# Team WHaMoCaTY - CS273A Final Project

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\*Our team name is an abbreviation of 'We Have More Candy Than You'

#### Introduction

Our group chose to work with the Diabetes 130-US Hospitals dataset for this project. This dataset contains 10 years of patient diabetes records collected from 130 hospitals in the US. The dataset contains 101,766 records with 49 features and 3 class labels. A description of the features and the amount of missing data in each category can be found at https://www.hindawi.com/journals/bmri/2014/781670/tab1/so we will not spend time explaining them here.

The 3 class labels our models will learn are "<30", ">30" and "NO", referring to whether or not a patient is readmitted to the hospital after the visit recorded in the database. <30 and >30 refer to whether the patient was readmitted in less than 30 days or more than 30 days respectively, while "NO" indicates that no record of readmission exists.

We decided to test a variety of machine learning models, such as regression, neural networks and decision trees. But first, we did some exploration and preprocessing of the data.

# Cleaning the Data and Feature Selection

First we looked at those features with high amounts of missing data: weight, payer code, and medical specialty. Since 97% of the weight data was missing, we decided there was no worth in trying to include it in our analyses. We also threw out the payer code feature because the type of health insurance a patient has should have very little bearing on a patient's care and whether they will be readmitted. We went back and forth on whether to keep medical specialty - which is a feature describing the speciality of the attending doctor. 53% of the data was missing in this category. After inspecting the values this feature could take on (84 distinct values in total) we decided it was out of scope for the project to try and reconstruct the missing values and also decided to exclude this feature from our final analyses.

We also got rid of the features examide and citoglipton, since no patients were prescribed this drug. We also excluded glimepiride.pioglitazone, acetohexamide, metformin.pioglitazone, and metformin.rosiglitazone since only 1 or 2 people were prescribed these drugs and thus these features were unlikely to contribute much to the outcome.

The ICD-9 codes that were used as values for diag1, diag2, and diag3 (diagnoses) were remapped to 9 categorical values that indicated the type of disease: Circulatory, Respiratory, Digestive, Diabetes, Injury, Musculoskeletal, Genitourinary, Neoplasms, and Other.

Finally, we noticed that some patient identifying numbers were repeated more than once, indicating multiple visits from the same person. In order to be able to assume independence of our data points, we only kept the first visit (as identified using encounter ids) for each patient and threw out the rest. This reduced the number of data points to 71,518. After excluding patient id and encounter id from our analyses, our final number of features is 38.

## **PCA**

In an attempt to reduce the number of features further, we performed a principal components analysis (PCA) but this did not prove too informative. The first principal component only accounted for 5.5% of the data. Therefore we decided to keep the rest of our features. Figure 1 shows how much each feature explains the data set. The features making the most contributions are indicator variables that say whether or not diabetes medication was prescribed to the patient and whether or not there was a change in dosage for prescribed medication. These features together accounted for 10% of the data. Whether diabetes medication was prescribed and whether there was a change are highly correlated. We suspect this may be because if a patient's condition is worsening, then a new medication may be prescribed or a higher dosage given and thus there will be a change in dosage. Alternatively, if a patient's condition is improving, their dosage may be decreased and this is still a change. If someone is not prescribed medicine at all, then there will be no change to administer.

## **Logistic Regression**

We performed some additional preprocessing of the data, namely one-hot encoding the categorical values and shuffling the data. The data was also normalized using MinMaxNormalization<sup>2</sup>. This was to avoid the problem of our model treating columns

<sup>\*</sup>these authors contributed equally to this work

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This was done in R. Permission to use R for this project was granted beforehand by Professor Mandt.

 $<sup>^2</sup>$ https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.preprocessing.Min $ext{Max}$ Scaler.ht $ext{ml}$ 

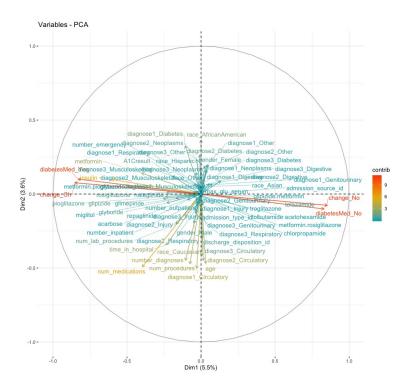
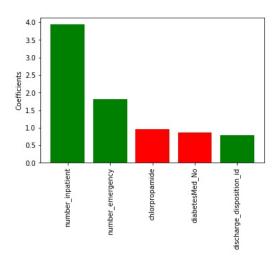


Figure 1. Principal components of the data and how much each accounted for the data.

with larger values as more important. After the one-hot encoding, there are 73 features to be used as coefficients in our model. The data was also split into a training set and a test set, with the first 60,000 data points used for the training set.

We trained a multiclass logistic regression model using scikit-learn. Since there are 3 classes, we trained 3 binary classifiers. The accuracy on the test data was 0.609. Additionally, we report the features that had the highest abstract coefficients for each classifier.

For the <30 class (readmitted in less than 30 days), the most important factors were the number of inpatient ( $\beta = 3.899$ ) and emergency ( $\beta = 1.962$ ) visits, the prescription of chlorpropamide ( $\beta = -0.897$ ), no diabetic medicine prescribed ( $\beta = -0.865$ ), and the manner in which the patient was discharged ( $\beta = 0.824$ ).



**Figure 2.** The 5 most important factors for the <30 classifier. Red means negative values while green means positive.

For the >30 class (readmitted after 30 days), the most important factors were the number of emergency ( $\beta = 4.285$ ), outpatient ( $\beta = 2.836$ ), and inpatient ( $\beta = 2.558$ ) visits, the prescription of miglitol ( $\beta = 1.606$ ), and the number of diagnoses ( $\beta = 1.285$ ).

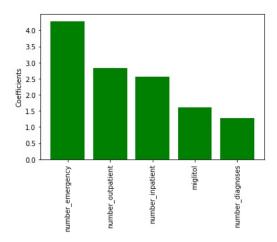
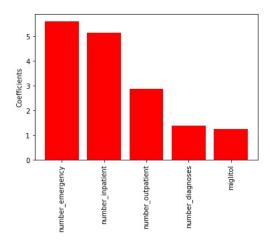


Figure 3. The 5 most important factors for the >30 classifier. Red means negative values while green means positive.

For the no readmission class, the most important factors were the number of emergency ( $\beta = -6.179$ ), inpatient ( $\beta = -5.287$ ), and outpatient visits ( $\beta = -3.110$ ) in the preceding year, the number of diagnoses ( $\beta = -1.820$ ), and whether a patient was prescribed miglitol ( $\beta = -0.792$ ).



**Figure 4.** The 5 most important factors for the no readmission classifier. Red means negative values while green means positive.

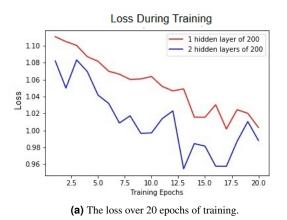
It makes sense that the values for no record of readmission and readmission after 30 days have values on opposite ends of the scales. The features themselves make sense too, as you're more likely to need a second visit if you've already been visiting the hospital enough in the previous year and have several diagnoses.

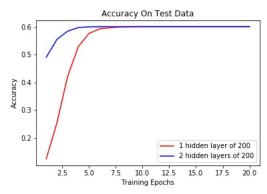
#### **Neural Networks**

As with the logistic regression model, some preprocessing was done to the data. The data was normalized using MinMaxNormalization and was split into a training and test set, with the first 60,000 data points in the training set and the rest in the test set. The data was also one-hot encoded as before.

Neural networks were implemented using pytorch. We tried two different network structures. Both networks had 73 input nodes and 3 output nodes. One network had a hidden layer with 200 nodes while another network had 2 hidden layers with 200 nodes each. The batch size was 256 because we wanted a large batch for stable training. The learning rate was set at 0.0001 so that we could track the learning process. With too high of a learning rate, the model seemed likely to overfit.

Both models achieved exactly the same accuracy of 0.601 which was surprising. It seems like the second hidden layer may have been redundant, however when we look at plots of the loss and accuracy, we see that the two layer network converges faster.





**(b)** The accuracy on the held out test set of data.

Figure 5. Performance of both networks.

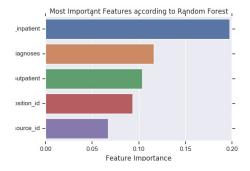
## **Decision Trees**

To run decision trees on the data, the categorical features still needed to be one-hot encoded. We also ran MinMaxNormalization and separated the data into a training and test split with 60,000 data points to stay consistent with the other models, though the data wasn't shuffled for this model.

We used the scikit-learn implementation of a Decision Tree Classifier. Splits were decided based on information gain and the minParent was left at the default value of 2. We tested a few different values to set for the maximum depth of the tree and found that a max depth of 2 or 3 yielded the highest accuracy of 0.701.

#### **Random Forest**

Since we know that decision trees are prone to overfitting, we used scikit learn's RandomForestClassifier to build an ensemble of decision trees. Using what we learned from our decision tree, we built the forest using trees of max depth 3 and minParent 2. Splits were calculated using information gain. We found that whether we used 100 or 1000 trees, the accuracy of 0.730 did not change. However, the accuracy drastically changes whether each class is given the same weight or is given a weight inversely proportional to its frequency. If the weights are not equal, accuracy tanks to 0.384 which makes sense because the number of no readmissions is almost twice that of the next frequent class, readmissions after 30 days.



**Figure 6.** The 5 most important factors for splits made in trees of the random forest.

## Conclusion

We tried a variety of machine learning techniques on this 3-class classification problem. First we made feature selections and tried to use PCA to reduce the number of features. Then we trained various models and measured their accuracy. Our neural networks achieved a performance of 0.601, the logistic regression model achieved 0.609, the decision tree achieved a performance of 0.701, while in the end the random forest won out with an accuracy of 0.730. As we learned in class, ensembles can be very powerful because they're less prone to overfitting and can generalize better. Our results support this.