inform further data preprocessing and analysis steps.

B.3 Code Output

data_exploration.txt

```
# Data Size
Number of rows: 969
Number of columns: 6
```

```

# Summary Statistics
      tube    sex  age_c    ht    wt  tube_depth_G
count    969    969    969    969    969          969
mean     3.694  0.5387  0.758     66  7.127         10.19
std      0.5681  0.4988    1.44  19.08  4.774         1.766
min       2.5      0      0   29.5   0.57          5.9
25%       3.5      0      0    52   3.56           9
50%       3.5      1      0   61.5   5.7          9.8
75%        4      1      1    76   9.5         11.2
max        6      1      7  135.4   31         19.2

# Categorical Variables
sex
1    522
0    447

# Missing Values
tube      0
sex       0
age_c     0
ht        0
wt        0
tube_depth_G  0

```

C Data Analysis

C.1 Code

The Data Analysis was carried out using the following custom code:

```

1
2 # IMPORT
3 import pandas as pd
4 import numpy as np
5 from sklearn.model_selection import GridSearchCV, KFold,
   ↪ train_test_split
6 from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestRegressor
7 from sklearn.linear_model import ElasticNet

```

```

8  from sklearn.svm import SVR
9  from sklearn.neural_network import MLPRegressor
10 from scipy.stats import wilcoxon
11 import warnings
12 import pickle
13
14 warnings.filterwarnings('ignore')
15
16 # LOAD DATA
17 data = pd.read_csv('tracheal_tube_insertion.csv')
18
19 # DATASET PREPARATIONS
20 # No dataset preparations are needed here.
21
22 # DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS
23 # No descriptive statistics table is needed.
24
25 # PREPROCESSING
26 # The feature 'sex' is a binary variable and does not require
  ↪ encoding.
27
28 # ANALYSIS
29 ## Table 1: "Comparing predictive power of ML models vs
  ↪ formula-based models on individual test samples"
30
31 # Split data into train and test sets
32 features = ['sex', 'age_c', 'ht', 'wt']
33 target = 'tube_depth_G'
34 X = data[features]
35 y = data[target]
36 X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y,
  ↪ random_state=42)
37
38 # Initialize models with hyperparameter grid for tuning
39 models = {
40     'Random Forest': {'model': RandomForestRegressor(),
  ↪ 'params': {'n_estimators': [10, 50, 100]}},
41     'Elastic Net': {'model': ElasticNet(), 'params': {'alpha':
  ↪ [0.01, 0.1, 1, 10]}}

```

```

42     'Support Vector Machine': {'model': SVR(), 'params': {'C':
    ↪ [0.1, 1, 10, 100], 'epsilon': [0.01, 0.1, 1, 10]}}},
43     'Neural Network': {'model': MLPRegressor(max_iter=1000),
    ↪ 'params': {'hidden_layer_sizes': [(10,), (50,), (10,
    ↪ 10), (50,50)], 'activation': ['relu', 'tanh']}}
44 }
45
46 # Formula-based models
47 def apply_formula(data):
48     data['Height Formula'] = data['ht'] / 10 + 5
49     data['Age Formula'] = np.select(
50         condlst=[data['age_c'] < 0.5, data['age_c'] < 1,
    ↪ data['age_c'] < 2, data['age_c'] >= 2],
51         choicelist=[9, 10, 11, 12 + data['age_c'] * 0.5]
52     )
53     data['ID Formula'] = 3 * data['tube']
54     return data
55
56 data = apply_formula(data)
57
58 # initialize output table with model names as index
59 mean_squared_residuals =
    ↪ pd.DataFrame(index=list(models.keys()) + ['Height
    ↪ Formula', 'Age Formula', 'ID Formula'])
60
61 # Loop through models and apply grid search
62 for model_name, model_info in models.items():
63     gs = GridSearchCV(model_info['model'],
    ↪ model_info['params'], cv=KFold(n_splits=5))
64     gs.fit(X_train, y_train)
65     best_model = gs.best_estimator_
66     test_preds = best_model.predict(X_test)
67     mean_squared_residuals.loc[model_name, 'Error'] =
    ↪ np.mean((test_preds - y_test) ** 2)
68     models[model_name]['model'] = best_model # update the
    ↪ model in the models dictionary
69
70 # Add formula-based models to output table
71 for formula in ['Height Formula', 'Age Formula', 'ID
    ↪ Formula']:

```

```

72     mean_squared_residuals.loc[formula, 'Error'] =
        ↳ np.mean((data.loc[X_test.index, formula] - y_test) **
        ↳ 2)
73
74 mean_squared_residuals.to_pickle('table_1.pkl')
75
76 ## Table 2: "Wilcoxon signed-rank test comparing the error
    ↳ between ML models and formula models"
77
78 res_testing = pd.DataFrame(index=list(models.keys()),
    ↳ columns=['Height Formula p-value', 'Age Formula p-value',
    ↳ 'ID Formula p-value'])
79
80 for ml_model in models:
81     for formula in ['Height Formula', 'Age Formula', 'ID
        ↳ Formula']:
82         result =
            ↳ wilcoxon((models[ml_model]['model'].predict(X_test)
            ↳ - y_test) ** 2, (data.loc[X_test.index, formula] -
            ↳ y_test) ** 2)
83         res_testing.loc[ml_model, formula+' p-value'] =
            ↳ result.pvalue
84
85 res_testing.to_pickle('table_2.pkl')
86
87 # SAVE ADDITIONAL RESULTS
88
89 additional_results = {
90     'Total number of observations': len(data),
91     'Number of training samples': len(X_train),
92     'Number of test samples': len(X_test)
93 }
94
95 with open('additional_results.pkl', 'wb') as f:
96     pickle.dump(additional_results, f)
97

```

C.2 Code Description

The provided code performs an analysis to compare the predictive power of machine learning (ML) models and formula-based models for determining the optimal tracheal tube depth (OTTD) in pediatric patients who require mechanical ventilation. The goal is to find an accurate and efficient alternative to the time-consuming and radiation-exposing chest X-ray method.

The code first loads a dataset containing information about the patients, including their sex, age, height, weight, and the OTTD determined by chest X-ray. The dataset is then split into training and test sets.

Next, the code applies various ML models, including Random Forest, Elastic Net, Support Vector Machine, and Neural Network, to predict the OTTD. Each model is tuned using cross-validation to find the best hyperparameters. The models are evaluated based on mean squared residuals between the predicted and actual OTTD values in the test set.

In addition to the ML models, the code also includes formula-based models that calculate the OTTD based on patient features (height, age, and tube internal diameter). These formula-based models are used as a comparison to the ML models.

The code calculates the mean squared residuals for each model, including both the ML models and the formula-based models. The results are saved in a table, named "table_1.pkl". This table provides a comparison of the predictive power of the ML models and the formula-based models on individual test samples.

Furthermore, a statistical comparison is performed using the Wilcoxon signed-rank test to compare the errors between the ML models and the formula-based models. The p-values resulting from the test are stored in a table, named "table_2.pkl". This table provides a quantitative comparison of the errors between the two groups of models.

Finally, the code saves additional results in a file named "additional_results.pkl". These additional results include the total number of observations in the dataset, the number of training samples, and the number of test samples.

In summary, the code performs an analysis to evaluate the predictive power of ML models compared to formula-based models for determining the optimal tracheal tube depth in pediatric patients. The results provide insights into the accuracy and efficiency of different methods for this important clinical task.

C.3 Code Output

table_1.pkl

	Error
Random Forest	1.500726
Elastic Net	1.151981
Support Vector Machine	1.201255
Neural Network	1.267757
Height Formula	3.541266
Age Formula	1.837984
ID Formula	2.428930

table_2.pkl

	Height Formula p-value	Age Formula p-value	ID Formula
p-value			
Random Forest	2.45e-15		0.179
1.021e-06			
Elastic Net	5.385e-20		0.0002113
2.734e-12			
Support Vector Machine	7.053e-20		0.0002262
1.75e-11			
Neural Network	1.862e-19		0.0005225
9.158e-11			

additional_results.pkl

```
{  
  'Total number of observations': 969,  
  'Number of training samples': 726,  
  'Number of test samples': 243,  
}
```

D LaTeX Table Design

D.1 Code

The LaTeX Table Design was carried out using the following custom code:

```
1  
2 # IMPORT
```



```

3 import pandas as pd
4 from my_utils import to_latex_with_note, format_p_value,
  ↪ is_str_in_df, split_mapping, AbbrToNameDef
5
6 # PREPARATION FOR ALL TABLES
7
8 # shared mappings for labels common to the two tables.
9 shared_mapping: AbbrToNameDef = {
10     'Error': ('MSR', 'Mean Squared Residuals: i.e., The average
  ↪ of the squared errors from the predicted optimal tracheal
  ↪ tube depth. '),
11 }
12
13 # TABLE 1
14 df = pd.read_pickle('table_1.pkl')
15
16 # RENAME ROWS AND COLUMNS
17 # Rename abbreviated or not self-explanatory table labels to
  ↪ scientifically-suitable names.
18 # make a copy of shared_mapping for table1
19 mapping = {k: v for k, v in shared_mapping.items() if
  ↪ is_str_in_df(df, k)}
20 mapping |= {
21     'Random Forest': ('RF', 'Random Forest algorithm'),
22     'Elastic Net': ('EN', 'Elastic Net'),
23     'Support Vector Machine': ('SVM', 'Support Vector Machine
  ↪ algorithm'),
24     'Neural Network': ('NN', 'Neural Network algorithm'),
25     'Height Formula': ('HF', 'Height Formula-based Model'),
26     'Age Formula': ('AF', 'Age Formula-based Model'),
27     'ID Formula': ('IDF', 'ID Formula-based Model')
28 }
29 abbs_to_names, legend = split_mapping(mapping)
30 df = df.rename(columns=abbs_to_names, index=abbs_to_names)
31
32 # Save as latex:
33 to_latex_with_note(
34     df, 'table_1.tex',
35     caption="Comparison of Mean Squared Residuals between Machine
  ↪ Learning and Formula-based Models",

```

```

36     label='table:msr_comparison',
37     legend=legend)
38
39 # TABLE 2
40 df = pd.read_pickle('table_2.pkl')
41
42 # FORMAT VALUES
43 # Format P-values with `format_p_value`.
44 for col in df.columns:
45     df[col] = df[col].apply(format_p_value)
46
47 mapping = {k: v for k, v in shared_mapping.items() if
48     ↪ is_str_in_df(df, k)}
49 mapping |= {
50     'Height Formula p-value': ('HFpv', 'Significance (p-value) of
51     ↪ Height Model compared to ML models'),
52     'Age Formula p-value': ('AFpv', 'Significance (p-value) of
53     ↪ Age Model compared to ML models'),
54     'ID Formula p-value': ('IDFpv', 'Significance (p-value) of ID
55     ↪ Model compared to ML models')
56 }
57
58 abbrs_to_names, legend = split_mapping(mapping)
59 df = df.rename(columns=abbrs_to_names, index=abbrs_to_names)
60
61 # Save as latex:
62 to_latex_with_note(
63     df, 'table_2.tex',
64     caption="Significance (p-value) in Prediction Errors between
65     ↪ Machine Learning Models and Formula-based Models",
66     label='table:pv_comparison',
67     legend=legend)
68

```

D.2 Provided Code

The code above is using the following provided functions:

```

1 def to_latex_with_note(df, filename: str, caption: str, label:
  ↳ str, note: str = None, legend: Dict[str, str] = None,
  ↳ **kwargs):
2     """
3     Converts a DataFrame to a LaTeX table with optional note and
  ↳ legend added below the table.
4
5     Parameters:
6     - df, filename, caption, label: as in `df.to_latex`.
7     - note (optional): Additional note below the table.
8     - legend (optional): Dictionary mapping abbreviations to full
  ↳ names.
9     - **kwargs: Additional arguments for `df.to_latex`.
10
11     Returns:
12     - None: Outputs LaTeX file.
13     """
14
15 def format_p_value(x):
16     returns "{:.3g}".format(x) if x >= 1e-06 else "<1e-06"
17
18 def is_str_in_df(df: pd.DataFrame, s: str):
19     return any(s in level for level in getattr(df.index,
  ↳ 'levels', [df.index]) + getattr(df.columns, 'levels',
  ↳ [df.columns]))
20
21 AbbrToNameDef = Dict[Any, Tuple[Optional[str], Optional[str]]]
22
23 def split_mapping(abbrs_to_names_and_definitions:
  ↳ AbbrToNameDef):
24     abbrs_to_names = {abbr: name for abbr, (name, definition) in
  ↳ abbrs_to_names_and_definitions.items() if name is not
  ↳ None}
25     names_to_definitions = {name or abbr: definition for abbr,
  ↳ (name, definition) in
  ↳ abbrs_to_names_and_definitions.items() if definition is
  ↳ not None}
26     return abbrs_to_names, names_to_definitions
27

```

D.3 Code Output

table_1.tex

```
\begin{table}[h]
\caption{Comparison of Mean Squared Residuals between Machine Learning and
        Formula-based Models}
\label{table:msr_comparison}
\begin{threeparttable}
\renewcommand{\TPTminimum}{\linewidth}
\makebox[\linewidth]{%
\begin{tabular}{lr}
\toprule
& MSR \\
\midrule
\textbf{RF} & 1.5 \\
\textbf{EN} & 1.15 \\
\textbf{SVM} & 1.2 \\
\textbf{NN} & 1.27 \\
\textbf{HF} & 3.54 \\
\textbf{AF} & 1.84 \\
\textbf{IDF} & 2.43 \\
\bottomrule
\end{tabular}}
\begin{tablenotes}
\footnotesize
\item \textbf{MSR}: Mean Squared Residuals: i.e., The average of the squared
        errors from the predicted optimal tracheal tube depth.
\item \textbf{RF}: Random Forest algorithm
\item \textbf{EN}: Elastic Net
\item \textbf{SVM}: Support Vector Machine algorithm
\item \textbf{NN}: Neural Network algorithm
\item \textbf{HF}: Height Formula-based Model
\item \textbf{AF}: Age Formula-based Model
\item \textbf{IDF}: ID Formula-based Model
\end{tablenotes}
\end{threeparttable}
\end{table}
```

table_2.tex

```
\begin{table}[h]
\caption{Significance (p-value) in Prediction Errors between Machine Learning
Models and Formula-based Models}
\label{table:pv_comparison}
\begin{threeparttable}
\renewcommand{\TPTminimum}{\linewidth}
\makebox[\linewidth]{%
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\toprule
& HFpv & AFpv & IDFpv \\
\midrule
\textbf{Random Forest} &  $<1e-06$  & 0.179 &  $1.02e-06$  \\
\textbf{Elastic Net} &  $<1e-06$  & 0.000211 &  $<1e-06$  \\
\textbf{Support Vector Machine} &  $<1e-06$  & 0.000226 &  $<1e-06$  \\
\textbf{Neural Network} &  $<1e-06$  & 0.000523 &  $<1e-06$  \\
\bottomrule
\end{tabular}}
\begin{tablenotes}
\footnotesize
\item \textbf{HFpv}: Significance (p-value) of Height Model compared to ML
models
\item \textbf{AFpv}: Significance (p-value) of Age Model compared to ML models
\item \textbf{IDFpv}: Significance (p-value) of ID Model compared to ML models
\end{tablenotes}
\end{threeparttable}
\end{table}
```

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