

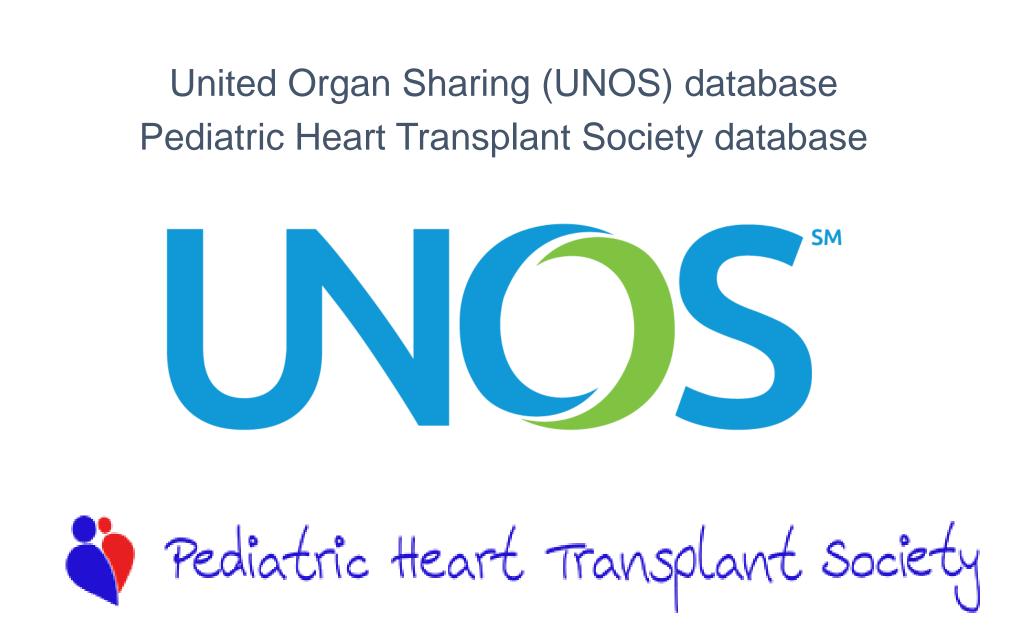


Objectives / Background

Organ transplants can be life-saving for people but are also full of potential risks that physicians and transplantation teams can't predict in the future. Because every person is different from others, including their organs which have been specialized for their own body. With the advancement in the medical field, we can only reduce the risk of organ transplanting between humans. However, the reduction in risk can give a large number of potential variables that have to be considered.

With the advancements in Machine Learning models, the tasks of evaluating those big amounts of variables and processing complex relationships can be more efficiently performed by using Machine Learning models to assist physicians in decision-making and considering potential organ offers. Additionally, Machine Learning models can also be trained to predict post-organ transplant outcomes. The purpose of this poster is to compare the existing research on the topic and figure out how can they support each other. Not just Machine Learning is being researched, Deep Learning has also proven to have potential in these kinds of tasks.

Data used:



Performances

Among all of the machine learning models has been researched, artificial neural network (ANN), and deep neural network (DNN) stands out with their performances followed by other machine learning models.

In predicting mortality after Heart Transplant, the DNN model achieved an AUC of 0.72, a Brier score of 0.08, a calibration slope of 0.99, a calibration intercept of -0.01, and an IDI of 0.05. And the ANN shows the best performance for predicting outcomes at 3 years post Liver Transplant. and Pediatric Heart Transplant (HTx)(DNN is not used in these researches).

For liver transplants, the ANN model achieved an accuracy of 0.82, a sensitivity of 0.83, a specificity of 0.81, a PPV of 0.86, an NPV of 0.77, an AUC of 0.88, and an F1 score of 0.84. For Pediatric Heart Transplants, ANN had the highest accuracy and area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC).

Machine Learning in predicting outcomes of organ transplantation

Author: Khoa Dao

Mentor: Prof. Zhe He

Machine Learning Algorithms and Processes:

The Machine Learning Models that are being used for research are logistic regression (LR), multiple logistic regression (MLR), support vector machine (SVM), classification and regression trees (CART), random forests (RF), support vector machine (SVM), gradient boosting machine (GBM), artificial neural network (ANN), and deep neural network (DNN).

One of the ways to test and compare the Machine Learning Models is the shuffled 10-fold CV and rolling CV (Cross Validation). The shuffled 10-fold CV is a method to evaluate how well a machine learning model can predict new data. It works by dividing your data into # smaller sets, randomly shuffling them, and then using 9 sets for training and 1 set for testing. This is repeated 10 times, each time using a different set for testing. It does not have to be 10 times (5-fold CV). It can be any amount but 10 tends to be the most effective.

The other similar way that can be done is Rolling CV (Rolling Cross-Validation). Rolling cross-validation is a technique used to estimate the performance of machine learning models on time series data. It involves creating multiple folds or subsets of data that are ordered and using each fold as a validation set while using all previous folds as training sets. This way, the model can learn from past data and be tested on future data

For Deep Learning (DL) models, the feature importance (SHAP) is a way for researchers to DL models. Feature importance is a way of measuring how much each feature contributes to the predictions of a machine-learning, deep-learning model. The SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) approach assigns a SHAP value to each feature, which indicates how much the feature alters the prediction in comparison to the average prediction. To prioritize features and see how they affect the predictions, features can be ranked using SHAP values.

In order to analyze the results from these models, researchers examine the using Area under the ROC Curve (AUC). The false positive rate (FPR) is shown against the true positive rate (TPR) at various levels on the ROC curve. The likelihood that a randomly selected positive example would be ranked higher than a randomly selected negative example is represented by the AUC. An AUC of 1 would indicate a perfect classifier, whereas an AUC of 0.5 would indicate a random classifier.

| Example of the process | | | |
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| 114 variablesDonor, recipient or matching | | | |
| 365 days 90 days | | : | |
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| | UNOS Database Heart transplant 1994–2016 67,939 patients overall 59,590 adult and 8,349 pediatric 114 variables Donor, recipient or matching 365 days post-transplant mortality 90 days Random forest XGBoost L2 regularized logistic regression L2 regularized Cox regression Survival gradient boosting | UNOS Database Heart transplant 1994–2016 67,939 patients overall 59,590 adult and 8,349 pediatric 114 variables Donor, recipient or matching 365 days post-transplant mortality 90 days Random forest XGBoost L2 regularized logistic regression L2 regularized Cox regression Survival gradient boosting | UNOS Database Heart transplant 1994–2016 67,939 patients overall 59,590 adult and 8,349 pediatric 1994 114 variables Donor, recipient or matching 365 days post-transplant mortality 90 days Random forest XGBoost L2 regularized logistic regression L2 regularized Cox regression Survival gradient boosting |

Example of the process. (Robert J.H. Miller)

