







# Lead Time Forecasting with Machine Learning Techniques for a Pharmaceutical Supply Chain

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**Keywords:** Lead Time Forecasting, Machine Learning, Pharmaceutical Supply Chain.


**Abstract:** Purchasing lead time is the time elapsed between the moment in which an order for a good is sent to a supplier and the moment in which the order is delivered to the company that requested it. Forecasting of purchasing lead time is an essential task in the planning, management and control of industrial processes. It is of particular importance in the context of pharmaceutical supply chain, where avoiding long waiting times is essential to provide efficient healthcare services. The forecasting of lead times is, however, a very difficult task, due to the complexity of the production processes and the significant heterogeneity in the data. In this paper, we use machine learning regression algorithms to forecast purchasing lead times in a pharmaceutical supply chain, using a real-world industrial database. We compare five algorithms, namely  $k$ -nearest neighbors, support vector machines, random forests, linear regression and multilayer perceptrons. The support vector machines approach obtained the best performance overall, with an average error lower than two days. The dataset used in our experiments is made publicly available for future research.


## 1 INTRODUCTION


Long waiting times for service interventions are a recurring feature in the health sector, especially for public services. Clearly, timely treatments and drug administrations are crucial factors for improving the quality of healthcare services, and often also for saving the lives of patients, mainly in emergencies (Brown et al., 2016; Tetteh, 2019). The delay for medical interventions, whether through medication, diagnosis or surgical procedures, can indeed ag-


gravate pathologies, given the possibility of deterioration of health conditions over time. Longer waiting times for medical intervention can increase readmission rates as well (Moscelli et al., 2016). Nowadays, this is even more crucial because of the recent COVID-19 pandemic, which is causing an increase in the number of pharmaceutical products urgently required by the many patients affected by the disease (Harapan et al., 2020).


Among other factors, long waiting times for receiving medicines can be associated with delay in the administrative packaging, logistic problems with tracking and delivery (Haugh, 2014) and several other factors that could be outside the control of patients or healthcare professionals. Within this scenario, the analysis and proposition of measures to reduce waiting times for all possible related factors is important in healthcare policy guidelines (Moscelli et al., 2016).


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The availability of medicines in healthcare service networks, pharmacies and hospitals is directly related to the lead time of the supply chain (Tetteh, 2019).

Our work is motivated by the activity of a logistic company, Coopservice group, that receives the pharmaceutical products from the suppliers and then organizes the shipping, when needed, to the healthcare facilities. To organize the service in the best possible way, it is crucial for the company to correctly estimate the purchasing lead time, that is, the time that is elapsed between the moment in which an order for a good is sent to a supplier and the moment in which the good is delivered to the company. Correctly forecasting this purchasing lead time (lead time for short, in the following) in the supply chain of the pharmaceutical sector is a crucial task, as it largely affects the whole industrial process of the healthcare services. In addition, proper estimation of lead time is a critical parameter in the relationship between the management process and the customer (Noori-Daryan et al., 2019), being lead time one of the most important performance indicators for the management of manufacturing and service production processes (Kim et al., 2014). Furthermore, accurate forecasting of lead times can assist in optimizing the production processes, by more accurately selecting the needed quantities and thus shortening the overall production times (Gyulai et al., 2018).

Besides, lead time prediction is a crucial aspect to keep under control in the pharmaceutical supply chain, because sometimes having the medicine available at the right time can save lives. Lead time forecasting could allow the pharmaceutical companies to predict and to avoid possible out of stock, caused by a supplier. Besides, based on the lead time, it is possible to evaluate the different suppliers and select the best ones. In addition, with a good prediction it is possible for the pharmaceutical companies to define different level of security stock of the goods for each month, making the procurement process leaner and more cost effective.

However, lead time forecasting is an extremely challenging task. In general, the estimation of lead times from historical data has been a recurrent issue in the literature since the 1960s, and even in recent years some traditional systems simply obtain lead time by computing average values based on historical data, with the result of deficiencies in production planning and control (Lingitz et al., 2018). The proposed approaches in this research field can be divided into conventional methods and intelligent methods, with the former not using artificial intelligence and the latter exploiting data mining and machine learning. In both cases, data used for experimental evaluation can be

real and/or simulated. In this research, we exploit intelligent methods, leaving conventional methods to an analysis of the literature.

Recently, there have been significant advances in this research field using artificial intelligence (Ioannou and Dimitriou, 2012; Gyulai et al., 2018). This process is mainly due to the growing availability of large data collections in different fields of manufacturing, that can enable data-driven technologies such as machine learning, data mining, knowledge discovery in databases, and big data analytical tools (Fayyad et al., 1996; Tsai et al., 2016; Frank et al., 2019; Kabugo et al., 2020)). Nevertheless, most of the intelligent techniques used in recent research do not make use of real data (Öztürk et al., 2006), while using computer simulations to generate data and considering many simplifying assumptions for the internal manufacturing process.

Given the limitations of the methods mentioned so far, in this paper we aim to use intelligent methods to predict the delivery times of suppliers who have to deliver the goods to a company that manages the pharmaceutical supply-chain of hospitals. To this aim, we compared five different machine learning regression approaches, namely:  $k$ -nearest neighbors (KNN), support vector machines (SVM), random forests (RF), linear regression (LR) and multi-layer perceptrons (MLP).

The use of accurate lead time forecast can be highly beneficial in the planning of both production and logistic services in the pharmaceutical field. We mention, to this regard, the work by (Gatica et al., 2001), who studied stochastic aspects related to product development and capacity planning in the pharmaceutical sector, by proposing a multistage stochastic programming approach, and that of (Kramer et al., 2019), who proposed a metaheuristic algorithm for the delivery of pharmaceutical products in the region of Tuscany (operated by the Coopservice group). In the former work, accurate prediction of the lead time for purchasing the products could be used within the what-if analysis, while in the latter work, accurate predictions could be used to define the starting points of the deliveries, as multiple depots are available, and the possible use of temporary depots at the hospitals, so as to reduce transportation costs and times.

The reminder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we present the related works and compare our work with the literature. In Section 3 we briefly present the classic techniques that we used to predict the lead time. In Section 4 we describe the dataset used in the experiments, which are illustrated in Section 5. Finally, Section 6 concludes.

## 2 RELATED WORKS

In an Industry 4.0 scenario, big data analytics can be divided into five different categories: predictive, descriptive, inquisitive, preventive and prescriptive analytics. Predictive analytics aims to anticipate what will happen in the future: descriptive analytics instead provides information and explanations about what has happened; inquisitive analytics tries to answer why it has happened, and preventive analytics provides insight to understand what is necessary to be done. Finally, prescriptive analytics provides information for decision-making (Sivarajah et al., 2017; Cabrera-Sánchez and Villarejo-Ramos, 2020). Big data analytics is very often associated with artificial intelligence, data mining, and machine learning instruments (Dean, 2014), with the aim to develop systems that can automatically extract information and discovery patterns in large data collections (Lu et al., 2015; Kuo et al., 2018), so as to provide beneficial insights to decision makers (Chamikara et al., 2020).

By mid-1980s, many studies on operating and lead time estimation through mathematical formulations, as well as statistical methods with analysis of variance (ANOVA) were proposed (Chang, 1997; Tatsiopoulos and Kingsman, 1983). Forecasting through mathematical modeling approaches has also been recently proposed for a custom system disregarding the current system workload (Vandaele et al., 2002). In a more complex product development scenario, a heuristic approach was proposed, by explicitly modeling networks of operating system activities (Jun et al., 2006). Other research has proposed the use of queuing networks for lead time analysis and prediction (Ioannou and Dimitriou, 2012; Berling and Farvid, 2014) with the use of discrete event simulation through mathematical expressions, assuming a continuous demand and studying the variance of the lead time. Conversely, a case-based reasoning approach was proposed in (Mourtzis et al., 2014) to predict the lead time of complex engineered-to-order products. (Pfeiffer et al., 2016) made use of multivariate regression statistical methods using simulated data to obtain the production lead time of a flow-shop system.

Mathematical and statistical formulas were reformulated and proposed for production lead time estimates in chemical sector modular production plants (Sievers et al., 2017). However, the main disadvantage of all the methods cited so far is that they consider that past trends could possibly be repeated in the future (Öztürk et al., 2006; Ioannou and Dimitriou, 2012). Moreover, there are few researches evaluating the interactions of supply chain elements such as lead times and forecasting procedures (Sievers et al., 2017;

Hosoda and Disney, 2018; Lingitz et al., 2018; Goltosos et al., 2019). Additionally, databases generated by simulation often consider a perfect production system, without introducing machine breakdowns, maintenance downtime and raw material delays (Lingitz et al., 2018). When performing lead time analysis and forecasting, it is important to consider external factors too, such as relationships and interactions between different supply chains (Hosoda and Disney, 2018; Ponte et al., 2018; Goltosos et al., 2019; Noori-Daryan et al., 2019). (Chung et al., 2018) showed that lead time prediction is a key factor because the lead time uncertainties can affect service level and order lead time performance. Understanding these dynamics allows companies to reduce their exposure to different types of delivery risk and to better manage their supply chain.

Despite the large amount of works in this area, we could not find comprehensive studies on machine learning algorithms for lead time forecasting in the field of pharmaceutical distributions. Related works are limited to the use of Monte Carlo simulation to predict the production lead time (Eberle et al., 2014), and to the proposal of cyclic production plans combined with outsourcing in the packaging of medicines in the Netherlands (Strijbosch et al., 2002). With this paper we aim at filling this research gap.

## 3 METHODOLOGY

As already stated in Section 1, we employ a machine learning approach for purchasing lead time forecasting of pharmaceutical services. We formulate the task as a regression problem, where the aim is to predict a single real number  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  as a function of a set of features  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . Supervised machine learning approaches are able to learn a function  $f$  that computes a value  $\hat{y}$  from a given input vector  $\hat{x}$ . Such a function is learned from a dataset  $\mathcal{D}$ , which consists of a collection of  $N$  pairs  $(x_i, y_i)$  where each input example  $x_i$  is associated with the corresponding target  $y_i$ , that is the target of the forecasting system. In this work, we compare several simple, classic regression algorithms, largely used in statistics and machine learning applications, with the aim of finding the one that performs the best on our real-world data set, without resorting to more sophisticated approaches. We compare two efficient linear methods, namely linear regression and linear support vector machines, against three simple non-linear ones, namely random forests,  $k$ -nearest neighbors, and multi-layer perceptron. We leave the use of more advanced machine learning approaches for future research.

### 3.1 Linear Regression

Linear regression (LR) is a widely employed parametric regression technique (Montgomery et al., 2012), where function  $f$  is computed as a linear combination of input features:  $f(x) = \beta^T x + \beta_0$ . The vector of parameters  $\beta$  is typically learned by minimizing the sum of squared errors on the training set. Clearly, this approach achieves good results when a linear function results to be a reasonable approximation of the dependency relation holding between input and output variables, while suffering when such dependency is strongly non-linear.

### 3.2 Linear Support Vector Machines

Support vector machines (SVM) are a classic machine learning approach that can be used both for classification and for regression. In the regression setting, the goal is to find a function  $f$  for which the forecasting error with respect to target  $y$  is at most equal to a pre-defined tolerance threshold  $\epsilon$  for the elements in the training set (Drucker et al., 1997). In its linear formulation, which is the one we employ in this paper, the function to be learned is still a linear combination of the features. The optimal (or close to optimal) parameters are found by heuristically solving a constrained quadratic optimization problem (Albers et al., 2011).

### 3.3 Random Forests

A random forest (RF) is an ensemble classifier that consists in a collection of  $n$  different decision trees (Breiman et al., 1984). A decision tree is an interpretable classifier that inductively learns classification rules by testing the informativeness of the attributes (features) with respect to the category (in case of classification) or the target value (in case of regression) to be predicted. Several different decision trees can be obtained either considering different sets of features, or by subsampling different sets of training examples. In the regression setting, the output prediction of the RF is computed as the average of the predictions of individual trees.

### 3.4 $k$ -Nearest Neighbors

Based on the concept of distance (or similarity) between examples,  $k$ -nearest neighbors (KNN) is not properly a learning algorithm. Given a test example  $x$ , the KNN algorithm looks for the  $k$  examples in the training set that are the most similar to  $x$ , i.e., the nearest ones according to a given metric, such as

the Euclidean distance, which we use in our experimental evaluation. Once the  $k$  nearest neighbors are found, the algorithm computes the prediction as an average, or voting procedure, among them. In a regression setting, the predicted target value  $\hat{y}$  is simply computed as the weighted average of the targets  $y_j$  of all  $k$  neighbors.

### 3.5 Multi-Layer Perceptron

A multi-layer perceptron (MLP) is a very simple artificial neural network that can learn non-linear functions between input and output variables (Rumelhart and McClelland, 1987). An MLP consists in a stack of layers, each consisting of a certain number  $m$  of neurons. The first layer consists of input variables. In the second layer, named hidden layer, the output of each neuron is computed as a non-linear combination of input variables, whose weights are learned during a training phase. Finally, the last layer computes the output of the network as a non-linear combination of the output of the hidden neurons, again with adjustable, learnable weights.

## 4 DATASET

A crucial ingredient of any machine learning application is the preparation of the dataset used for training and evaluation (Ristoski and Paulheim, 2016). The database used in this research was made available by an integrated service company, the Coopservice Group. Founded in 1992, the Coopservice Group provides specialised services to private companies and public entities. The Group operates worldwide, with its headquarters in Italy, and counts around 20,000 employees. It offers a variety of facility services, especially the ones that are not part of the core businesses of the clients, including: industrial, commercial and healthcare cleaning; management and maintenance of buildings and systems; management of energy supplies; security and surveillance; transport and handling of goods; industrial and commercial moving; collection and transport of special waste. With 18 logistic warehouses and a storage area of over 150,000 squared meters, Coopservice Group is the leader in healthcare and pharmaceutical logistics in Italy, and a key provider of management and distribution services for pharmaceuticals, medical-surgical devices and non-medical consumables. The key aspects for the services are relying on a large workforce, working at client-sites, maintaining consistent quality and monitoring performance.

Forecasting lead times is a crucial task for

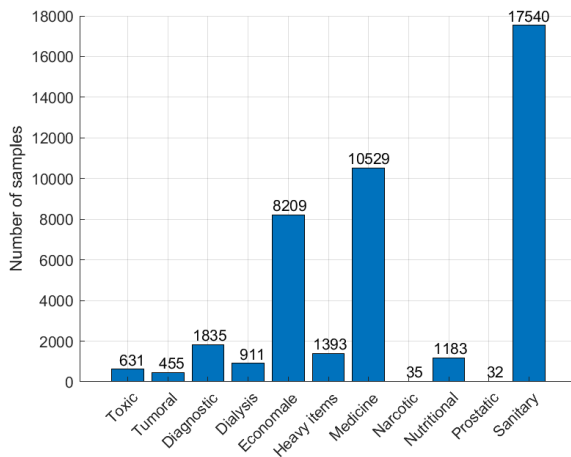


Figure 1: Distribution of the number of samples in the dataset, for each different category.

Coopservice, because with an accurate prediction it is possible to optimize and manage the scheduling of the truck deliveries, as well as predict the unloading process schedule for the inbound area. Thanks to this, it is possible to better organize the shifts of the employees in the warehouse. In addition, lead time prediction allows the company to have a better knowledge of the supplier and to evaluate its performance. In order to do this, a supplier rating system can be created, considering the historical data and the prediction. Finally, with an accurate forecasting of lead times, the management of safety stock in the warehouse can be safer, avoiding negative events like overstock and stockout.

In the pharmaceutical database provided by Coopservice, the total number of samples was 42,753 collected during 2018.

All pharmaceutical products in the database are associated with some specific categories, namely: tumoral, diagnostic, medicine, nutritional, prostatic, sanitary, dialysis, heavy items, toxic, narcotic, and economale (that are all the non-medical items like pens, papers...). All these categories were used in our study, although most of the data belong to economale, medicine, or sanitary categories, as shown in Figure 1.

For each sample in the database, eight independent variables were considered as the input vector  $x$  for our machine learning systems used to forecast lead times:

- day of the month of the customer order (1 to 31);
- weekday of the customer order (1 to 5, from Monday to Friday);
- month (1 to 12) of the customer order;
- supplier code identifier;
- product name identifier;
- pharmaceutical product type category;

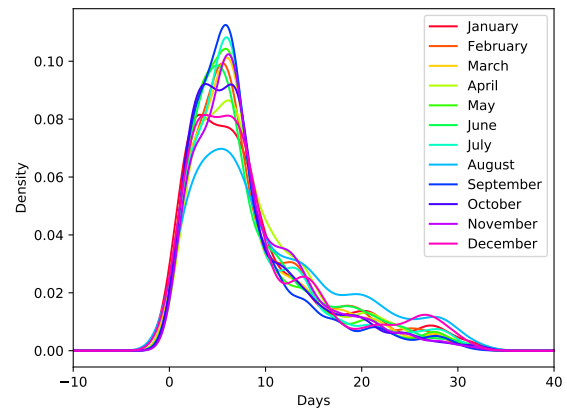


Figure 2: Lead time distribution, as a function of the month.

- ordered quantity (pills);
- distance between supplier and the pharmacy warehouse (km).

A standard pre-processing phase was applied to the database, including explorative data visualization, cleaning and removal of duplicates and corrupted data, outlier detection, manipulation of missing values (Ristoski and Paulheim, 2016). In particular, we used boxplots to identify outliers and extreme values (Hu et al., 2018; Sagaert et al., 2019) to remove corrupted data. Figure 2 shows the distribution of the lead time for each month. It can be noticed that the trend is quite similar for all the months, with a peak between 3 and 7 days, and very few values exceeding 32 days. After a detailed analysis of the cases with such a large lead time, we noticed they were due to insertion errors in the original database, and hence we discarded them. Overall, around 5% of data were removed following the whole pre-processing and cleaning procedure. The resulting dataset is available for research at <https://github.com/regor-unimore/Pharmaceutical-Lead-Time-Forecasting.git>.

## 5 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

To compare the machine learning systems employed in our analysis, we performed two different experiments, splitting the whole corpus by category, as well as by month.

Initially, in order to select the best hyperparameters of each algorithm, we employed a standard 10-fold cross-validation procedure, where the whole dataset is partitioned into 10 different groups, named folds. In turn, each fold is considered as test set, whereas the remaining folds were split into 2/3 for the training set, and 1/3 for the validation set. The training set is the set of examples used during

the learning phase to find the optimal model parameters, whereas the validation set is the set of examples that is employed to evaluate the performance of the learned model. In this way, we selected the following hyper-parameters for our machine learning systems: 100 estimators (i.e., number of trees) for the RF, linear kernel and a regularization term  $C = 1$  for SVM, a value of  $k=13$  for the number of neighbors in KNN, and a single hidden layer with 3 neurons for MLP.

Then, we performed two distinct experiments. As a first experiment, we partitioned the dataset by category, and we split each portion into 2/3 to be used for training, and 1/3 to be used for test. As a second experiment, we partitioned the dataset by month, and again we split the data of each month into 2/3 for training, and 1/3 for test. In both experiments, as a standard performance metric, we considered the mean squared error (MSE) as the average of the squared difference between true and predicted lead time:  $MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$  where  $y_i$  is the true lead time, and  $\hat{y}_i$  is the forecast value.

The two experiments have different goals. In the first case, one full year of data for each category is used both for training and for test, thus we can evaluate the performance of a forecasting approach when a long period of data is available, for each single category. Conversely, in the second experiment, we take into account all the categories, by partitioning the data by month: in this way, we can evaluate whether data from different categories can help in forecasting the lead times of each product.

As for the first experiment, in Table 1 we report the performance achieved by all the competitors on each distinct category. The results show that LR is the best performing method. A very similar performance is also obtained by the SVM approach, that achieves the lowest error in two categories (Tumors and Medicine). Narcotics results to be the most difficult category to forecast, which is not surprising, as it contains very few examples. For that category, KNN is the best-performing algorithm.

In our second setting, the samples of all the categories are used within the training and test set of each month. As shown in Table 2, in this case SVM is clearly the best performing algorithm, achieving the lowest MSE in every month, with an average error equal to 1.89 days, which is largely better than the second best approach, which is RF, that achieves an MSE equal to 3.07 days only. Overall, the results of both settings suggest that the use of non-linear approaches does not significantly lower the forecasting error.

Table 1: Mean squared error obtained per each different category (best results in bold).

	KNN	LR	RF	MLP	SVM
Tumors	3.37	2.23	2.39	3.87	<b>1.94</b>
Diagnosis	4.98	<b>2.37</b>	3.40	7.41	2.51
General	4.59	<b>2.22</b>	3.48	8.12	2.30
Medicine	4.10	2.22	2.71	5.51	<b>2.02</b>
Nutritional	2.90	<b>2.21</b>	2.28	4.60	2.28
Prostatic	3.11	<b>1.75</b>	3.07	3.15	3.38
Sanitary	3.11	<b>2.22</b>	2.49	6.98	2.30
Dialysis	3.23	<b>1.50</b>	2.49	2.34	1.83
Heavy Goods	2.66	<b>1.79</b>	2.40	5.40	1.86
Toxic	3.73	<b>1.70</b>	2.68	2.03	1.73
Narcotics	<b>3.72</b>	5.16	5.44	4.29	4.81
Average	3.59	<b>2.31</b>	2.99	4.88	2.45

Table 2: Mean squared error obtained per each different month (best results in bold).

	KNN	LR	RF	MLP	SVM
January	3.43	5.13	2.62	5.60	<b>1.86</b>
February	2.77	4.20	2.05	5.46	<b>1.58</b>
March	3.88	2.83	6.14	6.94	<b>1.80</b>
April	3.96	9.51	2.94	8.03	<b>1.87</b>
May	3.57	5.74	2.54	7.69	<b>1.55</b>
June	3.79	5.91	2.71	7.01	<b>1.58</b>
July	3.84	2.69	3.00	8.75	<b>2.09</b>
August	4.01	2.43	3.15	13.47	<b>2.02</b>
September	3.49	5.47	2.55	6.44	<b>1.55</b>
October	3.87	2.36	2.95	7.36	<b>1.76</b>
November	3.91	2.72	2.95	6.95	<b>2.21</b>
December	4.09	7.01	3.25	10.33	<b>2.86</b>
Average	3.72	4.67	3.07	7.84	<b>1.89</b>

## 6 CONCLUSIONS

This paper presented a methodology for lead time forecasting in the pharmaceutical supply chain with machine learning techniques. In particular, we compared support vector machines, random forests, multi-layer perceptron, linear regression, and  $k$ -nearest neighbors on a very large collection of examples provided by a large company with headquarters in Italy. Our experimental results are very encouraging, showing how the purchasing lead time can be forecast with high accuracy, especially for linear support vector regression. In particular, the use of simple non-linear approaches does not seem to yield significant improvements in the forecasting.

The research described in this paper aims to fill a gap in the scientific literature regarding lead time forecasting for the purchase of pharmaceutical products. An accurate forecast of such lead time can be crucial for decision making, optimization, and planning in the overall pharmaceutical supply chain. Waiting times for drugs and medicines could in fact be reduced, and hospitals and pharmacies could choose

the most convenient supplier at every moment on the basis of accurate predictions. This can be very relevant when treating patients with urgent needs, as well as fast-changing medical conditions, as the ones we are currently facing in the COVID-19 pandemic.

Future research will incorporate forecasting of internal supply chain lead times of real service processes. In this way, the forecast of lead time for purchasing products will be coupled with the forecast of the entire supply chain lead time, providing decision makers with a larger instrument of analysis. In addition, more sophisticated approaches to lead time forecasting could be exploited, with simulation of non-linear systems to investigate how machine faults and maintenance procedures can influence lead time.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The research described in this paper was carried out with funding from the Brazilian State Funding Agency of Goiás (FAPEG), Brazilian National Council of State Funding Agencies (CONFAP-ITALY) and Higher Education Personnel Improvement Coordination (CAPES).

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