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Data-driven Automated Classification Algorithms for Acute Health Conditions: Applying PheNorm to COVID-19 Disease

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#### JOURNAL ARTICLE FEATURED

# Data-driven automated classification algorithms for acute health conditions: applying PheNorm to COVID-19 disease

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#### Introduction

- Sentinel is the U.S. FDA's active medical product safety surveillance system utilizing electronic healthcare records (EHRs) and claims data.
- One of the goals of the **Sentinel Innovation Center** is to develop, implement, and evaluate methods that incorporate unstructured EHR data to improve the performance of computable phenotype algorithms used to capture health outcomes relevant to medical product safety surveillance.

### Introduction

- Sentinel Innovation Center (IC) Demonstration Project to integrate unstructured EHR data into Sentinel
- "Advancing scalable natural language processing approaches for unstructured electronic health record data"
- In this study, we evaluated an **automated phenotyping** method (PheNorm) applied to an acute condition, COVID-19 disease, to investigate its feasibility for rapid phenotyping and use in post-market safety studies.

#### Background

- **Phenotyping algorithms** are used in healthcare, epidemiological studies, and public health surveillance to distinguish between cases and non-cases.
- Methods range from the use of International Classification of Disease (ICD 9/10 codes) to the presence of multiple codes, medications, or laboratory results.
- These algorithms have typically been developed and validated using time-intensive expert curation and manually annotated goldstandard training sets, which result in high costs, long development timelines, and limited scalability.



### **Manual Feature Engineering**



### **Automated Modeling: Motivation**

#### Manual development

- Expert-driven
- Manual engineering
- Heavy reliance on *gold standard labels*
- Substantial operator dependence
- Slow



#### Automated development

- Data-driven
- Automated engineering
- Heavy reliance on silver standard labels
- Reduced operator dependence
- Fast

### **Automated Modeling: Approach**

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AMIA

#### AFEP

#### Toward high-throughput phenotyping: unbiased automated feature extraction and selection from knowledge sources

Sheng Yu<sup>1,2,3,\*</sup>, Katherine P Liao<sup>2,3</sup>, Stanley Y Shaw<sup>4</sup>, Vivian S Gainer<sup>5</sup>, Susanne E Churchill<sup>5</sup>, Peter Szolovits<sup>6</sup>, Shawn N Murphy<sup>4,5</sup>, Isaac S Kohane<sup>3,7</sup>, Tianxi Cai<sup>8</sup>

#### ABSTRACT

Objective Analysis of narrative (text) data from electronic health records (EHRs) can improve population-scale phenol research. Currently, selection of text features for phenotyping algorithms is slow and laborious, requiring extensive an main experts. This paper introduces a method to develop phenotyping algorithms in an unbiased manner by automati informative features, which can be comparable to expert-curated ones in classification accuracy.

Materials and methods Comprehensive medical concepts were collected from publicly available knowledge source fashion. Natural language processing (NLP) revealed the occurrence patterns of these concepts in EHR narrative note informative features for phenotype classification. When combined with additional codified features, a penalized lo trained to classify the target phenotype.

Results The authors applied our method to develop algorithms to identify patients with rheumatoid arthritis and c among those with rheumatoid arthritis from a large multi-institutional EHR. The area under the receiver operating c classifying RA and CAD using models trained with automated features were 0.951 and 0.929, respectively, compar 0.929 by models trained with expert-curated features.

Discussion Models trained with NLP text features selected through an unbiased, automated procedure achieved com curacy than those trained with expert-curated features. The majority of the selected model features were interpretable **Conclusion** The proposed automated feature extraction method, generating highly accurate phenotyping algorithms to significant sets toward high-throughput phenotyping.

#### INTRODUCTION

Electronic health record (EHR) adoption has increased dramatically in recent years. By 2013, 59% of private acute care hospitals in the United States had adopted an EHR system, up from 9% in 2008.<sup>1</sup> Secondary use of EHR data has emerged as a powerful approach for a variety of biomedical research, including comparative effectiveness and stratifying patients for risk of comorbidities or adverse outcomes.<sup>2–10</sup> More recently, the linking of genotype and biomarker data to EHR data has facilitated translational studies, such as genetic association studies.<sup>11–17</sup> Compared to conventionally assembled epidemiologic and genomic cohorts that require individual patient recruitment, EHR-based studies can provide large sample sizes at a lower cost and shorter firms frames.

narrative notes such as physician notes, t or pathologic studies, or hospital discha provide a rich source of complementary i processing (NLP) can efficiently extract o Occurrences of terms of clinical concept and also used as features for algorithm ing algorithms that use both codified and accuracy relative to algorithms using codi 9 billing codes).<sup>19–22</sup>

Today, algorithms that identify a des structed in two rather different ways. The ing on human expertise to suggest a logic and NOT) of features that must be present

### **Principles**:

#### ples: 1. Clinical text is the primary data source

- 2. Published knowledge provides expertise
- 3. Data-driven feature engineering &

modeling



Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association, 24(e1), 2017, e143–e149 doi: 10.1093/jamia/ocw135 Advance Access Publication Date: 15 September 2016 Research and Applications

#### **Research and Applications**

#### Surrogate-assisted feature extraction for high-throughput phenotyping

Sheng Yu,<sup>1,2</sup> Abhishek Chakrabortty,<sup>3</sup> Katherine P Liao,<sup>4</sup> Tianrun Cai,<sup>5</sup> Ashwin N Ananthakrishnan,<sup>6</sup> Vivian S Gainer,<sup>7</sup> Susanne E Churchill,<sup>8</sup> Peter Szolovits,<sup>9</sup> Shawn N Murphy,<sup>7,10</sup> Isaac S Kohane,<sup>8</sup> and Tianxi Cai<sup>5</sup>

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#### PheNorm

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#### Research and Applications

#### Enabling phenotypic big data with PheNorm

Sheng Yu,<sup>1,2</sup> Yumeng Ma,<sup>3</sup> Jessica Gronsbell,<sup>4</sup> Tianrun Cai,<sup>5</sup> Ashwin N Ananthakrishnan,<sup>6</sup> Vivian S Gainer,<sup>7</sup> Susanne E Churchill,<sup>8</sup> Peter Szolovits,<sup>9</sup> Shawn N Murphy,<sup>7,10</sup> Isaac S Kohane,<sup>8</sup> Katherine P Liao,<sup>11</sup> and Tianxi Cai<sup>4</sup>

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### **Automated Feature Engineering**





\* Yu et al. Toward high-throughput phenotyping: unbiased automated feature extraction and selection from knowledge sources. JAMIA 2015

Sentinel Initiative 11

### Feature Engineering: Manual vs. Automated



#### Advantages of automation:

- Short development time
- Low/no expenditure for domain expertise
- Reduced operator dependence
- Replicable

Will it work? As a starting point? As an overall solution?

# Methods

#### **Automated Modeling: Approach**

- Developed by Yu, et al., **PheNorm** has been demonstrated to perform well outside Sentinel for chronic health conditions, but little was known about its performance in acute conditions.
- PheNorm is a general-purpose **automated** approach to creating computable phenotype algorithms based on natural language processing (NLP) and machine learning.
- PheNorm estimates each patient's probability of being a true case using **silverstandard labels** (readily available approximations for true case status) and NLP-derived features extracted from clinical notes.

#### PheNorm



#### **PheNorm Applied to COVID-19 Disease**

- **Coronavirus disease 2019** (COVID-19) was first identified in December 2019. During the pandemic, diagnostic guidelines, laboratory testing, coding practices, and treatment options changed rapidly.
- We developed a phenotyping algorithm for **symptomatic COVID-19** 
  - Diagnostic codes for COVID-19 have been shown\* to have low accuracy, which may be due to both over-coding and under-coding.
  - Since we were interested in symptomatic disease, evidence of infection alone was insufficient since many patients who tested positive were asymptomatic.

### **Study Cohort**

- This study was performed at **Vanderbilt University Medical Center** (VUMC) and **Kaiser Permanente Washington** (KPWA).
- We identified cohorts of potential COVID-19 patients from April 2020 through March 2021 at each site.
- Cohorts included all patients with encounters accompanied by structured EHR features found to be strongly associated with COVID:
  - Six ICD-10-CM diagnosis codes for COVID-19 and related complications
  - 43 other codes (diagnoses, problems, procedures, medications, labs)
- The VUMC cohort included both inpatient and outpatient encounters; the KPWA cohort included outpatient only.

### Index Date and Exclusion Criteria

- In PheNorm, a fixed data catchment period anchored to a patient-specific index date identifies data used to operationalize silver labels and features.
- The earliest encounter for each patient with any structured evidence of COVID-19 disease was used as **index date**.
- Our catchment period was **index date ±30 days**, which we consider likely to include relevant and exclude unrelated information.
- Eligible patients included adults (age 18+ years) with at least one encounter and ≥1000 characters of clinical text.

### **Silver Labels**

- PheNorm replaces scarce, costly gold-standard data with silver-standard data during model training.
- As silver labels are imperfect representations of true-case status, the PheNorm methods suggests considering multiple alternative versions of silver labels.
- We therefore used information from each patient's data catchment period to operationalize **4 silver-standard labels** that used either structured data or NLP-derived data.

### **Silver Labels**

- **1. Structured Label 1:** Count of calendar days with a COVID-19 diagnosis code (U07.1), including both outpatient visits and inpatient days
- 2. Structured Label 2: Count of calendar days with any of 6 COVID-19-related diagnosis codes: U07.1, J12.81, J12.82, B34.2, B97.21, B97.29
- **3.** NLP Label 1: Count of the number of mentions of the term "COVID-19" in chart notes
- **4. NLP Label 2:** Count of chart notes with an NLP-identified UMLS concept for COVID-19 disease (C5203670)

#### **Features**

- Machine learning models use features (variable, covariates) as input to produce an output based upon training data.
- Input **features** are usually based on structured data, such as diagnosis codes or laboratory values
- PheNorm's primary features are **NLP-extracted "clinical concepts"** mentioned in the unstructured text of clinical notes.
- We processed all clinical notes within a patient's catchment window using the **MetaMap Lite NLP tool** to identify clinical concepts mentioned in the text, represented using **UMLS Concepts.**

#### **Structured Data**

PheNorm uses primarily **NLP-extracted features** as the input to the predictive models, however, useful structured data can also be included as model features.

In this study, we operationalized **two** structured data features:

- patient sex (as captured in the EHR)
- patient age (in years)

### **Feature Engineering**

- However, "all clinical concepts" mentioned in patients' notes is a very large features space.
- Most of these concepts are likely uninformative.
- Like most phenotyping algorithms, PheNorm limits the input features to those that are relevant to the Health Outcome of Interest.
- As described earlier, we utilized the AFEP approach to automated feature extraction to define a "dictionary" of relevant concepts.

### **Feature Engineering: NLP Dictionary Creation**



#### **Feature Engineering: Additional Options**

- NLP Features for PheNorm are basically counts of mentions of clinical concepts within patient notes (in the catchment window). However, additional options can be considered:
- Negation: Count concepts negated in text? (e.g., "No fever")
- **Normalization**: Longer notes have more concepts; is that information useful, or misleading?
- **Dimension Reduction**: May yield simpler models without sacrificing performance by removing duplicative or less-informative features.

#### **Feature Engineering: Additional Options**

	Feature engineering of	options			
Model set	Exclude negated mentions	Normalize by patient's chart length	Dimension reduction pre- modeling	Scientific question	
1	No	No	Νο	Does simple feature engineering yield sufficient model performance?	
2	Yes	No	Νο	Does excluding NLP negation improve performance (vs Model set 1)?	
3	No	Yes	Νο	Does normalizing features improve performance (vs Model set 1)?	
4	No	No	Yes	Is performance preserved in models based on reduced feature sets?	
5	Yes	Yes	Yes	Do all feature engineering options combined improve performance?	

### Modeling

- We developed models for all 8 logical combinations of those options (<u>negation</u>, <u>normalization</u>, and <u>dimension reduction</u>).
- Each of these **8 model sets** included **<u>5 PheNorm models</u>**,
  - One for each of the 4 silver labels
  - A fifth aggregate model is the average of the predicted probabilities from the 4 silver-label models
  - 40 models total
- We trained these models using data from patients without gold-standard case labels and evaluated the models using data from a set-aside sample of patients with gold-standard labels.

### **Gold-Standard Sample**

- PheNorm uses silver labels for training, but gold-standard data is necessary for evaluation.
- We used manual chart review to create the gold-standard data used to evaluate our PheNorm models from a stratified random sample of patients.
- Trained chart abstractors following written guidelines assigned **phenotype positive** labels to patients with evidence of at least possible SARS-COV-2 infection and at least symptomatic COVID-19 disease, and **phenotype negative** labels to all other patients.
- Inter-rater agreement assessed using two reviewers at each site.

### **Methods – Evaluation & Outcomes**

#### **Evidence of COVID-19 Infection**

#### Definite or highly probable infection

• PCR-positive or explicit positive assertion

#### Probable or possible infection

• Symptoms are consistent with a diagnosis of COVID-19 and absence of an explicit *alternative* diagnosis

#### Unlikely infection

• Explicit *alternative* diagnosis or statement ruling-out COVID-19 and absence of relevant symptoms/labs

#### Not infected

• No indication in the EHR of infection

#### **Insufficient Information**

#### Severity of Illness Scale (NIH)

SEVERITY LEVEL	SIGN/SYMPTOM		
Asymptomatic	No symptoms		
Mild	Fever (>=100.4F)		
	Cough		
	Sore throat		
	Malaise/fatigue		
	Headache		
	Muscle pain		
	Nausea		
	Vomiting		
	Diarrhea		
	Loss of sense of taste or smell		
Moderate	Shortness of breath (SpO2 >=94%)		
	Dyspnea (SpO2 >=94%)		
	Abnormal chest imaging (SpO2 >=94%)		
Severe	SpO2 <94%		
	PaO2/FiO2* <300 mm Hg		
	Respiratory freq >30 breaths/min		
	Lung infiltrates >50%		
Critical	Respiratory failure		
	Septic shock		
	Multiple organ dysfunction		

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Study Cohorts

- VUMC: 24,177 patients, approximately 1.1 million notes
- KPWA: **8,329 patients**, 143,584 notes

Gold-standard evaluation sample

- VUMC: **419 patients** (Cohen's kappa 0.951)
- KPWA: **437 patients** (Cohen's kappa 0.802)

#### Characteristics of the study cohorts at VUMC and KPWA

	VUMC		KPWA	
Characteristic	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
All patients	24 177	100	8329	100
Sex is female	14 025	58	4837	58
Age group				
18-29 years	5645	23	1104	13
30-49 years	8131	34	2503	30
50-69 years	7433	31	3126	38
70+ years	2968	12	1596	19
Race is White	16 407	68	5335	64
Ethnicity is Hispanic	1018	4	756	9

- The AUCs across all PheNorm models ranged from 0.770 to 0.804 at VUMC and 0.801 to 0.853 at KPWA.
- Model PPVs (at maximum F1 score) ranged from 0.858 to 0.903 at VUMC and 0.772 to 0.876 at KPWA.
- The VUMC model with highest AUC was trained on Structured Label 2, without excluding negated mentions, feature normalization, or dimension reduction.
- The highest-AUC KPWA model was also trained on Structured Label 1, with feature normalization, without excluding negated mentions or dimension reduction.

Best performing model sets at each site when maximizing F1 Score

Study site (model set)	Silver label	AUC	Max. F1	Sensi- tivity	Speci- ficity	PPV	NPV
VUMC (model set 1)	Struc. 1	0.802	0.927	0.976	0.214	0.883	0.597
Negation: NO Normalize: NO	Struc. 2	0.804	0.929	0.976	0.234	0.885	0.617
Dim. Reduc. NO	NLP 1	0.788	0.937	0.982	0.309	0.896	0.743
	NLP 2	0.775	0.937	0.982	0.306	0.896	0.741
	Agg.	0.786	0.937	0.982	0.306	0.896	0.741
KPWA (model set 3)	Struc. 1	0.853	0.865	0.879	0.662	0.851	0.713
Negation: NO Normalize: YES	Struc. 2	0.851	0.862	0.875	0.662	0.850	0.706
Dim. Reduc: NO	NLP 1	0.819	0.861	0.945	0.451	0.791	0.789
	NLP 2	0.833	0.869	0.949	0.482	0.801	0.812
	Agg.	0.847	0.867	0.949	0.472	0.798	0.809

# Model PerforPPV = 0.90<br/>Sens = 0.90A) V JVIC, Model Set 1, Structured 2 Silver Label



### **Model Performance**

PPV = 0.80 PPV = 90 Sens = 0.90 Sens = 0.75

B) KPWA, Model Set 3, Structured 1 Silver Label



### **Model Transportability**

In addition to testing local models on local data, we also tested each others' models on local data, producing surprisingly good results.



### Discussion

- Model performance varied by silver label, but models trained on structured data labels generally had higher AUCs at both sites.
- Performance also varied when using alternative feature engineering options, but all yielded strong performance.
- Excluding negated mentions and normalizing feature counts had little impact on model performance; and dimension reduction produced models with strong performance based on fewer features.
- Overall, these changes/additions only minorly affected performance.

### Discussion

- Using cut-points of model-predicted probability that yielded greater than or equal to 80% PPV (a commonly used "benchmark") yields sensitivities of 0.999 in the best VUMC model and 0.905 in the best KPWA model.
- Performance metrics and levels suitable for addressing different specific scientific questions may be achieved by selecting different cut-points of predicted probability.

### Discussion

- At both study sites the performance of externally trained models was generally similar to that of internally trained models.
- At VUMC, the AUC of the best externally trained model was 0.804, compared to 0.817 for the best locally trained model.
- At KPWA, the AUC of the best-performing externally trained model was 0.834, compared to 0.853 for the best locally trained model.
- At least for this phenotype, this evidence of transportability of models is promising.

### Limitations

- We used data from early in the COVID-19 pandemic, which may introduce idiosyncrasies relative to other phenotypes and time periods.
- We used data from only 2 healthcare settings which, though diverse, may not be representative of other settings.
- The positive predictive value of the COVID-19 ICD code at VUMC was higher than expected (85%), but PheNorm still resulted in improved performance.
- More work should be done to assess PheNorm performance on other acute phenotypes .

### Conclusions

- The PheNorm approach can successfully identify an acute health condition, COVID-19 Disease.
- Tools such as PheNorm, utilizing unstructured EHR data, can support rapid phenotyping for public health surveillance.
- Preliminary results indicate that models trained at one site may be transportable to other sites with little decrease in performance.
- The simplicity of the PheNorm approach allows it to be applied at multiple study sites with substantially reduced overhead compared to traditional phenotyping.

# Sentinel

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# Thank You

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