TraumaICD-BERT: Automating ICD10 Diagnosis Code Identification From Electronic Medical Records of Injured Patients

Stanford CS224N Custom Project

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Abstract

Despite surging interest among trauma surgeons, machine learning-based outcome prediction tools are not used at the bedside. Most clinical outcome prediction tools require ICD10 diagnosis codes as input variables, but currently, ICD10 diagnosis codes are manually extracted weeks after a patient leaves the hospital. To meet the critical need to make ICD10 diagnosis codes available real-time, we aimed to build an NLP model that can automatically extract ICD10 diagnosis codes from unstructured free text. Our dataset comprised unstructured trauma survey notes from 3478 trauma patients treated at Stanford Hospital between 2016 and 2021. Baseline performance using Amazon Web Service Comprehend Medical (AWSCM) yielded accuracy of 0.936 and Micro-AUC of 0.760. By fine-tuning a customized deep learning biomedical language model, PubMedBERT, we achieved test set accuracy of 0.958 and Micro-AUC of 0.895. Our model also outperformed AWSCM in terms of Macro-AUC, Micro-F1, Macro-F1, Precision, and Recall scores. To out knowledge, our study is first to fine-tune and validate a deep learning language model to extract ICD10 diagnosis codes specifically for use among trauma patients. Our study explores practical ways to navigate challenge of real-world medical data mining, such as the absence of publicly-available big data, imbalanced datasets, the need for high-dimensional classification, and considering the flexibility and interpretability trade-off in model design. We believe this first step towards reliable, automated injury ICD10 diagnosis code extraction could connect the critical missing link for many prediction tools to reach the patient bedside.

1 Key Information to include

• TA mentor: Gaurab Banerjee

• External collaborators (if no, indicate "No"): No

• External mentor (if no, indicate "No"): David A. Spain, MD

• Sharing project (if no, indicate "No"): No

2 Introduction

Automating ICD10 diagnosis code extraction using NLP could meet a critical missing link for many machine learning-based prediction tools to reach the trauma patient bedside. Several challenges hinder NLP algorithms development and finetuning for bedside adoption. First, there are few publiclyavailable, large electronic medical record (EMR) datasets. MIMIC-III has been the training source for many medical NLP and other machine learning algorithms, [1, 2] yet comprises a distinct population: critically ill patients who were seen at a single tertiary hospital. To our knowledge, there is no publicly available dataset containing EMR text of trauma patients. Second, an individual patient can suffer multiple injuries (thus, have multiple injury ICD10 diagnosis codes) per hospitalization. ICD10 diagnoses constitute a 7-character (e.g. S04.34XAA) ontology, wherein each sequential character details increasingly-specific diagnoses (e.g. S2: injury to chest, S22: fracture of chest bone, S22.3: fracture of rib). If we aimed to predict 7-character ICD10 diagnosis codes, there would be over 10,000 injury diagnoses to predict. Unfortunately, no single hospital (or a group of hospitals that could feasibly pass a multi-institutional IRB agreement together) has large enough a trauma volume to ensure multiple instances of all 10,000 injury ICD10 diagnoses would be captured. Third, many injury ICD10 diagnosis codes are rare (e.g. code describing complete aortic dissection), while some are frequent (e.g. code describing rib fractures); ICD10 datasets are heavily-imbalanced. Last, a vast majority of surgeons do not have machine learning or data science training and have a general distrust towards "black box algorithms" that do not facilitate visual inference.

To address these challenges, we aimed to build a database of trauma patients' unstructured EMR notes. By considering how our algorithm would be implemented at the bedside, we navigate the challenge of addressing a high dimensional-classification problem using a limited size dataset through simple, practical solutions (e.g. only considering the first 4 characters of ICD10 codes to reduce the outcome dimension, as 4-character ICD10 codes would be specific enough to inform surgeon decision-making). We finetune a variant of the Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers (BERT) model [3] that has been pretrained on medical text (PubMed) through a comprehensive hyperparameter-space optimization, and present attention visualizations to maximize model understanding for the surgeon audience. We developed our model with implementation and end-user in mind at the outset, to facilitate our model's adoption at the bedside and impact meaningful clinical change.

3 Related Work

Several studies have explored automating ICD10 (and the previous medical diagnosis ontology, ICD9) extraction from electronic medical records (Supplemental Table 1). [1, 2, 4, 5, 6] The input text for previous studies comprised all unstructured EMR notes written throughout a patient's hospitalization or discharge summaries (notes written on the last day of hospitalization). Models developed using such input data are not applicable for trauma patients, as critical clinical decisions usually need to be made within the first day(s) of hospitalization. Moreover, injury ICD10 diagnosis codes have not been adequately represented within previous studies; One study reported that ICD10 code classification performance was lowest among trauma patients. [6] All studies have noted the challenge of making multi-class predictions on heavily imbalanced ICD datasets; some have resorted to evaluating performance for only the top 50 or 100 ICD diagnosis codes. [2, 5, 1]

The lack of existing injury ICD10-extraction models may be attributed to the scarcity of healthcare NLP datasets, due to privacy concerns over sharing patient data. As result, previusly published state-of-the-art models – PubMedBERT, BioBERT, ClinicalBERT, SciBERT, and BlueBERT – were pre-trained on open-access data, for example, PubMed articles and MIMIC III dataset. [7, 8, 9]

Tertiary Note

- Acute compression fracture at T7. Likely superimposed T6-T7 and T7-T8 disc injury.
 B/I sacral fractures and right L3 and L4 transverse process fracture is better appreciated on comparison CT.
- 3. Grade 1 liver laceration with subcapsular hematoma
- 4. Right scapular fracture

MIMIC III Discharge Summary

He does have a fracture of the T7-T8 disk. He was seen by Dr. [**Last Name (STitle) 1907**]. He had an echocardiogram on [**2211-2-7**] that showed an EF of 50 percent with right ventricular hypertrophy and mild A-V sclerosis.

He was also seen by the Pulmonary service for his snoring and his sleep apnea for which he is receiving BiPAP. The patient was fitted for a TLSO brace and had Physical Therapy.

PubMed Article

Background: There are multiple surgical treatment options for traumatic thoracic spine spondyloptosis.

Case description: A 20-year-old male presented with back deformity attributed to a fall... Conclusion: Here we present a patient who following a fall sustained a T7/T8 spondyloptosis resulting in paraplegia treated with spondylectomy.

Figure 1: Examples of tertiary note, discharge summary, and PubMed article. All three corpus describe patients with T7-T8 vertebrae spinal cord injuries, however, texts display little similarity in terms of vocabularies and grammars.

However, there is little overlap between the vocabularies of injury tertiary notes and hospitalization notes. For example, tertiary notes describe injuries using fragmented sentences, while discharge summary describe treatments using complete sentences. Figure 1 compares injury note, MIMIC III discharge summary, and PubMed article.

Due to this lack of existing models and datasets, a custom dataset from Stanford Hospital was collected to fine-tune a pre-trained biomedical NLP model. Since pre-trained models output token embeddings rather than binary probabilities, we engineered an architecture inspired by the TransICD model [10], by concatenating the PubMedBERT Transformer encoder with fully-connected layers to produce binary classification probabilities.

4 Approach

4.1 Model Architecture

The custom NLP model, TraumaICD-BERT, was based on a pre-trained PubMedBERT model [7], a variant of BERT [3] trained using biomedical text from research articles. Figure 2 illustrates the architecture. We chose a BERT-based model as a previous study evaluating different NLP algorithms reported higher performance using BERT than RNNs. [4] Moreover, in the BLURB leaderboard (Biomedical Language Understanding and Reasoning Benchmark [7]), PubMedBERT outperformed all other biomedical BERT models, including ClinicalBERT [9], BioBERT [8], SciBERT [11], BlueBERT [12] as well as domain-general variants (BERT [3] and RoBERTa [13]). We chose PubMedBERT because it uses a custom biomedical vocabulary with pre-training-from-scratch on biomedical text. Our dataset size is large enough for training this model into an ICD10 code extractor, which we describe in the following sections.

Other approaches have been considered. One involves using UnifiedQA-T5 [14] – a version of T5 model (Text-to-Text Transfer Transfermer [15]) fine-tuned on a variety of question-answering tasks (e.g., SQuAD [16]). Using T5 would be approaching the ICD10 code extraction as a sequence of question-answer or multiple-choice inferences in a decision tree manner, since each addition digit of the ICD10 code becomes more specific to the injury. The decision tree approach would allow exponentially higher compute efficiency in classifying all 10,000 7-character IC10 codes, since most branches would not be explored. However, in practical terms, only 4-character codes would be satisfactory. Sine there are only a few hundred number 4-character codes, which BERT may classify in reasonable time, we decided to forgo the decision tree approach to avoid compounding

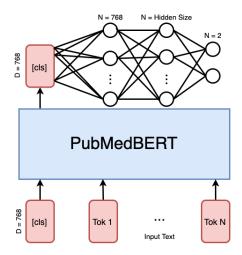


Figure 2: Illustration of the custom classification model. A pre-trained PubMedBERT was connected to a fully-connected feed-forward network (classification head) in order to convert the original PubMedBERT output into a binary probability. The classification head's hidden size is an adjustable hyper-parameter. All parameters were updated via back-propagation.

errors of non-biomedical T5 models. Another approach has been considered as well: using Amazon Web Service Comprehend Medical (AWSCM) cloud service to extract ICD10 codes. After initial experimentations, it was found that AWSCM produces a high rate of false positives. A potential solution would involve fine-tuning a BERT model to post-process the AWSCM extractions to filter out the false positive codes. A disadvantage of this approach is that the model can extract only a subset of AWSCM extractions, so our recall rate would be limited by the AWSCM recall rate. Due to the desire for high recall rates (low false negatives), we decided to fine-tune our own custom PubMedBERT model.

4.2 Data Generation & Augmentation Algorithm

To build a dataset for ICD10 diagnosis codes for real-time clinical decision making in trauma patients, we obtained trauma tertiary notes from all trauma patients who have been admitted to Stanford Hospital between January 2016 and June 2021 (2016 was the first year of ICD10 ontology implementation). Tertiary notes are written within 24 hours of hospitalization for all trauma patients nationally. Thus, to extract ICD10 codes for input into downstream prediction tools that impact real-time clinical decision-making, model development using tertiary notes is ideal.

A custom data augmentation algorithm generate training examples from each tertiary note. The algorithm is represented by the pseudo-code below, where we define the following variables: tertiary note T_i of a single patient P_i , who has a total number of N_i injuries, that has been coded as $C_{i1}^{(7)},...C_{iN}^{(7)}$ 7-digit injury ICD10 codes by expert humans. We truncate the injury codes to keep the first 3 or 4 characters only, resulting in $C_{i1}^{(3)},...C_{iN}^{(3)}$ and $C_{i1}^{(3)},...C_{iN}^{(3)}$ respectively. We randomly select one negative ICD10 code for each positive code as adversarial examples, $\bar{C}_{i1}^{(3)},...\bar{C}_{iN}^{(3)},\bar{C}_{i1}^{(4)},...\bar{C}_{iN}^{(4)}$. Each positive and negative code is paired with the ICD10 injury description $D_{C_i^{(.)}}$ that is associated with the code. The pseudocode algorithm is available in the Appendix Algorithm 1. Two concrete examples are shown in Figure 3.

We focused on predicting only the first 4 characters of injury ICD10 diagnosis codes. Trauma prediction tools only require inputting 4-character ICD10 diagnosis codes, as further detailed injury description is unnecessary for real-time clinical use. Limiting ICD10 diagnosis codes to the first 4 characters yields only 729 ICD10 codes to predict.

Positive Example (code S22.0: Fracture of thoracic vertebra)

Question: Identified fracture of thoracic vertebra?

Context: Acute compression fracture at T7. Likely superimposed T6-T7 and T7-T8...

Answer: yes

Adversary Example (code S65.0: Injury of ulnar artery at wrist and hand level)

Question: Identified injury of ulnar artery at wrist and hand level?

Context: Acute compression fracture at T7. Likely superimposed T6-T7 and T7-T8...

Answer: no

Figure 3: Two training examples that were use to fine-tune PubMedBERT to extract injury-specific codes. The positive example is generated by retrieving the description of patient's ICD10 code, while the negative, adversary example is randomly sampled from all possible ICD10 injury descriptions.

Note that several other settings were explored, including different difficulties and ratios of adversarial examples, and formatting of inputs (prompting). When more than one adversarial example was generated per positive example, the model performance decreased. Since we want to keep all the positive examples (full set of training labels), we maintained a 1-to-1 ratio between positive and negative codes. We also found that generating especially difficult adversarial examples (e.g. codes that describe very similar injuries but were incorrect) did not boost model performance. For example, when we generated negative code S23 (dislocation and sprain of joints and ligaments of thorax) for the positive code S22 (fracture of ribs, sternum and thoracic spine), it introduced noise that confuses model. Lastly, we explored splitting the conjuctions in the description into separate parts (e.g. "fracture of ribs," "fracture of sternum," "fracture of thoracic spine").

4.3 Baseline

As a baseline comparison, we evaluated model performance using Amazon's Comprehend Medical (AWSCM) inference API.[17]. AWSCM is widely-used, and hence Amazon would be able to improve its model using the large amounts of training data. Therefore, AWSCM is a strong benchmark to compare our own model against. Additional baseline models, including GPT-3 or T5 with zero-shot learning was considered. GPT-3 was an infeasible option due to our data privacy concerns over sending patient data to OpenAI's hosted inference APIs. We found that T5 underperformed AWSCM in recall while showing similar precision. Since T5 outputs texts whose logits are difficult to extract, we decided to only compare models that output probabilities, leaving only AWSCM.

4.4 Hyper-Parameter Optimization

Due to the novel architecture, we performed an extensive hyper-parameter to obtain the highest accuracy possible. The hyper-parameter sweep was conducted in parallel across multiple V100 and P100 GPU instances (agents). All instances are orchestrated by a centralized sweep controller, which generates a set of hyper-parameter configurations to be explored. [18] After the model was trained for 5 epochs (potentially early-stopped by the Hyperband algorithm [19]), the controller dispatches another set of configurations to the GPU instance and wait for it to train another model. The agents automatically log the following: training loss, validation loss, validation accuracy, number of steps, number of batches, the hyper-parameters, and model checkpoints. The sweep process is repeated until the validation performance converges. The best-performing model is selected based on the highest validation accuracy, and was finally evaluated on an unseen holdout test set. We use the sweep results to obtain various additional metrics, such as a hyper-parameter's correlation and importance with respect to validation accuracy and loss.

4.5 Probing and Interpretability Methods

In order to facilitate interpretability of PubMedBERT outputs, we adapted a BERT visualization library, BertViz to produce the visualized attention maps of tokens at each layer and attention head. [20] The visualizations help surgeons understand and interpret the PubMedBERT model qualitatively.

5 Experiments

5.1 Data

We queried our institution's trauma registry data for adults (aged 18 years) who were admitted to the Stanford trauma service between January 2016 and June 2021. To capture patients most likely to have trauma surveys, we included patients who were admitted after trauma 97 and trauma 99 activations (the most serious two of three activation levels) and were hospitalized 2 days. As PubMED BERT is limited 520-token inputs, we extracted portions of the tertiary notes most likely to dictate ICD10 diagnoses (imaging reports and the injury list/impression).

After splitting our data (N=3513 notes) into train-validation-test sets, we found that 197 of the 729 ICD10 codes had >5 instances within the training dataset. We report report performance based only on specified ICD10 codes with >5 instances, as including ICD10 codes with fewer instances may yield too high a variance for reliable generalizability. These ICD10 codes reflect injuries seen at one of the busiest trauma centers in the country; thus, we felt our findings would provide an appropriate foundation for future work.

A total of 3513 patients met the inclusion criteria (Appendix Supplemental Tables), among whom 3478 had both tertiary survey notes written and injury ICD10 diagnoses. The median character length of these notes ("imaging reports" and "list of injuries/impression" section) was 2280. The 3478 patients had a total of 16,090 injury ICD10 codes assigned by trauma registrars (median 4 injury diagnoses per patient, Appendix Figure 7; total 572 unique injury ICD10 codes).

Using algorithm in Appendix Algorithm 1, we generated 55789 training examples from all the ICD10 codes associated with 3478 notes. On average, each patient was affected by 4.6 unique injuries. For each injury we generated 4 input-output examples (2 positive, 2 adversarial) using the ICD10 description and tertiary note. The training set contained 39009 examples, which was used to fine-tune the custom PubMedBERT model.

5.2 Evaluation method

Considerations were taken in choosing the evaluation metrics. While it is time-consuming to look up ICD10 diagnosis code associated with an injury, a trauma surgeon can easily assess whether a list of predicted ICD10 outputs are appropriate. Thus, minimizing false negatives is more important than minimizing false positives. Our most important evaluation metric was thus recall. Specifically, we evaluated recall@5 and recall@10, as up to 10 recommendations were deemed practical for trauma surgeons to quickly evaluate (i.e. we considered future model implementation). To provide a balanced understanding of model performance, we also evaluated precision@5, precision@10, micro-AUC, macro-AUC, micro-F1, and macro-F1, whose calculations adhere to the standard formulae (e.g. the micro-F1 scores are calculated by micro-averaging F1 scores).

In addition to primary analysis, we conducted sensitivity analysis by evaluating model performance on injury ICD10 diagnosis codes excluding those describing superficial injuries (third character "0"). Superficial injuries (e.g. minor bruises and cuts on the skin), though coded for billing purposes, are not of interest to trauma surgeons, as these do not meaningfully impact any patient outcome or affect clinical decisions. As such, superficial injuries are rarely detailed in trauma tertiary surveys (they are detailed in other parts of the EMR and thus transcribed into ICD 10 codes). As lack of input data that could reasonably derive superficial injury ICD10 codes could unfairly deflate model performance, we evaluated model performance on the subset of ICD10 codes excluding these superficial injuries.

To quantify the importance of input data availability, we compared model performance on the 50 most frequent ICD10 codes in concordance to previous studies. [10]

5.3 Experimental details

The dataset of 3513 patients were split into training, validation, and test sets with ratio of 70-15-15 (note that each patient has on average approximately 15 training examples associated with their

tertiary note, making the total number of data points large enough to justify the 70-15-15 split). The training and validation dataset facilitates fine-tuning and hyperparameter-optimization. The holdout test dataset was used only after the model selection is complete, and was used to establish the performance of the model in unseen data, and to compare the model to AWSCM.

We fine-tuned the following parameters to minimize binary Cross-Entropy Loss: batch size, percent dropout in the dropout layer, learning rate, size of fully connected layers, and the number of training warmup steps. [21] We trained multiple models in parallel across multiple GPU instances to efficiently find the optimal hyperparameters. The hyper-parameter sweep was conducted through randomized search, which researchers found to be more efficient and fault-proof than grid-based hyper-parameter search. [22] The optimization objective of the sweeps are to minimize validation loss. Then the performance metrics were analyzed with interpretable visualizations of how each hyperparameter value affects model performance to demonstrate our model fine-tuning for the surgeon audience.

5.4 Results

After a number of initial experimental runs, we performed a comprehensive random sweep of the hyper-parameter space specified in Table 1. Notably, we randomly sample *warmup steps* and *FC layer size* in log-scale distributions to maximize performance (capturing the a wide range of possibilities) while preserving sweep efficiency (log-scale sampling). FC dropout and FC hidden size control the dropout rate and number of hidden neurons in the custom fully-connected classification head.

Hyper-Parameter	Range of Values	Sampling Distribution	Example Value
warmup steps	[100, 10000]		
learning rate	$[10^{-7}, 10^{-5}]$	Uniform	0.0000005
batch size	{1,4,16}	Uniform	4
FC hidden size	[16, 8192]	Log-Uniform	1024
FC dropout	$\{0, 0.15, 0.30, 0.45\}$	Uniform	0.30

Table 1: The hyper-parameter space on which the model optimization was performed. The space was chosen based on preliminary results from several initial experiments.

After extensive validation of various models (), the best model was selected based on high validation accuracy and low validation loss. The model then performed inference on the test set tertiary notes, and accuracy metrics were calculated using standard formulae. The micro and macro-scores are calculated by micro-averaging (example-level) and macro-averaging (code-level) the performance metrics. We report the performance of the fine-tuned PubMedBERT below.

Metric	All	Codes	Non-S	up. Codes	Top-5	0 Codes	Top-1	0 Codes
Metric	Ours	AWSCM	Ours	AWSCM	Ours	AWSCM	Ours	AWSCM
Accuracy	0.958	0.936	0.969	0.934	0.923	0.885	0.835	0.842
AUC_{macro}	0.838	0.684	0.873	0.709	0.883	0.764	0.878	0.798
AUC_{micro}	0.895	0.760	0.920	0.796	0.897	0.807	0.887	0.832
$F1_{macro}$	0.188	0.174	0.206	0.189	0.383	0.363	0.524	0.529
$F1_{micro}$	0.341	0.285	0.406	0.293	0.465	0.411	0.559	0.569
Precision@5	0.331	0.259	0.334	0.251	0.328	0.286	0.244	0.226
Precision@10	0.220	0.194	0.225	0.184	0.217	0.190	0.136	0.136
Recall@5	0.469	0.392	0.562	0.452	0.658	0.590	0.926	0.857
Recall@10	0.579	0.532	0.705	0.595	0.811	0.710	1.000	1.000

Table 2: Performance metrics of fine-tuned TraumaICD-BERT compared AWS Comprehend Medical (CM), grouped in four sets: 1) all 197 codes, 2) all 170 non-superficial codes, 3) the top 50 most frequent codes in the dataset, and 4) the top 10 most frequent codes.

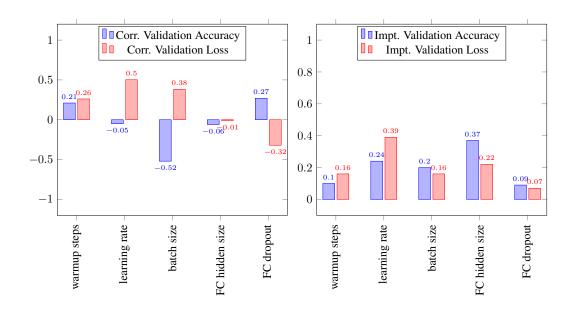


Figure 4: The correlation (corr.) and importance (impt.) scores of each hyper-parameter with respect to validation performance, averaged across all experiments. Note: the impt. metric was obtained by calculating the decrease in node impurity of a constructed hyper-parameter decision tree. [23]

6 Analysis

Your report should include *qualitative evaluation*. That is, try to understand your system (e.g. how it works, when it succeeds and when it fails) by inspecting key characteristics or outputs of your model.

The copious amount of domain-specific training data was perhaps one advantage of our method that allowed us to outperform AWSCM. Our labels were curated by expert ICD10 code reviewers, and the notes written by clinicians adhere to a consistent use of ontology and abbreviations. Using the tertiary notes from 3478 patients, we generated a over 39,000 input-output training examples, which helped PubMedBERT to robustly adapt to injury-specific reading-comprehension.

We analyzed how the hyper-parameters affect validation performances. Figure 6 shows the correlation and importance scores between validation performance and hyper-parameter configurations. There is moderate correlation between batch size and validation performance, with larger batch sizes leading to higher loss – this was expected since the validation loss is the average of the sum of individual losses in a batch. We also realized that picking a good learning rate and the hidden layer size for fully-connected classification head are the two most important metrics. A low learning rate prevents the model from over-fitting to quickly. Interestingly, although the hidden layer was an important metric, it showed no correlation with performance; One possible explanation is that changing the sizes of hidden layer increases model variance. More information is available in Figure 9 of the Appendix.

To facilitate interpretability and explainability, a critical need for clinical applications, we used visualization tools to interpret the model attentions. The PubMedBERT model's attention outputs can be difficult to interpret due to the sheer complexity. For example, the PubMedBERT model has $14 \text{ layers} \times 12 \text{ heads} = 168 \text{ unique}$ attention structures for each token. An example is shown in Appendix. We attempt to analyze attentions visually for common patterns. Figure 5 shows an example input text "Question: Identified Traumatic subdural hemorrhage? Context: Injury List: Subdural hematoma 3 mm in right lateral convexity without midline shift."

In order to understand potential error cases, we display several tertiary notes, the model-extracted codes, and the ground truth in Appendix Table 11. Those examples are reviewed by the surgeon and engineers in order to plan to improve the model in future works.

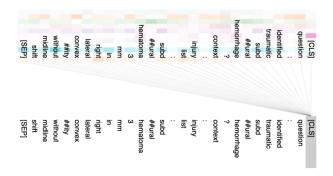


Figure 5: A head-wise visualization of PubMedBERT encoder-encoder self-attention, where each color represents one of PubMedBERT's 12 attention heads. Note this shows the attention of "[CLS]" because our custom fully-connected layer converts the 786-dimensional "[CLS]" embedding into a binary probability

7 Conclusion

A novel biomedical NLP dataset was collected from 3478 trauma patients. A dataset generation and augmentation algorithm yielded a classification dataset size of 55789 examples. A fully-connected classification head was added to a pre-trained PubMed model, whose hyper-parameter were extensively explored. The best model, selected based on validation performance, was evaluated on an unseen, holdout test-set. Our TraumaICD-BERT outperformed an industry baseline, Amazon Web Service Comprehend Medical, in terms of higher Micro-AUC, Macro-AUC, Micro-F1, Macro-F1, Precision, and Recall scores. Although future work is needed to process longer sequences of texts, this work is one step towards automating the extraction of ICD10 diagnosis codes for injury patients, with utility in providing on-time a set of input variables for downstream machine learning prediction tools for injury prognosis.

8 Acknowledgements

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A Appendix

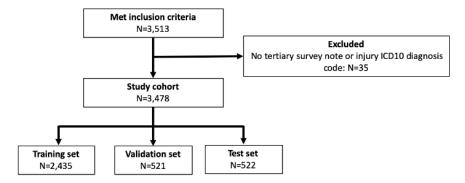
Supplemental table 1: Previous studies evaluating ICD10 outcomes

Author	Data source	ICD 9/10
Wang et al.	All unstructured text within the electronic medical record during a patient's hospitalization	ICD10
Chen et al.	All unstructured text within the electronic medical record during a patient's hospitalization	ICD10
Biseda et al	All unstructured text within MIMIC-III database	ICD9 (100 most frequent)
Biwas et al	Discharge summary within MIMIC-III database	ICD9 (50 most frequent)
Huang et al	Discharge summary within MIMIC-III database	ICD9 (50 most frequent)

Supplemental table 1: Study cohort characteristics. SMD= standardized mean difference

Supplemental table 1: Study conort characteristics. SMD= standardized mean difference						
	Training set	Validation set	Test set			
	N=2429	N=521	N=522	p		
Age, median	62.00 [42.00,	62.00 [39.00,	63.00 [44.00,	0.760		
(IQR), years	78.00]	78.00]	78.00]	0.769		
Male, No. (%)	1521 (62.6)	340 (65.3)	331 (63.4)	0.521		
Race, No. (%)				0.398		
Asian/Pacific Islander	325 (13.4)	74 (14.2)	61 (11.7)			
African	323 (13.4)	/4 (14.2)	61 (11.7)			
American	58 (2.4)	12 (2.3)	10 (1.9)			
Native	- ~ <u>, = ,</u>	(===)	()			
American	3 (0.1)	1 (0.2)	1 (0.2)			
Not specified	18 <u>(0.7</u>)	2 (0.4)	5 (1.0)			
Other	639 (26.3)	131 (25.1)	146 (28.0)			
Caucasian	1371 (56.4)	296 (56.8)	289 (55.4)			
Cause of Injury, No. (%)				0.318		
ASSAULT	60 (2.5)	13 (2.5)	18 (3.4)	0.516		
ATV	5 (0.2)	3 (0.6)	0 (0.0)			
BIKE	287 (11.8)	53 (10.2)	59 (11.3)			
CUT						
	3 (0.1)	1 (0.2)	1 (0.2)			
FALL	1141 (47.0)	237 (45.5)	246 (47.1)			
FIREARM	2 (0.1)	2 (0.4)	3 (0.6)			
GSW	20 (0.8)	6 (1.2)	0 (0.0)			
MCC	178 (7.3)	39 (7.5)	38 (7.3)			
MV	156 (6.4)	30 (5.8)	40 (7.7)			
MVC	328 (13.5)	82 (15.7)	73 (14.0)			
O_BLUNT	71 (2.9)	14 (2.7)	7 (1.3)			
O_PEN	16 (0.7)	6 (1.2)	2 (0.4)			
PED	121 (5.0)	27 (5.2)	23 (4.4)			
SCOOTER	9 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.2)			
STAB	31 (1.3)	8 (1.5)	11 (2.1)			
UNK	1 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)			
ISS (median	10.00 [8.00,	10.00 [8.00,	10.00 [5.00,			
[IQR])	17.00]	17.00]	16.00]	0.114		
LOS (median	2.00 [1.00 6.00]	2 00 51 00 5 007	2 00 11 00 6 007	0.44=		
[IQR])	3.00 [1.00, 6.00]	3.00 [1.00, 6.00]	3.00 [1.00, 6.00]	0.467		

Supplemental figure 1: Flow diagram showing study cohort selection



Supplemental figure 2: Length of characters in input tertiary survey notes

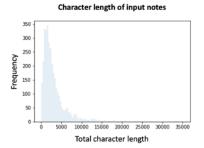


Figure 6: Supplemental Flow diagram showing study cohort selection

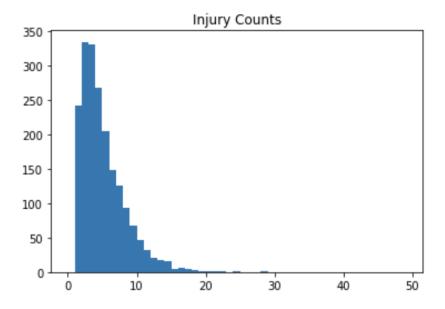


Figure 7: The number of patients who has a specific number of injuries that experts extracted ICD10 codes from their tertiary notes.

Algorithm 1: Algorithm for generation and augmentation of ICD10 code-wise classification dataset. In summary, The algorithm compiles the positive ICD10 codes from each note, then randomly generates the same number of negative codes as adversary examples (a technique resembling supervised contrastive learning [24]).

```
1 foreach P_i \in \{P_1, ..., P_{3478}\} do
                 3
                                                                                                                                                                                      \triangleright E.g. S22 \leftarrow S22.000A
     4
    5
                          \begin{array}{l} \textit{Output} \leftarrow \textit{yes} \\ \textit{Q} \leftarrow \textit{Q} \cup \{(\textit{Input}, \textit{Output})\} \\ \textit{C}_{ij}^{(4)} \leftarrow \textit{first 4 digits of } C_{ij}^{(7)} \\ \textit{Input} \leftarrow \textit{"Question: Identified } D_{C_{ij}^{(4)}} \textit{? Context: } T_i \textit{"} \end{array}
                                                                                                                                                                                 \triangleright E.g. S22.0 \leftarrow S22.000A
    8
                            Output \leftarrow yes
  10
                            Q \leftarrow Q \cup \{(Input, Output)\}
                            \begin{split} \bar{C}_{ij}^{(3)} \leftarrow \textit{randomly sample a 3-digit injury code} \notin \{C_{i1}^{(3)},...,C_{iN_i}^{(3)}\} \\ \textit{Input} \leftarrow \textit{"Question: Identified } D_{C_{ij}^{(3)}} \textit{? Context: } T_i \textit{"} \end{split}
  12
  13
  14
                            Output \leftarrow no
                            Q \leftarrow Q \cup \{(Input, Output)\}
  15
                            \begin{array}{l} \bar{C}_{ij}^{(4)} \leftarrow \textit{randomly sample a 4-digit injury code} \notin \{C_{i1}^{(4)},...,C_{iN_i}^{(4)}\} \\ \textit{Input} \leftarrow \textit{"Question: Identified } D_{C_{ii}^{(4)}} \textit{? Context: } T_i \textit{"} \end{array} 
  16
  17
                            Output \leftarrow no
  18
                            Q \leftarrow Q \cup \{(Input, Output)\}
  19
                  end
  20
            end
21
```

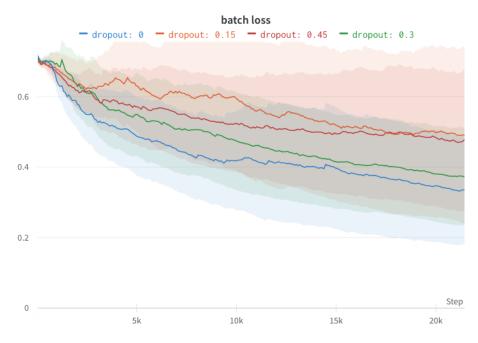


Figure 8: Batch loss during training, with respect to different dropout rates, with shaded area indicating the standard errors. Although dropout rate of 0 achieves the lowest training loss, dropout rates of 0.3 or higher resulted in lower validation loss – a sign that dropout is necessary to prevent overfitting



Figure 9: A parallel coordinates chart visualizing the various hyper-parameters with respect to validation loss. Each line represents one configuration of learning rate, batch size, and etc. Since the objective is to minimize validation loss, the darker lines are desired.

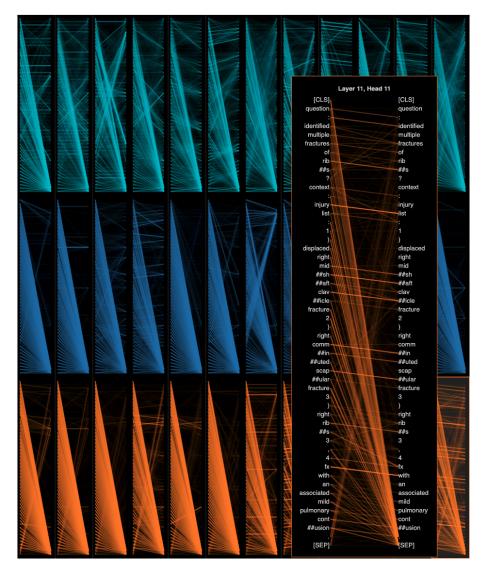


Figure 10: A model-wise attention visualization of PubMedBERT on the input text "question: Identified Multiple fractures of ribs? context: INJURY LIST: 1) Displaced right midshaft clavicle fracture 2) Right comminuted scapular fracture 3) Right ribs 3, 4 fx with an associated mild pulmonary contusion.". The Y-Axis corresponds to different layers, while the X-Axis correspond to attention heads. Note that only 3 out of 12 layers' attentions are shown to fit on the page.

	Extractions (sorted by decreasing probability)	Ground Truth
vertebal body height loss of L1. No retropulsed finature fragments. 2. Nondisplaced fracture of the T12 spinous process. 3. Cortical inregularity of the anterior and posterior aspects of the numbration with this field to be related to strate attified given that no neurounding heatmonnan. However, may represent an acute fracture. Correlate with point tendements. CT Head Cervical Spine IMPRESSION: 1. No acute immercial abnormality. 2. Small left flortal scale contains. 3. No transmits injury within the cervical spine. CT Lumber Spine: IMPRESSION: 1. Mild compression fractures in the T11, T12, and L1 vertebal bodies with close to 20% height loss at L1, in addition to a nondisplaced spinous process fracture at T12. No trotopulsion or epidual hemoment. CT Thoracie, Spine: IMPRESSION: 1. Mild compression fractures in the T11, T12, and L1 vertebal bodies with close to 20% height loss at L1, in addition to a nondisplaced spinous process fracture at T12. No retropulsion or epidual hemoment. CXR: IMPRESSION: 1. No acute cardiopolatmonay disease. Petivis XE: IMPRESSION: 1. No nadiographically visible feature, if there is concern for fracture, cross-sectional	\$00.0, Superficial injury of scalp \$01.0, Open wound of scalp \$01.0, Open wound of scalp \$23.1, Open true of humber vertebra \$23.1, Open and unspecified injuries of thoracic spinal cord \$00.2, Other and unspecified superficial injuries of spitial and periodular area \$30.8, Other superficial injuries of abdomen, lower back, pelvis and external genitals	S22.0,Fracture of thoracic vertebra, S23.0,Fracture of lumbar vertebra, S00.0,Superficial injury of scalp
INJURY LIST: 1. Pelvic finctures—comminated and mildly displaced L superior/inferior public ramus, possible non-displaced R inferior public ramus fincture, nondisplaced fincture L searal als -No operative intervention warmated per Ortho- WBAT, PT, pain control: Fin with Dr. Stephanie Pan in Redwood City Orthopaedic Supery Clinic in the Works (please place constpained referral at discharge 2. Retrophylic hemorhage, persons homorhage, "No need for embolarization per IR. H&H downtrending to Pan Water and	S32.5,Fracture of publis	S32.5.Fracture of publis, S62.6.Fracture of other and unspecified fingers S62.6.Fracture of wrist and hand, S32.1.Fracture of sacrum
IMPRESSION: I. Left first and third through 'Th ris fractures with associated trace left hemospneumothours status poor left pleumal picing and enter placement. 2. Comminuted feature of the left expulsa involving the sequelar hody and glorid need. 3. No thoractic vacuality implies. 4. No acuse time-abdominated injuries. 4. No acuse time-abdominated injuries. 4. Descriptions of the abdominated picing of the hopatric dome appears isodense on delayed images and may represent a vascular shunt, but is incompletely evaluated. 06/17/2017 left shoulder 2V XR IMPRESSION: 1. Comminuted fracture of the left scapular body and need. 2. Well-contributed ossicle adjuscents to the accomision may be related to prior transas versus best-accomming type of os accomised. 3. Multiple left-sided in the factures with a left pleural pigital draining conductor in place. 06/18/2017 left shoulder 2V XR IMPRESSION: 1. And overall military	S22.4,Multiple fractures of ribs, S27.3,Other and unspecified injuries of lung,	S42.1,Fracture of scapula, S27.0,Tranumatic pneumothorux, S22.4,Multiple factures of ribs
Mildly comminuted and displaced mid shaft clavicular fracture. 2. Comminuted scapular fracture, better demonstrated on same-day CT chest dated 6/7/2017. 3. Minimally displaced fractures of the right lateral third and fourth ribs, better demonstrated on same-day CT chest.	\$22.4, Multiple fractures of ribs, \$27.3, Other and unspecified injuries of lung, \$40.Q, Facture of clavicle	S22.4, Multiple fractures of ribs, S06.0, Concassion, S22.0, Fracture of floracic vertebra, S27.3, Other and unspecified injuries of lung, S42.1, Fracture of scapula, S42.0, Fracture of clavicle
	S06.5,Traumatic subdural hemorrhage,	
sylvian fissure which is favored to represent a partially calcified vessel given its unchanged appearance. Stable hyperdensity in the anterior body of the left corpus callosum which again is of uncertain clinical significance and could represent a cavernoma however, in the setting of trauma with multiple intracranial hemorrhages, intraparenchymal	S06.6, Traumatic subarachnoid hemorrhage, S06.3, Focal traumatic brain injury, S00.0, Superficial injury of sealp, S06.8, Other specified intracranial injuries, S24.1, Other and unspecified injuries of thoracic	S06.5,Traumatic subdural hemorrhage, S06.8,Other specified intracranial injuries

Figure 11: Five examples comparing model's ICD10 code extractions to ground truth codes.