

Interrelations between Drug Prescriptions and Diagnoses for SHI Diabetes Patients using Graph Theoretic Methods and a Markov Model

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Abstract: We analyze large data sets of diabetes patients in order to get new insights into the dependencies between drug groups and diagnoses using age, polypharmacy and multimorbidity as covariates. Diagnostic data using the ICD-10 classification are available with the resolution of quarters. For drugs the exact day of prescription is available. The analysis uses all co-medication and all diagnoses of all physicians a patient has consulted within a quarter and is thereby wider than the point of view related to a special physician. The communication between physicians may be confounded by information deficits due to informal self-diagnostics by the patients. Differently specialized physicians may apply different guidelines which point to specific diseases. Interactions between different drugs and different therapy schemes may lead to new diseases for multimorbid patients. Large data sets create opportunities to detect such interactions. We use a graph theoretic approach with drug groups as nodes. Using a diagnose vector edges are given by therapeutic neighborhood using the Manhattan distance. A graph clustering determines drug groups for similarly sick patients which contains indirectly age and multimorbidity. This can explain cost effects due to the degree of sickness. The graph clustering uses the modularity method. The underlying algorithm leads to an integer linear program (ILP) which is in general NP-hard. For the calculations we use Mathematica from Wolfram Research in combination with a python program using CPLEX from IBM. Drug innovations may lead to changes in drug therapy. Therefore we compare the steady state solution of the related Markov model with the status quo of drug prescription.

1 INTRODUCTION

In 2017, 425 million people were suffering from diabetes worldwide, risen up steadily from an estimated 382 million people in 2013, cf. (International Diabetes Federation, 2017), (Shi and Hu, 2014), (World Health Organization, 2016). Diabetes mellitus creates a significant clinical and economic burden on society, cf. (Songer et al., 1998), (American Diabetes Association, 1998), (Klein, 2007). Given those numbers and economic effects, improving care for patients with diabetes mellitus has become a priority to national health plans, payers, and patients in many countries. The number and complexity of services requi-

red to manage such patients in accord with the accepted guidelines chose diabetes mellitus to become the target of multiple disease management efforts and initiatives, as well in the fields of professional education as in case management. In the present analysis comorbidities for diabetic patients and their relation to the drugs prescribed are considered using the ICD-10- (International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems 10th Revision) and ATC-classifications (Anatomic Therapeutic Chemical). We consider how the related diagnoses differ with respect to different antidiabetic drugs at ATC 5th level (Chemical substance). On the one hand the drug treatment quality depends on the dia-

gnoses related national and international guidelines. On the other hand one has to pay attention to aspects of drug prescription efficiency is of crucial importance. Both result in management tools for the statutory health insurance like regional target agreements. Models should help to find optimal solutions with respect to both aspects. The considered drugs are taken as nodes of a graph and edges are given by the most equal diagnostic structure. Starting with the local neighborhood, we get a global graph structure and analyze characteristics such as graph center or graph periphery and the graph community structure, cf. (Schuster and Emcke, 2018). Multimorbidity and polypharmacy are major problems in elderly patients. On average, patients above 70 years of age have drugs from more than seven drug groups at 3rd ATC level (four digits) administered as a daily regime. We analyze the change of the prescriptions from one quarter to the next by a Markov Model in order get information about the stability of the present medication in 2018 and compare the years 2013 and 2018 with respect to the patients age and sex.

2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

We analyze all treatments and prescriptions of physicians for patients of the statutory health insurance (SHI) by SHI physicians in Schleswig-Holstein, an administration district in northern Germany (Bundesland). Thereby, we compare treatment and prescription data from the first and second quarter of 2018 (two successive quarters with respect to the Markov model) and the second quarter of 2013 in order to get a five year comparison. The analysis is patient-centered, meaning that the datasets of all treatments and prescriptions of all physicians regarding an individual patient are used. The dataset of the second quarter of 2018 covers 1,690,683 patients with diagnoses and 1,383,489 patients with drug prescriptions using a pseudonymized patient identity with age and sex informations. We utilize the three-character level of the International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems [ICD]. The same diagnoses for the same patient by different physicians are not counted repeatedly. For the prescription analysis the International Anatomic Therapeutic Chemical (ATC) classification system with German specifications provided by the German Institute of Medical Documentation and Information (DIMDI) is used. As antidiabetic drugs, we define the drugs of the ATC drug groups A10A (insulins and analogues) and A10B (blood glucose lowering drugs, excl. insulins). There are 208,265 patients with diabetes E10-

E14 (Diabetes mellitus) or O24 (Diabetes mellitus in pregnancy) and 131,296 patients of 65 years of age and older among them. Thereby the diabetes prevalence regarding all patients within the statutory health insurance and diagnosed with diabetes is 8.4 % and the rate of persons insured benefitting from antidiabetic drug therapy is 4.7 %, respectively. For persons of 65 years of age and older, we obtain prevalence values of 23.5 % regarding diagnoses and 18.3 % regarding antidiabetic drug therapy. For each drug d by ATC 5th level we consider which fraction of patients has certain diagnoses (ICD at the three digit level). Thereby we get an n -dimensional vector v_d (n the number of diagnoses) and a Manhattan distance of two such vectors. We use drugs d by ATC 5th level (7 digits) as vertices of a graph. With respect to each drug d we can select $m=1, 2, 3$ other drug(s) at that ATC 5th level with smallest distance and get the top 1 to top 3 directed graphs with edges determined by that distance neighborhood and the induced undirected graphs G . For these graphs we construct graph communities using the modularity method. This is done by an ILP (integer linear program) which is NP-hard. A related LP (linear program) can be solved in polynomial time and finally we have to apply a post-processing step: the rounding of the LP to an ILP result, cf. (Shinano et al., 2003), (Newman, 2006), (Agarwal and Kempe, 2008). Further graph characteristics are the vertex eccentricity which gives the length of the longest shortest path from the source u to every other vertex v in the graph G , the graph periphery gives vertices that are maximally distant to at least one vertex in the graph G and the graph center gives the set of vertices with minimum eccentricity in the graph G . If we use transition coefficients for the change of antidiabetic drugs of patients from one quarter the next, we obtain a Markov model. We solve the related eigenvalue problem for the resulting 32-dimensional matrix. We look for an eigenvector of a maximal eigenvalue with components of the same sign in order to get a stable solution, which we can compare with the present fractions of antidiabetic drugs. These drugs will be considered in relation to patients' diagnoses, age, multimorbidity and polypharmacy.

3 RESULTS

36.8 % of the diabetes patients with drug therapy are treated with metformin having average drug costs of 18.73 Euro per quarter (2nd quarter of 2018). 41.6 % of the patients are treated with cost rising up to 50.00 Euros using glibenclamide (A10BB01), metformin (A10BA02), glimepiride (A10BB12), gliquidone

(A10BB08) and gliclazide (A10BB09) in ascending order to their costs. All these are in the drug group of sulfonylureas. The next interval from 50 to 100 Euro of pharmacological costs includes only 0.3 % of the patients. In the range of 100 to 150 (150 to 200, above 200) Euros of drug costs, there are 29.5 % (15.1 %, 13.5 %) of the patients. Mean drug costs per quarter above 200 Euros are needed for empagliflozin (A10BK03), insulin aspart fast-acting (A10AB05), insulin lispro intermediate- or long-acting combined with fast-acting (A10AD04), insulin lispro fast-acting (A10AB04), dulaglutide (A10BJ05), exenatide (A10BJ01) and liraglutide (A10BJ02) again in ascending order to their cost per quarter. The inequality of costs is described with a Lorenz curve (cf. figure 1 right) having a Gini coefficient of 0.428. If different drug groups have been prescribed for the same patient she or he is assigned to the drug group with the highest costs.

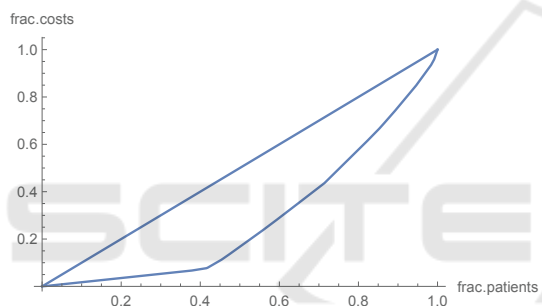


Figure 1: Lorenz curve for fractions of costs and patients for antidiabetic drug treatment.

The drugs differ in mean age and mean polypharmacy degree (number of different ATC codes at four digit level) for the related patient group. We consider the convex hull in the age-polypharmacy-plane for drugs which are prescribed at least 1,000 times per quarter. The convex hull (cf. Figure 2) is spanned by insulin aspart fast-acting (A10AB05), metformin and dapagliflozin (A10BD15), glibenclamide (A10BB01), insulin (human) intermediate- or long-acting combined with fast-acting (A10AD01) and dulaglutide (A10BJ05). The most frequently prescribed metformin (A10BA02) has a middle age and a lower polypharmacy position in the convex hull, cf. Figure 2.

The correlation between degree of multimorbidity (number of different ICD codes at three digit level) and polypharmacy (number of different ATC codes at four digit level (3rd level of ATC)) is 0.52. Multimorbidity and polypharmacy are related, but do not follow a linear relationship. Not every disease had to be treated by drugs and interaction of drugs may result

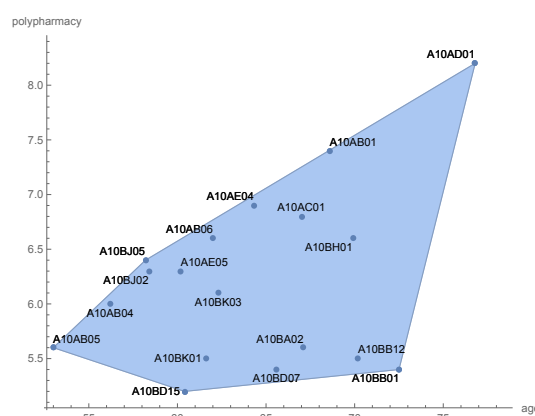


Figure 2: Diabetic ATC codes in dependence of mean age and mean polypharmacy.

in complications, therefore the physicians try to reduce the number of drugs as much as possible. We look at the number of diabetes patents with *i* drugs and *j* diseases at the mentioned level in Figure 6.

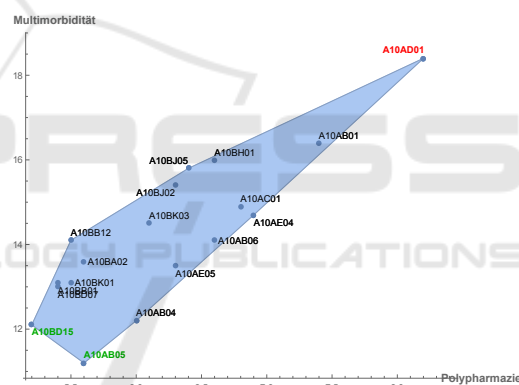


Figure 3: Diabetic ATC codes in dependence of mean multimorbidity and mean polypharmacy.

In Figure 3 we consider the substances at the 5th level of ATC prescribed at least 1,000 times per quarter in the multimorbidity-polypharmacy plane again with its convex hull. With the aggregation on the substance level, we obtain a correlation coefficient of 0.85 which is much higher than on the individual level. Extreme low positions of multimorbidity and polypharmacy show the combination treatment by metformin and dapagliflozin (A10BD15) and insulin aspart fast-acting (A10AB05). The highest position in polypharmacy and multimorbidity has insulin human intermediate- or long-acting combined with fast-acting (A10AD01). Sometimes, in one quarter a patient is prescribed different antidiabetic drugs. In this case, we chose the drug at the 5th level of ATC with the highest cost per quarter as main drug label.

We compare the drug cost per day with respect to the main antidiabetic drug, with respect to all other antidiabetic drugs and with respect to all other drugs. The total drug cost is an economic measure of illness and can be compared with polypharmacy and multimorbidity. The characteristic values are shown in Table 1. In Figure 4 the convex hull in the plane spanned by costs per day for antidiabetic drugs on one axis and costs of other drug on the other.

Table 1: Daily patient costs for main antidiabetic drug, other antidiabetic drugs and other drugs in Euro.

ATC	cost. main anti. diab.	other anti. diab.	cost other drugs	number patients	drug
A10AB01	1.68	0.60	6.30	6,449	insulin (human) fast-acting
A10AB04	3.01	0.68	6.05	4,718	insulin lispro fast-acting
A10AB05	2.70	0.85	4.98	5,620	sulin aspart fast-acting
A10AB06	2.64	1.20	5.07	1,123	insulin glulisin fast-acting
A10AC01	1.15	2.23	2.81	2,019	insulin (human) intermediate-acting
A10AD01	1.49	0.19	5.76	4,268	insulin (human) intermediate- or long-acting
A10AE04	2.00	0.79	5.08	12,973	insulin glargin long-acting
A10AE05	2.08	1.05	5.26	3,225	insulin detemir long-acting
A10BA02	0.20	0.11	2.74	42,149	metformin
A10BB12	0.31	0.34	2.44	3,021	glimepiride
A10BD07	1.49	0.38	2.78	8,795	metformin and sitagliptin
A10BH01	1.42	0.33	4.24	11,394	sitagliptin
A10BJ02	5.79	0.39	5.27	1,276	liraglutid
A10BJ05	3.62	0.57	5.11	1,057	dulaglutide
A10BK01	1.41	1.53	1.63	1,350	dapagliflozin
A10BK03	2.25	0.67	3.88	3,655	empagliflozin

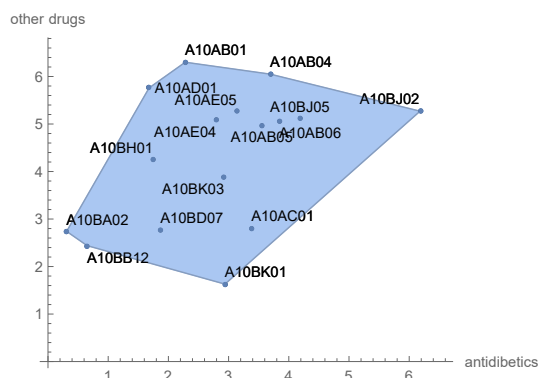


Figure 4: Diabetic ATC codes: dependence of costs per day for antidiabetic drugs and other drugs.

The related graph structure of Figure 5 illustrates which other antidiabetic drugs are most frequently prescribed if another antidiabetic drug for the same patient in the same quarter is already administrated to the patient. The graph has two components.

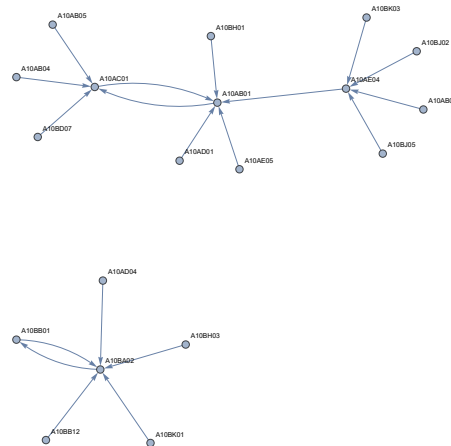


Figure 5: Pairs of different antidiabetic drugs prescribed for the same patient in the same quarter (top position).

One can aggregate the drug costs of a patient on the 3rd level of ATC. The top position in this procedure is called (basic) Morbidity Related Group (MRG), cf. (Schuster et al., 2016), (Schuster et al., 2018). With respect to drug efficiency review of physicians, this is usually done with respect to fix pairings of physicians and patients. In our context, it is worthwhile to use the patient centered consideration without a reference to a physician. If we analyse, in which MRG groups the considered antidiabetics will be assigned, the top position is always occupied by the antidiabetic MRG groups A10A (insulines and analogues) and A10B (blood glucose lowering drugs, excl. insulines). The next two positions are assigned to comorbidities related to drug groups. In descending order we get B01A (antitrombotic agents), V04C (other diagnostic agents, here tests for diabetes), C09D (angiotensin II receptor blocjers, combinations), R03A (adrenergics, inhalants), N02A (opioids), C10B (lipid modifying agents, combinations), L04A (immunosuppressants), C01E (other cardiac preparations), J05A (direct acting antivirals), L01X (other antineoplastic agents), R03B (other drugs for obstructive airway diseases, inhalants) and S01E (antiglaucoma preparations and miotics).

For each age i we consider the vector $v(i)$ of fraction $v(i)_k$ of diabetes patient with diagnose k , the dimension of the vector is determined by the number of ICD codes at three digit level. Figure 7 describes the Manhattan diagnostic distance of diabetes patients of

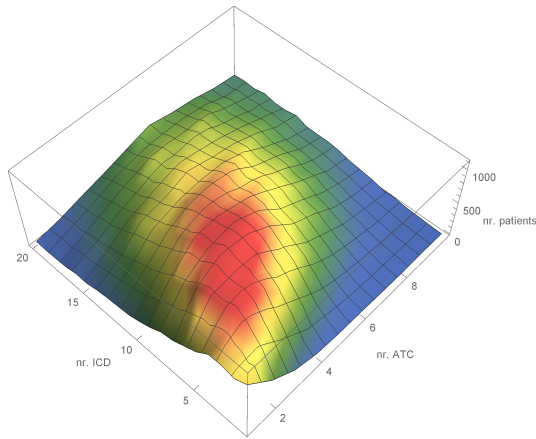


Figure 6: Number of patients with combinations of drugs and diseases.

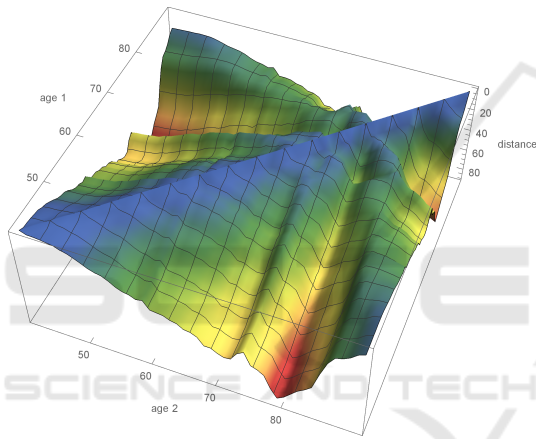


Figure 7: Age determined diagnostic Manhattan distance.

age $40 \leq i, j \leq 90$.

We look for diagnoses, which appear more frequently for diabetes patients than for all patients. The same question can be addressed to consider subgroups with respect to the patients age or sex. One can arrange the results in a proper order with respect to relative or absolute increase or a combination of both (cf. Table 2).

We consider the graph with diabetes drugs as nodes which are related to other top one and top three drugs with the most similar diagnostic spectra of the related patient group and graph communities by the modular method (cf. figure 3).

The modularity matrix of a undirected graph $G = (V, E)$ with vertices V and edges E has the entries

$$m_{u,v} = a_{u,v} - \frac{d_u d_v}{2m}$$

with the adjacency matrix $a_{u,v}$ of G , the degree d_u of vertex u and m as the total number of edges. We look

Table 2: Increased possibilities of diagnoses for diabetes patients.

no.	ICD	frac. diab. pat.	frac. all pat.	diff. rel.	diff. abs.	diagnoses
1	G63	22.8 %	2.2 %	1019.2 %	20.6 %	Polynuropathy in diseases classified elsewhere
2	E66	33.4 %	10.7 %	312.5 %	22.7 %	Obesity
3	E79	13.0 %	4.4 %	296.6 %	8.6 %	Disorders of purine and pyrimidine metabolism
4	I25	24.6 %	8.6 %	285.9 %	16.0 %	Chronic ischaemic heart disease
5	E78	43.2 %	18.8 %	229.4 %	24.3 %	Disorders of lipoprotein metabolism and other lipidaemias

for a partition of V into k clusters. For each pair (u, v) of vertices we consider a variable $x_{u,v}$ with value 0 if u and v are in the same cluster and value 1 otherwise. One can easily prove that the consistency of the clustering is guaranteed by the triangle inequality

$$x_{u,w} \leq x_{u,v} + x_{v,w}$$

for each triple (u, v, w) of vertices. The modularity methods maximizes

$$\frac{1}{2m} \sum_{u,v} m_{u,v} (1 - x_{u,v})$$

under the mentioned constraint of triangle inequality and $x_{u,v} \in \{0, 1\}$ as an integer linear problem (ILP). Solving ILP is NP-hard and thus it is unlikely to solve it in polynomial time. We use the modularity implementation in Mathematica by Wolfram research and alternatively the commercial package CPLEX by IBM, cf. (Shinano et al., 2003)). Integer linear programs (ILP) allows us to formulate an optimization problem with a linear objective function and constraints given by a series of linear inequalities. Then, an integer value assignment of the variables is determined that fulfills all the constrains. Although solving ILP problems is computationally hard (NP-hard to be more specific), there are powerful solvers available that perform well regarding our precise problem formulations, cf.(Shinano et al., 2003).

At the top one level, there are five connected components, one of them splits into three communities. At the top 3 level the graph is connected and has five graph communities. It has a graph diameter of 6. The graph center consists of metformin (A10BA02), the most frequently used drug and glimepiride (A10BB12) another low cost drug. The graph periphery consist of six drugs (insulin human intermediate-acting, insulin lispro fast-acting, insulin detemir long-acting, insulin aspart fast-acting, insulin glulisine fast-acting, insulin aspart intermediate- or long-acting combined with fast-acting) out of the drug group A10A (insulins and analogues) and two drugs

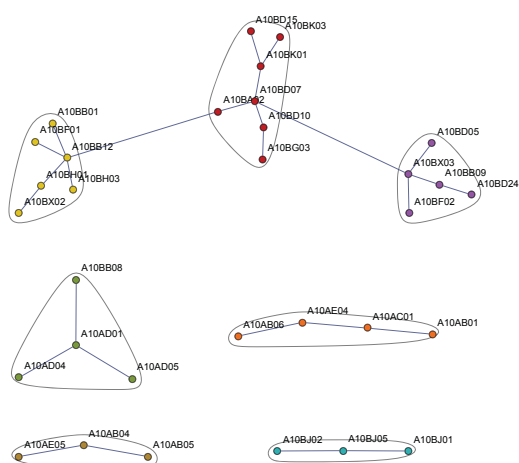


Figure 8: Diabetes drug neighborhood graph with communities given by the modular method at top 1 level.

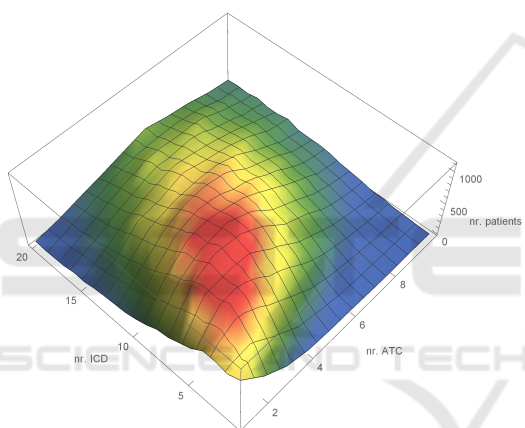


Figure 9: Diabetes drug neighborhood graph with communities given by the modular method at top 3 level.

from the group A10B (blood glucose lowering drugs, excl. insulins). Table 3 compares mean age, polypharmacy, multimorbidity, pharmacotherapeutic costs and the number of prescriptions of the drug groups and their cluster components.

Patients of cluster 1 have the smallest mean value of multimorbidity, followed by cluster 3. In cluster 2 the fraction of patients with ICD code G63 (Polyneuropathy in diseases classified elsewhere) is increased by 31%. In cluster 4 there are increased fractions of patients with E78 ICD code (disorders of lipoprotein metabolism and other lipidaemias, 11%) and E66 (obesity, 30%). Cluster 5 has an increased value in F32 code (depressive episode, 31%).

A Markov model with transition coefficients from quarter 1 of 2018 to quarter 2 of 2018 with respect to drug changes of patients leads to an eigenvalue 1 and the related eigenvalue has components of the sa-

Table 3: Interaction parameters for antidiabetic drugs.

ATC	cluster	age	poly-phar.	mul-ti-morbscr.	nr. pre-morbscr.	cost Euro	drug
A10AB01	2	68.6	7.4	16.4	10,020	135.45	insulin (human) fast-acting
A10AB04	2	56.2	6.0	12.2	6,628	241.78	insulin lispro fast-acting
A10AB05	2	53.0	5.6	11.2	8,681	211.64	sulin aspart fast-acting
A10AB06	2	62.0	6.6	14.1	2,017	196.90	insulin glulisin fast-acting
A10AC01	2	67.0	6.8	14.9	6,178	101.90	insulin (human) intermediate-acting
A10AD01	5	76.8	8.2	18.4	4,987	132.43	insulin (human) intermediate- or long-acting combined with fast-acting
A10AE04	2	64.3	6.9	14.7	19,134	173.93	insulin glargin long-acting
A10AE05	2	60.2	6.3	13.5	5,140	180.39	insulin detemir long-acting
A10BA02	3	67.1	5.6	13.6	64,886	18.73	metformin
A10BB01	1	72.5	5.4	13.1	1,877	17.53	glibenclamide
A10BB12	3	70.2	5.5	14.1	6,397	28.31	glimepiride
A10BD07	1	65.6	5.4	13.0	11,131	136.04	metformin and sitagliptin
A10BD15	1	60.4	5.2	12.1	1,159	132.30	metformin and dapagliflozin
A10BH01	3	69.9	6.6	16.0	14,426	126.80	sitagliptin
A10BJ02	4	58.4	6.3	15.4	1,403	516.78	liraglutid
A10BJ05	4	58.2	6.4	15.8	1,272	320.82	dulaglutide
A10BK01	4	61.6	5.5	13.3	2,979	122.76	dapagliflozin
A10BK03	4	62.3	6.1	14.5	4,885	201.45	empagliflozin

me sign which thereby can be adjusted to the total number of diabetes patients. The sum of absolute differences of the model result and the observed data is 4.15 % of the total size. The observed data are almost at equilibrium. The differences in edge distributions of the diabetes patients are caused mainly by population changes in elderly people (decline in the birth rate nearby the end of World War II in 1945).

Even though transitions are nearly stable, there are much less transitions from one substance to another substance without loops with at least 30 patients within the top two transitions (cf. Figure 12). The top target substances are A10BA02 (metformin) and A10AE04 (insulin glargin long-acting).

The related undirected graph has four graph communities using the modularity method (cf. Figure 13).

The graph periphery only consists of A10AE04 (insulin glargin long-acting), the graph periphery contains A10BK01 (dapagliflozin), A10BB12 (glimepiride), A10BB01 (glibenclamide), A10AE05 (insulin detemir long-acting), A10AD01 (insulin (human) intermediate- or long-acting combined with fast-acting) and A10AC01 (insulin (human) intermediate-acting).

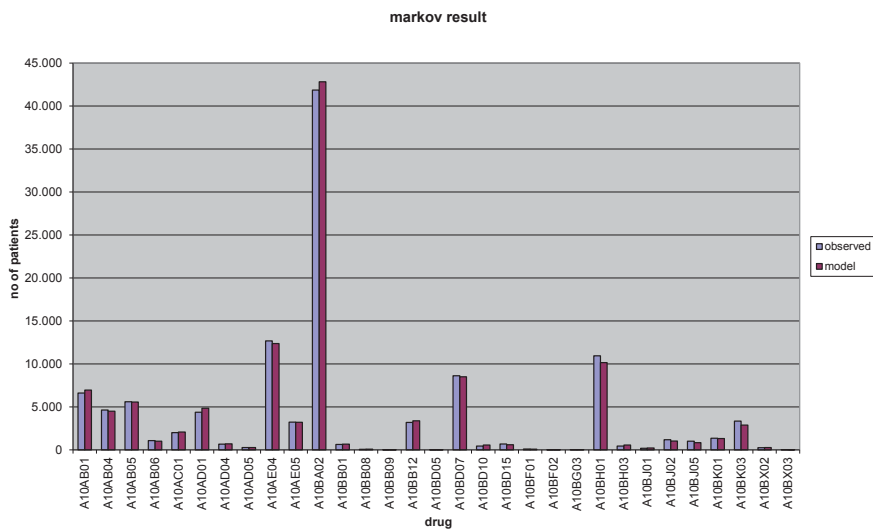


Figure 10: Markov stable solution compared with the observed data.

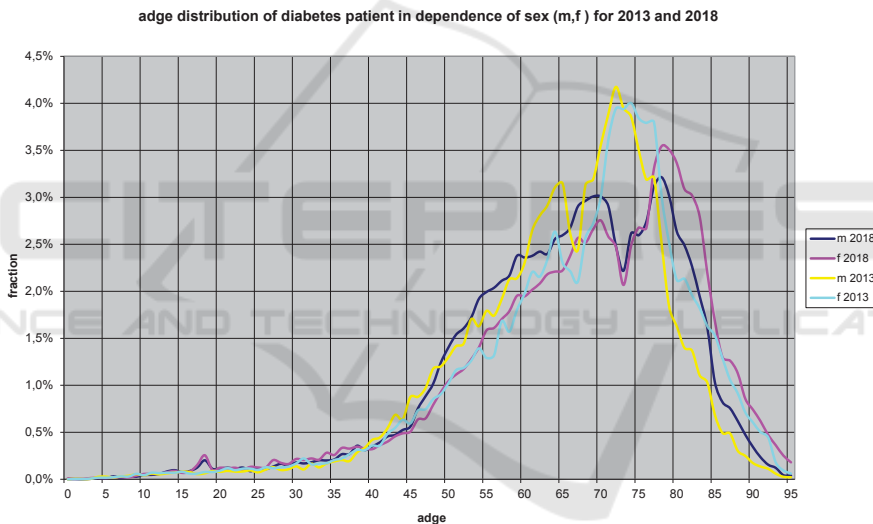


Figure 11: Edge distribution with respect to sex for 2013 and 2018.

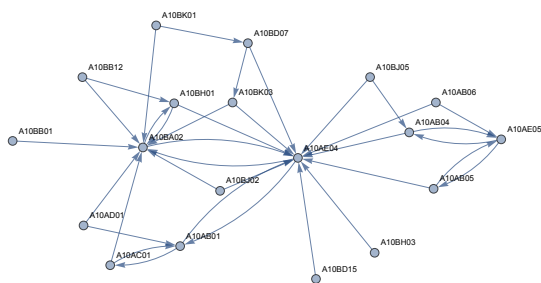


Figure 12: Changes of substances from quarter one to quarter two in 2018.

4 CONCLUSIONS

Community structures of graphs offer new insights in therapeutic backgrounds of prescribed drugs. This offers the opportunity to improve health care decisions at the negotiation level, to improve medical decisions from a patient centered point of view and to adapt national and international guidelines from a unified point of view. Patients' age, sex, multimorbidity and further parameters can be used to get neighborhood information as an informational base to optimize personal and health political decisions within a global context. Network analysis with graph theoretic methods against the background of big data combi-

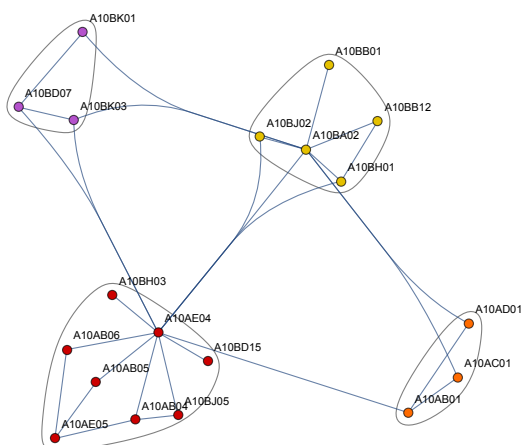


Figure 13: Graph communities for changes of substances from quarter one to quarter two in 2018.

ned with therapeutic innovations are a powerful tool for theoretical analyzes as well as for practical actions. The analysis was done as a patient centered point of view with the background of the entire information with respect to drugs and diseases of all physicians that treated an individual patient in the considered quarter. But the information background of a special physician may be informationally rather scarce in comparison. There are principal limitations with respect to data protection. Missing information about other drugs and other diseases may restrain or prevent the treatment success with substantial risks for the patient and resulting follow-up costs for complication treatment further burdening financially the health system. Further research is necessary especially for identification of critical situations. The possibilities of sharing information with modern digital communication structures are currently underused. Most guidelines are geared towards special diseases and drugs. Multimorbidity and polypharmacie require priorities and compromises between benefits and side effects. Further research is necessary to use the analyzed different degrees of multimorbidity and polypharmacy for individual informed decision making. The analysis shows that large differences in drug costs can largely be explained by different diseases and multimorbidity. It should be analyzed in which situations large differences of therapeutic decisions made by an individual physician that differ from other physicians at a statistically assured level are related to drug economic problems or if they are related to more innovative treatment at the currently secured scientific level.

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