

Keynote Address: Healthcare Analytics: Leveraging Predictive and Prescriptive Methods to Prevent and Treat Diseases

Brian Denton

University of Michigan

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Brian Denton is the Stephen M. Pollock Professor of Industrial and Operations Engineering and the Chair of the Department of Industrial and Operations Engineering at the University of Michigan. His research interests are in data analytics and data-driven optimization under uncertainty with applications to medicine, public health, and healthcare delivery. He is a Professor in the Department of Urology (by courtesy) at Michigan Medicine and a member of the Institute for Healthcare Policy and Innovation and the Cancer Center at the University of Michigan. His research has been funded by the National Science Foundation, the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, the National Institutes of Health, the U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs, and industry research contracts. He is past President of the Institute for Operations Research and the Management Sciences (INFORMS), and he is an elected Fellow of INFORMS.





Healthcare Analytics: Predictive and Prescriptive Methods to Prevent and Treat Diseases

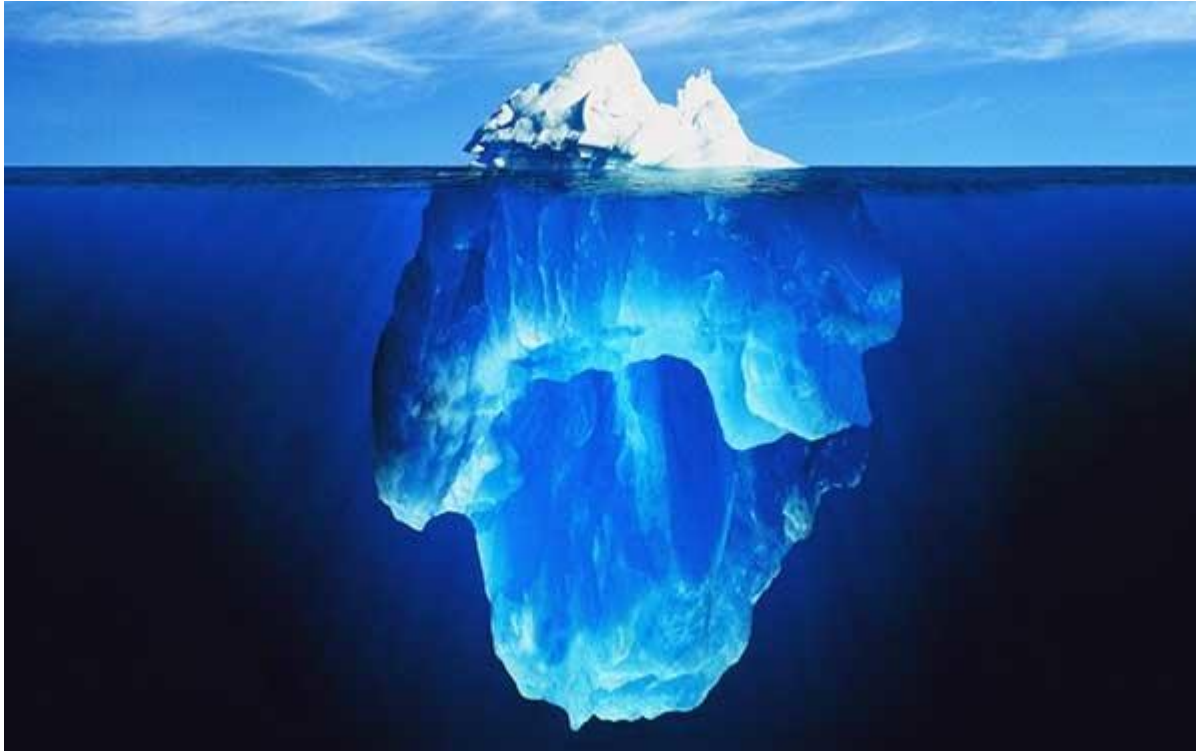
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Brian Denton
Stephen M. Pollock Collegiate Professor
Department of Industrial and Operations Engineering
University of Michigan



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Healthcare Data



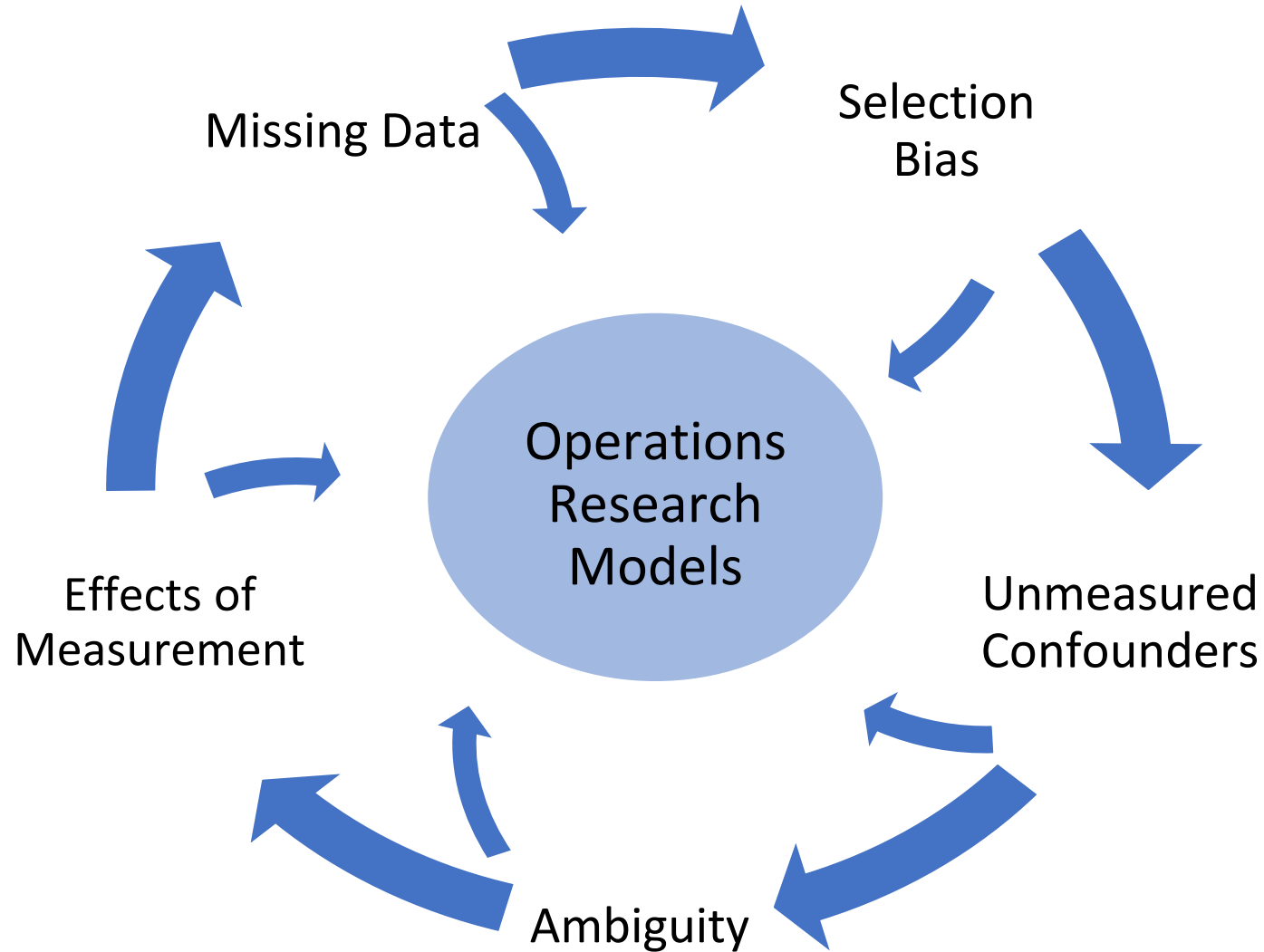
~~Randomized Controlled Trials~~

Observational Data: Patient data collected through observations of the natural healthcare delivery process during routine medical care.

Observational Data

- Demographics: age, sex, race, ethnicity, geography,...
- Encounters: blood pressure, weight, symptoms,...
- Labs: cholesterol, blood sugar, creatinine,...
- Procedures: biopsy, endoscopy, imaging,...
- Insurance claims: health services, prescription refills,...

A Whirl-Wind of Problems (Opportunities?)



Three Examples of OR & Analytics in Medicine

1. Prevention

2. Diagnosis

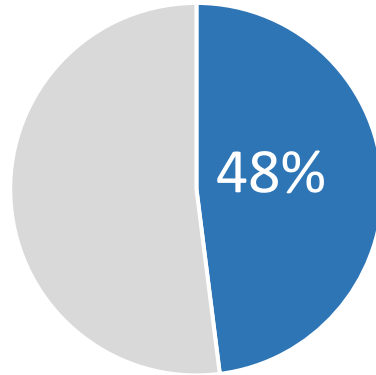
3. Treatment

1. Prevention

Setting: *Prevention of cardiovascular disease*

OR Challenge: *sequential decisions under uncertainty with sparse data*

1 in 3 deaths are due to cardiovascular disease (CVD)



\$407 Billion

Percentage of people at risk of CVD in the U.S.

Annual cost of CVD in the U.S.

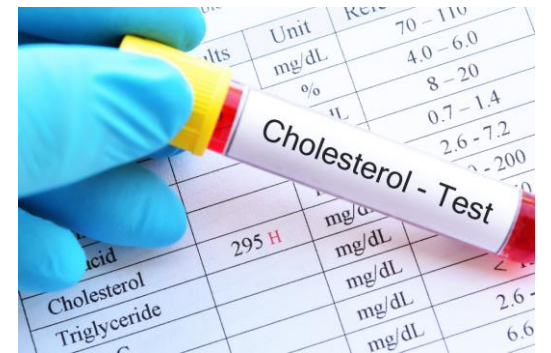
Cholesterol monitoring recommendations vary from 3 months to 6 years between testing

American College of Cardiology (ACC) Policy *

Age:

- Under 75: 4 to 6 years
- Over 75: 1 to 2 years

On treatment: 3 to 12 months



* Grundy, S. M. et al. (2018). 2018 AHA/ACC Guideline on the Management of Blood Cholesterol. American College of Cardiology 139 (25):e1082–e1143.

Should CVD risk factors be used to recommend cholesterol screening?



- Cholesterol
- Blood pressure
- Age
- Race
- Sex
- Smoking habits
- Treatment

Risk Calculator

10-year risk of a
heart attack or stroke



Physician's Decision: when to recommend the patient return for cholesterol screening

Finite horizon Markov Decision Process to maximize expected societal rewards

Decision epochs: t

40-year decision horizon with quarterly decision epochs

States: s_t

Static and dynamic risk factors, health outcomes

Actions: a_t

When the patient is advised to have next cholesterol test

Transition probabilities: $p_t(s_{t+1}|s_t, a_t)$

Cholesterol, blood pressure, risk of CVD

Rewards: $r_t(s_t, a_t)$

Expected societal benefits and costs

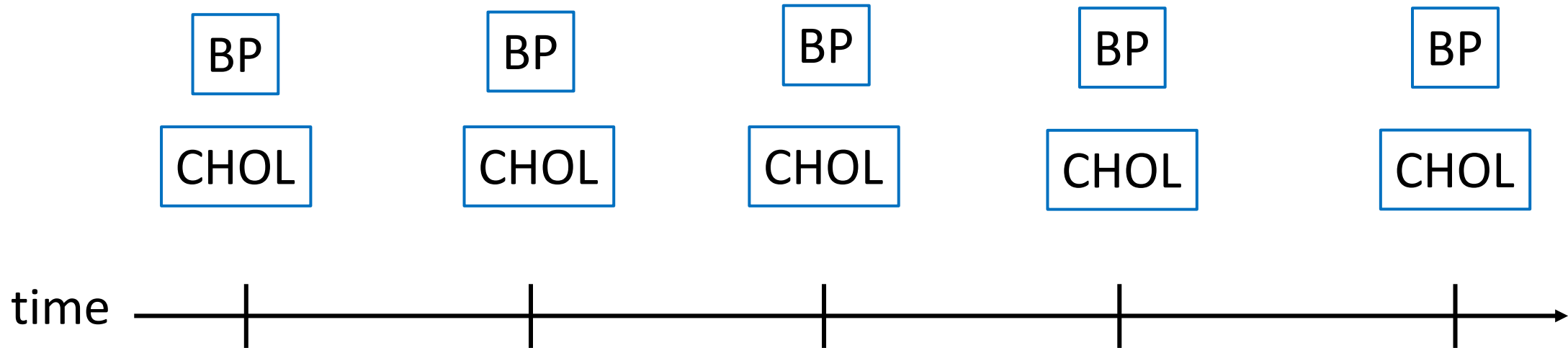
Optimal Policy

State: s_t  **Action: a_t**

(Chol, BP, Age...) next Chol test

(Bellman's Equations)

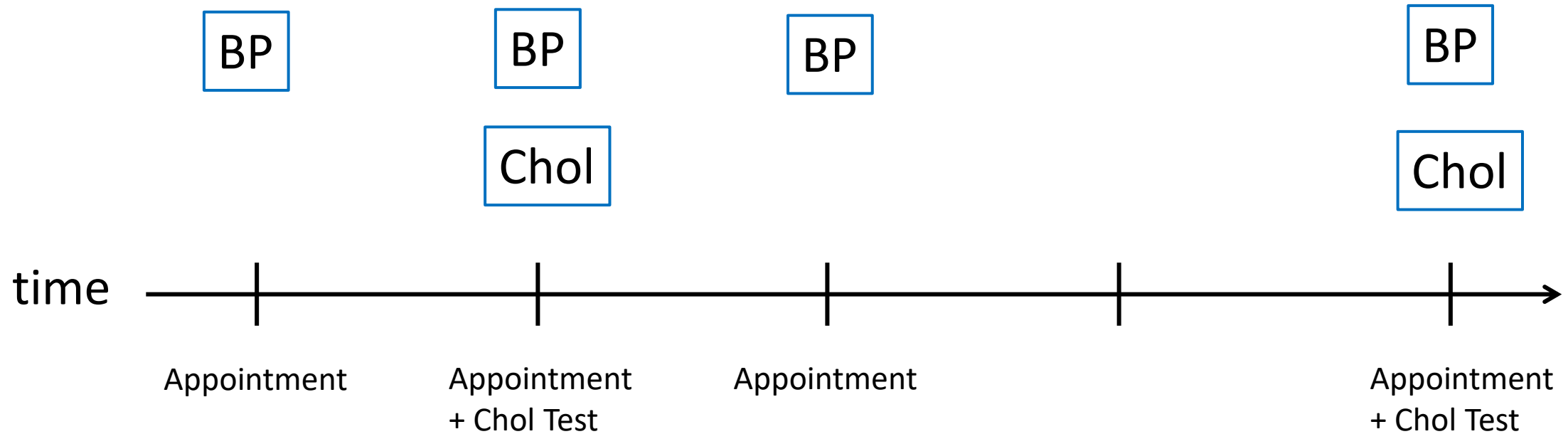
For complete data, transition probabilities are based on state transition frequency



S_{ij} := Number of observations from state i to state j in one epoch.

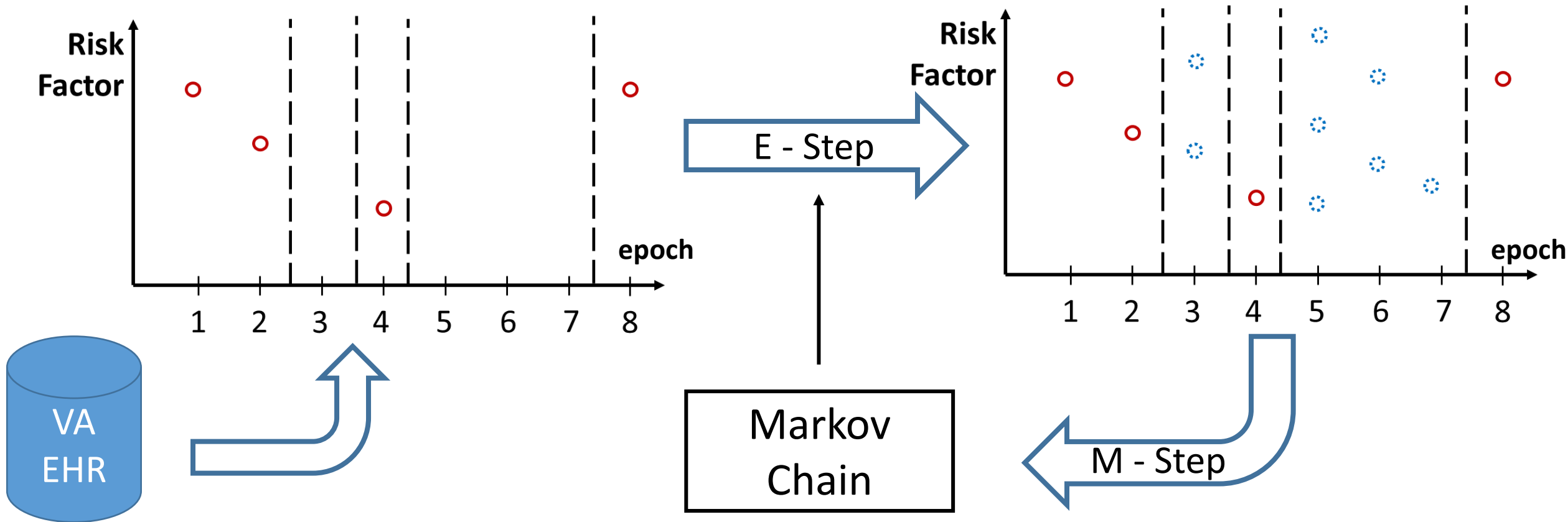
$$P_{ij} = \frac{S_{ij}}{\sum_k S_{ik}} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \text{Fraction of } S_{ij} \text{ over all observations of transitions from state } i.$$

In reality, observational data are sparse



BP = Blood Pressure; Chol = Cholesterol

E-M Algorithm estimates transition probabilities for unequally spaced data

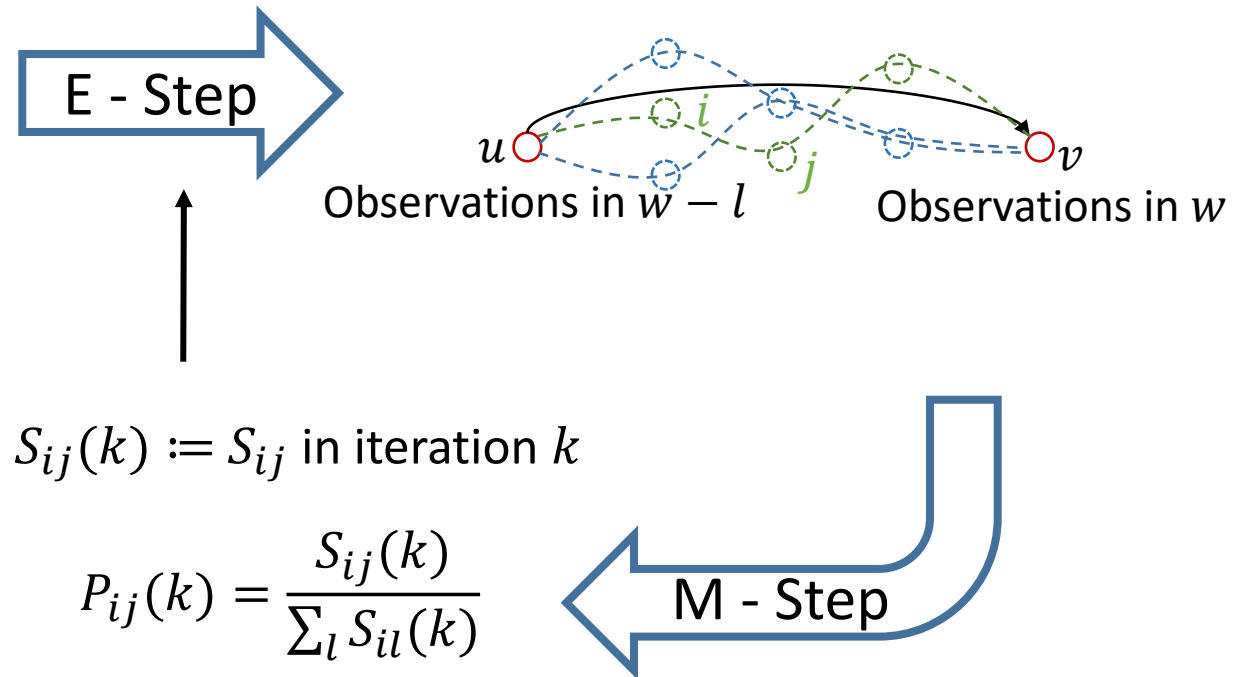


Dempster AP, Laird NM, Rubin DB (1978). Maximum likelihood from incomplete data via the EM algorithm. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, 39(1):1-22.

Iterative estimation of transition probabilities using EM Algorithm

O_{uvw} := Number of observations from state u to state v in w epochs.

$P_{ijl,uvw}$ = Probability that a transition between i and j occurs in l epochs given the observations.



Finite horizon Markov Decision Process to maximize expected societal rewards

Decision epochs: t

40-year decision horizon with quarterly decision epochs

States: s_t

Static and dynamic risk factors, health outcomes

Actions: a_t

When the patient is advised to have next cholesterol test

Transition probabilities: $p_t(s_{t+1}|s_t, a_t)$

Cholesterol, blood pressure, risk of CVD

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Expected societal benefits and costs

Optimal Policy

State: s_t  **Action: a_t**

(Chol, BP, Age...) next Chol test

(Bellman's Equations)

Optimal recommendations depend on the patient's age, race, sex, and CVD risk

Overall patient groups: → Recommendations depends on the patient's age and CVD risk

White men

Black men

White women

Younger patients →

More appointments compared to ACC Guideline

More appointments compared to white men.

Fewer appointments compared to white men.

2. Diagnosis

Setting: *Imaging to detect metastatic cancer in patients diagnosed with prostate cancer*

OR Challenge: *machine learning, selection bias, class imbalance*

Imaging modalities to detect metastases in newly diagnosed prostate cancer patients

Bone Scan (BS)

- Detect bone metastasis

Computed Tomography (CT)

- Detects lymph node metastasis



Harms of not imaging

- Metastatic cancer may go undetected
- Missed diagnoses subject patients to unnecessary treatments (e.g., radical prostatectomy)
- Appropriate treatment (e.g., chemotherapy) is delayed



Harms of imaging



An initiative of the ABIM Foundation

- Potentially harmful radiation exposure
- Incidental findings that require painful and risky follow-up procedures (e.g., bone biopsy)
- Blocks access to imaging resources for other patients and unnecessarily increases healthcare costs

How can risk factors for metastatic cancer help decide which patients to recommend for imaging?

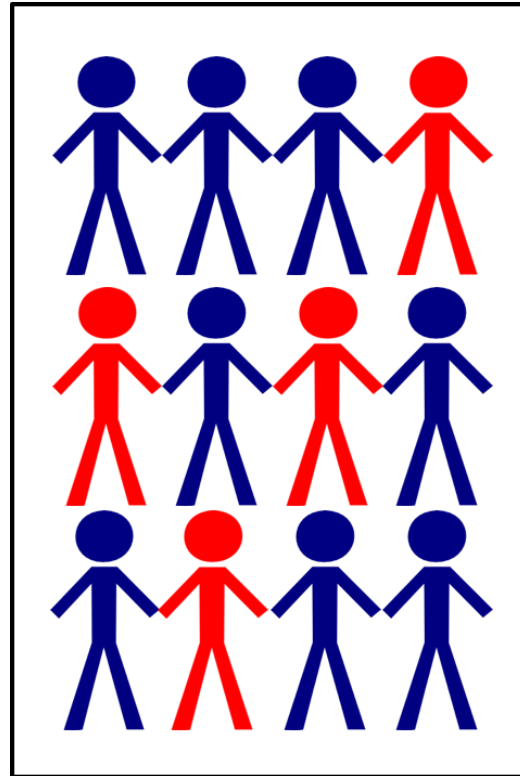
- Age
- Race and ethnicity
- Biomarkers
- Pathology
- Clinical tumor stage (e.g., T1a/b/c, T2a/b/c, T3/4)



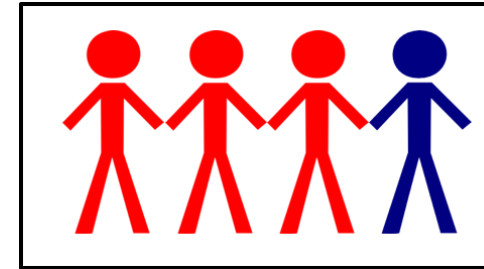
Physician's Decision: when to recommend imaging for patients newly diagnosed with prostate cancer

Selection bias

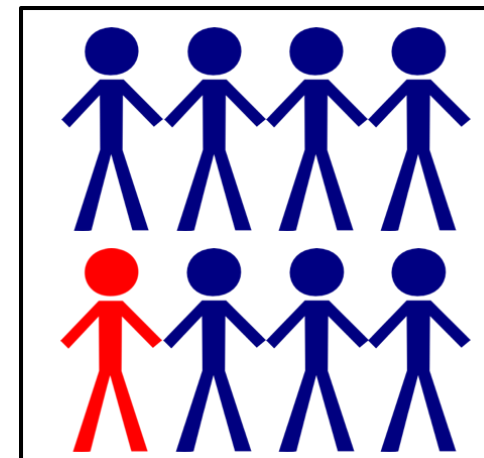
Entire patient population



Patients who received imaging



Patients who did not receive imaging



Metastatic Cancer



No Metastatic Cancer

Effects of selection bias

Guidelines (G)	Uncorrected		Bias-corrected	
	Sensitivity	Specificity	Sensitivity	Specificity
<u>Bone scan</u>				
EAU	97.9	33.4	84.5	75.7
AUA	97.9	43.5	81.2	82.0
<u>CT scan</u>				
EAU	98.4	36.5	89.9	74.4
AUA	96.8	49.2	87.2	82.5

EAU: European Association of Urology; AUA: American Urology Association

Begg, C. B., Greenes, R. A. "Assessment of diagnostic tests when disease verification is subject to selection bias," *Biometrics*, 39:207, 1983.

Effects of verification bias

Guidelines (G)	Uncorrected		Bias-corrected	
	Sensitivity	Specificity	Sensitivity	Specificity
Bone scan				
EAU	97.9	33.4	84.5	75.7
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Begg, C. B., Greenes, R. A. "Assessment of diagnostic tests when disease verification is subject to selection bias," *Biometrics*, 39:207, 1983.

Correcting for selection bias

Estimate sensitivity and specificity based on the entire population:

$$P(G + | Disease Present) = \frac{P(Disease Present | G +)P(G +)}{Pr(Disease Present | G +)P(G +) + Pr(Disease Present | G -)P(G -)}$$

$$P(G - | Disease \textit{not} Present) = \frac{P(Disease \textit{not} Present | G -)P(G -)}{Pr(Disease \textit{not} Present | G +)P(G +) + Pr(Disease \textit{not} Present | G -)P(G -)}$$

Main Assumptions: Data missing at random; Factors considered by the guideline are the only factors that influence imaging decisions.

Guideline optimization – which patients should be imaged?

- Two important challenges:
 - Learning from unlabeled data
 - Not all patients receive imaging at diagnosis
 - Learning from imbalanced data
 - A minority of patients have metastatic cancer
- To address these challenges, we combined semi-supervised and cost-sensitive learning

Cost-sensitive Laplacian Kernel Logistic Regression

$$f^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{1}{l} \sum_{i=1}^l \delta \mathbb{1}_{\{y_i=1\}} \log(1 + e^{-f(\mathbf{x}_i)}) + (1 - \delta) \mathbb{1}_{\{y_i=-1\}} \log(1 + e^{f(\mathbf{x}_i)})$$

Higher cost on missing metastatic cancers

$$+ \gamma_{\mathcal{H}} \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 + \gamma_{\mathcal{M}} \mathbf{f}^T \mathbf{L} \mathbf{f}$$

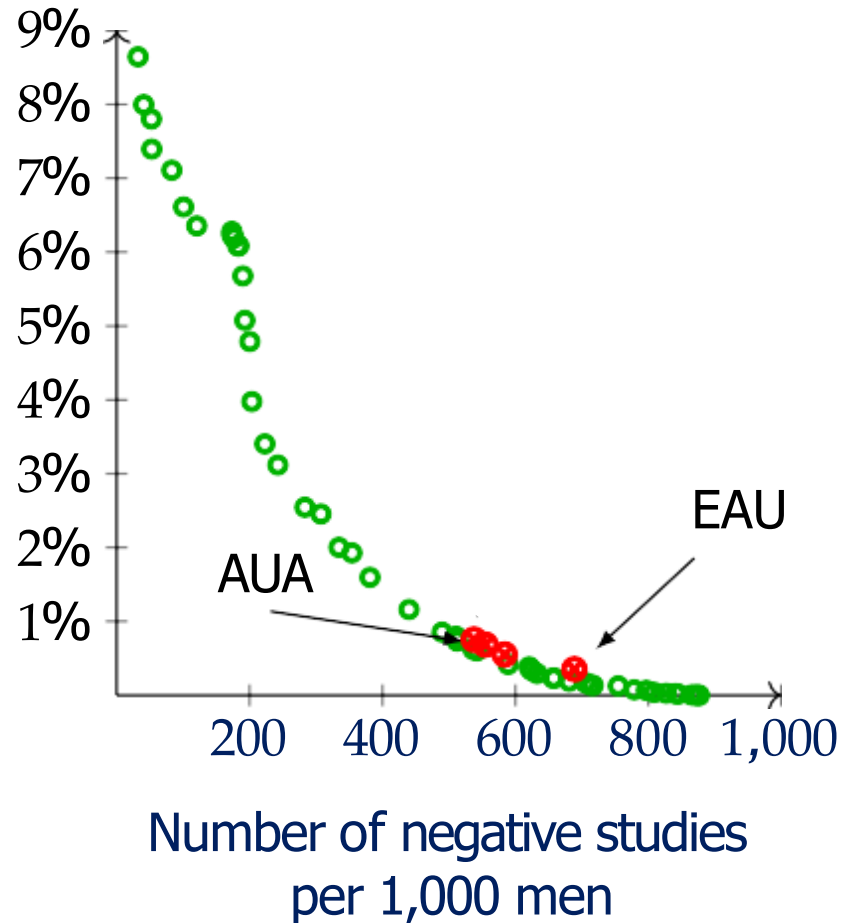
Avoid overfitting

Extract information from unimaged patients

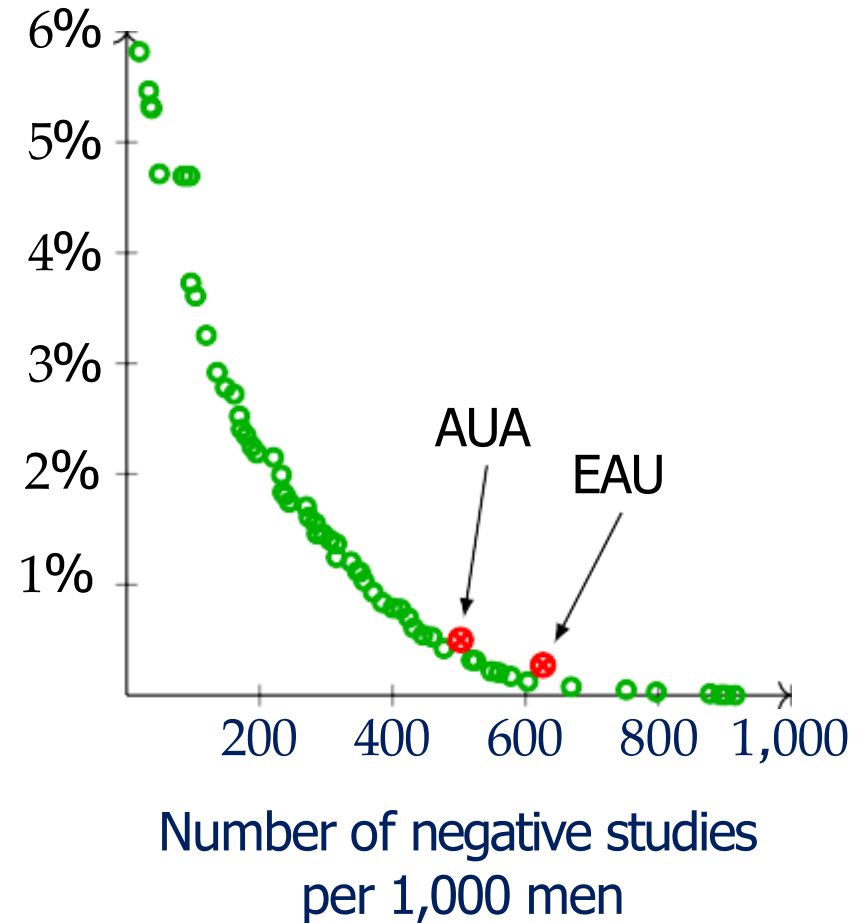
Optimized imaging guideline performance for varying δ

Percentage of patients with missed metastatic cancer

BS guideline design

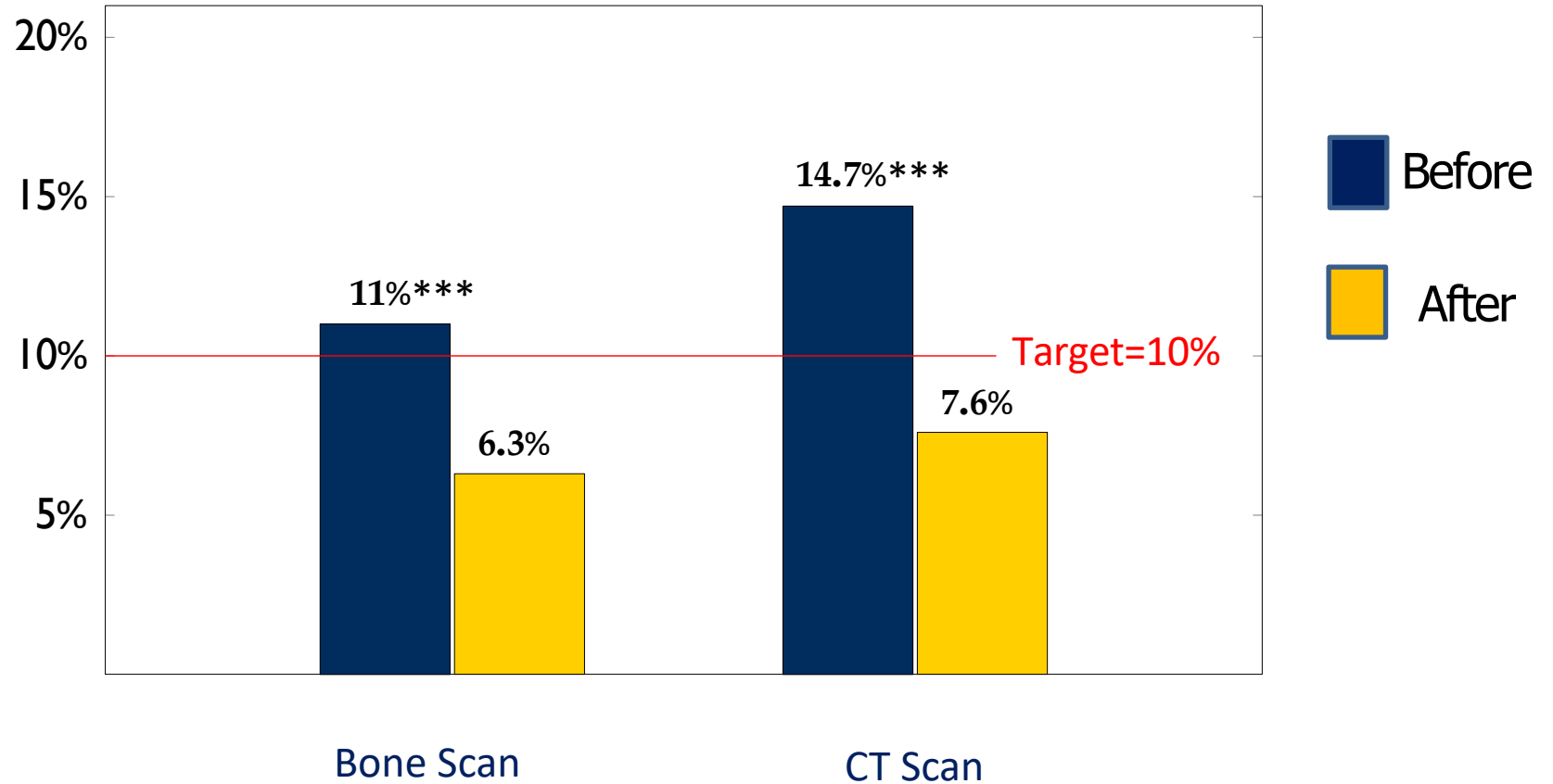


CT scan guideline design



Michigan state-wide decrease in imaging

Imaging rates for patients not recommended by the guideline



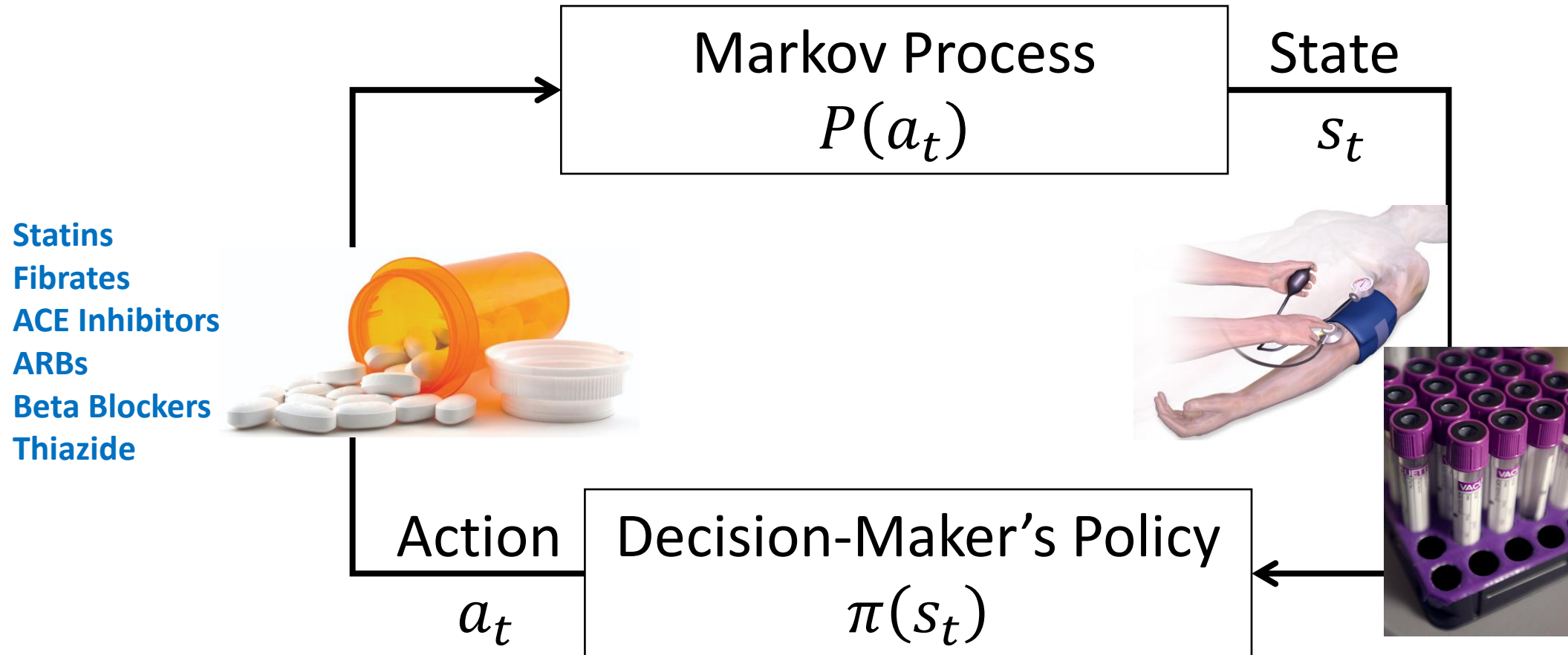
Merdan, S., Barnett, C., Miller, D.C., Montie, J.E., Denton, B.T. "Data Analytics for Optimal Detection of Metastatic Prostate Cancer," *Operations Research*, 69 (3), 774-794, 2021

3. Treatment

Setting: *Treatment of Type 2 diabetes*

OR Challenge: *ambiguity in risk estimates;
stochastic integer programming*

Markov decision process sequence of steps



Well-established clinical studies give conflicting estimates about CVD risk

AMERICAN COLLEGE of CARDIOLOGY ASCVD Risk Estimator

8.2%

AMERICAN COLLEGE of CARDIOLOGY ASCVD Risk Estimator Plus

Estimate Risk Therapy Impact Advice

Current 10-Year ASCVD Risk **8.2%** Previous 10-Year ASCVD Risk ~%

Lifetime ASCVD Risk **50%**

Patient Demographics

Current Age: 50 Sex: Male Female Race: White African American Other

Current Labs/Exam

Total Cholesterol (mg/dL)	HDL Cholesterol (mg/dL)	LDL Cholesterol (mg/dL)	Systolic Blood Pressure (mm of Hg)
185	44	80	144

Personal History

History of Diabetes? On Hypertension Treatment? Smoker:

Framingham Heart Study
A Project of the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute and Boston University

17.8%

General CVD Risk Prediction Using Lipids

Sex: M F
Age (years): 50
Systolic Blood Pressure (mmHg): 144
Treatment for Hypertension: Yes No
Current smoker: Yes No
Diabetes: Yes No
HDL: 44
Total Cholesterol: 185

Calculate

Your Heart/Vascular Age: 67

10 Year Risk

Your risk	17.8%
Normal	7.7%
Optimal	4.1%

Multi-model Markov Decision Process notation

Generalizes a standard Markov decision process

- States, $\mathcal{S} \equiv \{1, \dots, S\}$
- Decision epochs, $\mathcal{T} \equiv \{1, \dots, T\}$
- Actions, $\mathcal{A} \equiv \{1, \dots, A\}$
- Rewards, $R \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{T}}$

Finite set of models, $\mathcal{M} = \{1, \dots, |\mathcal{M}|\}$

- Model m : An MDP $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{T}, R, P^m)$
- Transition probabilities P^m are model-specific
- Model weights: $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_{|\mathcal{M}|}$

The **weighted value problem** seeks a single policy (π) that performs across all MDPs

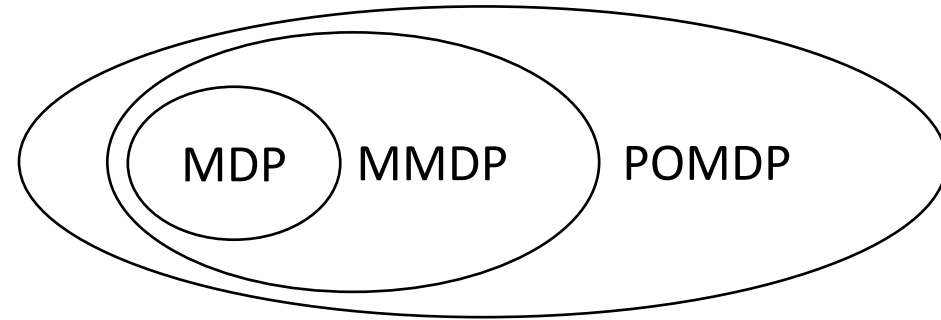
Performance of policy π in model m :

$$v^m(\pi) = \mathbb{E}^{\pi, P^m} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T r_t(s_t, a_t) + r_{T+1}(s_{T+1}) \right]$$

Weighted value problem:

$$W^* = \max_{\pi \in \Pi} \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} \lambda_m v^m(\pi)$$

The weighted value problem is hard



The MMDP is a special case of a partially-observable MDP.

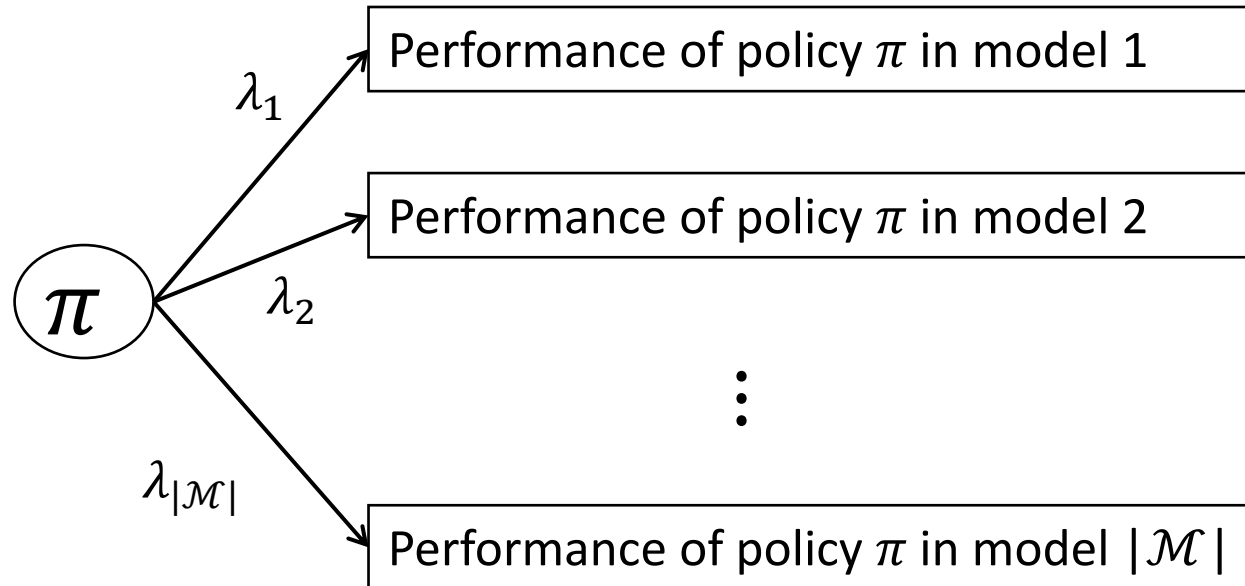
Proposition: The optimal policy may be history-dependent.

Proof by contradiction

Proposition: In general, the Weighted Value Problem is PSPACE-hard.

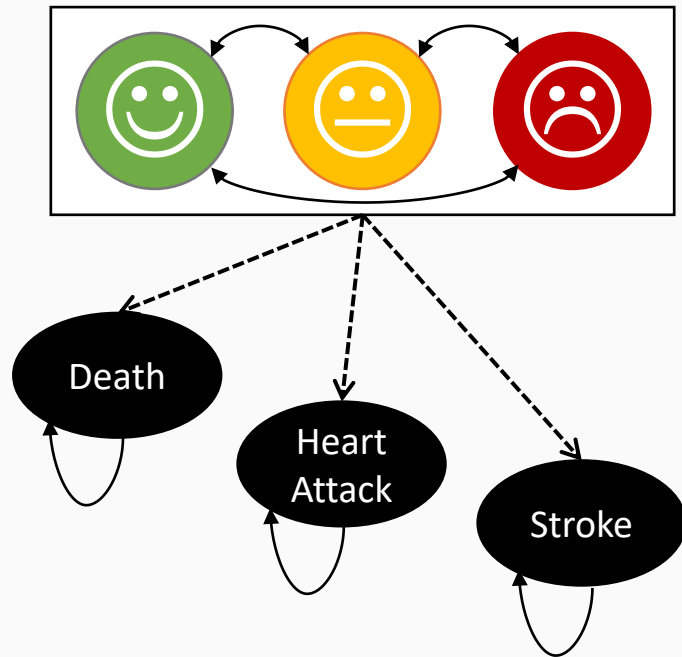
Reduction from *Quantified Satisfiability*

MMDPs can be formulated as two-stage stochastic integer program



Stochastic program	MMDP
Scenarios	Model of MDP
Binary first-stage decision variables	Policy
Continuous second-stage decision variables	MDP model value functions

Example: treatment for cardiovascular disease for patients with type 2 diabetes



Multi-model Markov decision process

- 4,096 states
- 64 actions: combinations of medication
- 40 decision epochs
- 2 models

Case study data

- Longitudinal data from Mayo Clinic
- Framingham, ACC risk calculators
- Disutilities from medical literature

A comparison of MMDP policy to MDP policies that ignore model ambiguity

Quality-Adjusted Life Years Gained
Over No Treatment, per 1000 Men

Optimal Decisions for FHS Model

MMDP Decisions

Optimal Decisions for ACC Model

In some cases, ignoring ambiguity has relatively minor implications

Quality-Adjusted Life Years Gained
Over No Treatment, per 1000 Men

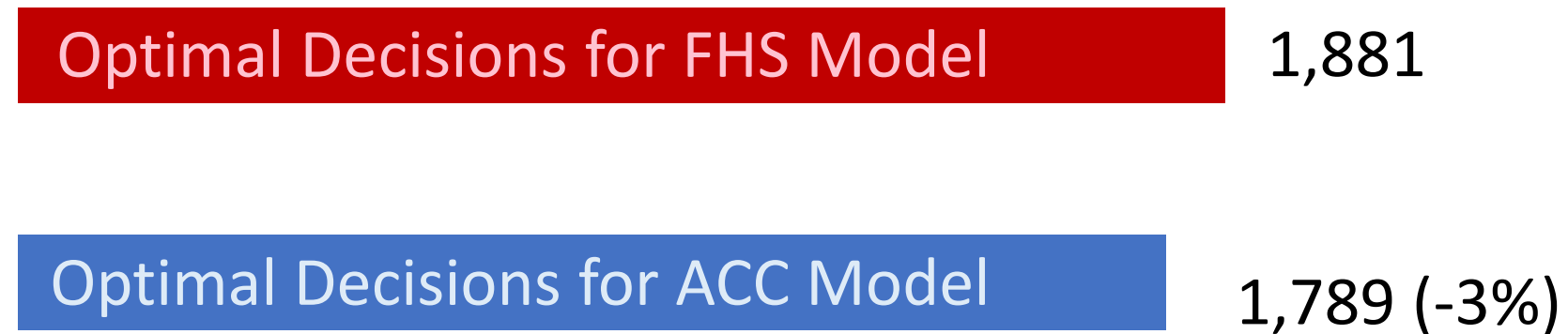
Optimal Decisions for FHS Model

1,881

Framingham Heart Study Model

In some cases, ignoring ambiguity has relatively minor implications

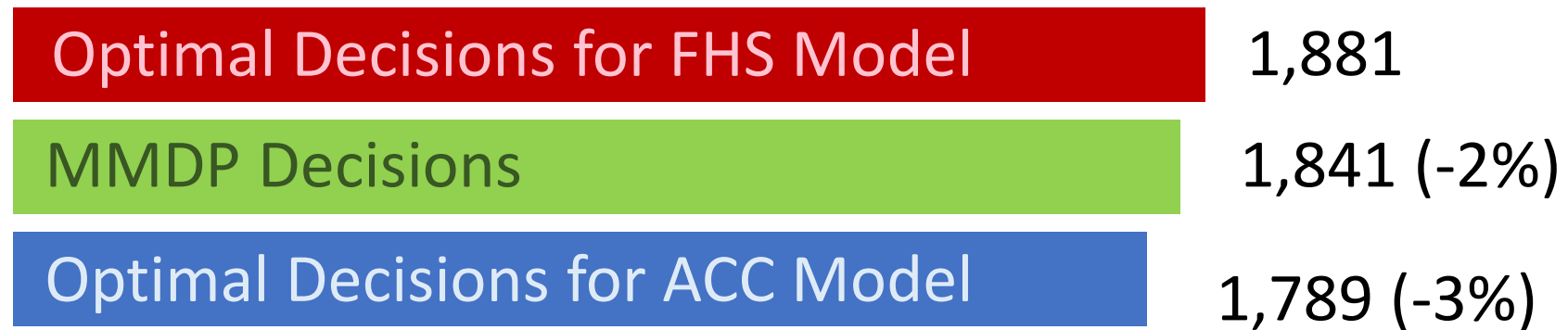
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Framingham Heart Study Model

In some cases, ignoring ambiguity has relatively minor implications

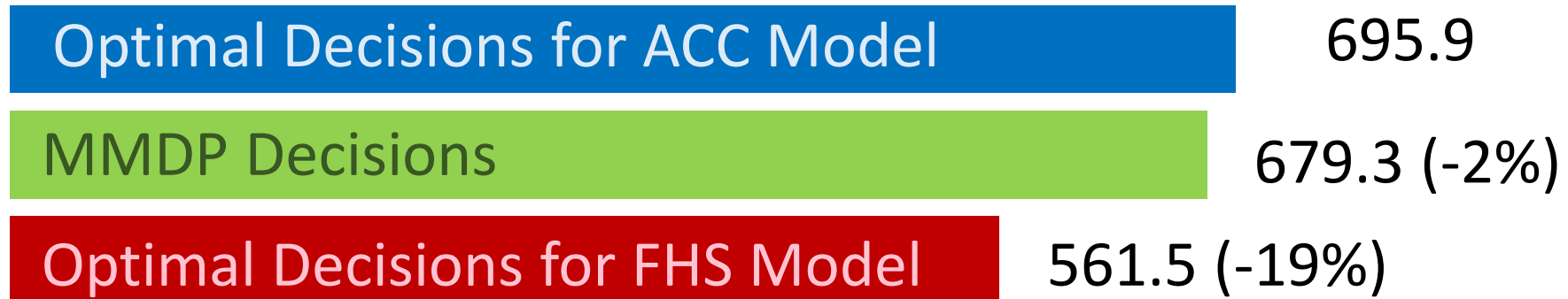
Quality-Adjusted Life Years Gained
Over No Treatment, per 1000 Men



Framingham Heart Study Model

But in other cases, ignoring ambiguity can have major implications

Quality-Adjusted Life Years Gained
Over No Treatment, per 1000 Men



American College of Cardiology Model

Recent articles on MMDPs and extensions

Models for chronic disease to help resolve model ambiguity

1. **Steimle, L.**, Kauffman, D., Denton, B.T., “Multi-model Markov Decision Processes: A New Method for Mitigating Parameter Ambiguity,” *IIE Transactions*, 53(10):1124-39, 2021
2. **Steimle, L.**, Ahluwalia, V., Kamdar, C., Denton, B.T., “Decomposition Methods for Solving Multi-model Markov Decision Processes,” *IIE Transactions*, 53 (12), 1295-1310, 2021

A recent study that addresses ambiguity for active surveillance of prostate cancer:

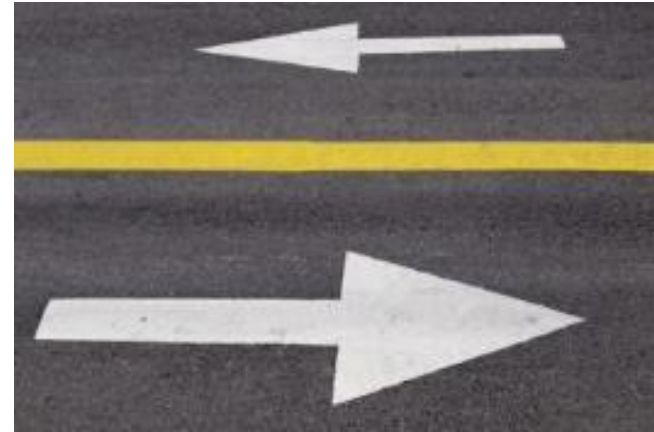
Li, W., Denton, B.T., “Multi-model Partially Observable Markov Decision Processes,” Working Paper, 2023, (available on Optimization Online)

Recap

1. Prevention of cardiovascular events; Markov decision process (MDP) with sparse data
2. Diagnosis of cancer; machine learning, selection bias, and class imbalance
3. Treatment of diabetes; MMDP, stochastic programming, ambiguity in risk models

Parting Thoughts

- Observational data present challenges and opportunities for Medicine and OR
- OR is still underutilized in medicine; there are many unexplored opportunities at the intersection of OR & Analytics



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Jeremy Sussman, MD





COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING
INDUSTRIAL & OPERATIONS ENGINEERING
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

Brian Denton
Industrial and Operations Engineering
University of Michigan

btdenton@umich.edu

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