Sequential Networks for Predicting the Clinical Risk of Chronic Patients Using Drug Dispensation

Daniel Hijosa-Guzmán^{1,*}^a, María Teresa Jurado-Camino^{1,*}^b, Pablo de Miguel-Bohoyo² and Inmaculada Mora-Jiménez¹^a

¹Dept. Signal Theory and Communications, Telematics and Computing Systems, Rey Juan Carlos University, Madrid, Spain ²University Hospital of Fuenlabrada, Madrid, Spain

- Keywords: Temporal Patterns, Clinical Decision Support, Chronic Conditions, Patient Disease Trajectory, Pharmaceutical Treatment.
- Abstract: Chronic diseases are one of the leading causes of death worldwide, with diabetes, hypertension, congestive heart failure, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease among the most common ones. In this sense, the extraction of clinical patterns from the data recorded in the Electronic Health Record is of great interest and motivates research in models to predict the temporal evolution of the patient's health status. Predictive models would be of great help in the treatment of chronic patients to carry out preventive policies. Our approach considers the Gated Recurrent Unit neural network to extract temporal patterns of drug dispensation and to predict the progression of Chronic Conditions (CCs) towards a more complex health status. Real-world data linked to chronic patients of a Spanish hospital were considered, obtaining the most probable health status among a set of 10, including single dominant or moderate CCs, significant CCs in multiple organ systems, and dominant CC in three or more organ systems. Accuracy rates above 70% for single dominant or moderate CCs and nearly 50% for significant/dominant conditions across multiple organs were obtained. These results show the potential of sequential networks to predict the clinical risk of chronic patients and support clinical decision-making.

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY PUBLICATIONS

1 INTRODUCTION

The increase in life expectancy in developed countries has lead to a paradigm shift from high prevalence of acute diseases towards a dominance of Chronic Conditions (CC) (Pawlson, 1994). This increase in CC prevalence has a great impact in healthcare budgets (Anderson and Horvath, 2004), due to the need of providing sustained treatments (Care, 2019), particularly medications (Hoffman and et al, 2012) over time. In fact, the estimations foresee a continued increase in the prevalence of CC over the coming years (Ansah and Chiu, 2023) (Brennan and et al, 2017) and, by extension, a higher healthcare resources investment.

The increase in CC represents a challenge for

current healthcare systems, demanding a change in healthcare to emphasize prevention and early detection over treatment (Boyd and Fortin, 2010). One of the significant advances in healtcare systems has been the implementation of the Electronic Health Record (EHR), which allows the storage of a massive number of patient encounters (Miotto and et al, 2016), containing demographic and clinical data. These large data sets can be analysed by using data science and Machine Learning (ML) tools, in order to extract patterns which give value to health data. These information is specially valuable in a clinical environment, because can be used as a guide for healthcare professionals or healthcare resource managers.

In this paper we use data collected in the EHR of the University Hospital of Fuenlabrada (UHF) in Madrid (Spain), which encompass a total of 225.000 inhabitants. This research was previously approved by the Ethics Committee of the UHF. In our previous works related to the patient's health status analysis with CCs (Soguero et al., 2016) (Chushig et al., 2022) we considered both diagnosis and pharmacological

Hijosa-Guzmán, D., Jurado-Camino, M., de Miguel-Bohoyo, P. and Mora-Jiménez, I.

ISBN: 978-989-758-688-0; ISSN: 2184-4305

^a https://orcid.org/0009-0005-1919-5682

^b https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5646-1290

^c https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5241-596X

^d https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0735-367X

^{*}These authors contributed equally to this work.

Sequential Networks for Predicting the Clinical Risk of Chronic Patients Using Drug Dispensation.

DOI: 10.5220/0012321800003657

Paper published under CC license (CC BY-NC-ND 4.0)

In Proceedings of the 17th International Joint Conference on Biomedical Engineering Systems and Technologies (BIOSTEC 2024) - Volume 2, pages 37-44

Proceedings Copyright © 2024 by SCITEPRESS – Science and Technology Publications, Lda

codes registered in the EHR during the patient's encounters with the healthcare system for a year, concluding that codes associated with drugs were the most informative ones (Chushig et al., 2021). Since this conclusion is in line with the physician's knowledge, we will only use data related to the patient's encounters with the pharmacy system. Additionally, in our previous works we only used data registered during one year, and this is our first work analyzing the patients' health status progression over a span of four years. In this paper we also increase the number of considered CC. Specifically we analyse the health progression of chronic patients with one or several of the following CC: Diabetes (DIA), Congestive Heart Failure (CHF), Hypertension (HT) and Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD). It is known that past clinical and life style events have impact in the current patient's health status (Petrides and et al, 2019). Since when CCs emerge they persist throughout the individual's lifetime, the temporal analysis of the patient's health status is of great importance to implement healthcare policies and to support efficient and sustainable health systems. Also, to assist practitioners in their clinical decision-making, we propose here to use sequential networks. The goal is to predict the clinical worsening of chronic patients over time, identifying those chronic patients with higher risk of developing additional CCs.

In the field of data-driven systems and ML, Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) (Levin, 1990) have been used in a variety of applications for dealing with sequential data (Wang and Wang, 2017). In RNN, the network architecture (with input layer, recurrent layer and output layer) allows to maintain a hidden state (recurrent layer) capturing information about previous inputs (previous temporal data in the sequence). However, the use of the original RNN architecture has been limited mainly because of the lack of long-term memory and phenomena like the vanishing gradient during training (Muraki and et al, 2022). To address these limitations, architectures such as Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) have been proposed (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997). LSTM contains a kind of memory, known as "forget gate" which enables the storage of information over a longer period than traditional RNN. Studies like (Muraki and et al, 2022) show that LSTMs are more efficient than conventional RNNs, in this case for the detection of myocardial infarction. The main drawback of LSTM is the complexity of its architecture, with a large number of parameters to be determined. To simplify the LSTM architecture, authors in (Cho and et al., 2014) proposed to merge some of their units, leading to the Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU). RNN, LSTM and GRU have

been used to extract knowledge from EHR data due to their ability to handle the sparsity and the irregularity collection of the data (Liang and Guo, 2023). A comparison among these three architectures and simpler models such as Näive Bayes was presented in (Barwal and Raheja, 2022) for medical recommendation systems, showing that GRU offered the best performance.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows. Section 2 presents our database and associated preprocessing. Section 3 explains the GRU network. Section 4 details the experimental work and results. Conclusions and discussion are drawn in Section 5.

2 DATA DESCRIPTION AND PRE-PROCESSING

This section begins by presenting the system used to identify chronic patients and continues showing a descriptive analysis of the database. Finally, we explain the process to adequate the database for utilization by sequential neural models.

2.1 Clinical Risk Groups

The population classification system named Clinical Risk Groups (CRG), internationally validated (Hughes et al., 2004) and also used in our previous works (Soguero et al., 2016) (Soguero et al., 2020), is also considered here to determine the ground truth patient's health status. The CRG system is fed with demographic data and patient's clinical encounters encompassing diagnoses, procedures and medications for a time period, typically one year. As a result, the CRG system assigns every patient to one of the 1080 health groups specified by the CRG system. We only consider data associated with patients older than 18 years.

The CRG categories characterizing the patient's health status are identified by a 5-digit code. The first digit represents the Core Health Status (CHS), being a number from 1 to 9 with the following meaning: 1, healthy; 2, significant acute disease; 3, single minor CC; 4, minor CC in multiple organ system; 5, single dominant or moderate CC; 6, significant CCs in multiple organ systems; 7, dominant CC in 3 or more organ systems; 8, dominant and metastatic malignancies; and 9, catastrophic condition. Note that CCs are considered in numbers from 5 to 7, and therefore CRG categories starting with these numbers are considered in this work. The next three digits of the CRG code represent a more specific health condition and the whole number until the fourth digit is referred

as base-CRG. The fifth digit of the CRG code refers to the severity level of the medical condition. It has not been considered in this study because of the consequent increase in the number of CRG groups related to chronic health statuses, and the inherent reduction in the number of patients per CRG group, which would make the design of data-driven models more difficult. The CRG system considers demographic data (age and sex) and clinical attributes such as diagnoses coded by the International Classification Disease (ICD) system, and drugs coded by the Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical (ATC) classification system (Ronning, 2002) recorded along a period of time, usually one year in order to allocate.

The CRGs considered in this study are linked to the CCs indicated in Section 1, resulting in a total of 10 base-CRGs: 3 linked to the core health status identified by number 5, 3 to the core health status with number 6, and 4 to the more complex health status with dominant CC in 3 or more organ systems. For each base-CRG, we provide next statistics (mean and standard deviation) of the number of patients per year (#*pats*), percentage of women (%*W*) and age (*Age*):

CRG-5179 (CHF)

#pats: 144.5±11.3; %W: 66.05±3.4; Age: 70.3±14.3

CRG-5192 (HT) #pats: 13307.7±654.7; %W: 55.0±0.6; Age: 58.6±12.4

CRG-5424 (DM) #*pats*: 2782.2±6192.9; %W: 40.1±0.2; *Age*: 54.4±15.4

CRG-6190 (CHF and COPD) #pats: 128.5±3.6; %W: 42.1±2.8; Age: 74.1±13.1

CRG-6191 (CHF and DIA) #pats: 153.7±7.9; %W: 62.9±3.9; Age: 73.4±12.3

CRG-6313 (HT and DIA) #*pats*: 4061.7±171.6; %W: 49.8±6.0; *Age*: 64.5±11.6

CRG-7060 (CHF, DIA and COPD)

#pats: 204.5±19.6; %W: 55.3±4.9; *Age*: 76.6±10.8

CRG-7080 (CHF, DIA and other CC) #*pats*: 112.5±10.2; %W: 60.6±2.4; *Age*: 76.3±12.4

CRG-7081 (CHF, COPD and other CC) #pats: 231.7±21.3; %W: 53.1±1.3; Age: 80.7±11.4

CRG-7140 (HT, DIA and other CC)

#pats: 3606±79.6; %W: 56.7±2.0; Age: 68.5±11.3

Note that there is no specific CRG group for COPD in the CHS with number 5. The CRG system always considers COPD in combination with other CCs.

The clinical information collected in the EHR depends on the patient's encounters with the healthcare system. Thus, if a patient does not have any medical visits throughout the considered time period, no diagnosis will be recorded for that period in the EHR. Similarly, if the medical visit is not apparently related with the CC, the CC will not be registered even when it is present forever. Also, in the EHR of the UHF, clinical information is registered as text by the practitioner and it is necessary a post-processing stage (usually by an expert) to translate to clinical codes the text notes registered by the medical staff.

In the case of medical treatment, the UHF provides us with drugs: (1) monthly withdrawn by the patient in any pharmacy of the Madrid region (regardless of whether a medical visit is associated or not); and (2) daily administered to the patient when hospitalized in the UHF. In both cases drugs are provided by using ATC codes, being possible to access them on a monthly basis.

2.2 Preprocessing for Temporal Analysis

Since the patient's health status can vary over time, Figure 1 illustrates the patient's migration among the 9 CHS of the considered base-CRGs for the whole database of patients linked to the UHF. These migrations are conditioned by data registered in the EHR of the UHF. Therefore, if a patient linked to the UHF visits this hospital in year A and the same patient visits both the UHF and another hospital in year A+1, since EHRs of both hospitals are not connected, only data registered in UHF will be considered to determine the patient's health status. This fact justifies, for example, migrations from a chronic disease to non-chronic disease from one year to another, what it is not possible from a clinical viewpoint. When observing the patient's health status over time, it can be interpreted as a pattern for the "patient's trajectory". In our work, we encode this pattern as a temporal sequence of 4 numbers, where each number denotes the CHS indicated by the base-CRG during each of the four years of the temporal sequence considered.

In Figure 1, each CHS is represented by a different color, with oval shapes encompassing patients assigned to each one. Straight lines represent migrations between CHS in two consecutive years, with the line thickness being proportional to the number of patients changing their CHS. Note that the thickest lines are between consecutive numbers in the CHS.

As for the "patient's trajectory" pattern, we must emphasize that, for chronic patients (CHS from 5 to 7) migrations to a lower CHS are not clinically possible. However, the CRG system can assign to the chronic patient a lower number in the base-CRG in Year_{*A*+1} with respect to that in Year_{*A*}. As previously discussed, this can be motivated because of the lack of clinical encounters. Therefore, while clinically this situation might be deemed as an inappropriate patient's assignment to the base-CRG, it is in accordance with the data recorded for a specific time period.

In this paper we will use patient data for whom the CRG system has assigned at least one of the base-CRGs within the scope of any of the four years under examination. Furthermore, we will take into account that each patient's trajectory is clinically valid. Note that the number of patients in each base-CRG varies annually. On the one hand, certain patients can worsen their health status and consequently be assigned to another of the base-CRGs considered in this work. On the other hand, it is also possible that even if the assigned base-CRG corresponds to a worsening in the patient's health status, the new base-CRG may not be taken into account in this study.



Figure 1: Diagram for the patterns of the "patient's trajectory".

2.2.1 ATC Selection

To characterize the drug pattern of each patient, a binary feature vector with as many elements as different ATC codes there exist (3430), is created. Elements of the vector for which the drug is included in the patient's EHR are set to '1'. In our previous studies (Soguero et al., 2020) (Chushig et al., 2020) (Jurado et al., 2023), these feature vectors have been used to create profiles of drugs as an exploratory tool. Each base-CRG has a characteristic drug profile, defined as a vector with as many elements as different ATC codes there are (3430). Each vector element contains the percentage of patients for whom that drug appears in their EHR over a period of time of one year. Therefore, the drug profile of each base-CRG shows the most prevalent drugs in a specific population.

Since the dimension of the vector representing the patient is large in comparison with the number of patients in some of the base-CRG (e.g. CRG-5179, CRG-6190 or CRG-7080), and most of the vector elements are zero, the drug profiles are also used as a feature selection tool. Thus, the annual drug profile is computed for each base-CRG and it is subtracted from the drug profile linked to one of the base-CRG in

the CHS with number 5 (the one with the lowest drug consumption). Only ATC codes whose absolute difference in percentage exceeds 5 percent (heuristically determined by the physicians) are selected. This leads to a reduction in the dimension vector from 3430 features to 161 features.

2.2.2 Monthly ATC Vectors

It is convenient to pre-process the binary ATC vectors so that there is no spurious zero values in drugs usually used to deal with CCs when fed to the RNN architectures. Apart from that, no pre-processing could cause difficulties in learning due to the presence of feature vectors with all elements being zero. Therefore, since drug data should be regularly provided for dealing with CCs, later in this document we will use sliding windows (Qiao and et al, 2003) to propagate the value '1' linked to a specific drug over a few months. Though the sliding window length can directly affect to the model performance, results provided in this work have been obtained with a length of three months. This value has been heuristically determined to reduce the noise that would be produced by considering only monthly records. Note that the patient could be on vacation away from the Madrid region and the medications dispensed in this period would not be recorded in the considered EHR. Therefore, patients would be represented with a vector of all zeros regardless of their real health status. As a compromise solution, and after a previous study in which window lengths of 2, 3, 4 and 5 months were evaluated, we decided to choose the 3-month window length.

Though interesting, a systematic study of the sliding window length to provide recommendations for choosing the appropriate window length is out of the scope of this work.

To illustrate this pre-processing, the upper panel in Figure 2 shows the window length encompassing drug feature vectors over three months for a certain patient. For each sliding window, the most recent month is considered as the "center" of the window (represented by a stethoscope). Sliding windows are depicted by rectangular shapes in the same color as that of the corresponding stethoscope. Elements in the drug feature vector set to '1' (registered in the patient's EHR) in that specific month are marked by a symbol (different symbol per drug).

The bottom panel shows the pre-processed drug feature vectors, with marks (triangles and stars) indicating values set to '1', either because the original vector had this value or because one of the two previous months (encompassed by the sliding window) had it.

ã



Figure 2: Upper panel represents the original binary vectors assigned to certain patient from January to March. Bottom panel shows the pre-processed vector for the same months after applying the sliding window of 3-month length, which center is positioned in the month indicated by the stethoscope symbol in the upper panel.

3 GATED RECURRENT **NETWORKS**

RNNs stand out by its ability to work with longitudinal data by using interconnected cells in the recurrent layer of neurons. Vectors $\mathbf{x}^{<t>}$ are presented to each cell. Additionally, in the recurrent layer the output of every cell, known as the *hidden state* $\mathbf{a}^{<t>}$, is also considered as input to the next cell (related to the next "time instant"). Thus, the hidden state of the cell is propagated throughout the network and contains information of previous time data, which are successively transmitted to the following cells. The hidden state $\mathbf{a}^{<t>}$ is obtained using Eq. (1), being $\mathbf{a}^{<t-1>}$ the previous cell state and $\mathbf{x}^{<t>}$ the new temporal input vector (Jordan et al., 2021)

$$\mathbf{a}^{\langle t \rangle} = g(\mathbf{W}_a[\mathbf{a}^{\langle t-1 \rangle}, \mathbf{x}^{\langle t \rangle}] + \mathbf{b}_a)$$
(1)

with g(.) the activation function, \mathbf{W}_a the coefficient matrix and \mathbf{b}_a the bias learned during training. The main drawback of traditional RNNs is that they are highly sensitive to the most recent events regardless the importance of older events. This has lead to new RNN-based architectures such as the GRU-RNN approach (Liang and Guo, 2023), which can be divided in two different stages: the encoding stage, where the information is stored in the hidden states; and the decoding stage, with the purpose of making predictions $y^{<t>}$ according to the current and past input vectors. In our scenario, predictions are associated with the clinical risk of the patient for each of the ten base-CRGs here considered. Cells in the recurrent layer of the GRU-RNN consider two functions named as Γ , working as gates that control what is stored in the hidden state, performing as a memory. On the one hand, the reset gate Γ_r selects the information of the hidden state that the network should keep/forget. On the other hand, the update gate Γ_u determines how much the network parameters should be modified according to the Γ_r gate. Finally, \mathbf{W}_r , \mathbf{W}_u and \mathbf{W}_a are coefficient matrices to be determined in training.



Figure 3: GRU-RNN architecture composed by 24 cells (each cell is linked to monthly data for two consecutive years). Colored in green is the pre-processed sample vector, in yellow the initialization vector.

The set of functions in the GRU architecture can be summarized by the following equations:

$$\Gamma_r = \sigma(\mathbf{W}_r[\mathbf{a}^{}, \mathbf{x}^{}])$$

$$\Gamma_u = \sigma(\mathbf{W}_u[\mathbf{a}^{}, \mathbf{x}^{}])$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{a}}^{} = \tanh(\mathbf{W}_a[\Gamma_r * \mathbf{a}^{}, \mathbf{x}^{}])$$

$$\mathbf{a}^{} = (1 - \Gamma_u) * \mathbf{a}^{} + \Gamma_u * \tilde{\mathbf{a}}^{}$$

where σ and tanh denotes the logistic and hyperbolic tangent function, respectively. The GRU-RNN architecture considered in this work as the encoder stage is shown in Figure 3. Note that the recurrent layer is composed of 24 cells. The predicted base-CRG is obtained as the one linked to the maximum value of

$$\mathbf{y}^{} = softmax(\mathbf{W}_f \mathbf{a}^{<24>} + \mathbf{b}_f)$$

with \mathbf{W}_f and \mathbf{b}_f being the coefficient matrix and bias vector to be learned. Next section provides details about the processing applied to the original sequences to determine the number of required cells.

EXPERIMENTAL SETUP AND 4 **RESULTS**

The set of patients X presented in Section 2 is split into design (X_D) and test sets (X_T) , with the proportion of 70%- 30% and following a criterion related to the pattern of the "patient's trajectory". Thus, if there is only one patient in the database associated with a four-year trajectory pattern, the patient is assigned to X_D . However, in cases where several patients follow the same pattern, they are randomly assigned to X_D and X_T , trying to maintain the split proportion in design and test sets. Next, the X_D set is split into training (X_{train}) and validation (X_{val}) subsets in a 80% -20% proportion (Bishop, 2010).

As previously indicated, sequences of four years (48 months) can have many zero vectors, hampering the network training. To address this issue, we propose here to deal with sequences of two consecutive years (instead of four years) and discard those sequences such that the target base-CRG is not one of those considered in Section 2. Thus, for each patient we generated three potential inputs to the sequential network, each one composed by two consecutive years, i.e., $Year_A$ -Year_{A+1}, $Year_{A+1}$ -Year_{A+2}, and Year $_{A+2}$ -Year $_{A+3}$. Each sequence of two years is composed by 24 ATC binary vectors (one per month). As illustrated in Figure 4, we have only considered sequences of two consecutive years such that the base-CRG linked to the most recent year is among those in Section 2. For those sequences, the target output in the sequential network is the base-CRG of the most recent year.



Figure 4: Two patients and corresponding base-CRG for four consecutive years (from Year_A to Year_{A+3}). Green color denotes ATC vectors of the year associated with one of the considered base-CRG, while yellow color indicates that the base-CRG is not one of those indicated in Section 2. For each patient, the three right panels show the three pairs of two consecutive years. Only pairs such that the most recent year is green-coloured are kept, with the rest of pairs being discarded (see red arrows).

Experiments with two GRU-RNN architectures were performed. We first consider a basic architecture as the one presented in Figure 3, composed of a total of 24 input cells (each cell with a binary 161dimensional input, as indicated in Section 2) and just using temporal data, with $\mathbf{a}^{<0>}$ initialized to zero values. Secondly, we extend this architecture to include non-temporal data in the form of context information as age. This is motivated by the exploratory analysis in Section 2, showing a different value of the average age for some base-CRGs. For this purpose, a layer of 161 neurons is used to transform the scalar input (age) into a 161-dimensional vector $\mathbf{a}^{<0>}$ that can be fed to the GRU-RNN. Note that the second architecture also requires to find during training the parameter's vector linked to the age layer. Before training, the age feature is normalized within the interval [0, 1] by applying a robust to outliers scaler using the 5th percentile and the 95th percentile of the age distribution in X_{train} as a substitute for the min-max normalization.

For both architectures the network learning is performed using the Adam algorithm (Kingma and Ba, 2015) with early stopping (Bishop, 2010) on the validation loss function (*cross-entropy*). For the *learning* rate we explored a range of values between 0.005 and 0.01, with almost no difference in performance when considering different values. However, the batch size was very influential, with very bad results when it was lower than 100 sequences. This may be motivated because using less than 100 sequences associated with 10 different targets did not statistically encompass a representative number of the ten base-CRGs. Due to the high class imbalance in our data set, also a weighted cost function was applied to penalize errors in the minority classes in the same proportion than in the majority class. Analyzing the evolution of the loss function on the validation set, we observed that convergence is achieved in 175 epochs for the basic GRU-RNN architecture, and even before when including the patient's age.

The prediction results are presented as confusion matrices in Fig. 5 for both models: panel (a) for the basic GRU-RNN architecture, and (b) when including the age. Values presented in cells in Figure 5 represent percentages relative to the total number of sequences for each class on the test set (i.e., the sum of values in each row is 1). The number of considered two-year sequences after pre-processing in the design/test sets is (in ascending order of the base-CRG number): 328/64, 1937/736, 950/593, 255/91, 323/97, 1306/652, 375/207, 217/88, 436/182, 629/344.

The analysis of these results evidences that the prediction of the base-CRGs associated with the CHS with number 5 (single dominant or moderate CC) is quite accurate (above 70% for all base-CRGS and even reaching 90% in some cases). For the rest of the base-CRGs, results are not so impressive but also are quite reasonable (values nearly to or above 50% in most cases) taking into account there are 10 classes (random choice corresponds to an accuracy of 10%) and that CHS with numbers 6 and 7 correspond to complex health statuses. Most of the misclassifications are between base-CRGs related with the same CC, excepting the CRG 6190 (CHF and COPD), which the GRU-RNN assigns to the CRG 5424 (DIA). We speculate this could be motivated by medications such as acetylsalicylic acid, used in diabetic patients



Figure 5: Confusion Matrix on the test set: (a) Considering the GRU-RNN architecture using only ATC codes; (b) Considering the GRU-RNN architecture with ATC codes and demographic data.

for the primary prevention of cardiovascular problems. Interestingly, when the age is included in the GRU-RNN, the CRG 5192 (HT) is the one with more incorrect assignments, probably because the average age in the base-CRG 5192 is more similar to that in the CRG 6190 (when compared to the age in the CRG 5424). When comparing percentages of both confusion matrices, note that more sequences are assigned to the CRG 5192 when including age as context information.

5 CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

Chronic diseases have a significant sociosanitary and economic impact on the healthcare systems, as evidenced by the substantial investments made by healthcare authorities. In this scenario, the use of ML-based tools to extract knowledge from longitudinal data registered in the EHR is of vital importance for finding associations among features and the clinical progression of patients. In this way, the future patient's health status could be predicted, thereby facilitating the implementation of preventive measures and enhancing the effectiveness of strategic planning.

In this paper, several pre-processing stages have been considered to handle the temporal dimension of the data, from the use of sliding windows to the split of the original four-year sequence. This split allowed to simultaneously reduce both the number of cells

(and associated parameters) in the GRU-RNN and increase the number of observations used for learning. As a future work, we propose to replace the sliding window with the use of a "forget factor function" which exponentially gives less weight to the registration of ATC codes as time evolves. On the one hand, the use of such a function would allow to have numerical (non-binary) vectors for the sequential data, probably enhancing the learning process. On the other hand, a different decay rate of the exponential weighting function could be used for generic drugs and for specific drugs for dealing with CCs, therefore including context information in the temporal sequence. Also, to overcome the class imbalance in training it could be convenient to use synthetic sequences by means of Generative Adversarial Networks (Jurado et al., 2023).

The use of GRU-RNN networks for predicting the clinical risk of chronic patients has been evaluated in this work. Taking into account that we considered 10 base-CRGs (targets) and that the gold-standard was determined including more clinical data (diagnoses and procedures) than those considered here, our results are quite promising. In particular, accuracy rates higher than 70% were achieved for single dominant or moderate CC, and close to 50% for significant or dominant CCs in multiple organs. Though the results obtained by incorporating the demographic layer did not improve significantly those achieved when considering only ATC codes, our findings highlight the importance of including contextual information in certain situations, showing the potential of the con-

sidered architecture. It is clear that considering other data related to genetic factors or lifestyle can introduce some context to the network that could improve considerably our results.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This work has been partly supported by the Spanish Research Agency, grant number PID2019-106623RB-C41/AEI/10.13039/501100011033 (Big Theory), PID2022-136887NB-I00 (POLIGRAPH) and by the European Union NextGeneration-EU funds (Youth Employment Plan of the Spanish Government) in the INVESTIGO project with reference URJC-AI-11.

REFERENCES

- Anderson, G. and Horvath, J. (2004). The growing burden of chronic disease in america. *Public Health Reports*, 119(3):263–70.
- Ansah, J. P. and Chiu, C.-T. (2023). Projecting the chronic disease burden among the adult population in the united states using a multi-state population model. *Frontiers in Public Health*, 10:1082183.
- Barwal, R. K. and Raheja, N. (2022). Comparative analysis of recommendation systems based on medical data sets. In *Intl Conf on Advances in Computing, Comm. Control and Networking*, pages 739–46. IEEE.
- Bishop, C. M. (2010). Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning. Springer.
- Boyd, C. M. and Fortin, M. (2010). Future of multimorbidity research: how should understanding of multimorbidity inform health system design? *Public Health Reviews*, 32(2):451–74.
- Brennan, P. and et al (2017). Chronic disease research in europe and the need for integrated population cohorts. *European Journal of Epidemiology*, 32:741–49.
- Care, D. (2019). Standards of medical care in diabetes 2019. *Diabetes Care*, 42(Suppl 1):S124–38.
- Cho, K. and et al. (2014). Learning phrase representations using RNN encoder-decoder for statistical machine translation. arXiv preprint arXiv:1406.1078.
- Chushig, D., Soguero, C., de Miguel, P., and Mora, I. (2021). Interpreting clinical latent representations using autoencoders and probabilistic models. *Artificial Intelligence in Medicine*, 122:102211.
- Chushig, D., Soguero, C., de Miguel, P., and Mora, I. (2022). Learning and visualizing chronic latent representations using electronic health records. *BioData Mining*, 15(1):1–27.
- Chushig, D., Soguero, C., Engelbrecht, A., de Miguel, P., and Mora, I. (2020). Data-driven visual characterization of patient health-status using electronic health records and self-organizing maps. *IEEE*, 8:137019– 31.

- Hochreiter, S. and Schmidhuber, J. (1997). Long Short-Term Memory. *Neural Computation*, 9(8):1735–80.
- Hoffman, J. M. and et al (2012). Projecting future drug expenditures—2012. American Journal of Health-System Pharmacy, 69(5):405–21.
- Hughes, J. S., Averill, R. F., et al. (2004). Clinical risk groups (crgs): a classification system for risk-adjusted capitation-based payment and health care management. *Medical Care*, pages 81–90.
- Jordan, I. D., Sokół, P. A., and Park, I. M. (2021). Gated recurrent units viewed through the lens of continuous time dynamical systems. *Frontiers in Computational Neuroscience*, 15:678158.
- Jurado, T., Chushig, D., Soguero, C., de Miguel, P., and Mora, I. (2023). On the use of generative adversarial networks to predict health status among chronic patients. In *Intl Conf Health Informatics*, pages 167–78.
- Kingma, D. P. and Ba, J. L. (2015). Adam : A method for stochastic optimization. In *Intl Conf on Learning Representations*.
- Levin, E. (1990). A recurrent neural network: Limitations and training. *Neural Networks*, 3(6):641–50.
- Liang, Y. and Guo, C. (2023). Heart failure disease prediction and stratification with temporal electronic health records data using patient representation. *Biocybernetics and Biomedical Engineering*, 43(1):124–41.
- Miotto, R. and et al (2016). Deep patient: an unsupervised representation to predict the future of patients from the electronic health records. *Scientific Reports*, 6(1):1–10.
- Muraki, R. and et al (2022). Automated detection scheme for acute myocardial infarction using convolutional neural network and long short-term memory. *PLOS ONE*, 17(2):1–22.
- Pawlson, L. G. (1994). Chronic illness: implications of a new paradigm for health care. *The Joint Commission Journal on Quality Improvement*, 20(1):33–39.
- Petrides, J. and et al (2019). Lifestyle changes for disease prevention. *Primary Care: Clinics in Office Practice*, 46(1):1–12.
- Qiao, L. and et al (2003). Supporting sliding window queries for continuous data streams. In *Intl Conf* on Scientific and Statistical Database Management, pages 85–94. IEEE.
- Ronning, M. (2002). A historical overview of the atc/ddd methodology. World Health Organization Drug Information, 16(3):233.
- Soguero, C., Alonso, N., Muñoz, S., Rojo, J. L., Rubio, M., Caballero, I., and Mora, I. (2020). Finding associations among chronic conditions by bootstrap and multiple correspondence analysis. In *Intl Conf on Bioinformatics and Biomedicine*, pages 2066–73. IEEE.
- Soguero, C., de Miguel, P., and Mora, I. (2016). A datadriven model based on support vector machine to identify chronic hypertensive and diabetic patients. In *Phys. Computing Systems*, pages 110–29. Springer.
- Wang, H. and Wang, L. (2017). Modeling temporal dynamics and spatial configurations of actions using twostream recurrent neural networks. In *IEEE Conf on Computer Vis. and Pattern Recogn.*, pages 499–508.