

Using Automated-Machine Learning to Predict COVID-19 Patient Survival: Identify Influential Biomarkers

Kenji Ikemura^{1,3}, D.Y. Goldstein¹, James Szymanski¹, Eran Bellin¹, Lindsay Stahl¹,
Yukako Yagi^{2,3}, Mahmoud Saada³, Katelyn Simone³, Morayma Gil Reyes¹

¹ Montefiore Medical Center, ² Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center, ³ Tsubomi Technology

Abstract:

Background: In a pandemic, it is important for clinicians to stratify patients and decide who receives limited medical resources. In this study, we used automated machine learning (autoML) to develop and compare between multiple machine learning (ML) models that predict the chance of patient survival from COVID-19 infection and identified the best-performing model. In addition, we investigated which biomarkers are the most influential in generating an accurate model. We believe an ML model such as this could be a useful tool for clinicians stratifying hospitalized SARS-CoV-2 patients.

Methods: The data was retrospectively collected from Clinical Looking Glass (CLG) on all patients testing positive for COVID-19 through a nasopharyngeal specimen by real-time RT-PCR and admitted between 3/1/2020-7/3/2020 (4376 patients) at our institution. We collected 47 biomarkers from each patient within 36 hours before or after the index time: RT-PCR positivity, and tracked whether a patient survived or not for one month following this time. We utilized the autoML from H2O.ai, an open source package for R language. The autoML generated 20 ML models and ranked them by area under the precision-recall curve (AUCPR) on the test set. We selected the best model (model_var_47) and chose a threshold probability that maximized F2 score to make a binary classifier: dead or alive. Subsequently, we ranked the relative importance of variables that generated model_var_47 and chose the 10 most influential variables. Next, we reran the autoML with these 10 variables and likewise selected the model with the best AUCPR on the test set (model_var_10). Again, threshold probability that maximized F2 score for model_var_10 was chosen to make a binary classifier. We calculated and compared the sensitivity, specificity, and positive predicate value (PPV) for model_var_10 and model_var_47.

Results: The best model that autoML generated using all 47 variables was the stacked ensemble model of all models (AUCPR = 0.836). The most influential variables were: systolic and diastolic blood pressure, age, respiratory rate, pulse oximetry, blood urea nitrogen, lactate dehydrogenase, d-dimer, troponin, and glucose. When the autoML was retrained with these 10 most important variables, it did not significantly affect the performance (AUCPR= 0.828). For the binary classifiers, sensitivity, specificity, and PPV of model_var_47 was 83.6%, 87.7%, and 69.8% respectively, while for model_var_10 they were 90.9%, 71.1%, and 51.8% respectively.

Conclusions: By using autoML, we developed high-performing models that predict patient mortality from COVID-19 infection. In addition, we identified the most important biomarkers correlated with mortality. This ML model can be used as a decision supporting tool for medical practitioners to efficiently triage COVID-19 infected patients. From our literature review, this will be the largest COVID-19 patient cohort to train ML models and the first to utilize autoML. The COVID-19 survival calculator based on this study can be found at <https://www.tsubomitech.com/>.

Keywords: Automated machine learning; COVID-19; Biomarkers; Ranking; Decision support tool.

NOTE: This preprint reports new research that has not been certified by peer review and should not be used to guide clinical practice.

Corresponding author: Kenji Ikemura (kikemura@montefiore.org)

Introduction:

On January 30th, 2020, the WHO declared a COVID-19 outbreak which began in Wuhan, China. As of August 1st, 2020, the CDC reported more than 4.5 million cases and 150,000 deaths from COVID-19 in the United States alone [1]. New York City (NYC) became the epicenter in the U.S. with the highest case number and deaths per capita [2]. At our institution, between 3/1/2020-7/3/2020, we admitted 4375 patients who tested positive for COVID-19 and 1088 patients died within 30 days of infection (Figure 1). Many regions worldwide are still fighting the first wave of the pandemic, while other areas that reopened are seeing a resurgence of new cases. In such an emergent situation, it is important for clinicians to triage patients effectively to maximize limited medical resources. In this study, we aimed to find the most important prognostic biomarkers and develop a COVID-19 mortality risk assessment tool using automated machine learning (autoML).

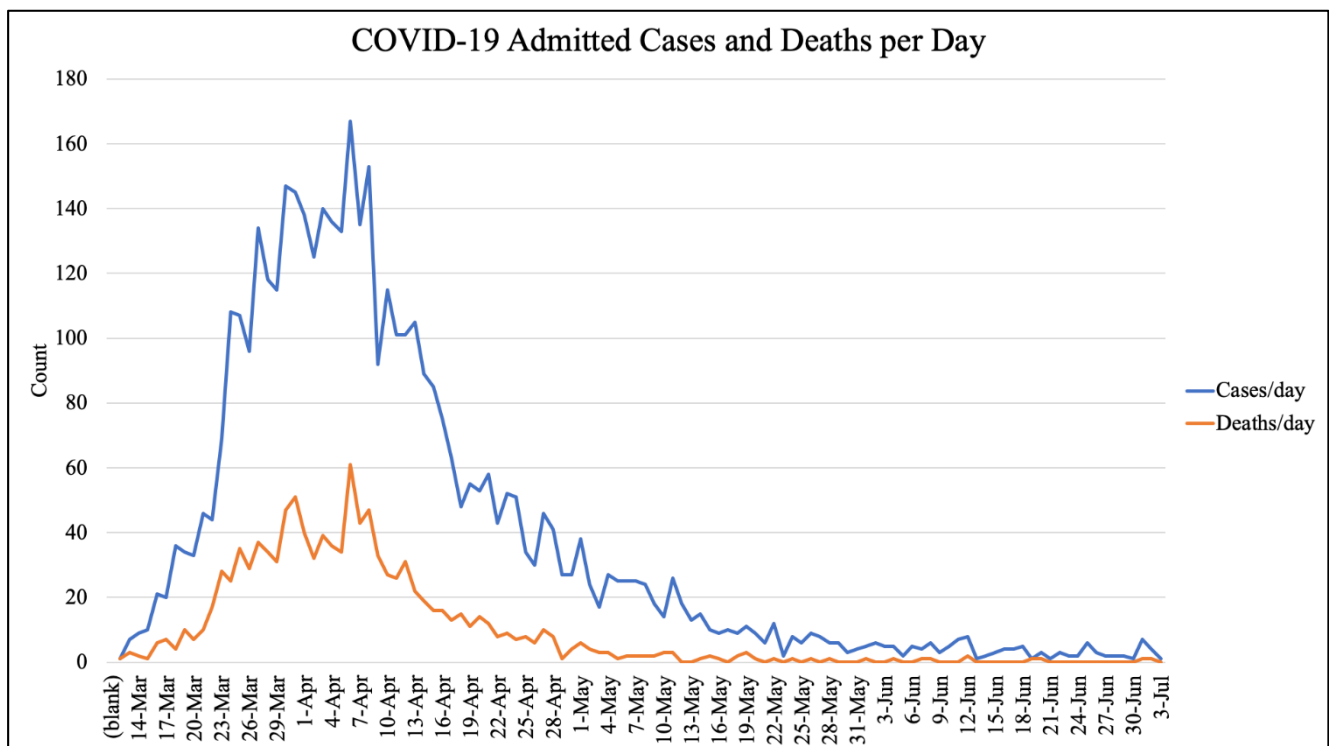


Figure 1: Patients admitted due to COVID-19 infection (blue line) and patient death (red line) per day from March 1st to July 3rd at our institution.

Some of the most frequently reported prognostic indicators in COVID-19 patients include gender, C-reactive protein (CRP), lactic dehydrogenase (LDH), and lymphocyte count. Other inflammatory markers also often appear to be elevated, such as ferritin, interleukin-6, tumour necrosis factor-alpha, and interferon gamma [3-5]. For example, Zhou et al were one of the first groups that showed many correlations with specific biomarkers that are predictive of morbidity/mortality in 191 patients from Wuhan. They found that older patients with d-dimer levels greater than 1ug/mL, and a higher SOFA (Sequential Organ Failure Assessment) score were associated with greater odds of in-hospital death [6]. However, many papers that have investigated biomarkers are largely focused on Chinese hospitals due to the disease's initial emergence in Wuhan [7-10]. It is essential to understand the clinical characteristics for more recent and diverse cases considering that the virus strain may have mutated since its first appearance [11].

In recent months, several ML models have been proposed to predict COVID-19 mortality as well as disease severity. In many such ML studies, researchers are only training on one kind of ML model (XGBoost, Random Forest, etc.) and on relatively small datasets with cohorts mainly from China. In addition, many studies evaluated their model performance only on area under the curve (AUC) and

without area under the precision recall curve (AUCPR) [3, 12, 13]. AUC should be used if the outcome class (dead or alive) is relatively balanced. If the outcome is skewed, as it is in data showing that most people survive COVID-19 infection, a model should be evaluated with AUCPR.

In our study, we used autoML to generate various machine learning models and automated the hyperparameter tuning and optimization. With autoML, we generated various ML models to compare and choose the best-performing model based on AUCPR. We also used the F2-score to evaluate the binary classifier (dead or alive). Unlike the F1-score, which gives equal weight to positive predictive value (PPV) and sensitivity, the F2-score gives more weight to sensitivity and penalizes the model more for false negatives than false positives. Furthermore, we ranked the variables by importance to understand which variables were the most influential in developing the top-performing models.

While there are many autoML platforms, we chose to use the open source H2O.ai for its diverse ML models in their autoML package [14, 15]. In addition, since the package can be downloaded to a local device, one does not have to upload patient data to the cloud, reducing the risk of exposing it to a third party. The H2O.ai autoML trains and cross-validates on the following ML algorithms: XGBoost, GBM (Gradient Boosting Machine) models, fixed grid of GLMs, a Default Random Forest (DRF), five pre-specified H2O GBMs, near-default Deep Neural Net, an Extremely Randomized Forest (XRT), random grid of XGBoost GBMs, a random grid of H2O GBMs, random grid of Deep Neural Nets, and two Stacked Ensembles - one based on all previously trained models, and another based on the best model of each family [15].

Based on our literature review, this will be the largest COVID-19 patient cohort to train a ML model and the first to utilize autoML.

Methods:

Data collection and analysis was approved by the Albert Einstein College of Medicine Institutional Review Board. The data was collected using Clinical Looking Glass (CLG), an interactive software application developed at Montefiore Medical Center for the evaluation of health care quality, effectiveness, and efficiency. The system integrates clinical and administrative datasets allowing non-statisticians to build temporally sophisticated cohorts and outcomes [16-19].

We queried CLG to find all patients who tested positive for COVID-19 through a nasopharyngeal specimen by real-time RT-PCR and admitted at our institution from 3/1/2020 - 7/3/2020 (4376 patients). The admitted patients tested positive within 24 hours before or after admission. The index time is when RT-PCR resulted positive for COVID-19.

We investigated a total of 47 unique biomarkers after conducting literature reviews, and used the earliest biomarker values available within 36 hours before or after the index time. The outcome of interest was mortality from any cause at one month from index time. We obtained the cycle threshold values (Ct-values) from positive nasopharyngeal specimens collected in accordance with CDC guidance. Real-time RT-PCR was performed using the Hologic Panther Fusion SARS-CoV-2 assay. The variable NLratio is the ratio between neutrophil and lymphocyte count.

We used the open source autoML package from H2O.ai for R programming language [14, 15, 20]. For the purpose of reproducibility, we excluded deep learning method in this study (discussed more in the Discussion section). The autoML is trained on a randomly selected 80% of the dataset (3517 patients, training set) with 10-fold cross-validation. We assigned the autoML to generate 20 machine learning models and rank them in order of performance by AUCPR on the remaining 20% of the dataset (859 patients, test set). As mentioned above, we evaluated the models with AUCPR because there are more patients in our cohort who survived COVID-19 versus those who died. For convenience, we named this best model, generated with 47 variables, “model_var_47.”

To make a binary classifier—dead or alive within 30 days—we chose a threshold probability that maximizes F2 score of the model_var_47. Sensitivity, specificity and PPV were calculated for the binary classifier. As mentioned earlier, F2-score was chosen because, unlike the F1 score which gives equal weight to precision and sensitivity (or recall), the F2-score gives more weight to sensitivity (penalizing the model more for false negatives than false positives).

In addition, we generated variable importance for the top models and chose the ten variables that had the greatest influence in making effective models. Variable importance was determined by calculating the relative influence of each variable: whether that variable was selected to split on during the tree building process, and how much the squared error (over all trees) improved (decreased) as a result [15].

With the 10 chosen variables, we retained the autoML. Again, we assigned the autoML to generate 20 machine learning models and rank them in order of AUCPR on the test set. For convenience, we named the best model, generated with 10 variables, “model_var_10.” Next, to make a binary classifier, we chose a threshold probability that maximizes the F2 score of the model_var_10. Sensitivity, specificity, and PPV were calculated for the binary classifier. Comparison was made between model_var_45 and model_var10.

Regarding how autoML handles missing values for each model is explained in the H2O.ai documentation [15].

The workflow of our method is depicted in figure 2.

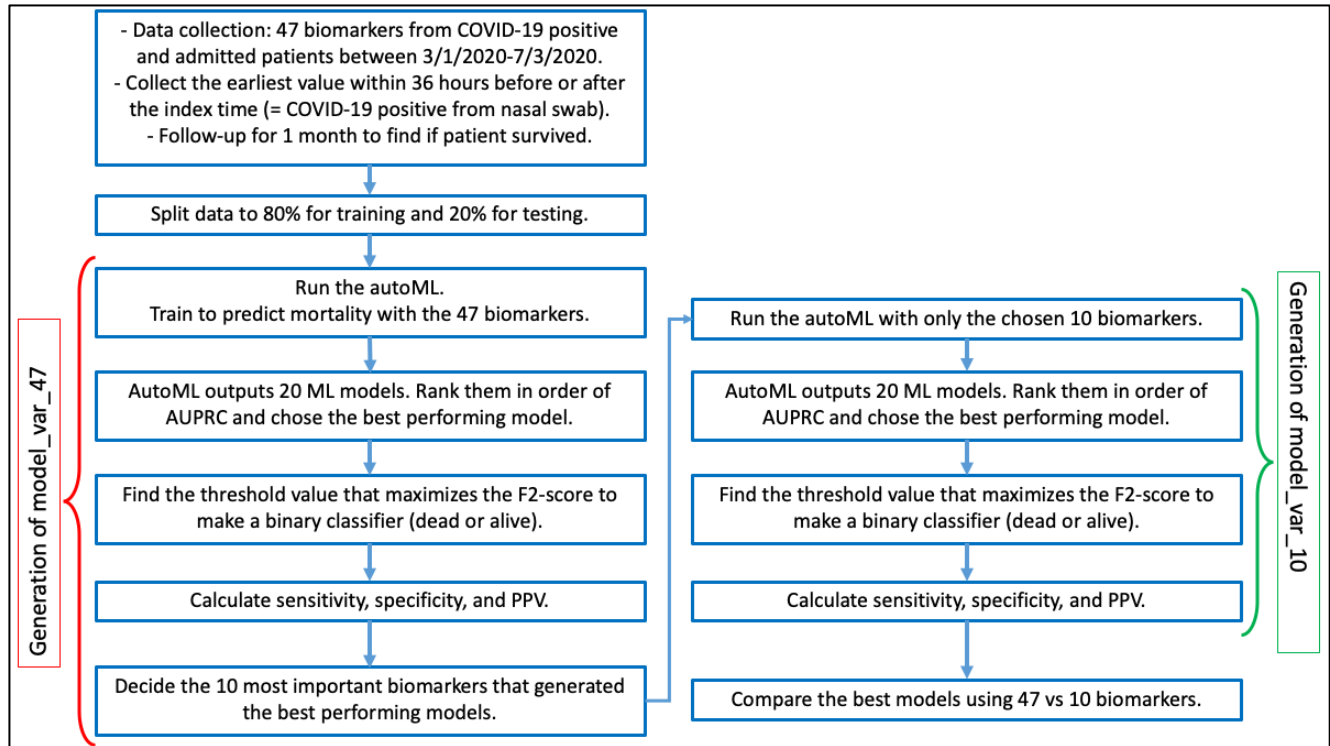


Figure 2: Flowchart summary of our method section.

Results:

Data summary of cases, survival, and biomarkers are presented in Table 1.

variable no.	variables	category	n	% missing	mean	sd	median
1	gender		4375				
		Male	2326	0.00			
		Female	2049	0.00			
2	age		4375	0.00	63.20	17.90	65.00
3	albumin		4060	7.20	3.73	0.55	3.80
4	systolicBP		4374	0.02	120.00	24.70	122.00
5	diastolicBP		4374	0.02	67.50	16.60	69.00
6	cr		4189	4.25	2.02	2.58	1.10
7	ddimer		2769	36.70	3.97	5.52	1.71
8	egfr		4173	4.62	63.80	35.90	64.00
9	eosinophil		4321	1.23	0.04	0.10	0.00
10	ferritin		2425	44.60	1354.00	2948.00	728.00
11	fibrinogen		2009	54.10	620.00	202.00	615.00
12	hgb		4321	1.23	12.60	2.32	12.80
13	inr		3805	13.00	1.23	0.95	1.10
14	lymphocyte		4321	1.23	1.36	4.95	1.00
15	neutrophil		4321	1.23	6.75	4.20	5.70
16	NLratio		4321	1.23	7.84	8.74	5.67
17	platelet		4321	1.23	235.00	109.00	215.00
18	protein		4045	7.54	7.07	0.78	7.10
19	pulse		4341	0.78	99.40	21.20	99.00
20	pulseOx		4339	0.82	92.80	8.33	95.00
21	rr		4341	0.78	21.30	6.11	20.00
22	temperature		4338	0.85	99.20	1.69	98.80
23	wbc		4321	1.23	8.87	7.24	7.60
24	alt		4055	7.31	44.80	116.00	27.00
25	ast		4145	5.26	0.30	0.56	0.20
26	bun		4189	4.25	32.50	32.50	20.00
27	calcium		4296	1.81	8.84	0.76	8.80
28	chloride		4145	5.26	0.30	0.56	0.20
29	crp		4145	5.26	0.30	0.56	0.20
30	interleukin6		4145	5.26	0.30	0.56	0.20
31	ldh		3230	26.20	455.00	358.00	381.00
32	mcv		4321	1.23	89.30	7.37	89.50
33	monocyte		4321	1.23	0.62	1.10	0.50
34	mpv		4217	3.61	11.00	1.11	10.90
35	procalcitonin		2128	51.40	2.40	7.68	0.20
36	rdw		4319	1.28	14.50	2.15	14.00
37	troponin		3625	17.14	0.06	0.26	0.01
38	ptt		3392	22.50	35.40	14.60	32.80

39	bmi		4129	5.62	30.30	48.00	28.40
40	glucose		3736	14.60	188.00	134.00	140.00
41	direct_bili		4145	5.26	0.30	0.56	0.20
42	total_bili		4146	5.23	0.60	0.94	0.50
43	creatinine_kinase		3361	23.20	640.00	3098.00	168.00
44	pro_bnp		2285	47.80	2408.00	4328.00	441.00
45	potassium		4209	3.79	4.43	0.74	4.30
46	charlson_score		4375	0.00	2.27	2.34	2.00
47	ct_value		1097	74.90	27.70	6.20	27.30
	survival		4375	0.00			
		dead	1088				
		alive	3287				

Table 1: Summary of variables from the cohort. NLratio is the ratio of neutrophil and lymphocyte. The ct_value is the cycle threshold from Hologic Panther Fusion SARS-CoV-2 assay. rr: respiratory rate, mpv: mean platelet volume, NLratio: neutrophil-lymphocyte ratio.

Model_var_47 Performance:

The best performing model with 47 variables was Stacked Ensemble of all models with AUCPR = 0.836. This is our model_var_47. This was followed by Stacked Ensemble of best from each ML family (AUCPR = 0.834). After the two Stacked Ensemble models ranked GBM and XGBoost models with AUCPR of 0.830 and 0.825, respectively (Table 2).

rank	model_id	aucpr	auc	logloss
1	StackedEnsemble_AllModels_AutoML_20200816_082220	0.836	0.919	0.300
2	StackedEnsemble_BestOfFamily_AutoML_20200816_082220	0.834	0.918	0.302
3	GBM_4_AutoML_20200816_082220	0.830	0.918	0.306
4	XGBoost_grid__1_AutoML_20200816_082220_model_3	0.825	0.915	0.306
5	GBM_1_AutoML_20200816_082220	0.820	0.912	0.317
6	XGBoost_grid__1_AutoML_20200816_082220_model_4	0.819	0.915	0.314
7	XGBoost_3_AutoML_20200816_082220	0.818	0.913	0.310
8	GBM_grid__1_AutoML_20200816_082220_model_3	0.817	0.911	0.317
9	XGBoost_grid__1_AutoML_20200816_082220_model_6	0.817	0.906	0.314
10	GBM_2_AutoML_20200816_082220	0.817	0.916	0.306
11	XGBoost_grid__1_AutoML_20200816_082220_model_2	0.813	0.906	0.347
12	XGBoost_grid__1_AutoML_20200816_082220_model_1	0.813	0.912	0.314
13	GBM_5_AutoML_20200816_082220	0.812	0.914	0.317
14	XGBoost_grid__1_AutoML_20200816_082220_model_5	0.809	0.909	0.319
15	XRT_1_AutoML_20200816_082220	0.807	0.902	0.343
16	GBM_3_AutoML_20200816_082220	0.807	0.910	0.319
17	GBM_grid__1_AutoML_20200816_082220_model_2	0.803	0.900	0.338
18	GBM_grid__1_AutoML_20200816_082220_model_1	0.796	0.902	0.326
19	DRF_1_AutoML_20200816_082220	0.796	0.892	0.351
20	XGBoost_2_AutoML_20200816_082220	0.788	0.903	0.328

Table2: Output of autoML with 47 variables. It is the rank order of models by AUCPR. In addition, it is informing AUC and Logloss.

Max F2-score of our model_var_47 was 0.804 with the threshold probability of 0.215. The binary classifier with this threshold had sensitivity, specificity, and PPV of 83.6%, 87.7%, and 69.8%, respectively (Table 3).

Prediction \ True outcome	dead	alive	predictive values
dead	183	79	0.698473282
alive	36	562	0.939799331
sensitivity/specificity	0.835616438	0.87675507	

Table 3: Confusion matrix of model_var_47. To make a binary classifier, we chose a threshold of 0.215 that maximized F2 score of 0.804. Sensitivity = 83.6%, specificity = 87.7%, positive predictive value = 69.8%, negative predictive value = 94.0%.

Variable Importance Ranking:

Ensemble Models cannot generate a variable importance ranking. However, we can generate the variable importance ranking for the XGBoost and GBM models (Table 4). For both models, age and vital signs (blood pressure, pulse Ox, and respiratory rate (RR)) ranked high. In addition, biomarkers such as BUN, LDH, D-dimer, creatinine (Cr), EGFR, troponin, pro-BNP, glucose, and procalcitonin also appeared high in the rank for many models. To have at least one biomarker for cardiac and renal function, we chose troponin and BUN to be included in the 10 variables. Glucose was also chosen for its high rank and ease of measuring in clinical setting. Therefore, our chosen 10 variables were: systolic and diastolic blood pressure, age, pulse Ox, respiratory rate, LDH, BUN, D-dimer, troponin, and glucose.

GBM variable rank	variable	percentage	XGBoost variable rank	variable	percentage
1	systolicBP	0.20619550	1	diastolicBP	0.16845995
2	diastolicBP	0.18020420	2	systolicBP	0.12628881
3	age	0.06377125	3	age	0.05731054
4	ldh	0.04358992	4	ldh	0.05570152
5	pulseOx	0.04028093	5	bun	0.05046364
6	bun	0.03950635	6	pulseOx	0.04370869
7	rr	0.03162137	7	rr	0.04043592
8	pro_bnp	0.02138585	8	creatinine_kinase	0.02864474
9	ddimer	0.02002810	9	troponin	0.02262898
10	hgb	0.01822092	10	ddimer	0.02177544
11	platelet	0.01822086	11	fibrinogen	0.02019802
12	troponin	0.01705258	12	glucose	0.01989828
13	egfr	0.01579635	13	lymphocyte	0.01983247
14	fibrinogen	0.01534756	14	mcv	0.01852715
15	mcv	0.01504536	15	platelet	0.01679427
16	glucose	0.01447782	16	albumin	0.01610019
17	procalcitonin	0.01410255	17	procalcitonin	0.01601085
18	ct_value	0.01404684	18	ct_value	0.01584243
19	temperature	0.01342299	19	NLratio	0.0158033

20	albumin	0.01325396	20	cr	0.01546503
21	rdw	0.01208765	21	pro_bnp	0.01545869
22	NLratio	0.01145223	22	hgb	0.01463397
23	charlson_score	0.01083647	23	calcium	0.01333433
24	calcium	0.01051022	24	protein	0.01283554
25	inr	0.01010361	25	bmi	0.01263931
26	mpv	0.01005920	26	ptt	0.0118435
27	neutrophil	0.00991232	27	alt	0.01177228
28	pulse	0.00987715	28	pulse	0.01162602
29	potassium	0.00952900	29	ferritin	0.01109278
30	protein	0.00923330	30	inr	0.01093542
31	ptt	0.00886313	31	rdw	0.00977237
32	cr	0.00821586	32	charlson_score	0.00928651
33	ferritin	0.00766533	33	egfr	0.00895472
34	bmi	0.00759211	34	neutrophil	0.00854143
35	total_bili	0.00697387	35	wbc	0.00827249
36	lymphocyte	0.00667885	36	eosinophil	0.00780552
37	gender	0.00621582	37	temperature	0.0068122
38	alt	0.00571864	38	monocyte	0.00538332
39	monocyte	0.00530855	39	potassium	0.00448006
40	creatinine_kinase	0.00510655	40	mpv	0.00431789
41	eosinophil	0.00502610	41	gender.F	0.003699
42	wbc	0.00499654	42	ast	0.0029562
43	chloride	0.00105657	43	chloride	0.00213093
44	crp	0.00079217	44	total_bili	0.00152531
45	ast	0.00028383	45	crp	0.000
46	interleukin6	0.00025372	46	direct_bili	0.000
47	direct_bili	0.00008004	47	interleukin6	0.000

Table 4: Side by side comparison of variable importance ranking between best performed GBM and XGBoost model. rr: respiratory rate, mpv: mean platelet volume, NLratio: neutrophil-lymphocyte ratio.

Model_var_10 Performance:

Next, we reran the autoML with the chosen 10 variables and ranked the models in order of AUCPR. The GBM model performed the best with AUCPR = 0.828. This is our model_var_10. Table 5 shows the output from autoML showing the rank order of models by AUCPR.

rank	model_id	aucpr	auc	logloss
1	GBM_2_AutoML_20200816_084209	0.828	0.911	0.315
2	GBM_3_AutoML_20200816_084209	0.818	0.908	0.318
3	StackedEnsemble_BestOfFamily_AutoML_20200816_084209	0.818	0.915	0.313
4	StackedEnsemble_AllModels_AutoML_20200816_084209	0.818	0.916	0.311
5	GBM_grid_1_AutoML_20200816_084209_model_3	0.817	0.912	0.313
6	XGBoost_grid_1_AutoML_20200816_084209_model_1	0.816	0.912	0.311
7	GBM_grid_1_AutoML_20200816_084209_model_2	0.814	0.906	0.318

8	XGBoost_grid__1_AutoML_20200816_084209_model_5	0.810	0.910	0.321
9	XGBoost_grid__1_AutoML_20200816_084209_model_6	0.809	0.909	0.316
10	XGBoost_grid__1_AutoML_20200816_084209_model_4	0.809	0.907	0.319
11	XGBoost_3_AutoML_20200816_084209	0.808	0.908	0.317
12	GBM_4_AutoML_20200816_084209	0.807	0.903	0.323
13	GBM_1_AutoML_20200816_084209	0.804	0.909	0.317
14	XGBoost_1_AutoML_20200816_084209	0.803	0.904	0.325
15	GBM_5_AutoML_20200816_084209	0.801	0.912	0.323
16	DRF_1_AutoML_20200816_084209	0.798	0.904	0.359
17	XGBoost_grid__1_AutoML_20200816_084209_model_3	0.796	0.904	0.324
18	GBM_grid__1_AutoML_20200816_084209_model_1	0.792	0.902	0.330
19	XRT_1_AutoML_20200816_084209	0.790	0.905	0.362
20	XGBoost_2_AutoML_20200816_084209	0.787	0.896	0.334

Table 5: Output of autoML with ran with 10 variables. It is showing the rank order of models by AUCPR. In addition, it is informing AUC and Logloss.

Max F2-score of our model_var_10 was 0.790 with the threshold probability of 0.151. The binary classifier with this threshold had sensitivity, specificity, and positive predictive value of 90.9%, 71.1%, and 51.8%. (Table 6).

Prediction \ True outcome	True outcome		predictive values
	dead	alive	
dead	199	185	0.518229167
alive	20	456	0.957983193
	0.908675799	0.711388456	

Table 6: Confusion matrix of model_var_10. To make a binary classifier, we chose a threshold of 0.151 that maximized F2 score of 0.790. Sensitivity = 90.9%, specificity = 71.1%, positive predictive value = 51.8%, negative predictive value = 95.8%.

Figure 3 shows the comparison of model_var_47 and model_var_10 by AUCPR.

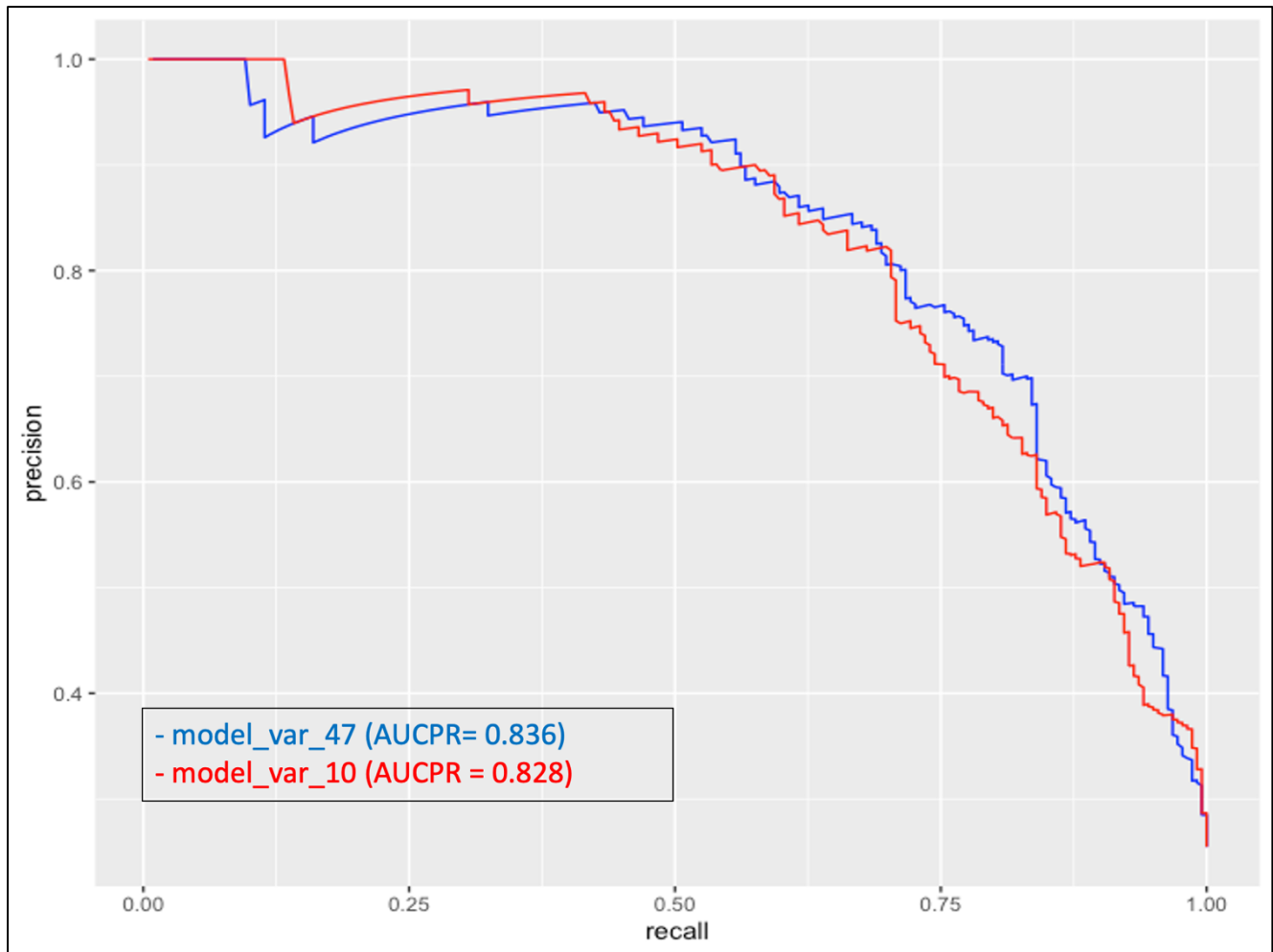


Figure3: Comparing AUCPR of model_var_47 and model_var_10.

Discussion:

Principal Results:

By using autoML, we were able to generate multiple ML models, automate the optimization of hyperparameter tuning, and compare models by their performance. In addition, we were able to extract the variables that are most predictive of patient mortality.

The model_var_47 and model_var_10 both predict mortality with high performance using clinical measurements collected early within a patient's hospital admission. When the autoML was retrained with the 10 chosen variables, it did not significantly affect the performance of the model. This suggests that these biomarkers are essential in gauging patient's severity from the infection. Our models use commonly available laboratory results and do not require imaging results or advanced testing. We believe an early and convenient risk assessment of patient mortality can allow physicians to triage and prioritize resources in a highly congested medical system.

Of the models generated by autoML, Stacked Ensemble performed the best with all 47 variables and GBM model performed the best with the 10 chosen variables. Deep learning was eliminated in this study for the purpose of reproducibility. However, when autoML ran with deep learning, it did not perform as well as GBM or XGBoost models. Deep learning's performance was at best AUCPR of 0.807 on the test set.

For both GBM and XGBoost, age and vital signs had significant influence in predicting patient mortality. LDH came at the top as the most reliable inflammatory marker. Cardiac (troponin and pro-BNP) and renal (Cr and EGFR) markers were influential, supporting studies from [21] and [22]. D-dimer ranked high in many models, which supports studies that found COVID-19 can promote coagulopathy [23, 24]. Glucose also ranked relatively high in our models supporting the findings that fasting blood glucose, regardless of previous diagnosis of diabetes or not, can be affected from COVID-19 infection [25]. Other variables that often came up within top 15 in importance ranking were, creatine kinase, fibrinogen, hemoglobin, and platelet. Regarding Ct-value, because it is not standardized across RT-PCR platforms, results can not be compared across different assays. In this study, we only used one platform (the Hologic Panther Fusion) and therefore there were more missing values (74% missing). It requires larger dataset to find if magnitude of a Ct-value have clinical implications.

Some variables, especially in the lower rank, seem to be contributing to the model but it is not clear how they are clinically influenced from COVID-19 infection. For example, MCV and calcium level (rank 15 and 24 in GBM model) appear to affect the model, but because ML models are a non-linear combination of variables, it is difficult to understand how they are contributing and if there is clinical significance. Further investigation is needed on how these biomarkers are altered in COVID-19 infected patients. However, it is interesting to note that ML models can identify these alterations.

Limitations:

We recognize there are limitations to our study. Fibrinogen, procalcitonin, and Ct-values were missing in more than 50% of our cohort. H2O.ai has internal imputation method to fill in these missing values [15]. Our cohort was limited to patients severe enough to be admitted, and findings may not generalize to all COVID-19 infected patients. Finally, the nature of training ML models involves randomization. In this study, we presented one representative autoML run. To check for consistency, we tested multiple random splitting between training and test set and retrained the autoML each time. We found that Stacked Ensemble models usually perform the best, followed by GBM and XGBoost. The overall performance of each model was minimally altered from the randomization process. Variable ranking shifted slightly with each autoML run, especially in the lower-ranking variables. However, the 10 most important biomarkers we chose consistently ranked at the top.

Future Work:

We are working towards additional goals to make the model more robust and user friendly for clinicians. First, we are in process of gathering data from other institutions and countries to make our model more generalizable. We imagine that institutions with many COVID-19 patients can develop their own ML models specialized for their population; institutions with minimal COVID-19 cases can use a more generalized model trained from a metadata. Second, we are working to implement reinforcement learning into our model. Reinforcement learning will allow us to update the model in real time as we accumulate more data. This will make the model responsive to a rapidly changing environment. Lastly, we are working to open the black box of ML models to understand how they are making such highly accurate decisions. For example, we would like to know: what is the cut-off value for each variable to be considered important? How are variables related to each other? Deciphering the black box of ML models is a research field of its own. However, it will allow us to use the models more practically, and possibly provide insight into the mechanism of disease of COVID-19 infection [26].

Conclusion:

We generated high-performing ML models that predicts mortality of COVID-19 infected patients using autoML. We also identified important variables that are strongly associated with patient outcomes. This is a proof of concept that autoML is an efficient, effective, and informative method to generate ML models and gain insight into the disease process. A model such as this may help clinicians triage patients in the current pandemic.

Conflict of Interest: None declared.

References

1. "Cases in the U.S." Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2020, www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/cases-updates/cases-in-us.html.
<https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/cases-updates/cases-in-us.html>
2. "COVID-19: Data." COVID-19: Data Summary - NYC Health, 2020, www1.nyc.gov/site/doh/covid/covid-19-data.page.
3. Cheng F, Joshi H, Tandon P, Freeman R, Reich D, Mazumdar M, Kohli-Seth R, Levin M, Timsina P, Kia A, Using Machine Learning to Predict ICU Transfer in Hospitalized COVID-19 Patients. *J Clin Med*. 2020 Jun; 9(6): 1668. Published online 2020 Jun 1. doi: [10.3390/jcm9061668](https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm9061668)
4. Henry BM, Santos de Oliveria, Benoit S, Plebani M, Lippi G. Hematologic, Biochemical, and Immune Biomarker Abnormalities Associated with Severe Illness and Mortality in Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19): a meta-analysis. *Clinical Chemistry and Laboratory Medicine*. doi:10.1515
5. Kermali M, Khalsa RK, Pillai K, Ismail Z, Harky A. The role of biomarkers in diagnosis of COVID-19 - A systematic review. *Life Sci*. 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lfs.2020.117788>.
6. F Zhou, T Yu, R Du, G Fan, Y Liu, Z Liu, et al. Clinical course and risk factors for mortality of adult inpatients with COVID-19 in Wuhan, China: a retrospective cohort study. *Lancet* (2020 Mar 11), 10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30566-3. pii: S0140-6736(20)30566-3[Epub ahead of print]
7. Ruan Q., Yang K., Wang W., Jiang L., Song J. Clinical predictors of mortality due to COVID-19 based on an analysis of data of 150 patients from Wuhan, China. *Intensive Care Med*. 2020; (published online March 3.) DOI:10.1007/s00134-020-05991-x
8. J. Yang, Y. Zheng, X. Gou, et al. Prevalence of comorbidities in the novel Wuhan coronavirus (COVID-19) infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int. J. Infect. Dis.* (2020)
9. Ruan Q, Yang K, Wang W, Jiang L, Song J. Clinical predictors of mortality due to COVID-19 based on an analysis of data of 150 patients from Wuhan, China. *Intensive Care Med*. 2020; 46: 846–8.
10. Chen R, Liang W, Jiang M, et al. Risk factors of fatal outcome in hospitalized subjects with coronavirus disease 2019 from a nationwide analysis in China. *Chest* 2020; : 1–9.
11. Tang X, Wu C, Li X, et al. On the origin and continuing evolution of SARS-CoV-2. *Natl Sci Rev* 2020; : 1–24.
12. Yan L, Zhang H, Goncalves J, Xiao Y, Wang M, Guo Y, et al. An interpretable mortality prediction model for COVID-19 patients. *Nat Mach Intell.* (2020) 2:283–8. 10.1038/s42256-020-0180-7
13. Liang W, Liang H, Ou L, Development and validation of a clinical risk score to predict the occurrence of critical illness in hospitalized patients with COVID-19. *JAMA Intern. Med.* e202033. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2020.2033> (2020).
14. H2O.ai (Oct. 2016). *R Interface for H2O*, R package version 3.10.0.8. <https://github.com/h2oai/h2o-3>.

15. H2O.ai. *H2O AutoML*, June 2017. URL <http://docs.h2o.ai/h2o/latest-stable/h2o-docs/automl.html>. H2O version 3.30.0.5.
16. Bellin E. Riddles in Accountable Healthcare: A primer to develop analytic intuition for medical homes and population health. South Carolina: Create Space; 2015.
17. Bellin E. How to Ask and Answer your Research Question using Electronic Medical Record Data. South Carolina: Create Space; 2017
18. Bellin E. Missing Management: Health-Care Analytic Discovery in a Learning Health System. South Carolina: Kindle direct publishing; 2019.
19. Bellin E, Fletcher DD, Geberer N, Islam S, Srivastava N. Democratizing information creation from health care data for quality improvement, research, and education-the Montefiore Medical Center Experience. *Acad Med*. 2010;85(8):1362-1368.
20. R Core Team (2020). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL <https://www.R-project.org/>.
21. Pei G, Zhang Z, Peng J, et al. Renal involvement and early prognosis in patients with COVID-19 pneumonia. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 2020 April 28
22. Deng Q., Hu B., Zhang Y., Wang H., Zhou X., Hu W. Suspected myocardial injury in patients with COVID-19: evidence from front-line clinical observation in Wuhan. China. *Int J Cardiol*. 2020
23. Thachil J, Tang N, Gando S, Falanga A, Cattaneo M, Levi M, Clark C, Iba T (2020) ISTH interim guidance on recognition and management of coagulopathy in COVID-19. *J Thromb Haemost*. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jth.14860>
24. Zhang Y, Xiao M, Zhang S et al. Coagulopathy and antiphospholipid antibodies in patients with Covid-19. *N Engl J Med* 2020; 382: e38.
25. Wang S, Ma P, Zhang S, Song S, Wang Z, Ma Y, et al. Fasting blood glucose at admission is an independent predictor for 28-day mortality in patients with COVID-19 without previous diagnosis of diabetes: a multi-centre retrospective study. *Diabetologia*. 2020.
26. Lundberg S, Erion G, Chen H, et al. From local explanations to global understanding with explainable AI for trees. *Nat Mach Intell* 2020; 2: 2522–5839.