

# Mortality Prediction of ICU Diabetic Patients, Based on Clinical History and Clinical Notes - A Multi-Network Deep Learning Model

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## ABSTRACT

Diabetes is a very serious condition that can lead to serious consequences and increase the risk of death when a patient is admitted in the ICU. In this paper, we explore the possibility of using clinical notes as well as lab and chart events in a multi-network model where we process the clinical notes in a time series RNN with dual-attention network, and the lab and chart events in another RNN, also with multi-attention, then merge them into a single multi-network model to try to predict mortality of diabetic patients. Our combined model achieved an AUC ROC score of 0.977 while this score fell to 0.905 or to 0.883, respectively, when either the clinical notes or the events data were ignored. Furthermore, we were able to identify glucose level, patient weight, blood pressure, temperature, heart rate and oxygen saturation as the most relevant factors for predicting the risk of death in this cohort.

**Abbreviations:** CNN – Convolutional Neural Network, UMLS – Unified Medical Language System, ICU – Intensive Care Unit, RNN – Recurrent Neural Networks, ICD – International Classification of Disease, GRU – Gated Recurrent Unit.

## 1 Introduction

Diabetes mellitus comprises various medical conditions that are associated with hyperglycemia and it can be caused by an abnormal secretion of insulin in the body system ([5]). The number of diabetic patients worldwide has soared in the last 20 years ([15]). This increment has led to various studies on the efficient management of this condition. Diabetes has contributed to a 75% increase in mortality rate: a diabetic adult is at higher risk of death from other diseases compared to a non-diabetic adult in the US ([6]). Therefore, an efficient and timely interventional clinical decision support system that would aid in preventing death or predicting mortality would lead to a major milestone in diabetes management research. Anand et al., ([1]) stated that having diabetes could affect the treatment of ICU patients as unique factors have to be taken into consideration, for example, glucose levels. Diabetic patients account for more than 45% of ICU stays and consume more resources compared to patients suffering from other chronic diseases ([1]). Our research study aims to build a multi-network deep learning model to predict the mortality of ICU diabetic patients

using the clinical notes, and features from the Apache II scoring system plus features such as glycosylated hemoglobin (HbA1c), serum creatinine, and glucose levels, that can improve the predictability for diabetic patients ([1]).

## 2 Previous Work

Research in diabetes is broad and different studies have engaged machine learning algorithms to improve the treatment and management of this global metabolic disorder. We streamlined past works to those that interest us most, which were done in the past five years and targeted a prediction task. Anand et al., ([1]) employed binomial logistic regression to predict the risk mortality of ICU diabetic patients. Their research was based on the certainty that these variables (HbA1c, mean glucose during stay, serum creatine, diagnoses upon admission, and type of admission) were the major features needed for mortality prediction. Their research used the data from the MIMIC-III database and their model achieved ROC AUC value of 0.787.

Ye, Yao, Shen, Janarthanam & Luo ([14]) employed different machine learning algorithms and knowledge-guided feature extraction to predict mortality in critically ill diabetic patients. Knowledge-guided CNN using CUI (UMLS concept unique identifiers) plus word embedding and CNN using word embedding were applied to clinical notes to predict mortality in diabetic ICU patients. They also ran different machine learning models such as Logistic Regression, Random Forest, XGBoost, Gradient Boosting, Deep Learning ANN, and Majority Voting with Majority Voting model taking the lead with an AUC of 0.87. These machine learning algorithms were used with structured EHR data to predict mortality risk in ICU diabetic patients. CNN with word embedding performed best overall with ROC AUC of 0.97. Yang, Kuang & Xia ([13]) proposed a multimodal deep learning neural network, which uses time series data and clinical notes to predict mortality of ICU patients, and obtained an ROC AUC of 0.861. Che, Purushotham, Cho, Sontag, & Liu ([2]) built a model GRU\_D based on Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU), which could handle missing data, for mortality prediction using the time series features including input events, output events, lab events, and prescription events from the *MIMIC III* dataset. Choi, Bahadori, Kulas, Schuetz, Stewart and Sun ([3]) explored the use of multi RNNs with multi attention at different levels of granularity. We are going to apply a similar mechanism on each of the different networks, notes and events.

### 3 Approach and implementation

#### 3.1 Problem formulation

The EHR information of a patient that is admitted into ICU can be represented as a timeseries of multiclass, multivariate observations, in our case, we will pay attention to two classes, chart/lab events and clinical notes. Considering  $v_i$  a multi-hot vector of the values for the different types of events observed in the date  $i$ , and  $n_i$  an aggregate notes embedding for all the notes registered in the date  $i$ . Being  $T_p$  the number of dates with either events or notes registered for the patient  $p$ . At each date  $i$ , we can represent the patient  $p$  with the tuple  $[v_i^{(p)}, n_i^{(p)}]$  where  $i = 1 \dots T_p$ .

The goal of our network is to predict the labels  $y(p) \in \{0, 1\}$  where 0 means the patient is predicted to be alive 48 hrs after  $T_p$ , and 1 is predicted to be deceased.

#### 3.2 Data Source

For our project, we used the data from MIMIC-III database, because this is a very complete source with a lot of good real-life records of patients who have been admitted to ICU.

#### 3.3 Cohort Selection

First, we defined our cohort as patients who have a diabetic diagnosis, that is, ICD-9 codes containing the word “diabetes” exempting codes 3572, V771, V180, V1221. We considered all the data of each patient from the moment they were first admitted, all the way to 48 hrs before last discharge. Some patients had multiple admissions, so we chose the observation window to be the earliest admission time to 48 hrs before the last discharge time. Any patient who did not have any data 48 hrs before final discharge was removed from the analysis. We used the presence of “deathtime” in the Admissions table to create a mortality flag: zero for alive and one for dead. The summary statistics of the cohort is depicted in the Table 1.

Table 1: Cohort statistics

Number of Cohort Patients	9822
Maximum Length of Stay	116 days
Minimum Length of Stay	<1 day

The statistics of the Clinical Notes are shown in Table 2.

The statistics of the Clinical / Lab events we used for the Events Network are shown in Table 3.

#### 3.4 Data Processing

The *MIMIC-III* database is available for access via AWS without need to download. We created a cohort master table (*diabetic\_patient\_cohort*), which we later used to create the source of information for each of our networks, notes and events. Using SQL queries, we created tables such as:

- **diabetic\_patients\_notes\_agg** contains the notes of a patient aggregated by distinct date by concatenating the notes for that date if there are more than one.

Table 2: Clinical notes statistics

Min # of notes per patient	0
Max # of notes per patient	505
Avg. # of notes per patient	13

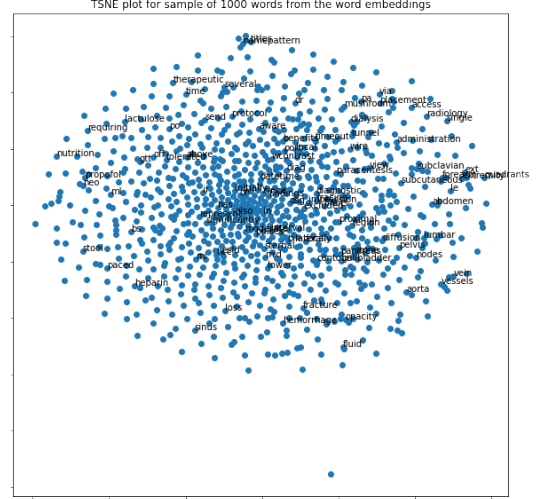


Figure 1: Word embeddings projected into 2D by means of tSNE.

- **diabetic\_patients\_events** contains the actual values for the different laboratory tests, vital signs and other values from ICU charts that we selected as features. The data is aggregated by patient and date. If multiple readings were obtained for the same feature of a patient on the same date, the daily average of it was used.

We split the *diabetic\_patient\_cohort* into train and evaluation sets using a split ratio of 80% to 20%. We called this our “unbalanced” cohort. We observed that the data has an inherent class imbalance. To resolve this issue, we oversampled the minority class in the training set to create a “balanced” cohort. All these actions were done using the *sklearn* library, *class\_resample* and stored on S3 BUCKET to later load onto AWS ATHENA tables: (*train\_cohort* and *test\_cohort*).

#### 3.5 Clinical Notes Embeddings

We formed a notes table for the diabetic patients in the ICU by aggregating the notes for a given date. Then, we preprocessed the notes and trained our own word embedding model using the *Word2Vec* class from the *gensim.models* package. Once we had our embedding model, we processed each  $i$ -th distinct date aggregated notes for every patient  $p$  to obtain  $n_i^{(p)}$  by calculating an embedding vector for each day notes. We achieved this by obtaining the embedding vector for each word and then by adding the embeddings for all the words of the notes of the date  $i$ .

Figure 1 shows a representation of the notes embedding using tSNE.

#### 3.6 Events Embeddings

The lab and clinical events corresponding to the selected features (see Table 3) had continuous numerical values. Therefore, the values registered in date  $i$  were averaged by feature.

Table 3: Statistics of selected features from chart events and lab events.

	Characteristics				
	Count	Avg	Std Dev	Min	Max
<b>APACHE II Features</b>					
Diastolic blood pressure	7038135	56	220	-40	114108
Fraction inspired oxygen	3489	1.26	0.91	0	10
Glasgow coma scale eye opening	1521073	3.28	1.06	1	4
Glasgow coma scale motor response	565486	5.29	1.39	1	6
Glasgow coma scale total	945427	11.43	3.74	3	15
Glasgow coma scale verbal response	565912	3.09	1.89	1	5
Glucose	1570663	140	1143	-124	999999
Heart Rate	7941588	102	3548	-88	9999999
Height	12015	168.75	15.23	0	445
Mean blood pressure	6363937	78	100	-135	120130
Oxygen saturation	173361	88	22	0.8	6363
Respiratory rate	7439791	19	863	-1	2355555
Systolic blood pressure	6386370	119	125	-69	141146
Temperature	129290	37	1	0	43
Weight	1628937	84.63	24.61	0	300
pH	530657	7.38	0.09	0	7.99
<b>Diabetes related Features</b>					
HbA1C	16619	6.76	1.66	0.45	22
Blood Glucose	749156	131	66	0	3565
Serum Creatinine	797231	1.56	1.89	0	808

$v_i^{(p)}$  was constructed as a multi-hot vector in which the index corresponds to the feature code and the value to the average of each feature for date  $i$ .

### 3.7 Neural Network Model

Figure 2 depicts the network architecture of our model.

### 3.8 Notes Network

The Notes Network architecture consists of taking the clinical notes embedding described on the previous section and then feed it into two parallel RNN (GRUs) layers, to calculate on each its attention. On one of them we calculate the attention for each distinct date ( $\alpha$ ), and on the second one, we calculate the attention of each embedding component ( $\beta$ ), followed by a FCL layer, and a sigmoid activation function, to output the embedding vectors for this network.

### 3.9 Events Network

The multi-hot vectors  $v_i^{(p)}$  were used as inputs for the Events Network. The architecture of this network comprises another pair of parallel RNNs (GRUs) with alpha ( $\alpha$ ) and beta ( $\beta$ ) attention, where  $\alpha$  means the attention for each distinct event date, and  $\beta$  means the attention for the different features. The network finally has a FCL and a sigmoid activation function to produce the embeddings vector of the events of each patient.

### 3.10 Notes-Events Network

The final Model takes the output of the two previous Networks (embedding vectors output of Notes and Events network were of size 128 each), concatenates them and applies two additional FCL layers with a dropout in the middle and a final sigmoid activation function to generate the final prediction.

### 3.11 Normalization of attention weights

Before extracting interpretable information from the attention weights of the events codes, the raw weights must be normalized to make them comparable with each other. The normalization was done with the following transformation:

$$\bar{\beta}_i = \frac{\sum_b \bar{e}_i^{(b)} |\beta_i^{(b)}|}{B} \quad (1)$$

where  $\beta_i$  is the normalized weight for event code  $i$ ,  $\bar{e}_i^{(b)}$  is the average of the values of event code  $i$  in the batch  $b$ ,  $\bar{\beta}_i^{(b)}$  is the average of attention weights for event code  $i$  in the batch  $b$ , and  $B$  is the number of batches. For this calculation the batch size was set to 1,000 patients.

### 3.12 Experimental Setup

The model was implemented in Pytorch 1.7.1 and trained initially in AWS Sagemaker environment with a memory of 8GBs. Eventually we moved the training to a more powerful machine with the same Pytorch version, but with 32GBs of RAM and an NVIDIA GeForce GTX 1060 with 6GB GPU. This enabled us to train the model and do fine tuning with much faster training times compared to only using the CPU environment.

## 4 Experimental Results

### 4.1 Model assessment

Table 4 shows the results of our model as we progressed in the construction and experimentation (always 10 epochs).

### 4.2 Ranking of risk factors

One of the advantages of attention mechanisms is the ability to produce interpretable models. In our case, we can

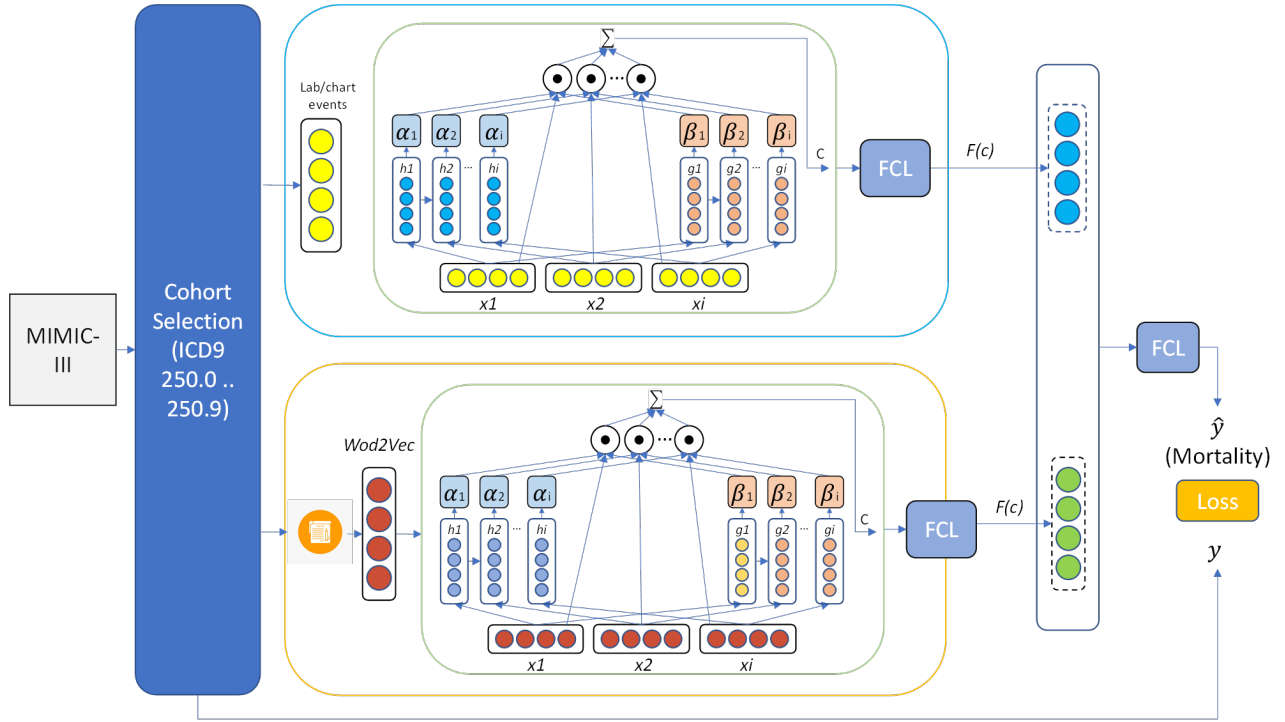


Figure 2: Model architecture.

Table 4: Model metrics.

Notes Network	Events Network	Dataset	Time	LR	Epochs	Prec	Recall	F1	ROC AUC
RNN	RNN	Unbalanced	286.65	0.001	10	0.6269	0.367	0.463	0.871
RNN	RNN	Balanced	566.94	0.00001	10	0.1780	0.948	0.299	0.765
RNN	$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	Unbalanced	318.50	0.001	10	0.6902	0.516	0.591	0.879
RNN	$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	Balanced	629.93	0.00001	10	0.3912	0.838	0.533	0.896
RNN	$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	Unbalanced	279.23	0.01	10	0.7280	0.292	0.417	0.845
RNN	$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	Balanced	610.52	0.0001	10	0.8470	0.876	0.861	0.974
$\alpha$ Attn	$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	Unbalanced	400.16	0.001	10	0.7380	0.397	0.516	0.879
$\alpha$ Attn	$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	Balanced	741.47	0.0001	10	0.8770	0.884	0.880	0.976
$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	Unbalanced	431.99	0.001	10	0.6608	0.521	0.582	0.908
$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	Unbalanced	434.23	0.0001	10	0.6114	0.493	0.546	0.893
$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	Balanced	852.77	0.0001	10	0.8790	0.868	0.873	0.977

take advantage of the attention weights to identify which of the clinical and paraclinical observations from chart and lab events has a bigger impact on the outcome of the patient.

Figure 3 shows the normalized  $\beta$  attention weights for each of the features considered in our model (features with less than 1,000 observations were left out of this analysis).

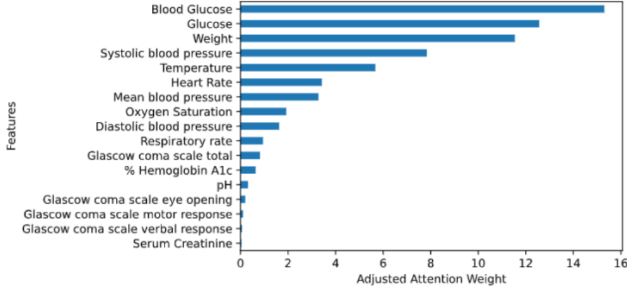


Figure 3: Ranking of features according to the adjusted attention weights.

This is in line with the accepted view that high plasma glucose levels, high body mass index (BMI) and high blood pressure are risk factors commonly found together ([10]).

To confirm that the most relevant features carry the information with most predictive power, we trained the model with just the eight features that received the most attention: blood glucose (lab event), glucose (chart event), weight, systolic blood pressure, temperature, heart rate, mean blood pressure, and oxygen saturation. After evaluation, these “essential” features’ model gave a precision of 0.622, recall of 0.390, f1 score of 0.873 and ROC AUC of 0.867. The most dramatic difference between the full and the essential features model was on the recall (0.390 vs. 0.521) 21% lower while the separation power (AUC ROC) was only 3% lower (0.867 vs. 0.893) confirming that most of the information relevant for model performance was retained in the smaller features subset.

### 4.3 Contribution of each network module to the predictive power of the model.

Next, we wanted to determine how much of the performance of the model comes from the clinical notes and how much comes from the sequences of chart and lab events.

To determine this, we trained each network by itself and evaluated against our test sets, the results of the evaluations are shown in Table 5.

These results show that the clinical notes’ main contribution is on improving the general performance of the full model, but with a bigger improvement on the recall of the model or reducing the number of false negatives. On the other hand, the main contribution of the lab and charts events is of course improving the overall performance; however, it is the precision that seems to be the one that increases the most, or, namely, reducing the number of false positives.

Overall, the ability of the model to distinguish between classes, measured by AUC ROC, was reduced by 1.7% when the clinical notes were ignored, and by 4% when the lab and chart features were ignored.

## 5 Discussion

We analyzed the clinical notes of diabetic patients including the lab and other clinical features collected from the MIMICIII database and fed the data into parallel RNNs to predict mortality. We had originally attempted to use CNN on top of the Clinical Notes data, but after testing this, we switched to an RNN model as this makes easier the processing of the notes, and leads to a much faster training time.

Our full network yielded good results compared to previous works, achieving a maximum AUC ROC of 0.977. We originally had observed a trade-off between the reported recall and precision when using the original training set, versus when using a balanced training set, but once we updated our models to include  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  attention on both the Events and Notes network, the balanced cohort clearly yielded much better results, validating the idea of using a re-sampling algorithm to avoid our model from giving more weight to the majority class.

By ablating either one of the parallel RNN networks we were able to quantify the contribution that each module had in the outcome. With this approach we were able to determine that the events module captured most of the predictive power of the model (Table 5). However, the notes module helped in improving its precision or reducing the number of false positives. The clinical notes capture the medical insight that is not reflected in the objective chart and lab data. One can speculate that this insight discriminates those patients that have good chances of surviving despite their poor looking chart and lab events.

The addition of attention mechanisms analogous to RETAIN ([3]) produced a significant improvement over the naïve RNNs (Table 4). The ROC AUC improved from 0.765 to 0.896 after the addition of the two-level attention mechanism in the events module, and to 0.977 after implementing attention also in the notes’ module. The magnitude of these improvements was striking, being much higher than those reported in the original publication ([3]). Although, attention mechanisms have shown similar degrees of improvement on text classification applications ([11]).

Using this attention-based model we were able to identify those features from the APACHE II score that are more relevant for predicting the outcome of the patient (Figure 3). Retraining the model with just eight of these features was able to produce an ROC AUC just 11% lower than the one obtained with the full feature set. The essential features set comprised vital signs and measurements such as blood glucose, weight, blood pressure, temperature, heart rate, and oxygen saturation. The association of some of these entities with a poor health in diabetes patients is well documented in the clinical literature (Church et al., 2004). The fact that our deep learning model was able to draw conclusions like large population studies is remarkable. The power of deep learning algorithms to extract valuable clinical information that is hidden in EHR data cannot be overstated. These insights raise the question on the application of APACHE II score to rank diabetic patients in ICU. Getting correct APACHE II scores require adherence to strict guidelines and regular training of medical staff ([12]). A reduction on the number of dimensions that need to be considered to calculate the score without losing its predictive capability could be seen as an improvement in diabetic patient care.

Table 5: Contributions of each network module on model metrics.

Notes Network	Events Network	Dataset	Prec	Recall	F1	ROC AUC
—	$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	Unbalanced	0.6033	0.4644	0.525	0.850609
$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	—	Unbalanced	0.625	0.0199	0.039	0.78265
—	$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	Balanced	0.7319	0.8632	0.792	0.960047
$\alpha, \beta$ Attn	—	Balanced	0.7026	0.8077	0.751	0.937759

## 6 Conclusion/Optimization

We developed a multi-network multi-attention deep learning model to predict the mortality of diabetic ICU patients 48 hrs before discharge. The evaluation of the model reported an AUC ROC that is higher than previous similar models. The model is a step further of previous works by engaging multiple networks and using both clinical notes and clinical features as source to parallel RNNs as well as implementing multi-attention on each of the parallel networks in the prediction task. This model is an improvement in the right direction, which could be integrated in the clinical setting to manage the extensive resources that are being expended on diabetic patients and increase the efficiency of clinicians in the ICU.

Further optimization can be explored in the future to improve the scores and validate the results found in other datasets of similar composition. Additionally, further work is required to ensure the resiliency of the model by implementing k-fold cross validation with resampling as well as testing the trained model against inputs that have noise, that is, inputs that have certain random additional components. Another area of exploration is to analyze whether making additional pre-processing of the lab/chart events features, like normalization of the values would improve the performance or resiliency of the model. In addition, the continuous numerical values from the chart and lab events can be converted to categorical values (e.g. below normal range, normal range, above normal range). Categorical input values could be represented in one-hot encodings and it might be easier for the model to learn their patterns of distribution.

An interesting perspective that might be worth furthering the project on, would be to consider different observation window for the note, instead of the 48 hrs we used for the project, a window of 24 hrs or lesser time frame could be considered.

## 7 Team Contributions

- Olabisi Balogun
  - Worked on creating the different tables required for training the models.
  - Created the SQL\_QUERIES file
  - Trained the Word Embedding Model
  - Worked on the project report
  - Worked on the project slides
  - Documented the Readme file
- Jorge Flores
  - Redesigned the main cohort table
  - Created the NOTES\_EXTRACTION code

- Trained the note network model
- Worked on the joint model
- Performed ablation experiment.
- Worked on the project report
- Worked on the project slides

- Francisco Noya
  - Created the EVENTS\_EXTRACTION code
  - Trained the events network model.
  - Worked on the joint model
  - Performed risk factors experiment.
  - Performed ablation experiment.
  - Worked on the project report
  - Worked on the project slides

## 8 Code Repository

- Github
- Google Drive: data processing files included, \*.p, \*.npz.

## 9 Presentation Video

- <https://youtu.be/FaJ50f8TVMs>

## 10 REFERENCES

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