Machine Learning Supporting Brazilian Public Health Care policies

omitted to revision

Abstract—**Health data monitoring is a crucial activity to reduce maternal, neonatal and infant mortality rates by supporting public health policies decisions. Available data in Brazilian health databases point that It is possible to predict death risk in the early stages of gestation and infant development. In this research, we consider the information availability still in the gestational period to propose different death risk prediction models for this public of interest. We also detail the data mining process to apply machine learning-based techniques in death risk classification for maternal, neonatal and infant patients. We present an experiment pipeline to estimate average performance and evaluated machine learning models with different features combinations. Additionally, we show a web service which provides multiple predictive models by information availability. Results show Random Forest obtaining better performance when compared to the other machine learning methods.**

Index Terms—**Brazilian health data, data mining, information availability.**

I. INTRODUCTION

Historically, data analysis was always a guide in the decision-making process. Modern computing techniques and the vast amount of information available in Brazil by public transparency points to new opportunities. When it comes to linked data, though, there are many challenges. Despite the difficulties, researches in this area continue to demonstrate that it is possible to associate data and extract solutions immediately.

The World Health Organization (WHO) [1], [2] reports many of the maternal and infant occurred deaths, are due to gestation or parturition complications and can be avoided by performing simple actions. For this purpose, population health parameters monitoring is a key activity to reduce maternal (gestation and puerperium), neonatal and infant mortality rates.

When considering this context, collecting some data during each gestation stage period allows generating relevant information to identify death risk for mothers and babes. The web tool Intelligent Governance in Health Systems (GISSA) is a system that supports governance in public health care. GISSA consists of a set of components which allow data collection, integration and visualization to support the decision-making process.

Researches [3]–[5] has demonstrated the correlation between data collected by Brazilian Government and the death of babes and mothers using machine learning techniques. Although information is collected at the time of the child's birth, this data can be inferred earlier in gestational development. This suggests that risk of death can be assessed months before birth, allowing family health professionals to take simple steps, or even identify and refer the case to specialized medical care.

Figure 1 outlines three periods of interest in case of mothers (pregnancy up to puerperium) and babes (neonatal and infant).
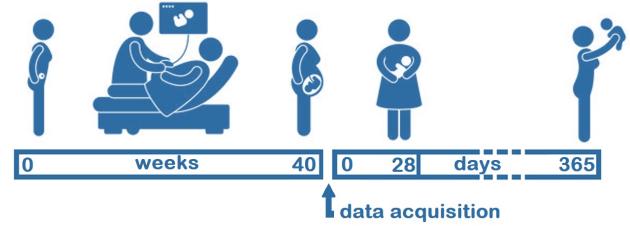

Fig. 1. Periods: gestational + puerperium (0 to 46 weeks), neonatal (0 to 28 days), and infant (0 to 365 days).

Using this data collected at every single moment allows the proposal of different pattern recognition models to the death risk identification for maternal, neonatal and infant patients. We could apply these predictive models to different stages of gestation and baby development. This individualized or joined information may be used to support public health strategies.

This paper details the data mining process in GISSA datasets to evaluate the application of supervised machine learning methods for neonatal, infant and maternal mortality for death risk prediction. The main contribution of this work includes a proposal of a web service which provides multiple predictive models ordered by information availability. A Proof of Concept (PoC) is also presented to demonstrate its use by GISSA portal in the family health care program running by federal government.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follow. Section II overviews related works about infant and pregnancy mortality risk prediction with machine learning. Section III details data mining process used to build and evaluate a couple of machine learning-based death risk prediction models. Section IV presents and discusses performance results. Section V ends with some conclusions and future works.

II. RELATED WORK

In [3], It is applied Fuzzy logic to death prediction of children group in the neonatal period. In this study, the authors identify a set of characteristics of interest: newborn birth weight, gestational age at parturition, Apgar score, and previous report of stillbirth. These features showed to be enough for the fuzzy inference. From the 24 rules identified by specialists, with it is possible to predict neonatal death with an accuracy of 90.0%. This study points for the model applicability from the child's birth, since $3/4$ of these attributes

are measured only in birth, been not possible using them to predict mortality conditions in early gestational stages.

In [6], authors present and evaluate the Intelligent Health Analysis System (LAIS), to support decision-making in preventive actions involving pregnant mothers and newborns. This system uses data mining techniques to generate death risk alerts using probability-based methods for training and evaluation of predictive models. The authors applied data from the Mortality Information System (SIM) and Live Birth Information System (SINASC) databases available on the DATASUS portal. Results showed that the probabilistic algorithm Naive Bayes performed better when compared to other machine learning techniques. The obtained accuracy and Area Under the Receiver Operating Characteristic Curve (AUROCC) were 98.2% and 92.1%, respectively.

Another research, performed in [4], presents a practical and straightforward approach to identify whether the infant mortality coefficient of a given city will be above or below the Brazilian national mean rate. By the use of regression trees model, it is sufficient to observe the total of prenatal medical appointments and mother's educational level hitting 65.0% of the cases.

III. METHODOLOGY

Since the project workflow focuses on the data mining process from data collection to the deployment, it is applied Cross Industry Standard Process for Data Mining (CRISP-DM) [7] as the predominant methodology.

A. Data Mining Steps in Gissa

In order to better represent the methodology applied, we simplified CRISP-DM in four main steps. Figure 2 summarizes macro activities that guide data mining based approach in this paper.
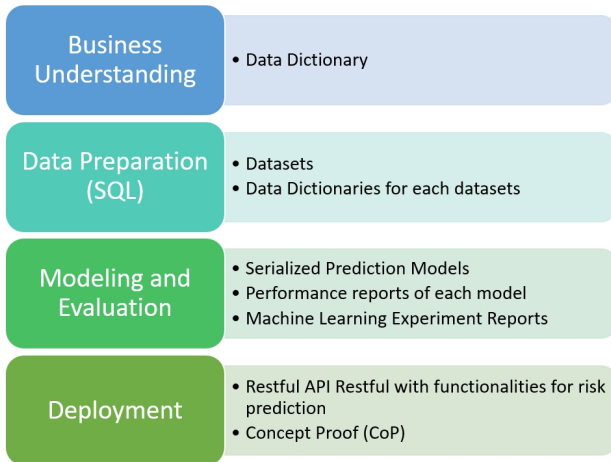

Fig. 2. Data mining steps in GISSA.

B. Business Understanding

This step was about the business domain understanding of GISSA and included the comprehension of the entities, relationships, and fields in the databases. As an artefact, we produced a data dictionary which describes tables of SINASC and SIM databases.

C. Data Preparation

Raw data in GISSA's scenario is from relational databases, which enables applications to efficiently store and query with Structure Query Language (SQL) large amount of data (about 1.5M samples) [8]. The dataset and its description were built based on SIM and SINASC tables through the data preparation phase summarized in a couple of steps:

1) **Select Data**: a selection of columns and rows of interest in SIM and SINASC tables;
2) **Integrate Data**: tables union is done defining data classification as well (samples that incur in death or not). Some fields appear with missed values due to lack of information coming from different tables;
3) **Clean Data**: filling default missed values and replacement of inconsistent values in the table resulted by integration step;
4) **Construct Data**: some features are extracted based on each problem definition;
5) **Format Data**: Filled registers (without ignored information) are selected randomly and recorded in Comma-Separated Values (CSV) format.

Figure 3 represents the data preparation process, which involves applying SQL scripts resulting in each dataset.
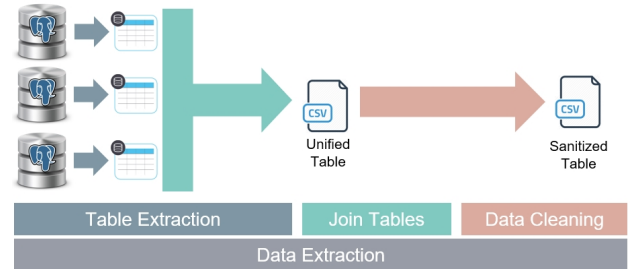

Fig. 3. Overview for data preparation process.

After the data preparation process, datasets classification remains in two groups (dead or alive) for binary classification as in Table I. Women in pregnancy or puerperium stages compose the maternal dataset. The neonatal dataset is composed of newborns children, from 0 up to 28 days of life. The infant dataset is composed of children from 0 up to 365 days of life.

After this phase, each dataset is standardized with Standard-Scaler class, available at Scikit-Learn library [9]. This operation results in zero mean and scaling data to unit variance, considering each feature separately in all samples selected. Each value is scaled by the expression: $x_{scaled} = (x - \mu)/\sigma$, where μ and σ represent, respectively, the mean and standard deviation for a given feature in dataset.

Dataset	dead	alive	total
maternal dataset	508	2531	3039
neonatal dataset	657	682	1339
infant dataset	911	952	1863

We performed Exploratory data analysis (EDA) to verify the generated datasets. EDA allows verifying data variables quality by graphics visualization and statistical measurements. All these actions aim to prevent biased and overfitting models.

D. Modeling

We perform some tasks in order to model and assess applicability: (1) data loading and preprocessing; (2) exploratory data analysis; (3) hyperparameters optimization; (4) cross-validation executions. After these steps, models are ranking by AUROCC and accuracy. Figure 4 shows the sequence of steps to guide modelling and deployment in API restful used by GISSA portal. This pipeline is applied to the three datasets considering each group of features selected.
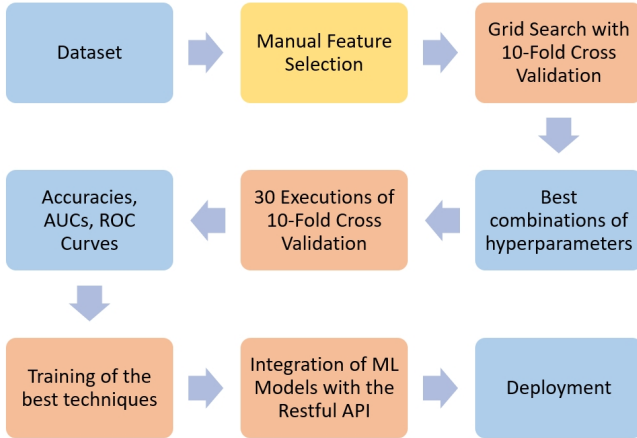

Fig. 4. Experiment overview for model selection and evaluation.

For each dataset, we listed the attributes in order of information availability. This feature arrangement allows the definition and evaluation of multiple predictive models, depending on the available information. Besides that, this strategy also enables the prediction in different periods of interest, once we proposed multiple models with increasing feature numbers.

The features in maternal dataset are (F_1) Birthplace, (F_2) Education level (mother), (F_3) Child's race, (F_4) Child's gender, (F_5) Number of healthy parturition, (F_6) Gestational age (in weeks), (F_7) month starting prenatal, (F_8) Child positioning for parturition, (F_9) Parturition type, (F_{10}) Assisted parturition, (F_{11}) Induced parturition, (F_{12}) Cesarean occurrence before parturition, (F_{13}) Birth indicative, (F_{14}) Robson classification [10] for pregnancy, (F_{15}) Apgar 5 minutes for child at birth, (F_{16}) Age of child at death, (F_{17}) Death

occurred in relation to parturition and (F_{18}) Death indicative of child.

The features in neonatal and infant datasets are (F_1) Age of father at birth, (F_2) Age of mother at birth, (F_3) Level of education (mother), (F_4) Marital status of mother, (F_5) Number of prenatal consultations, (F_6) Start month of prenatal consultations, (F_7) Start week of prenatal consultations, (F_8) mother's Brazilian Code of Occupation (BCO), (F_9) Number of previous pregnancies, (F_{10}) Number of stillbirths, (F_{11}) Number of live births, (F_{12}) Number of cesarean parturition, (F_{13}) Number of healthy births, (F_{14}) race of mother , (F_{15}) gender of child, (F_{16}) Pregnancy type, (F_{17}) Birth occurrence place, (F_{18}) Robson classification, (F_{19}) Assisted parturition code, (F_{20}) Cesarean occurrence before parturition begins, (F_{21}) Cesarean status before parturition begins, (F_{22}) Birthplace, (F_{23}) Apgar 1 minute index for child at birth, (F_{24}) Apgar 5 minutes index for child at birth, (F_{25}) Weight of child at birth, (F_{26}) Race of child and (F_{27}) Malformed occurrence status.

E. Evaluation

The performance of supervised classifiers Naive Bayes [11] (NB), Decision Tree (DT) [12] and Random Forest (RF) [13] was measured and evaluated for the binary classification task.

The application of the Grid Search optimization strategy combined with the K-Fold Cross Validation (CV) technique makes it possible to obtain different model performance estimates for each hyperparameters combination. From these results, we can choose the most appropriated model (with the lowest CV error). Besides, the use of CV maximizes the confidence of the values of the selected hyperparameters, ensuring a better generalization (reducing overfitting).

The hyperparameters adjustment in supervised algorithms We performed Decision Tree and Random Forest parameter optimization by the following. For Random Forest, we considered the parameters n_estimators, criterion and max_depth of the RandomForest Classifier class available in the Scikit-learn library. Table II shows the parameters and tested values for this classifier.

Parameters	Description	Tested Values
n_estimators	Number of trees in the forest	10, 50, 100
max_depth	Maximum depth of the tree	5, 10, 15, 20
criterion	Function to measure the quality of a split	"gini", "entropy"

For the Decision Tree, we considered criterion and splitter parameters to find the best-optimized combination. The Table III presents the tested values.

Since Gaussian Naive Bayes computes *a priori* and *a posteriori* probabilities from datasets, there are no parameters to be tunned.

To obtain the best combination of parameters, the Grid Search technique combined to K-Fold Cross Validation was

Parameters	Description	Tested Values
criterion	Function to measure the quality of a split	"gini", "entropy"
splitter	strategy used to choose the split at each node	"best","random"

performed with $k = 10$. The optimal values for Random Forest were $criterion = "gini"$, $max\_depth = 10$ and $n\_estimators = 100$. For the Decision Tree technique were found $criterion = "gini"$, and $splitter = "best"$.

1) Cross-Validation Experiment: For each supervised estimator, the experiment pipeline was run 30 times, for the estimation of a confidence interval and average performance benchmarks. Algorithm 1 details the experiment process. For a given dataset D, a group of supervised machine learning techniques T and features set A, the experiment firstly generates a set of features combinations C (TOP 01, TOP 02, ..., TOP M) and evaluate each technique for a different features subset by cross-validation.

Algorithm 1 Experiment pseudocode

$D \leftarrow GetDataset(\ )$
$A \leftarrow \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_m\}$
$T \leftarrow \{t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_k\}$
$C \leftarrow FeaturesCombination(A)$
foreach $t \in T$ **do**
   $t_{hyperparameters} = GridSearch(t, D, A)$
end foreach
foreach $round \in 30\ rounds$ **do**
  foreach $c \in C$ **do**
    foreach $t \in T$ **do**
      $S \leftarrow Subset(D, c)$
      $S \leftarrow FeatureStandardization(S)$
      $ACC_{cv}, AUROCC_{cv} \leftarrow CrossVal(S, folds = 10)$
    end foreach
  end foreach
end foreach
foreach $c \in C$ **do**
  foreach $t \in T$ **do**
    $results[c][t] = ComputeMetrics()$
  end foreach
end foreach
$S \leftarrow BestCombinations(results)$

F. Deployment

From the evaluation of experiments described previously, it is possible to obtain the predictive models with better accuracy and AUROCC results for each attributes combination. We serialized the selected predictive models for each addressed classification scenario (maternal, neonatal and infant) and made available in a restful API. This software modularization

allows simple integration with any system, either web or mobile. The intelligence module uses supervised machine learning classifiers to compute predictions and probabilities. We generated a total of 27 predictive models for neonatal mortality, 27 models for infant mortality and 18 models for maternal mortality.

For each scenario, the model represents a classifier which receives a features vector of a given size. For example, considering neonatal mortality risk, model TOP04 is trained with the Gaussian Naive Bayes algorithm and receives as input a vector with four attributes. In this context, GISSA web system works as the PoC, consuming services provided by a restful API, in order to demonstrate the proposed models. Figure 5 illustrates the architecture.
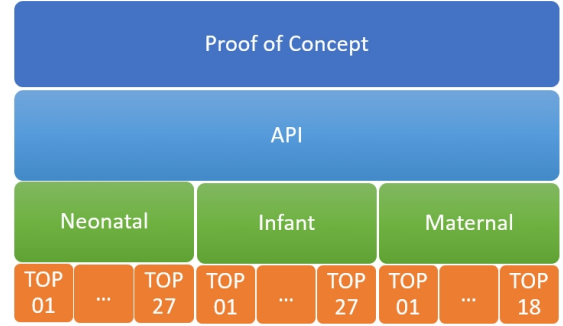

Fig. 5. PoC and API architecture.

Still considering TOP04 model, GISSA application must inform the scenario and a feature vector as a POST request according to the format.

```
POST http://<server>:5001/predict
{
    "data": "[21.0, 19.0, 4.0, 2.0]",
    "model": "MMInfantil",
}
```

The API executes prediction for the selected model, returning the class value (0 for alive or 1 for death prediction) and the death probability as a POST response.

```
Response: [{'class': 1, 'prob': 0.79}]
```

IV. RESULTS

We perform a series of experiments to choose the best predictive model algorithms considering performance results. The average values for accuracy and AUROCC are presented, according to the experiment procedures detailed in section III. All models and its results are presented in Tables IV, V and VI.

We represent the Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve in the cartesian plane, where the Y axis represents the sensitivity and the X axis represents 1 - specificity. Sensitivity refers to the likelihood of a test be positive, given that the

TABLE IV
NEONATAL MORTALITY EXPERIMENTS

Features Set	Classifier	Mean AUROCC	Mean ACC
TOP01	GaussianNB	0.5180	54.07%
TOP02	GaussianNB	0.5407	55.21%
TOP03	GaussianNB	0.5554	57.83%
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮
TOP17	RandomForest	0.7454	82.02%
TOP18	RandomForest	0.7459	81.86%
TOP19	RandomForest	0.7448	81.87%
TOP20	RandomForest	0.7504	82.73%
TOP21	RandomForest	0.7517	82.73%
TOP22	RandomForest	0.7511	82.79%
TOP23	RandomForest	0.8155	88.27%
TOP24	RandomForest	0.8261	89.75%
TOP25	RandomForest	0.8394	90.82%
TOP26	**RandomForest**	**0.8876**	**93.90**%
TOP27	RandomForest	0.8872	93.94%

Fig. 6. ROC curve for neonatal death risk.

TABLE V
INFANT MORTALITY EXPERIMENTS

Features Set	Classifier	Mean AUROCC	Mean ACC
TOP01	GaussianNB	0.5277	54.34%
TOP02	GaussianNB	0.5495	56.15%
TOP03	GaussianNB	0.5760	60.70%
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮
TOP17	RandomForest	0.7512	82.69%
TOP18	RandomForest	0.7533	82.81%
TOP19	RandomForest	0.7518	82.70%
TOP20	RandomForest	0.7903	86.32%
TOP21	RandomForest	0.7893	86.25%
TOP22	RandomForest	0.7893	86.20%
TOP23	RandomForest	0.8452	91.28%
TOP24	RandomForest	0.8521	92.00%
TOP25	RandomForest	0.8744	93.15%
TOP26	**RandomForest**	**0.9909**	**99.73**%
TOP27	RandomForest	0.9906	99.82%

individual has died. Specificity refers to the likelihood of the test be negative, once the individual is alive [14]. For the Figures 6, 7 and 8 blue dots describes the mean ROC graph that represents all 30 experiments randomly initialized of the considered model, the gray shadow (when observable) in background is a composition of all results separately. This shaded area shows that the ROC curve profile does not differ from the mean case for the set of selected predictor variables regardless of data separation between training and test groups.

The ratio between the accounting of correctly classified examples and the total of evaluated examples. This metric is accepted for evaluation and describes the accuracy of classification entirely [15]. AUROCC represents the overall performance of an estimator, once this metric considers all computed values of sensitivity and specificity. The more the estimator ability to discriminate against individuals with and without risk of death, the more the curve will approximate to the upper left corner and AUROCC will approximate to 1 [14].

The predominance of the Random Forest algorithm as the best technique for the evaluated datasets is notorious. For the neonatal and infant mortality datasets, the Random Forest algorithm obtained better performance for 24 of the 27 predictive models evaluated. For the maternal mortality dataset, this algorithm presented better accuracy and AUROCC for all models.

For the neonatal dataset, the combination that scored highest AUROCC and accuracy was TOP26, with 0.8876 and 93.90%, respectively. The area under the ROC curve for this combination is shown in Figure 6. This combination concerns with a Random Forest model with 26 predictive attributes.

For the infant dataset, the best combination was also the TOP26, with 0.9909 and 99.73%, respectively. This similarity is associated with the composition of the neonatal and infant datasets, given that both differ in the way how class attribute is determined for each instance. The ROC curve for this combination is shown in Figure 7.
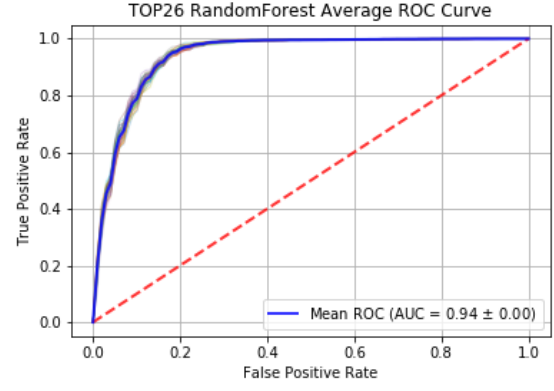
Lastly, for the maternal dataset, the TOP15 combination was the one that obtained the highest value for accuracy and AUROCC, with 0.9163 and 97.50%, respectively. The ROC curve for this combination is shown in Figure 8.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper evaluated three problem scenarios for death prediction to support decision-making in health management. From the data mining process in GISSA portal, it was possible to build and evaluate a set of machine learning models trained with neonatal, infant and maternal data with different feature combinations.

In this approach, we consider the information availability as a guideline to generate, evaluate and select the predictive models. Each model represents the best algorithm for a feature combination. The Random forest estimator is the predominant method in feature combinations for the three scenarios, which indicates its generalization capability for health data. To demonstrate the utility of our approach, we
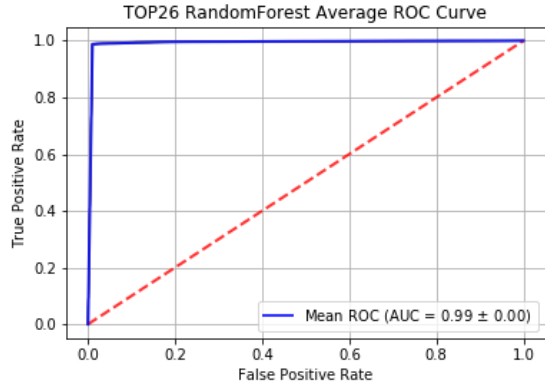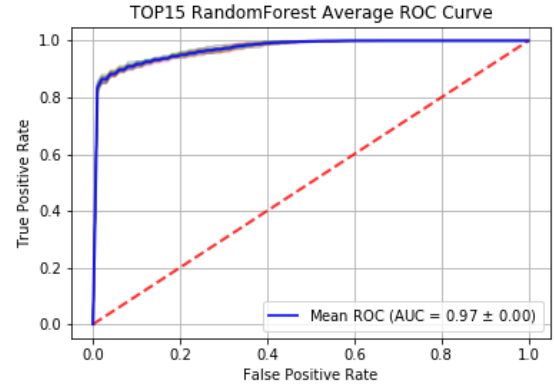
Fig. 7. ROC curve for infant death risk.

Fig. 8. ROC curve for maternal death risk.

TABLE VI
MATERNAL MORTALITY EXPERIMENTS

Features Set	Classifier	Mean AUROCC	Mean ACC
TOP01	RandomForest	0.6120	61.20%
TOP02	RandomForest	0.6913	71.64%
TOP03	RandomForest	0.8277	92.81%
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮
TOP10	RandomForest	0.8840	95.49%
TOP11	RandomForest	0.8892	95.77%
TOP12	RandomForest	0.8946	96.14%
TOP13	RandomForest	0.8957	96.26%
TOP14	RandomForest	0.9060	97.11%
TOP15	**RandomForest**	**0.9163**	**97.50**%
TOP16	RandomForest	0.9147	97.39%
TOP17	RandomForest	0.9133	97.38%
TOP18	RandomForest	0.9143	97.41%

built a microservice to serve all these models for each scenario. A PoC was also implemented to demonstrate the use of the restful API in GISSA portal.

Future works include expanding the restful API system adding new predict models (services). Intends to evaluate other supervised methods for described scenarios or even apply semi-supervised approaches to deal with labelled and unlabeled datasets.

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