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# From Binning to Joint Embeddings: Robust Numeric Integration for EHR Transformers

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**Maria Elkjær Montgomery**

Department of Computer Science  
University of Copenhagen  
maem@di.ku.dk

**Mads Nielsen**

Department of Computer Science  
University of Copenhagen  
madsn@di.ku.dk

## Abstract

Transformer-based EHR models are sensitive to how numeric values are represented. Using synthetic and real data, we investigate the effects of binning numeric values, as well as the effects of inputting floating point values directly into the EHR sequence (optionally after binning) or making a joint continuous-categorical embedding. We uncover a simple scaling rule: the optimal bin count follows a power law with dataset size. Joint embeddings deliver the highest accuracy and robustness to noise, while direct injection is also effective, especially when preceded by binning. Models perform surprisingly well on complex arithmetic tasks, which illustrates that although they cannot perform exact computation, this may not be necessary in an EHR setting where measurements by nature are noisy. On two clinical prediction tasks, adding lab measurements yields small but consistent AUROC gains. These results offer practical guidance for numeric integration and a path toward multimodal EHR transformers.

## 1 Introduction

Transformer-based architectures are now central to predictive modelling with Electronic Health Records (EHR) [22], often outperforming classic ML methods [9, 14]. BERT-inspired models (e.g., BEHRT [10], Med-BERT [17]) showed that contextual code embeddings capture temporal dependencies. Subsequent efforts addressed temporal dynamics, long sequences, and model optimisation for clinical prediction [14, 24, 13, 21]. Decoder-style models extend these ideas to generative patient modelling [15, 8]. Still, most large-scale EHR transformers remain limited to discrete categorical inputs (diagnoses, procedures, medications), underutilising continuous numeric data such as laboratory values and vital parameters, despite these being abundant, less biased, and highly informative for clinical interpretation. Incorporating numeric values also provides a natural bridge to multimodal modelling by enabling the integration of other quantitative sources (e.g. imaging-derived measurements). Strategies for numeric integration include discretisation [19, 18, 11], dedicated numeric embeddings [10], and joint categorical-continuous representations [2]. Reported effectiveness varies, and the conditions under which each approach succeeds remain unclear, particularly across clinical contexts where numeric signals can reflect single measurements, combinations, or trends. In this work, we (1) implement and compare five approaches for embedding numeric values in transformer-based EHR models, (2) evaluate each approach under controlled settings, and (3) test real-world clinical prediction tasks.

## 2 Related work

Many studies have explored how to handle both continuous and discrete inputs within transformer architectures. TabTransformer [6] applies attention only to categorical features, concatenating their

contextualised embeddings with numeric inputs before prediction. FT-Transformer [5] and SAINT [20] extend this idea by tokenising both feature types and feeding them jointly into a transformer encoder. More recently, xVal [4] extends numeric representations by introducing a dedicated artificial token for each numeric feature, whose embedding is scaled by the feature’s actual value. In the EHR domain, Labrador [2] adopts an approach conceptually similar to FT-Transformer and xVal, where categorical and continuous features each pass through dedicated embedding layers, and their outputs are summed to form joint embeddings. However, it does not incorporate other EHR modalities. Alternative methods discretise continuous inputs [19, 11, 18], either through clinically defined thresholds or quantile binning, but these may not generalise across heterogeneous numeric features. Overall, several strategies exist for encoding numeric data, but few have been tested systematically in an EHR context. We aim to evaluate how these methods perform across different numeric inputs and how such representations can serve as a foundation for multimodal patient modelling.

### 3 Methods

#### 3.1 Experimental Setup

We use a BERT-style model similar to the one described in CORE-BEHRT [13] but with a Modern-BERT [23] backbone instead. The model has hidden size 96, intermediate size 192, six layers, six heads, and a 1024 token context window. We evaluate different strategies for incorporating numeric values using both synthetic and real-world data. Synthetic data enables controlled variation in feature count, interactions, and temporal structure, while real-world data validate findings under clinical noise and dependencies. The real-world data is derived from the electronic health record system used across the Capital Region and Region Zealand in Denmark. It includes records from all patients who interacted with the hospitals in these regions between 2016 and 2024, comprising a total of around 2.2 million unique individuals. To isolate the impact of value representation, we insert synthetic lab measurements and corresponding outcome labels into each patient’s timeline between birth and (if applicable) death, ensuring that numeric inputs appear in realistic temporal contexts. Each label is placed 10–180 days after the last synthetic lab measurement, and all events within 48 hours prior to the label are censored to prevent leakage. The model predicts the label from the remaining EHR history.

**Baseline experiments** We evaluate each method on datasets of size 10,000, 100,000, and 1,000,000, split 50-40-10 into pre-training, fine-tuning, and test sets. Experiments are conducted on three class conditional Gaussian settings with fixed standard deviation 10 and varying mean separation. For label  $y \in \{0, 1\}$  we sample

$$x | y = 0 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_0, 10^2), \quad x | y = 1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, 10^2)$$

where  $(\mu_0, \mu_1) \in \{(35, 65), (45, 55), (48, 52)\}$ . Because the synthetic lab values are the sole signal for predicting  $y$ , we compute the theoretical optimal ROC AUC for each setup, see appendix A. Performance is then measured by (i) the absolute gap to this optimum,  $d$ , and (ii) the number of standard deviations from the optimum,  $d_\sigma$ , with standard deviation computed using Delong’s test [25]. We fix the standard deviation at 10 (varying SD added no benefit over varying mean separation), and use a 50/50 class split (performance was limited by minority-class size, not imbalance). From the baseline experiments, we carry forward the best-performing and conceptually diverse methods to the arithmetic and clinical evaluations.

**Arithmetic experiments** To assess the limits of each method, we construct arithmetic tasks of increasing complexity, each formulated as predicting whether  $f(LAB_{1:n}) > \text{median}(f(LAB_{1:n}))$ . This creates a binary prediction task requiring the model to combine multiple synthetic lab values. The tasks include **counting** (frequency under the baseline Gaussian setup - difficulty via overlap set by  $\mu_0$  and  $\mu_1$ ), **addition** ( $\sum LAB_n$ ), **multiplication** ( $\prod LAB_n$ ), and **polynomial** evaluation (all monomials up to degree  $d$ , where the total number of terms is given by  $\leq d$ :  $T(n, d) = \binom{n+d}{d}$ , where  $n$  is the number of lab measurements). For addition/multiplication we add input noise. All arithmetic tasks are scored with  $d$  and  $d_\sigma$ .

**Clinical experiments** Finally, to evaluate whether findings from synthetic tasks generalise to real-world prediction, we test the methods on clinical outcomes using the real-world data exclusively.

Specifically, we assess performance on breast cancer and lung cancer prediction tasks, examining whether the inclusion of lab test values embedded through each method improves model performance.

### 3.2 Data representations

We evaluate five strategies for representing continuous values in transformer-based EHR models:

- **Binning:** Continuous values are binned into categorical tokens and discretised.
- **Combined:** Categorical and continuous features are embedded separately: Both are then passed to the transformer.
- **Combined binned:** Combined approach, but continuous values are binned first.
- **Concat:** Categorical and continuous embeddings are concatenated and passed through a projection layer to form a joint feature representation.
- **FiLM:** Categorical and continuous embeddings are merged through feature-wise linear modulation (FiLM) [16], using learnable scaling and shifting parameters.

All numeric inputs are min-max normalised before embedding. A more detailed description the methods can be found in appendix B. For the **binning** method we systematically evaluated different bin counts across varying sample sizes and value distributions to identify a generalisable binning strategy based on data availability. The resulting optimal binning configuration is then reused in the **combined binned** method. Across all methods, a masked pre-training objective is applied to both categorical and continuous components, with joint optimisation of classification and regression losses for all methods except **discrete**, where only a classification loss is used.

## 4 Results

To derive a general rule for binning continuous values, we evaluated bin counts (3, 5, 10, 25, 50, 75, and 100) across varying sample sizes and value distributions in the baseline setup. Each experiment was repeated five times, and we generated 300 additional simulations from the resulting mean and standard deviation (appendix C). For each distribution, we computed the average  $d$  and  $d_\sigma$ , and identified the optimal bin count by minimising  $d$  across settings. This was then fit to a power-law of the form  $k = an^b$ , yielding  $4.85n^{0.163}$ , see figure 1. This fit was motivated by theoretical scaling laws such as Scott’s rule for histogram binning [1].

Figure 2 shows baseline results on all five methods on the  $(\mu_0, \mu_1) = (48, 52)$ . This setup highlights where the methods differ the most and is the most comparable to real clinical prediction scenarios. From these results, we selected **FiLM**, **combined binned**, and **binning** for continued experimentation. We chose FiLM over concat since the two performed similarly, but FiLM provides additional interpretability. For the arithmetic experiments, figure 3 reports performance on the counting (frequency) task across Gaussian class separations defined by  $\mu_0$  and  $\mu_1$ . Next, figure 5 shows the performance of the methods on the multiplication task, where increasing task complexity eventually pushes all methods to failure. Results for the addition tasks followed a similar pattern. Finally, figure 4 shows model performance across polynomial degrees ( $d$ ), with shaded areas indicating standard deviation. Results are averaged over runs with  $n = 2, 3$ , and 4 lab measurements. Clinical results shown in appendix D show small improvements from adding lab tests. Combined binned performs best with AUROC rises from 0.660 to 0.712 for breast cancer and from 0.785 to 0.787 for lung cancer.

## 5 Discussion and conclusion

Our results show that representation choices for numeric data shape performance and generalisability in transformer-based EHR models. We identify a simple rule for discretisation: the optimal number of bins grows with dataset size according to a power-law. Binning notably improved the combined approach in baseline experiments, especially under limited data, suggesting it stabilises learning when numeric signals are sparse or noisy. Joint-embedding methods (Concat, FiLM) also performed strongly. This is noteworthy given results such as CEHR-BERT [14], where injecting additional tokens (for time) into the primary sequence outperformed adding temporal features in an additional

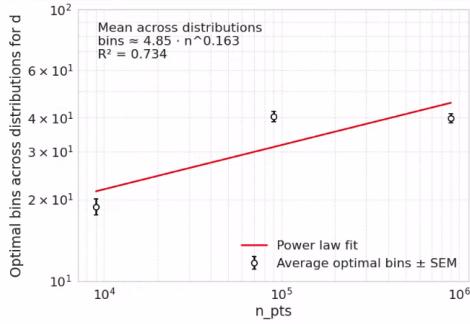


Figure 1: Fitted power law for optimal bin count across dataset sizes.

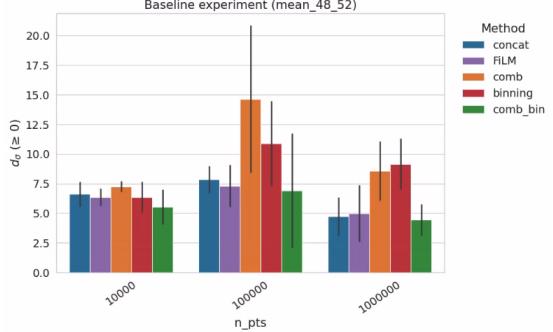


Figure 2: Baseline performance ( $d_\sigma$ ) for all five methods with mean separation  $(\mu_0, \mu_1) = (48, 52)$ .

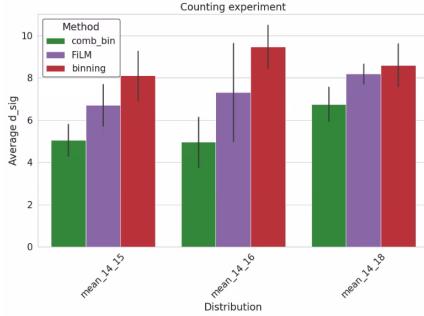


Figure 3: Performance on the counting task.

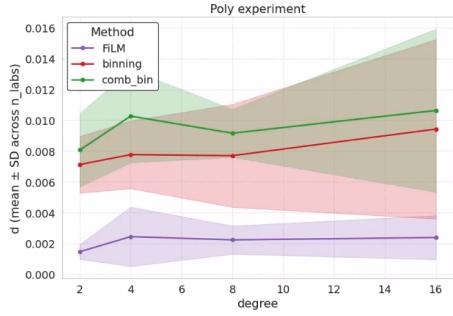


Figure 4: Performance on the polynomial task.

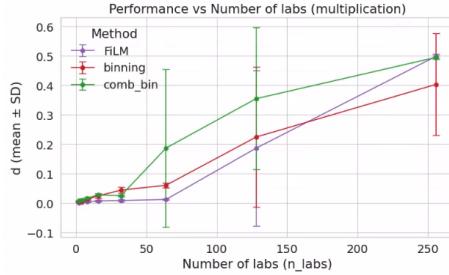


Figure 5: Model performance on the multiplication task. (a) Effect of increasing the number of lab values. (b) Effect of increasing input noise.

embedding layer. We expected a similar advantage for numeric inputs, yet Concat/FiLM consistently showed impressive performance. Still, methods that avoid extra embedding layers remain attractive in practice as they scale cleanly as modalities grow, and are easier to adapt to decoder-style or multimodal architectures. The models handled surprisingly complex arithmetic despite prior reports that transformers struggle with numerical reasoning [7, 12, 3]. In the multiplication experiments, performance degraded gradually rather than collapsing at the heuristic limit of  $2^L$  with  $L = 6$  being the number of transformer layers. This likely reflects that much of the literature targets exact arithmetic, whereas our aim tolerate “good enough” accuracy for EHR use cases. Accordingly, the choice of representation should be guided by the required precision and the target architecture. Clinical results show modest but consistent gains from adding lab measurements, with combined binned strongest.

In conclusion, the results offer practical guidance for integrating numeric values in transformer-based EHR models and a simple binning rule that scales with data size, with implications for multimodal extensions. Limitations include use of a single encoder-style backbone (ModernBERT), few runs per setting, and a limited clinical evaluation (two tasks within one regional hospital network). Future work should extend to alternative architectures (decoder, encoder–decoder, multi-modal), broader clinical testing, and larger repeated experiments to reduce variance and assess generalisability.

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## A Computation of theoretical AUC

Figure 6 shows the theoretical ROC AUC values for the baseline setting with  $n = 100,000$ . In this setting, the synthetic lab measurement is the only feature that carries information about the assigned label, which allows us to compute the theoretical maximum achievable ROC AUC. These theoretical values therefore represent the upper bound on performance for any model in this setup.

## B Details on the numeric integration methods

Figure 7 summarises the four numeric-integration schemes visualised in this paper: *Discrete*, *Combined*, *Concat*, and *FiLM*. All methods follow the CORE-BEHRT architecture [13]: the full EHR sequence is used as model input, the model is first trained with masked language modelling (MLM), and is then fine-tuned with a prediction head for the downstream task.

### B.1 Discretisation

In the **discrete** method, continuous inputs are converted into categorical tokens through binning. Specifically, each value is first normalised, multiplied by the number of bins, and then mapped to a token of the form `VAL_X`, where  $X$  denotes the corresponding bin index. These tokens are then treated as standard inputs during pre-training, which follows a masked language modelling (MLM) objective where masked tokens are predicted using a cross-entropy loss.

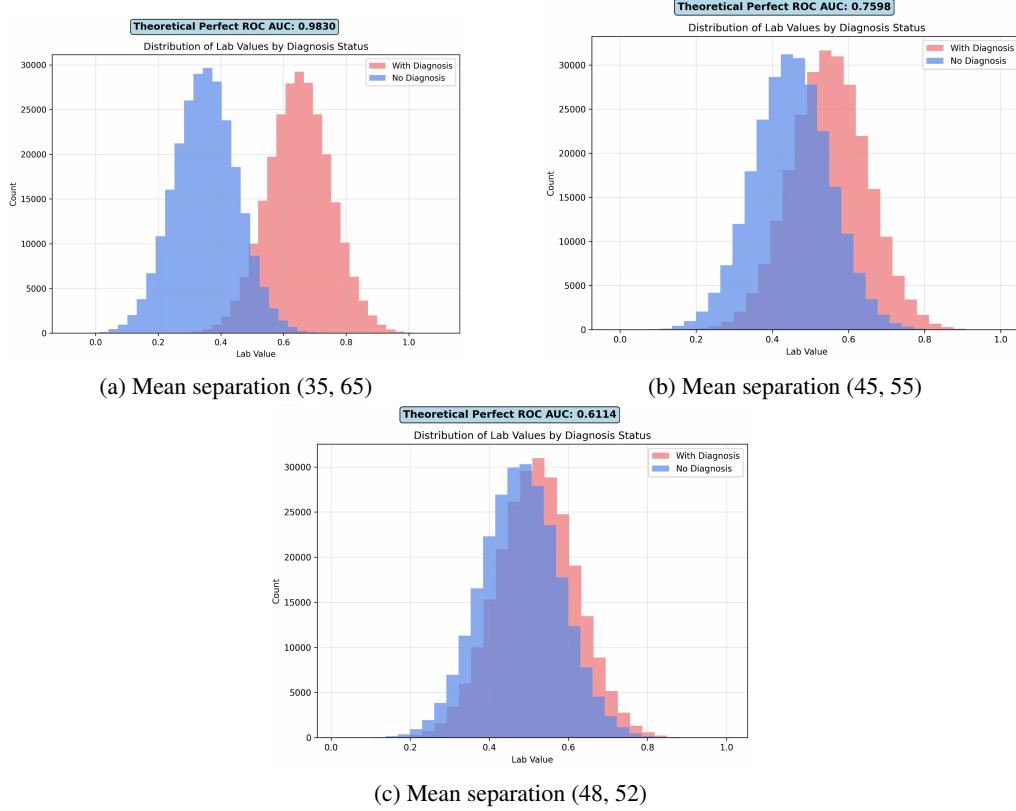


Figure 6: The theoretical ROC AUC for the baseline Gaussian experiments at three levels of class-mean separation.

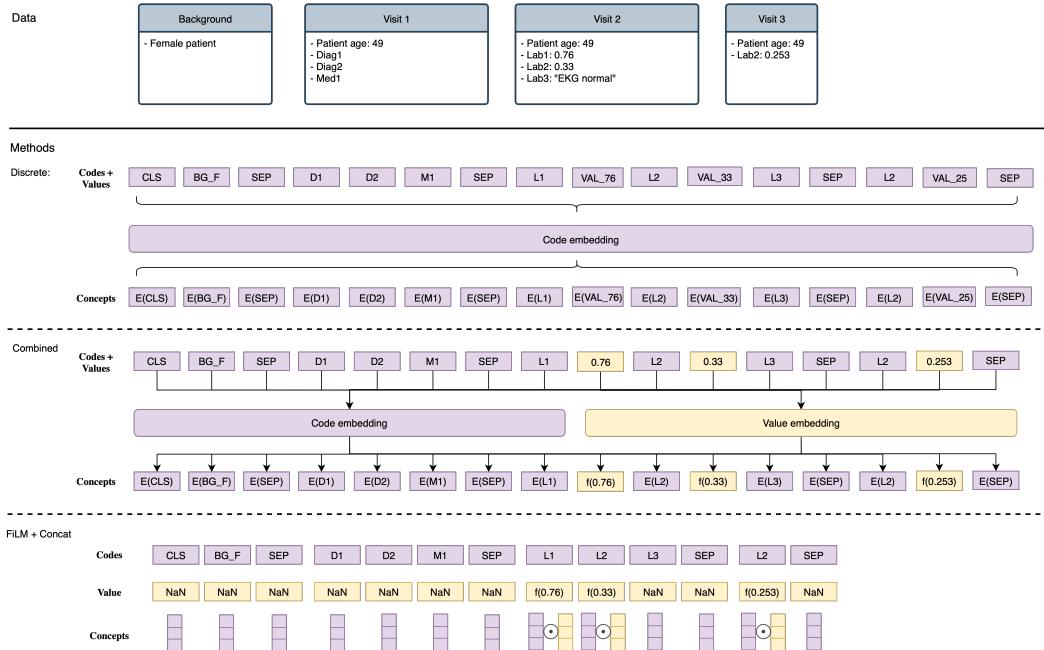


Figure 7: Overview of four numeric-integration schemes for EHR transformers: (a) **Discrete** (bin values into tokens), (b) **Combined** (parallel categorical/value streams), (c) **Concat** (concatenate then project), and (d) **FiLM** (feature-wise linear modulation). Numeric inputs are min–max normalised.

## B.2 Combined

In the **combined** approach, categorical and continuous features are embedded separately. Categorical features are embedded using a discrete embedding layer into a vector of dimension  $d$ , while continuous features are projected into the same dimension  $d$  using a linear layer. During pre-training, both categorical and continuous values are masked. The model is trained with a dual prediction objective: categorical values are predicted through a classifier head using a cross-entropy loss, while continuous values are predicted through a regression head using a mean-square-error loss (MSE). The two objectives are optimised jointly using a combined loss function. The loss starts with equal weighting for categorical and continuous components, but the weight for the continuous loss is made learnable, allowing the model to adapt its balance during training.

## B.3 Concat and FiLM

In the **concat** and **FiLM** methods, a separate value layer is introduced, where numeric values are aligned with their corresponding categorical features. If a categorical feature has no associated continuous value, a NaN placeholder is assigned in the value layer. Categorical features are embedded using a discrete embedding layer, while non-NaN numeric values are projected through a linear layer. For features with both categorical and continuous components, these representations are combined into a joint embedding; for features with only categorical values, the categorical embedding is used directly.

In the **concat** method, the joint embedding is formed by concatenating the categorical and continuous embeddings, followed by a projection layer.

In the **FiLM** method, the joint embedding is computed using Feature-wise Linear Modulation:

$$\mathbf{e}_{\text{joint}} = \gamma(\mathbf{e}_{\text{cat}}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_{\text{cont}} + \beta(\mathbf{e}_{\text{cat}}),$$

where  $\mathbf{e}_{\text{cat}}$  is the categorical embedding,  $\mathbf{e}_{\text{cont}}$  is the continuous embedding, and  $\gamma, \beta$  are learnable functions applied to  $\mathbf{e}_{\text{cat}}$ .

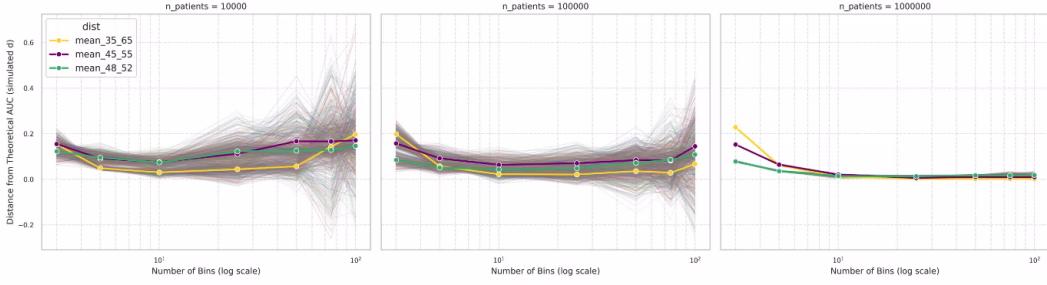
During pre-training, for both methods, a continuous value is masked whenever its associated categorical value is masked. The model is then trained to jointly predict both components: categorical values are predicted through a classification head using cross-entropy loss, while continuous values are predicted through a regression head a MSE-loss. The two losses are combined into a single objective. Initially, categorical and continuous losses are weighted equally, but the weight for the continuous loss is made learnable.

## C Simulation experiments for optimal binning

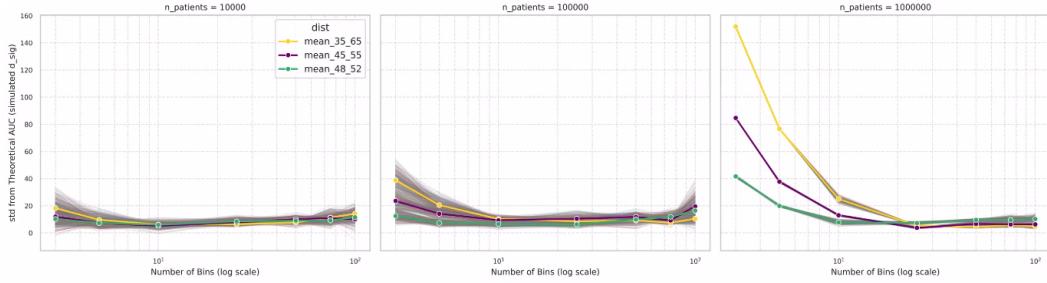
Figure 8 reports baseline results for the *Discrete* method across bin counts  $\{3, 5, 10, 25, 50, 75, 100\}$ , dataset sizes, and Gaussian mean separations. Each configuration is run five times to estimate mean and standard deviation. We then generate 300 simulations from these estimates. Panel (a) shows the absolute gap to the theoretical optimum ( $d$ ); panel (b) shows the standardised gap ( $d_\sigma$ ).

## D Clinical experiments

Figure 9 reports clinical results as the change in AUROC relative to a model without lab inputs on the two tasks breast cancer prediction and lung cancer prediction. We also include a control that adds only lab test names (no numeric values).



(a) Absolute gap to the optimum,  $d$ .



(b) Standardised gap,  $d_\sigma$ .

Figure 8: Discrete-method binning across dataset sizes and Gaussian separations. Points show run means (5 repeats). Grey curves show 300 simulated draws from these estimates.

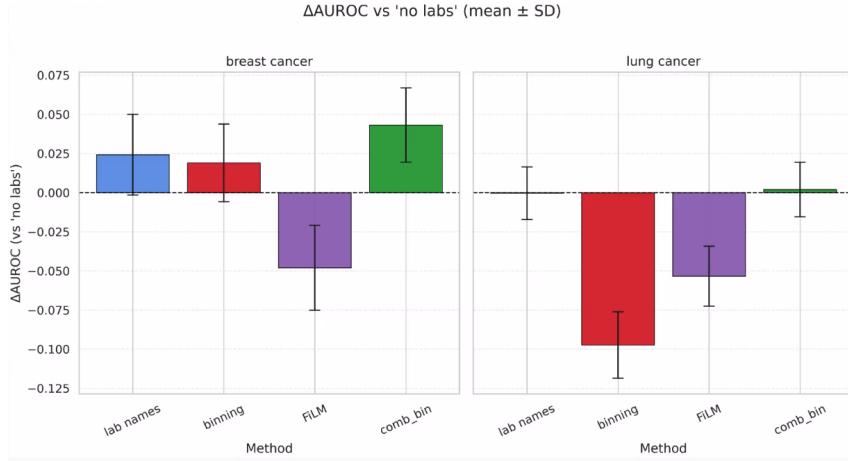


Figure 9: Clinical evaluation: change in AUROC relative to a “no labs” baseline. Positive values indicate an increase in AUROC; negative values indicate a decrease.

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Justification: The abstract claims that we evaluate five methods for integrating numeric values into transformer-based EHR models, identify when each succeeds or fails, and test whether these findings generalise to clinical prediction tasks. The paper supports this by comparing methods across controlled data distributions, quantifying performance with  $d$  and  $d_\sigma$  and testing limits via binning choices (including an empirically fitted power-law

rule), stress tests with noise, and increasing term counts. We also show that the methods handle complex arithmetic insufficient for exact computation, but suitable for EHR settings where robust, approximate accuracy is often adequate, thereby informing multimodal use cases. Finally, we evaluate two clinical prediction tasks (breast and lung cancer), where adding lab measurement yeilded a small performance gain. These claims are however limited to encoder-style transformers and the datasets studied. As we did not evaluate other architectures or broader modalities beyond the proposed numeric-integration pathways, we cannot state anything on this.

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Question: Does the paper discuss the limitations of the work performed by the authors?

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Justification: The results are partially reproducible. We release code for the model and for generating the synthetic datasets, enabling end-to-end replication of the controlled experiments in the supplementary material ([https://github.com/Montgomeryyyy/BONSAI\\_values](https://github.com/Montgomeryyyy/BONSAI_values)). The real-world EHR data cannot be shared for privacy reasons, but we provide the full training/evaluation pipeline and configuration details so authorised holders of comparable EHR data can reproduce those experiments.

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Question: Does the paper provide open access to the data and code, with sufficient instructions to faithfully reproduce the main experimental results, as described in supplemental material?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: The code can be found at [https://github.com/Montgomeryyyy/BONSAI\\_values](https://github.com/Montgomeryyyy/BONSAI_values), and all the configuration files corresponding to the experiments can also be found there.

The health records utilised in this study were acquired from hospitals in the Region of Zealand and the Capital Region of Denmark, which was approved by the Danish Patients Safety Board (Styrelsen for Patientssikkerhed, approval #31-1521-182) and the Danish Capital Region Data Safety Board (Videncenter for data-anmeldelser, approval #P-2020-180). Anyone wanting access to the data will be required to meet research credentialing requirements as outlined on the web site: <https://www.regionh.dk/til-fagfolk/Forskning-og-innovation/Hvilke-tilladelser-kraever-dit-projekt-/Sider/Forskningsprojekter-baseret-p%C3%A5-registerdata-og-journaldata.aspx>. Requests are normally processed within 3-6 months.

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