Predicting Flare Probability in Rheumatoid Arthritis using Machine Learning Methods

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Abstract: Rheumatoid Arthritis (RA) is a chronic inflammatory disease that mostly affects joints. It requires life-long treatment aiming at suppression of disease activity. RA is characterized by periods of low or even absent activity of the disease (“remission”) alternated with exacerbations of the disease (“flares”) leading to pain, functional limitations and decreased quality of life. Flares and periods of high disease activity can lead to joint damage and permanent disability. Over the last decades treatment of RA patients has improved, especially with the new “biological” drugs. This expensive medication also carries a risk of serious adverse events such as severe infections. Therefore patients and physicians often wish to taper the dose or even stop the drug, once stable remission is reached. Unfortunately, drug tapering is associated with the increased risk of flares. In this paper we applied machine learning methods on the Utrecht Patient Oriented Database (UPOD) to predict flare probability within a time horizon of three months. Providing information about flare probability for different dose reduction scenarios would enable clinicians to perform informed tapering which may prevent flares, reduce adverse events and save drug costs. Our best models can predict flares with AUC values of about 80%.

1 INTRODUCTION

Rheumatoid Arthritis (RA) is the most common chronic inflammatory autoimmune joint disease affecting as much as 1% of the Western population (WHO, 2018). To date the specific causes of the disease are unknown, but dysregulation of the immune system plays a major role (Smolen et al., 2016). The disease is characterized by joint swelling and pain as results of synovial inflammation caused by immune activation. This eventually leads to joint damage and permanent disability as illustrated in Fig. 1. Although primarily joints are involved, the disease should be considered a systemic disease where also extra-articular manifestations, such as rheumatoid nodules, pulmonary involvement, vasculitis, and comorbidities occur (Smolen et al., 2016). In general, RA patients suffer from significantly reduced quality of life.

Figure 1: Permanent destruction of hand joints affected by rheumatoid arthritis (RheumatologyAdvisor, 2018).
To date, there is no known cure for RA and treatment is life-long. However, treatment has improved considerably during the last decades, with early diagnosis and direct start of treatment with a conventional synthetic Disease Modifying Anti-Rheumatic Drugs (cDMARD) regimen, typically including methotrexate as the first line drug with adjustments of treatment when the activity of the disease is not sufficiently suppressed (treat-to-target). Other DMARDs can be added or replace the initial DMARD. Furthermore a biological Disease Modifying Anti-Rheumatic Drug (bDMARD) can be started as the second line treatment (Bouman et al., 2017; Smolen et al., 2016). The preferred treatment target is so-called remission, i.e. a very low level of disease activity, a target which nowadays can often be reached and maintained over longer periods of time.

DMARDs suppress inflammation, thereby reducing the progression of joint damage and development of functional disability. Due to suppression of the immune system, patients receiving biological treatment are more susceptible to severe infections, and even to increased risk of certain types of malignancy, among other side effects (Singh et al., 2011; Singh et al., 2015). Moreover, patients need to self-inject the drug on a regular basis or receive intravenous infusions in the hospital. From a socio-economic point of view, the costs of biological treatment are notable, summing up to about 17,000 USD in Europe and 26,000 USD in the USA per patient per year (Bouman et al., 2017).

In order to minimize the risk of drug side effects, but also to meet patients’ desire for “drug holidays” and minimize costs, dose tapering is sometimes performed and the drug may even be stopped for as long as remission remains. Tapering is typically applied via gradually reducing the dose and closely monitoring the patient’s disease activity. Tapering can lead to two outcomes: (1) either completely stopping medication (rare case) or (2) finding a lower dose level which still keeps the disease activity at an acceptable level. However, tapering is not always tried, because of fear for flares of disease activity by patients and physicians. A flare is an acute increase of disease activity, which is associated with pain and functional limitations for patients. Although flares are treatable by intensifying the medication, they are associated with additional hospitalizations, follow-up visits and decreased quality of life in general (Bouman et al., 2017).

Unfortunately, it is currently unclear in clinical practice which patients are suitable candidates for dose reduction of medication (Edwards et al., 2017; Verhoef et al., 2017). More insights on this are highly desired, aiming at informed shared decision making of clinicians together with their patients regarding tapering of bDMARDs and (further) personalizing the tapering strategy to an individual patient. Moreover, by making more appropriate tapering decisions, clinicians would (1) reduce the occurrence of flares during tapering, (2) reduce the associated need for extra follow-up visits as well as (3) increase the quality of life of their RA patients. Finally, with available and accurate guidance, clinicians would probably perform tapering more often, ultimately leading to lower treatment costs with comparable effectiveness and less adverse events.

In this paper we publish the first results of our study with the goal to evaluate feasibility of accurately predicting flare probability for individual patients using (1) data as collected in routine medical care and (2) machine learning methods. The work was conducted in a clinical research collaboration between the University Medical Center Utrecht in the Netherlands and Siemens Healthineers within the ADAM (Applied Data Analytics in Medicine) Programme of the UMC Utrecht.

2 RELATED WORK

There have been multiple studies on bDMARD dose reduction in RA patients (see Verhoef et al., 2017 for a summary of 45 such studies). They differ in multiple aspects, from study design to definitions of remission and flare, making their direct comparison difficult. Nevertheless, it can be concluded that abrupt drug discontinuation carries a high risk of flares. Best practices indicate that tapering should be a gradual process and include close monitoring of the disease activity in a patient.

Machine learning methods have been already applied in the context of diagnosing RA. In (Shiezadeh et al., 2015) an ensemble learning approach (generating and combining multiple predictive models) was proposed to diagnose rheumatoid arthritis. Reported diagnosis accuracy of the best model was 85% with a sensitivity of 44%.

The work given in (Lin et al., 2013) deals with the automatic prediction of RA disease activity from the Electronic Medical Records (EMR data). Here the focus was on utilizing the features extracted from clinical notes by Natural Language Processing.
(NLP) methods. Laboratory values are used additionally to predict one of the four classes of disease activity (high, moderate, low, remission) as defined for the Disease Activity Score in 28 joints (DAS28, Prevoo et al., 1995). The reported AUC measured in a 10-fold cross validation was 83.1%. It is important to note that lab measurements had higher predictive power than the features extracted from text. In this work, the disease activity (i.e. its level) was predicted for the current patient visit and not for any future time horizon as performed in our study.

Very few papers are published that deal specifically with predicting future flares. One notable work deals with predicting flares in DMARD-treated RA patients in remission (Saleem et al., 2012) using both clinical data and ultrasound imaging. However, in this paper the authors focused on patients receiving cDMARD whose dose is not systematically tapered.

A recent review on tapering (Verhoef et al., 2017) concluded that: “Unfortunately, no clear predictors of successful dose reduction have been identified so far”. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first paper with results on dynamically (i.e. over time) predicting the probability of a (future) flare for individual RA patients on bDMARD therapy from routinely collected EMR data using machine learning methods.

3 DATA PREPARATION

3.1 Patient Selection

Data was extracted from electronic medical records using the Research Data Platform (RDP) and the Utrecht Patient Oriented Database (UPOD) of the UMC Utrecht in line with all ethical and privacy regulations. The research was conducted in accordance with the declaration of Helsinki and evaluated by the IRB (Institutional Review Board) which waived the formal informed consent requirement. In the first step a target group of RA patients treated at the Department of Rheumatology & Clinical Immunology of the University Medical Center Utrecht receiving biological treatment was selected from electronic medical records. It included 588 patients out of which 314 patients became eligible for tapering at least once (i.e. who had stable low disease activity or remission) and were chosen for the analysis. The unit of analysis was a patient follow-up during the bDMARD course (i.e. a patient followed from start of the treatment until start of the next bDMARD treatment or end of the follow-up). Longitudinal data on bDMARD use was merged with data on disease activity variables and relevant patient and disease characteristics by bringing all values collected within a 4 week period to a data vector corresponding to a single follow-up to reduce the amount of missing data.

After removing all (4-week) visits before the eligibility for tapering and those for which the target variable could not be derived (due to insufficient data on disease activity variables during the 3 month follow-up after a visit), we ended up with about 2,000 instances that were included in the analysis.

3.2 Applied Definitions

There is a notable variance in definitions of relevant terms such as a remission or a flare observed in the literature (Verhoef et al., 2017). For the purpose of this work, we have used the following definitions in line with previously developed and validated definitions as much as possible taking into account the completeness of the available data.

Definition 1. Estimated Disease Activity Score in 28 joints (DAS28_est) is the mean value of all available DAS28 measurements collected within a 4 week period (for more details on DAS28 and its components see Prevoo et al., 1995).

Definition 2. Dose percentage (Doseperc) is the dose of bDMARD expressed as the proportion of the standard (full) dose.

Definition 3. Dose category (Dosecat) is defined as follows:
- Category 1: Doseperc < 0.2
- Category 2: 0.2 ≤ Doseperc < 0.4
- Category 3: 0.4 ≤ Doseperc < 0.6
- Category 4: 0.6 ≤ Doseperc < 0.75
- Category 5: Doseperc ≥ 0.75

Definition 4. Swollen Joint Count 28 (SJC28) is defined as the count of observed swollen joints of 28 joints assessed at a patient visit.

Definition 5. “Remission” is defined as:

\[
\text{DAS28}_{\text{est}} < 3.2 \quad \text{AND} \quad \text{SJC28} < 2
\]  \hspace{1cm} (1)

When a patient reaches this at least at one time point after the start of bDMARD and had a follow-up of at least 24 weeks this patient was considered eligible for bDMARD tapering.
Definition 6. Flare is defined as:

- Increase from last visit in DAS28_est > 1.2 with ≥ 1 increase in SJC28 and DAS28_est at endpoint ≥ 2.6 OR
- Increase from last visit in DAS28_est > 0.6 and DAS28_est at endpoint ≥ 3.2 with an increase of SJC28 ≥ 1 OR
- Increase in medication (Dosecat) from last visit without DAS28_est at endpoint < 2.6 (either missing or DAS28_est ≥ 2.6)

Definition 7. Target Event is an indicator showing if a patient experienced a flare within 3 months from the current follow-up. It gets the following values:
- Value 1: if flare is observed within 3 months from the current follow-up
- Value 0: otherwise.

3.3 Input and Output Variables

Input variables used in the analysis are measured longitudinally unless mentioned otherwise and can be clustered into following groups:

- Demographic data including (only measured cross-sectionally): age, gender, weight, height, BMI, disease duration, smoking
- Laboratory data including: ESR, CRP, anti-CCP positivity, rheumatoid factor
- Medication data including: ATC codes, dose (i.e. Doseperc and Dosecat)
- Examination data including: follow-up time, DAS28_est, SJC28, Tender Joint Count28 (TJC28), VAS-General Health, erosive disease (measured cross-sectionally).

The output variable for the predictive modeling was the Target Event as defined by Definition 7. The prediction horizon of three months is selected because it corresponds to the typical visit frequency of RA patients.

We have observed the following major challenges in analysing the routinely collected EMR data:

- Relatively high number of missing values in the input variables: treated by several remedies including deleting whole variables, deleting (filtering) observations, median imputation and introducing a dummy variable
- Missing output variable for many follow-ups: resulting in inclusion of only about a quarter available follow-ups in the analysis
- Imbalanced output variable (class labels have ratio 4:1 with the majority of instances having the class '0'): treated by assigning a higher weight to the minority class to penalize its misclassification more heavily.

4 METHODOLOGY

4.1 Modeling Formalisms

After extracting the data from the RDP and UPOD and its extensive (non-trivial) preparation described before, a modeling step is performed. From the nature of the target variable it follows that the task of predicting a flare probability for individual RA patients whose biological therapy is being tapered is a problem of supervised machine learning and more concretely a problem of binary classification. There are various modeling formalisms suited for addressing this problem. Since we were interested in predicting probability of classes in addition to their label, we relied on modeling formalisms capable of generating probability estimates. In this work, we tested different models focusing mostly on logistic regression and random forest (Hastie et al., 2009). For both formalisms we tested multiple values of their corresponding hyperparameters including:

- Logistic regression: different thresholds for filtering out features with low variance, regularization type (L1 vs. L2), and the value of the regularization parameter
- Random forest: number of trees in a forest, maximum depth of a tree, minimum number of samples required to split a node, minimum number of samples at a leaf node, and a splitting criterion (Gini impurity vs. information gain).

The optimal values of these hyperparameters are found using a cross-validation procedure (Hastie et al., 2009), always evaluating the overall performance of the corresponding approach on independent test sets. The folds of the cross-validation are selected in a stratified manner ensuring that each train and test fold include roughly the same proportions of the two classes.

Additional care was taken to have all the data belonging to a single patient either in the training or in the test set in every fold of the cross-validation. In this way, we ensure that no leakage of patient’s future data takes place. Additionally, data preprocessing models are in each fold derived from the training set and just applied to the corresponding test set. Algorithms and models are developed using the Python language and libraries: scikit-learn, pandas, numpy and matplotlib.
4.2 Performance Metrics

In order to evaluate the performance of different predictive models, we have computed the Area Under the Receiver Operating Characteristics (AUROC; Fawcett, 2006), which is a commonly used metric in binary classification. The ROC curve graphically shows a number of possible operating points of a classifier, each corresponding to a specific trade-off between metrics called sensitivity and specificity. In our case, sensitivity represents the probability that truly occurring flares (within the specified time horizon of 3 months) will be recognized as such by a classifier. Similarly, specificity is the probability that truly not-occurring flares will be recognized as such by a classifier.

AUROC provides information about the discriminatory power of a classifier but doesn’t show how well a classifier is “calibrated”. A classifier is said to be well-calibrated if the predicted probability of a class matches that class’ expected frequency. Calibration is relevant in cases when predicting a class probability is important, in addition to predicting a class label. As we are interested in knowing a flare probability within the given time horizon, we’ve implemented calibration plots (Niculescu-Mizil et al., 2005) in addition to the ROC curves.

5 RESULTS

As mentioned before, mainly two algorithms (logistic regression and random forest) and values of their corresponding hyperparameters are evaluated. The best model turned out to be a random forest model, which reached AUROC of 0.796 ± 0.021 (mean ± one standard deviation). Its overall discriminatory performance is given in Fig. 2. Small differences between the AUROC values of the individual folds (summarized in the small standard deviation of their mean value) indicate the robustness of the random forest model.

Looking at these results we conclude that it is possible to predict the probability of a (future) flare using the routinely collected EMR data with reasonable accuracy. The most important group of predictors were (as expected) medication data, surprisingly followed by demographic data. Interestingly most of the examination and laboratory data played only a marginal role in the final model.

The performance of several other models (logistic regression and adaboost) was close to this best result obtained with random forests, having AUROC only 2 to 3 percent points lower. On the other hand, a couple of other models had significantly lower AUROC (k-NN, decision tree) of about 70%.

In addition to measuring the AUC, we also evaluated the model calibration. Fig. 3 shows a fair calibration plot, which indicates that the model is somewhat underconfident in predicting the probabilities between 20% and 80%. It is important to note that the plot relates to the default model; i.e. without any calibration measures undertaken. Most likely, the model calibration can be improved significantly using the standard approaches such as Platt Scaling or Isotonic Regression (Niculescu-Mizil et al., 2005).

![Figure 2: ROC curve of the best predictive random forest model.](image1.png)

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![Figure 3: Calibration plot of the best predictive model.](image2.png)
CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this work we showed that routinely collected EMR data has clinical utility in predicting future RA flare probability in patients treated with biological DMARDs in daily practice. Several predictive machine learning models were developed and tested with the best one having an AUROC of about 80%. This relatively good predictive power could enable decision support for physicians and patients to guide tapering of bDMARDs once low disease activity or remission is reached. This offers potential to lower the risk of adverse events, meet patients’ desire for drug holidays, lower the overall costs for expensive biological drug treatment and retain good control of disease activity in RA patients.

In the future we plan to validate, calibrate and test the generalizability of developed models and approaches using external patient data, coming from different clinics.

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