

# Artificial intelligence in the perioperative period

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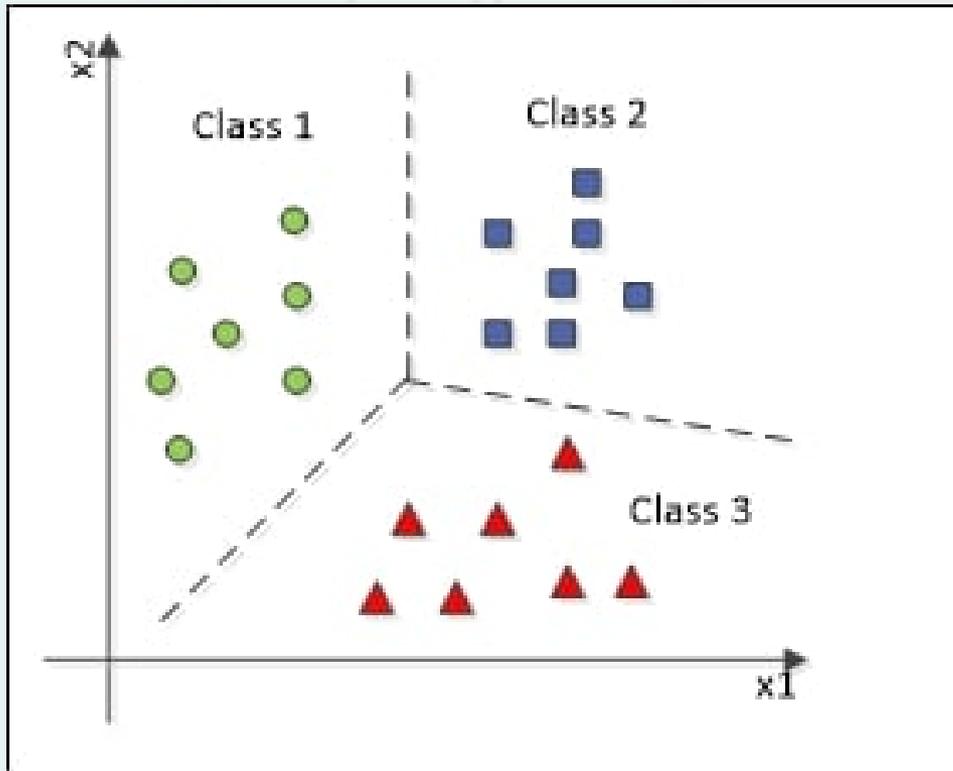
# AI – the common picture



Reality is much more banal!



# Main usage: Classification

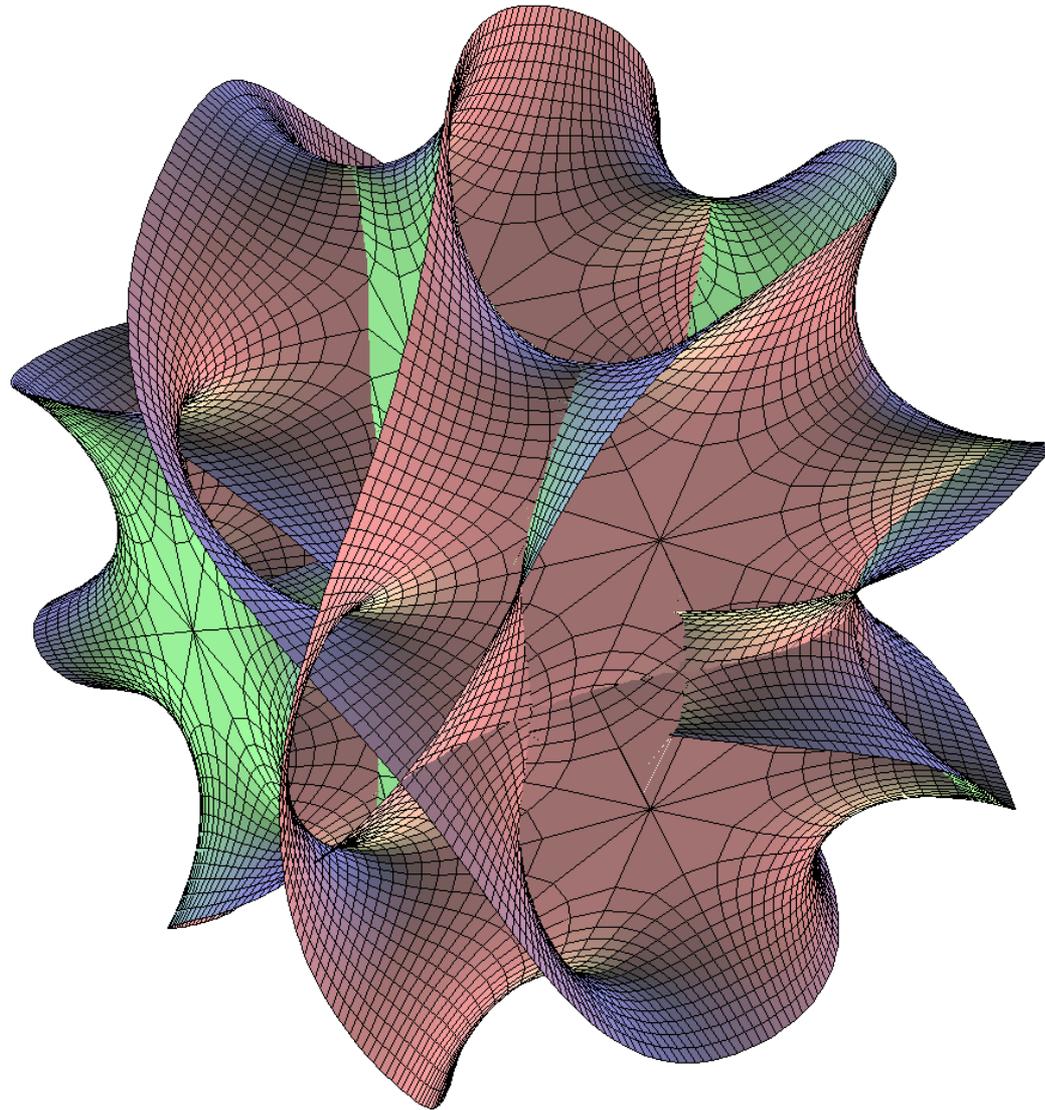


**Patient has a certain diagnosis?**  
Yes / No

**Patient survives?**  
Yes / No

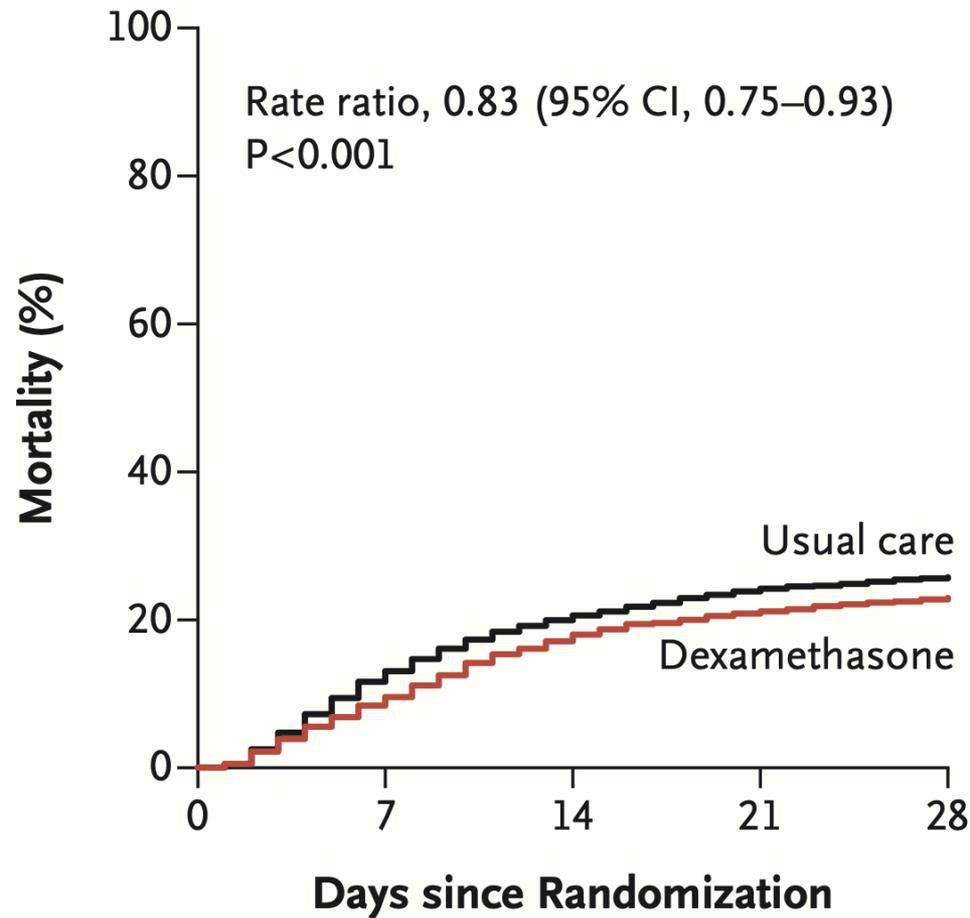
**Medication works?**  
Yes / No

# ML / AI is about multidimensionality



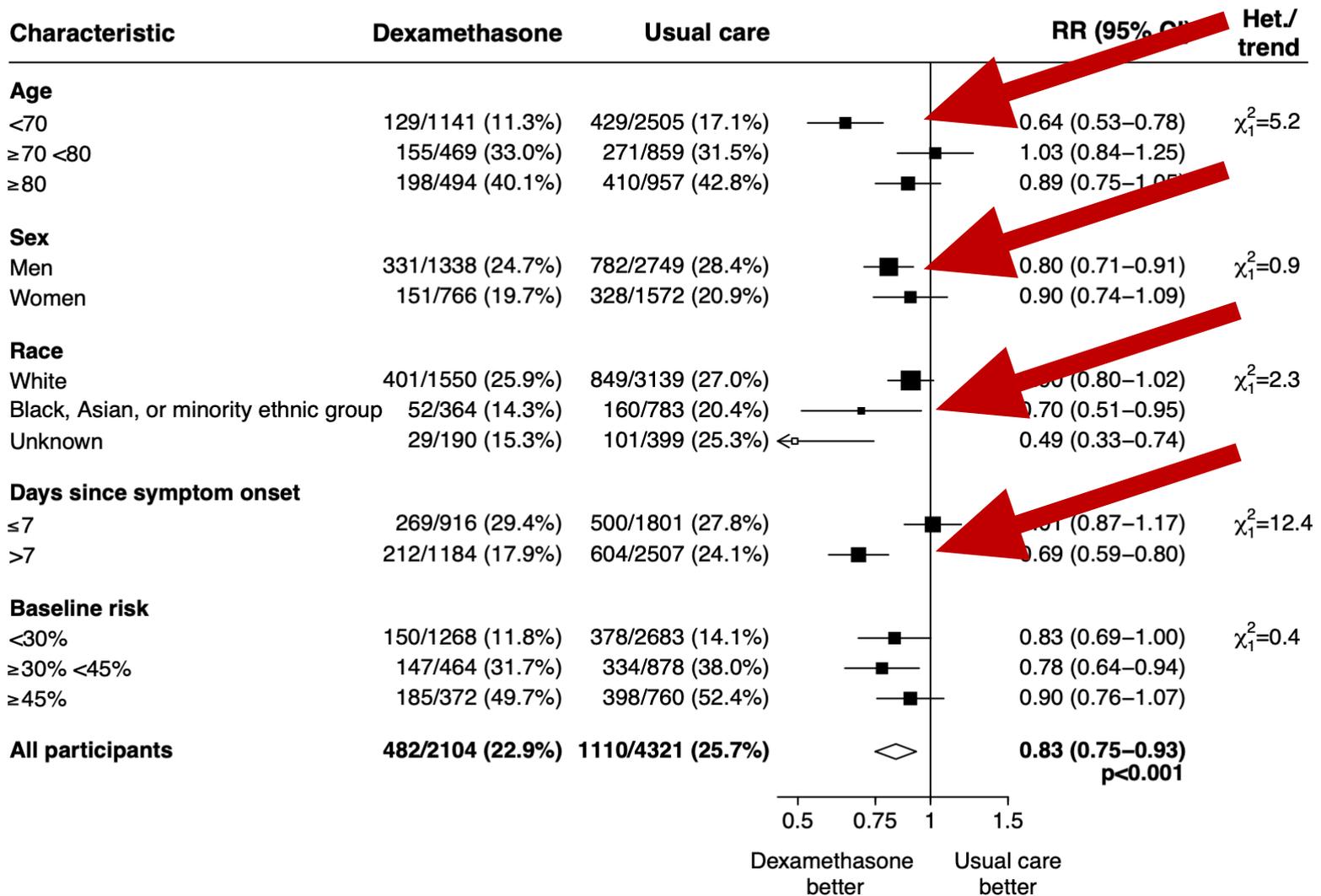
## Dexamethasone in Hospitalized Patients with Covid-19

The RECOVERY Collaborative Group\*



# For whom do corticosteroids work?

**Figure S1: Effect of allocation to dexamethasone on 28-day mortality by other pre-specified baseline characteristics**



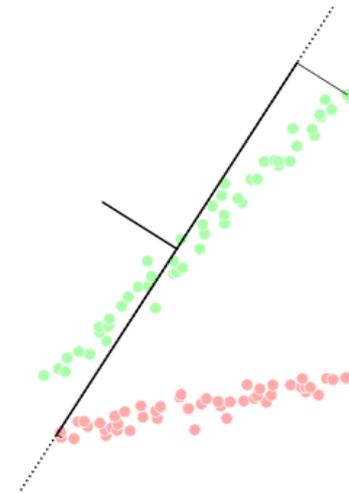
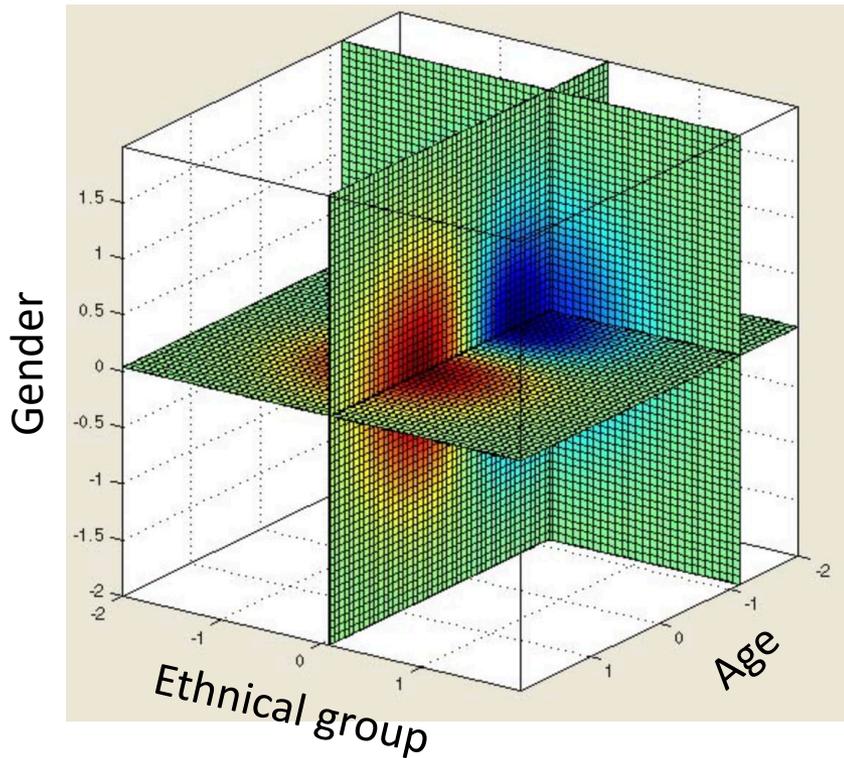
And your patients?



And your patients?

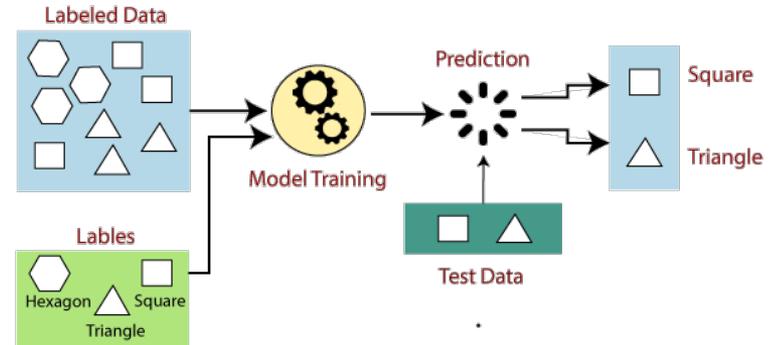


# Multidimensionality explains differences in outcome

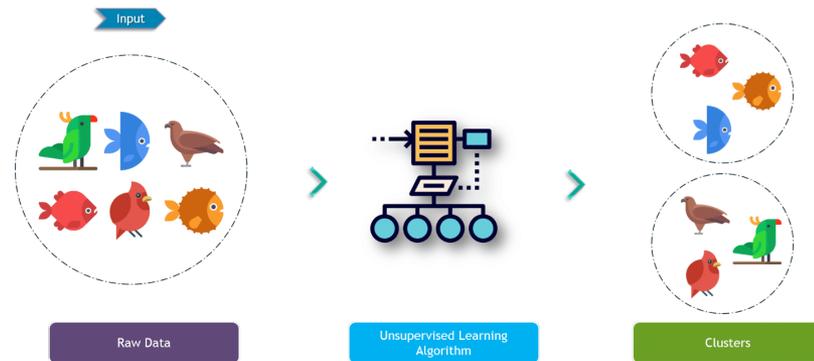


# Three types of machine learning

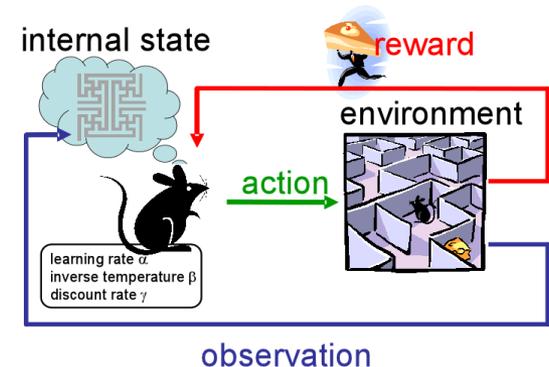
- **Supervised learning**
  - classification, regression



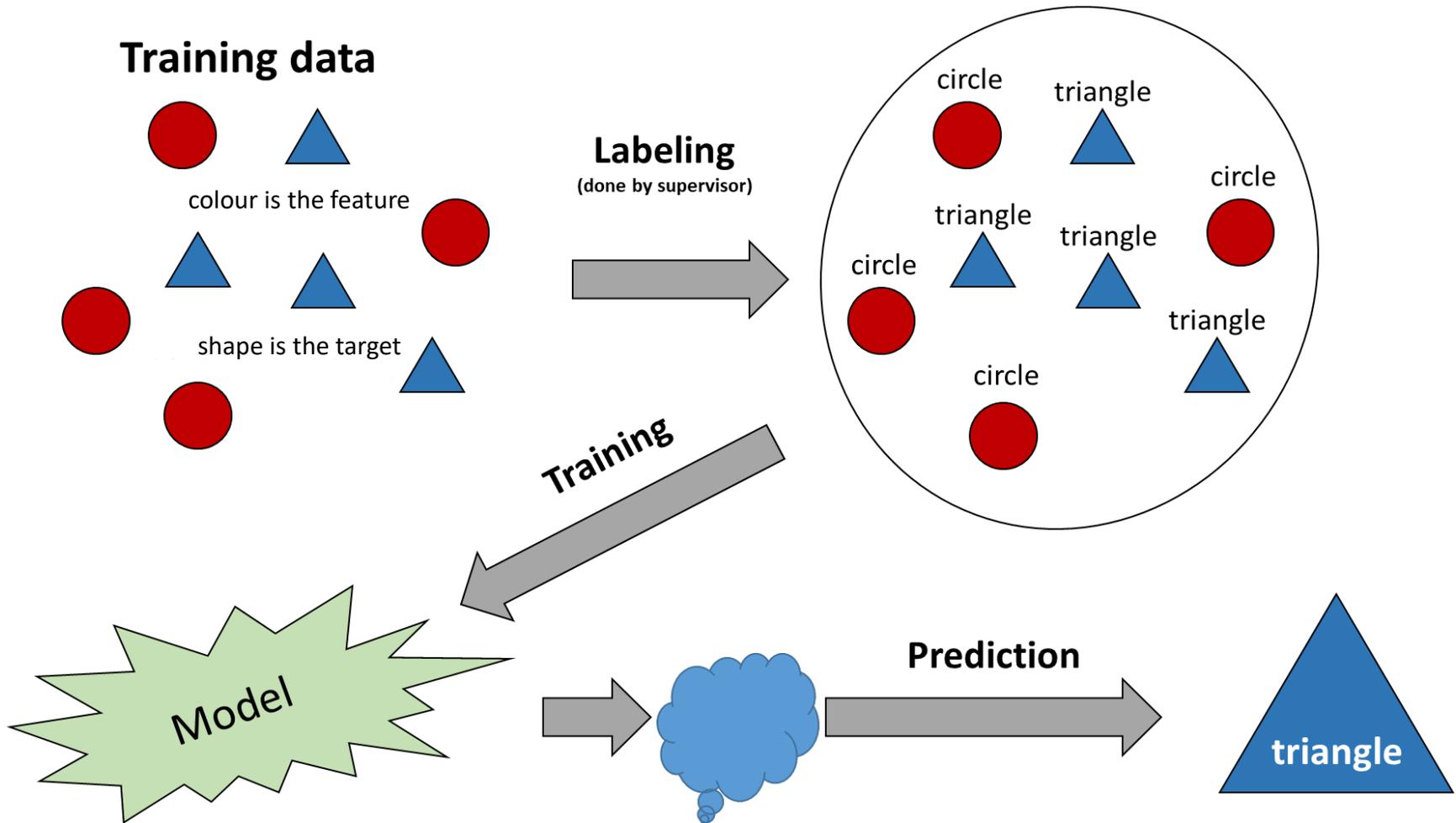
- **Unsupervised learning**
  - clustering



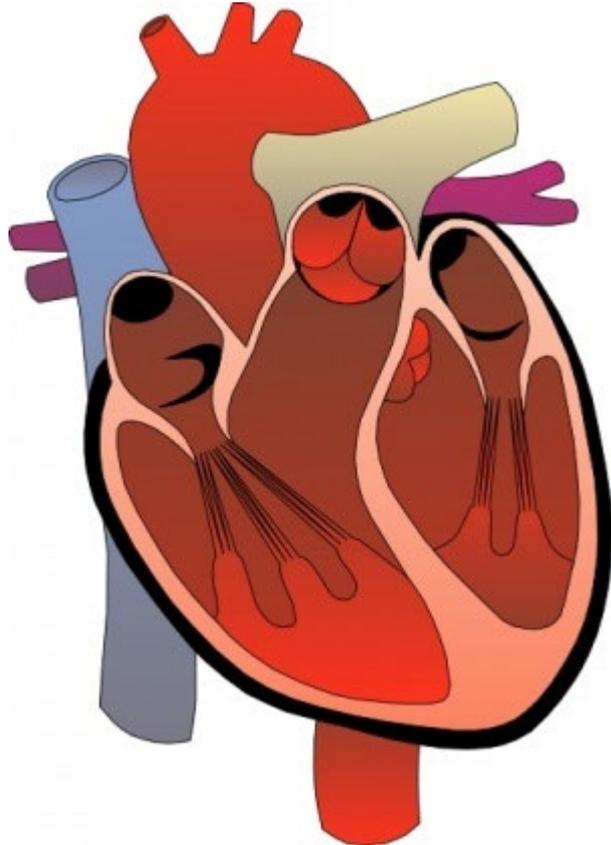
- **Reinforcement learning**
  - more general than supervised/unsupervised learning
  - learn from interaction w/ environment to achieve a goal



# Supervised machine learning



# Mortality of heart valve surgery



2229 patients

129 preoperative  
features

**prediction of  
mortality**

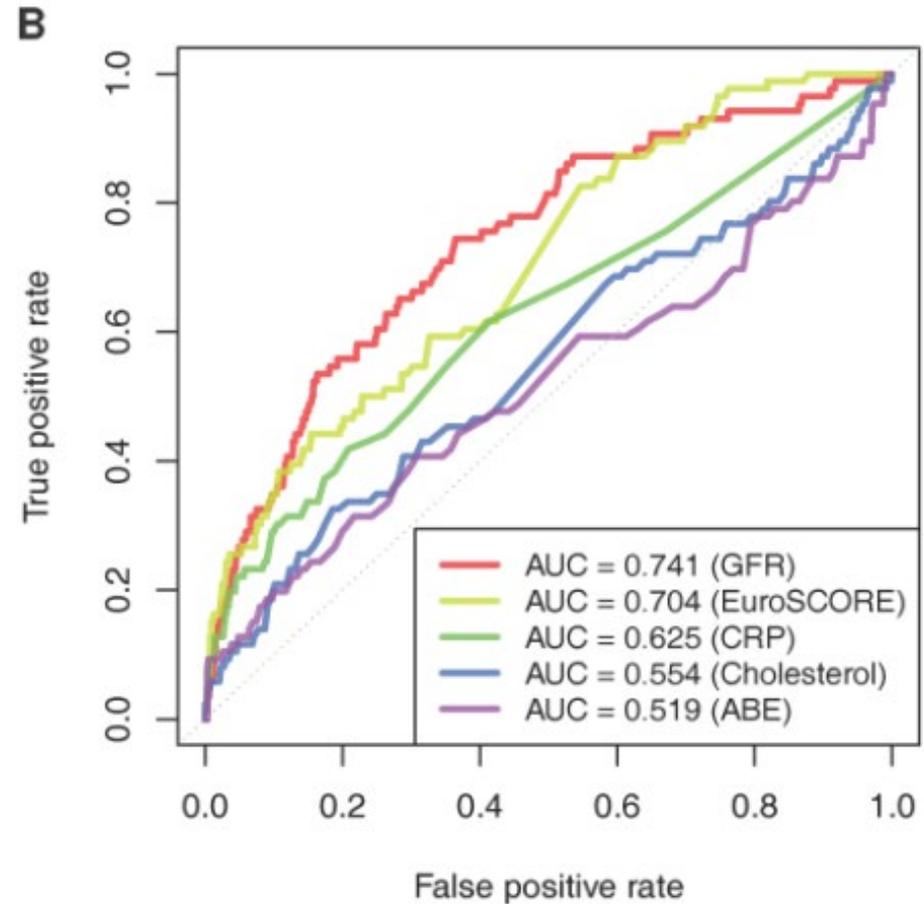
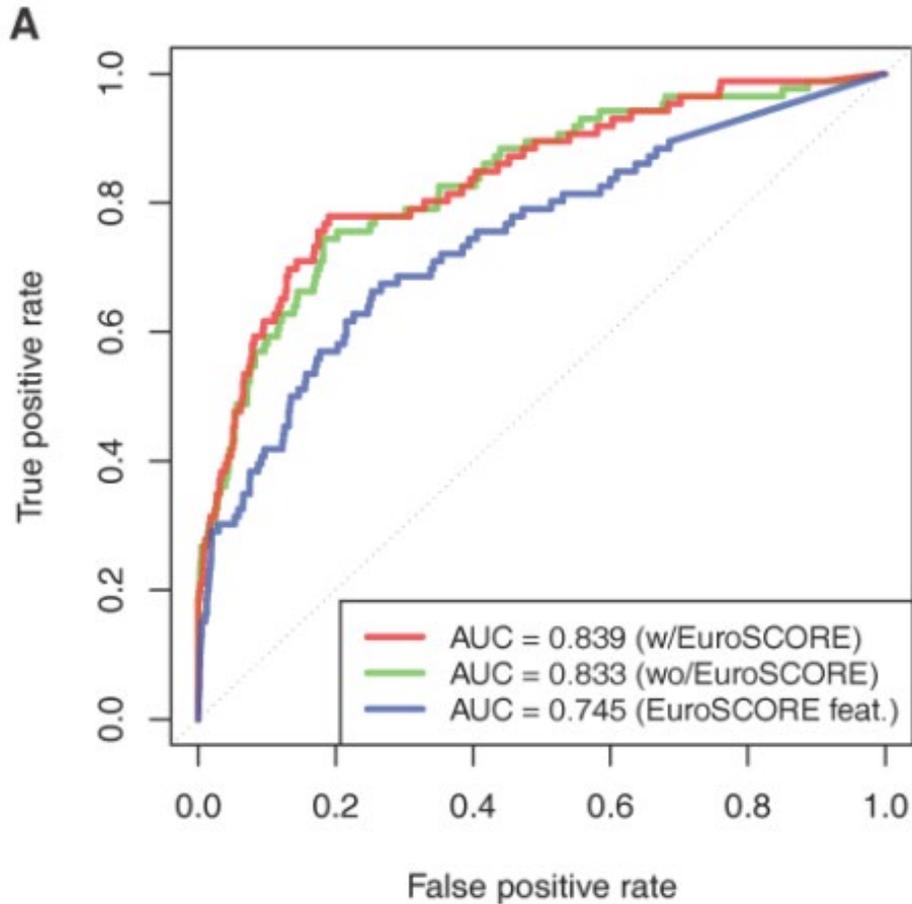
**evaluated  
prediction models:**

random forests

neural network

support vector machine

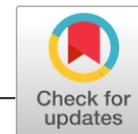
# Mortality of heart valve surgery



# Prediction of transfusion

Received: 6 December 2019 | Revised: 10 May 2020 | Accepted: 15 May 2020

DOI: 10.1111/trf.15935



## ORIGINAL RESEARCH

## TRANSFUSION

# Machine learning–based prediction of transfusion

Andreas Mitterecker<sup>1</sup>  | Axel Hofmann<sup>2</sup> | Kevin M. Trentino<sup>3</sup> |  
Adam Lloyd<sup>3</sup> | Michael F. Leahy<sup>4</sup> | Karin Schwarzbauer<sup>1</sup> |  
Thomas Tschoellitsch<sup>5</sup> | Carl Böck<sup>5</sup> | Sepp Hochreiter<sup>1</sup> | Jens Meier<sup>5</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Institute for Machine Learning, Johannes Kepler University, Linz, Austria

<sup>2</sup>Department of Anesthesiology and Critical Care Medicine, University and University Hospital, Zürich, Switzerland

<sup>3</sup>Data and Digital Innovation, East Metropolitan Health Service, Perth, Australia

<sup>4</sup>Department of Haematology, PathWest Laboratory Medicine, Royal Perth Hospital, Perth, Australia

### Abstract

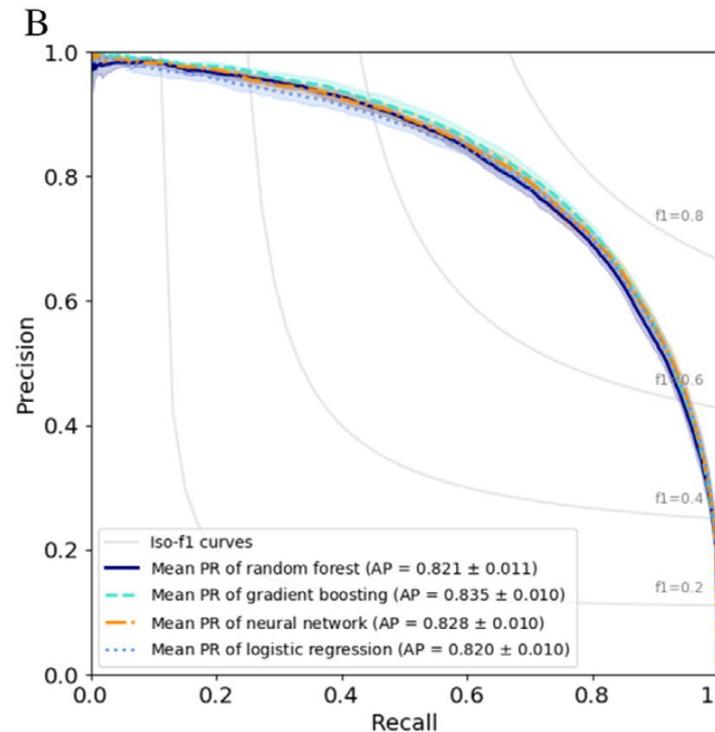
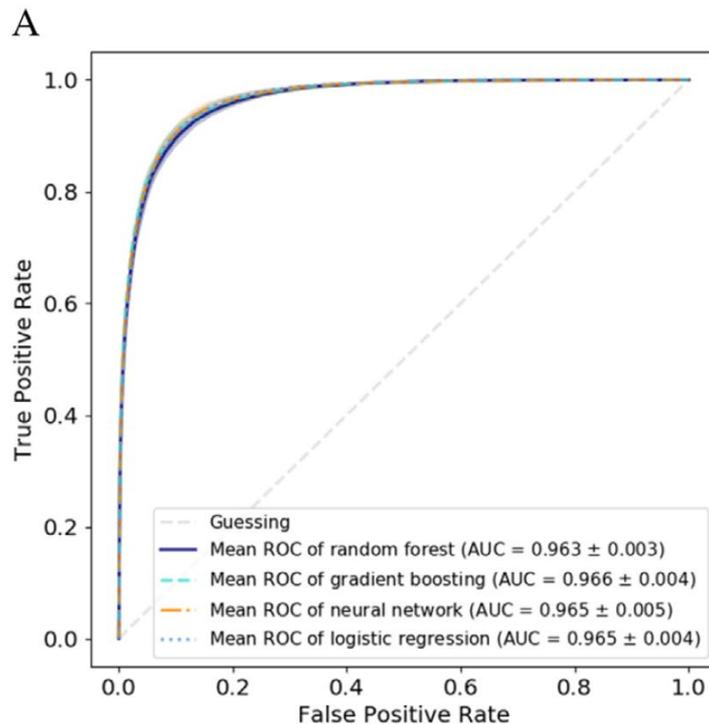
**Background:** The ability to predict transfusions arising during hospital admission might enable economized blood supply management and might furthermore increase patient safety by ensuring a sufficient stock of red blood cells (RBCs) for a specific patient. We therefore investigated the precision of four different machine learning–based prediction algorithms to predict transfusion, massive transfusion, and the number of transfusions in patients admitted to a hospital.

**Study Design and Methods:** This was a retrospective, observational study in three adult tertiary care hospitals in Western Australia between January 2008

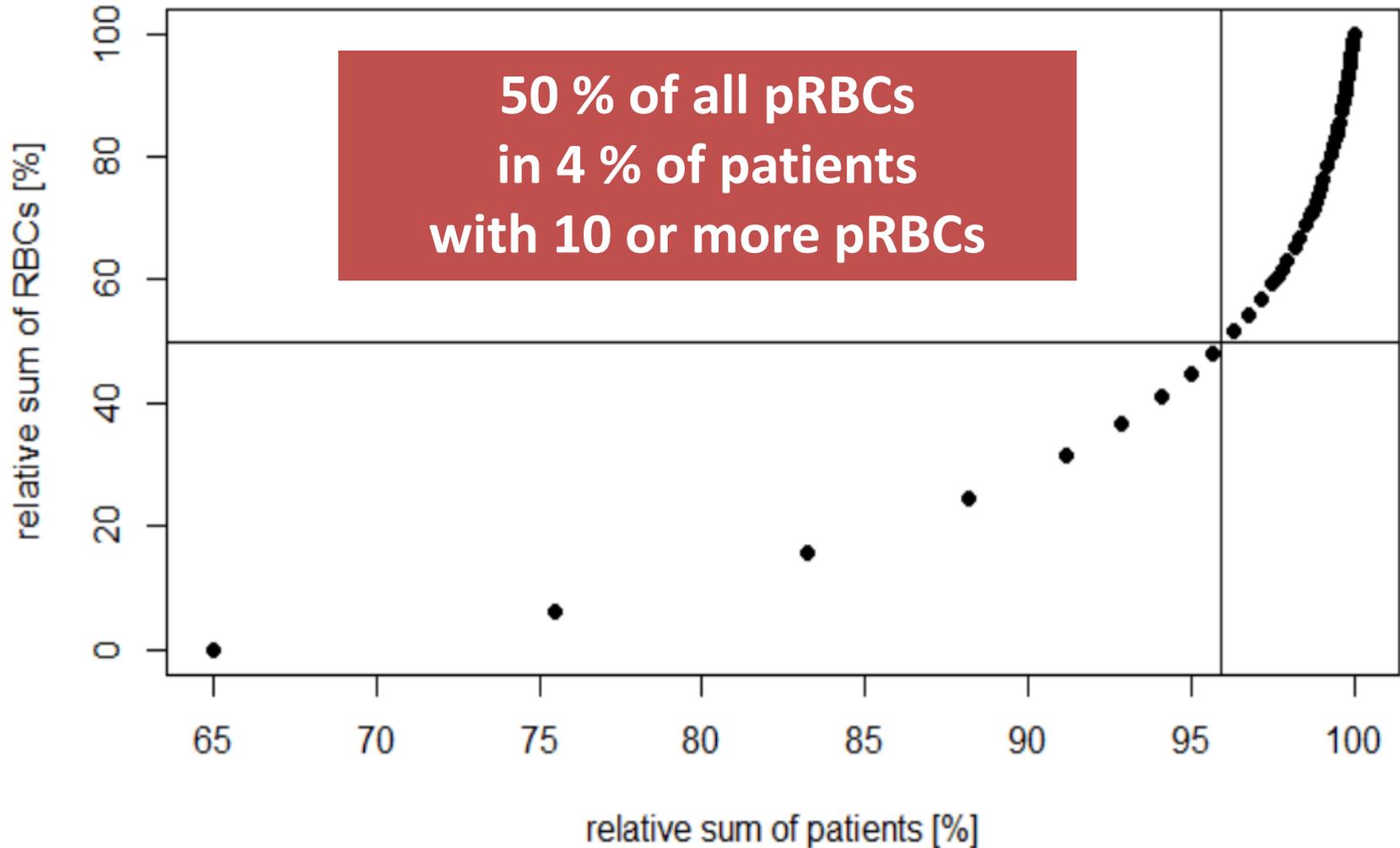
# Prediction of transfusion

TABLE 2 Prediction of transfusion

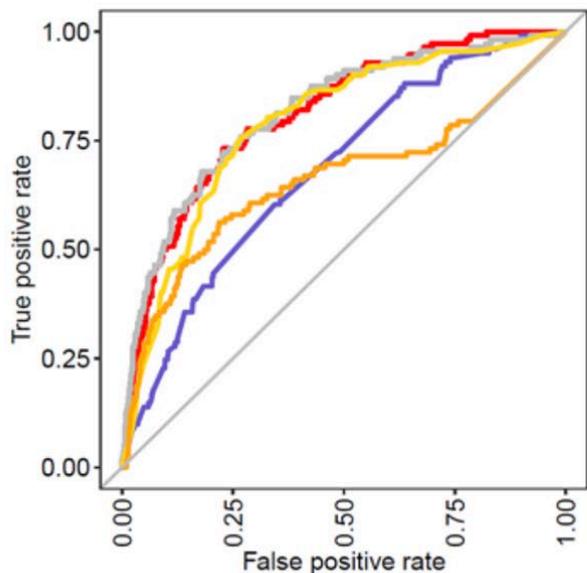
Method	AUC	AP	BA	Sens	Spec	Prec	NPV	F <sub>1</sub>
Neural network	0.966 ( $\pm 0.004$ )	0.828 ( $\pm 0.012$ )	<b>0.870 (<math>\pm 0.008</math>)</b>	<b>0.898 (<math>\pm 0.007</math>)</b>	0.958 ( $\pm 0.009$ )	0.719 ( $\pm 0.022$ )	<b>0.970 (<math>\pm 0.006</math>)</b>	0.749 ( $\pm 0.006$ )
Logistic regression	0.965 ( $\pm 0.005$ )	0.820 ( $\pm 0.011$ )	0.856 ( $\pm 0.006$ )	0.894 ( $\pm 0.012$ )	<b>0.966 (<math>\pm 0.009</math>)</b>	<b>0.749 (<math>\pm 0.008</math>)</b>	0.966 ( $\pm 0.004$ )	0.748 ( $\pm 0.010$ )
Random forest	0.963 ( $\pm 0.004$ )	0.821 ( $\pm 0.011$ )	0.858 ( $\pm 0.004$ )	0.584 ( $\pm 0.006$ )	0.964 ( $\pm 0.006$ )	0.737 ( $\pm 0.011$ )	0.966 ( $\pm 0.006$ )	0.743 ( $\pm 0.006$ )
Gradient boosting	<b>0.966 (<math>\pm 0.003</math>)</b>	<b>0.835 (<math>\pm 0.013</math>)</b>	0.864 ( $\pm 0.008$ )	0.872 ( $\pm 0.006$ )	0.965 ( $\pm 0.005$ )	0.747 ( $\pm 0.025$ )	0.968 ( $\pm 0.007$ )	<b>0.755 (<math>\pm 0.007</math>)</b>



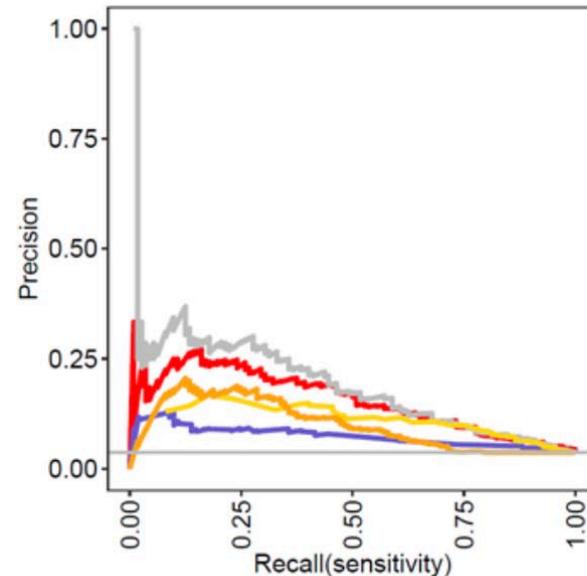
# Massive transfusion in cardiac surgery



# Massive transfusion in cardiac surgery



— RF AUC = 0.81  
— ANN AUC = 0.68  
— XGB AUC = 0.81  
— ADA AUC = 0.79  
— LR AUC = 0.66



— RF AUC = 0.15  
— ANN AUC = 0.07  
— XGB AUC = 0.18  
— ADA AUC = 0.1  
— LR AUC = 0.1

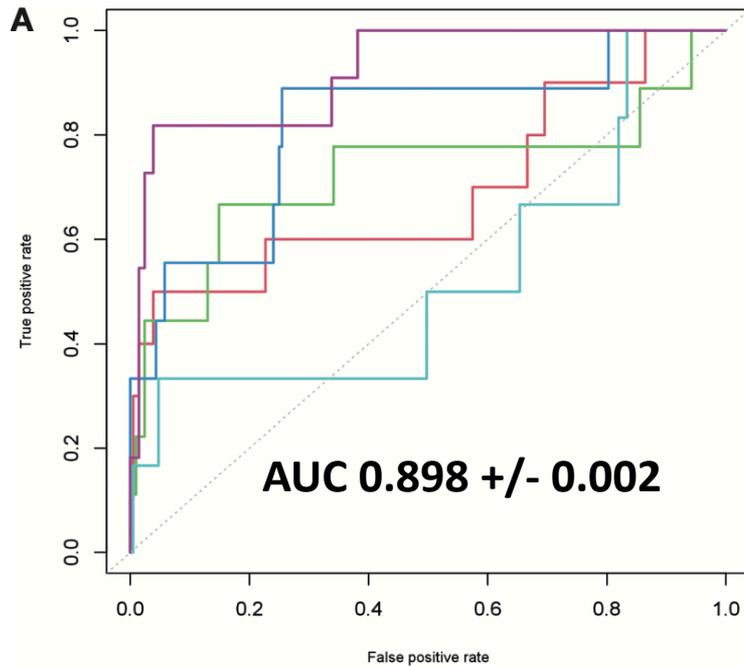
	PPV	NPV	AUC ROC	AUC F <sub>1</sub> -score
<b><i>all features</i></b>				
RF	0.110 (0.09-0.13)	0.987 (0.98-0.99)	0.810 (0.76-0.86)	0.150
ANN	0.065 (0.05-0.08)	0.977 (0.97-0.98)	0.680 (0.62-0.74)	0.070
XGB	0.126 (0.1-0.16)	0.985 (0.98-0.99)	0.810 (0.76-0.86)	0.180
ADA	0.099 (0.08-0.12)	0.987 (0.98-0.99)	0.790 (0.74-0.84)	0.100
LR	0.090 (0.07-0.11)	0.979 (0.97-0.98)	0.660 (0.6-0.72)	0.100

# Machine Learning Prediction of SARS-CoV-2 Polymerase Chain Reaction Results with Routine Blood Tests

Thomas Tschoellitsch, MD,<sup>1\*</sup> Martin Dünser, MD,<sup>1</sup> Carl Böck, MSc,<sup>1</sup> Karin Schwarzbauer, MSc,<sup>2</sup>  
Jens Meier, MD<sup>1,\*</sup>

Laboratory Medicine 2021;52:146-149

DOI: 10.1093/labmed/lmaa111



**Table 2. Confusion Matrix for Model Results**

Confusion Matrix	Actual Positive	Actual Negative
Predicted positive (%)	34 (6.8 ± 3.2)	232 (46.4 ± 9.6)
Predicted negative (%)	20 (4 ± 0.7)	1071 (214.2 ± 9.1)
Accuracy: 86.1% (%)	PPV: 20.0	NPV: 98.8

*NPV, negative predicted value; PPV, positive predicted value.*

*First number: All folds; parentheses: mean and standard variance per fold.*

# Unsupervised machine learning



# Unsupervised machine learning



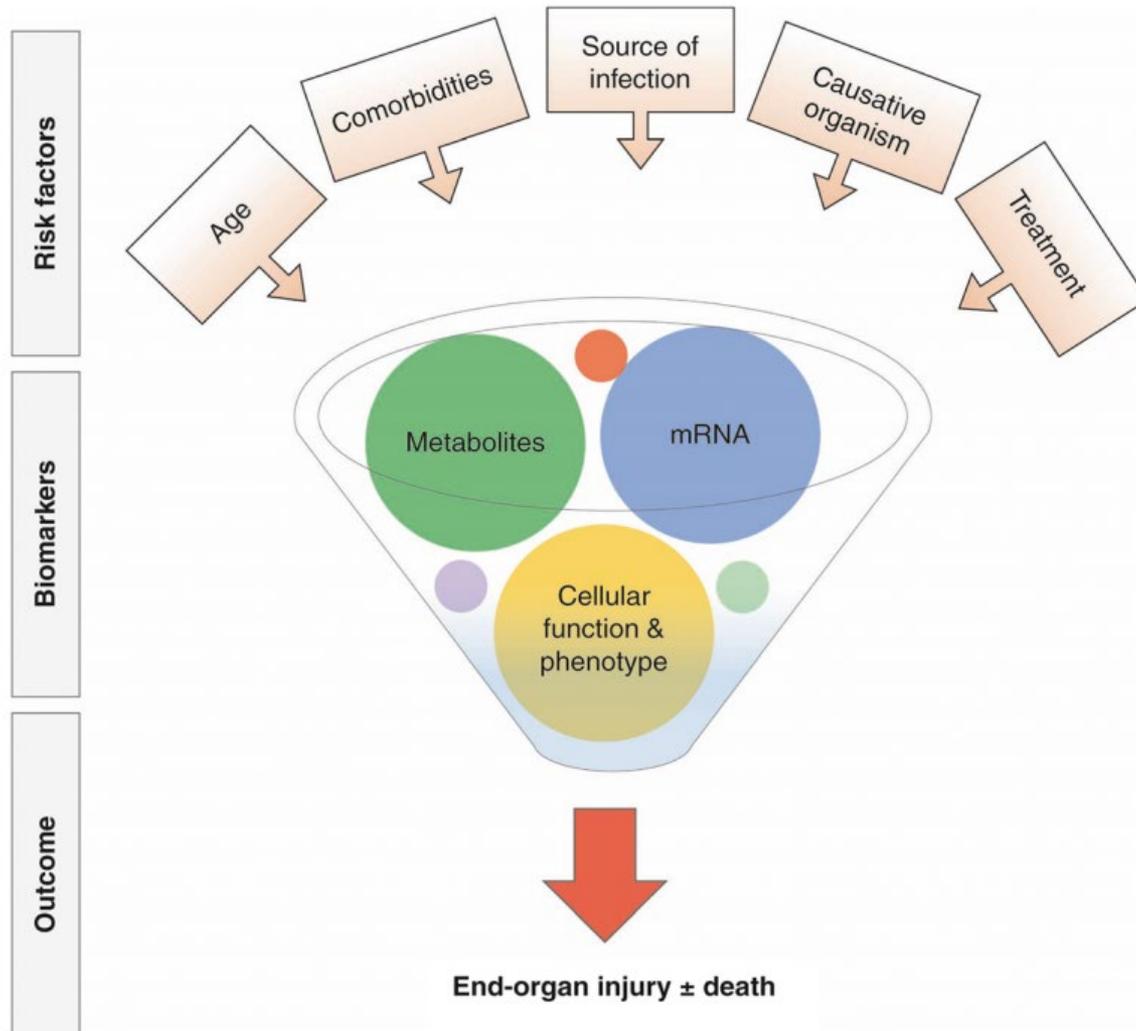
# Typical classification



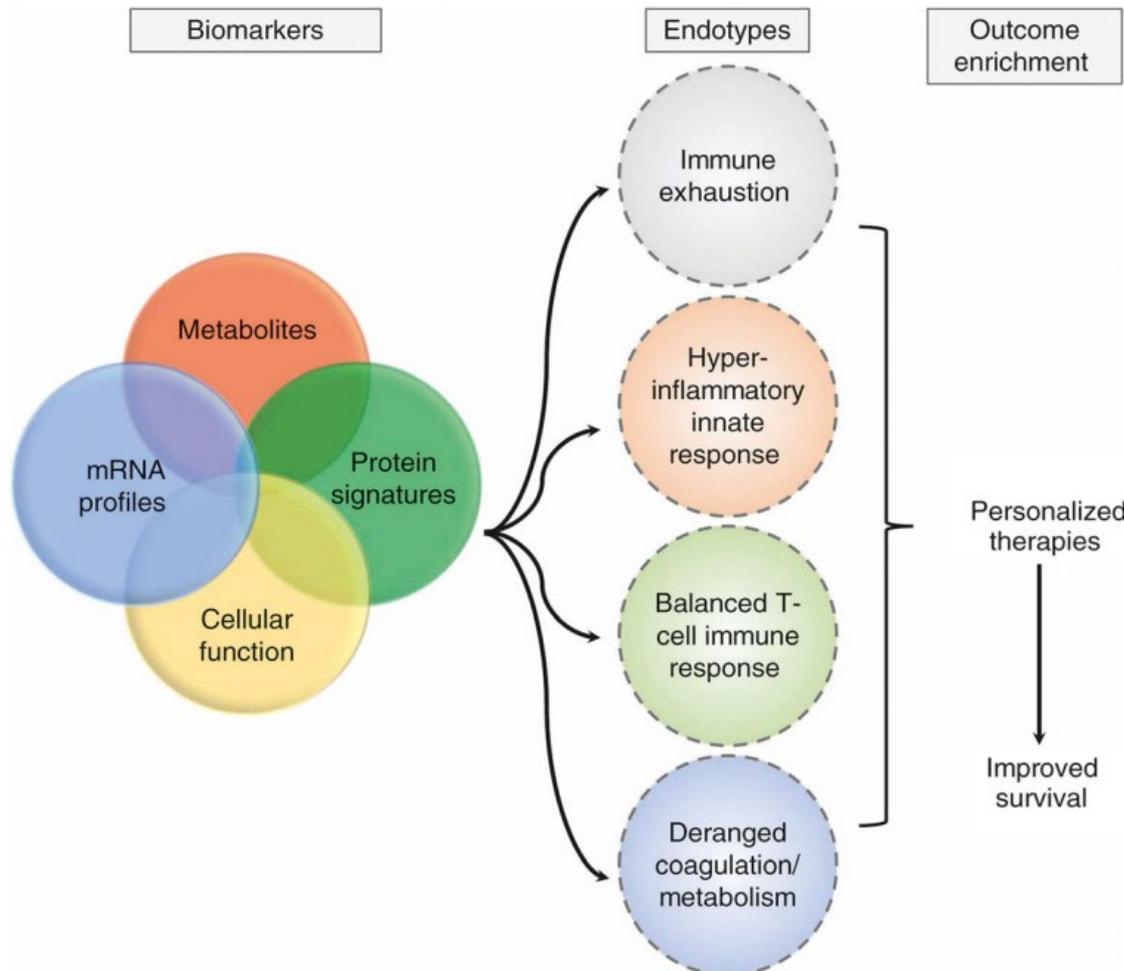
# Alternative truth.....



# Example: Differences in septic patients



# Example: Differences in septic patients



# Are all ICU patients the same?

## Identifying Distinct Subgroups of ICU Patients: A Machine Learning Approach

Kelly C. Vranas, MD<sup>1,2</sup>; Jeffrey K. Jopling, MD, MSHS<sup>1,3</sup>; Timothy E. Sweeney, MD, PhD<sup>4</sup>;  
Meghan C. Ramsey, MD<sup>1,5</sup>; Arnold S. Milstein, MD, MPH<sup>1</sup>; Christopher G. Slatore, MD, MS<sup>6,2</sup>;  
Gabriel J. Escobar, MD<sup>7</sup>; Vincent X. Liu, MD, MS<sup>7</sup>

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**Objectives:** Identifying subgroups of ICU patients with similar clinical needs and trajectories may provide a framework for more efficient ICU care through the design of care platforms tailored around patients' shared needs. However, objective methods for identifying these ICU patient subgroups are lacking. We used a machine learning approach to empirically identify ICU patient subgroups

<sup>1</sup>Department of Medicine, Clinical Excellence Research Center, Stanford University, Stanford, CA.

<sup>2</sup>Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care, Department of Medicine, Oregon Health and Science University, Portland, OR.

<sup>3</sup>Department of Surgery, Stanford University, Stanford, CA.

through clustering analysis and evaluate whether these groups might represent appropriate targets for care redesign efforts.

**Design:** We performed clustering analysis using data from patients' hospital stays to retrospectively identify patient subgroups from a large, heterogeneous ICU population.

**Setting:** Kaiser Permanente Northern California, a healthcare delivery system serving 3.9 million members.

**Patients:** ICU patients 18 years old or older with an ICU admission between January 1, 2012, and December 31, 2012, at one of 21 Kaiser Permanente Northern California hospitals.

**Interventions:** None.

# Identifying Distinct Subgroups of ICU Patients: A Machine Learning Approach

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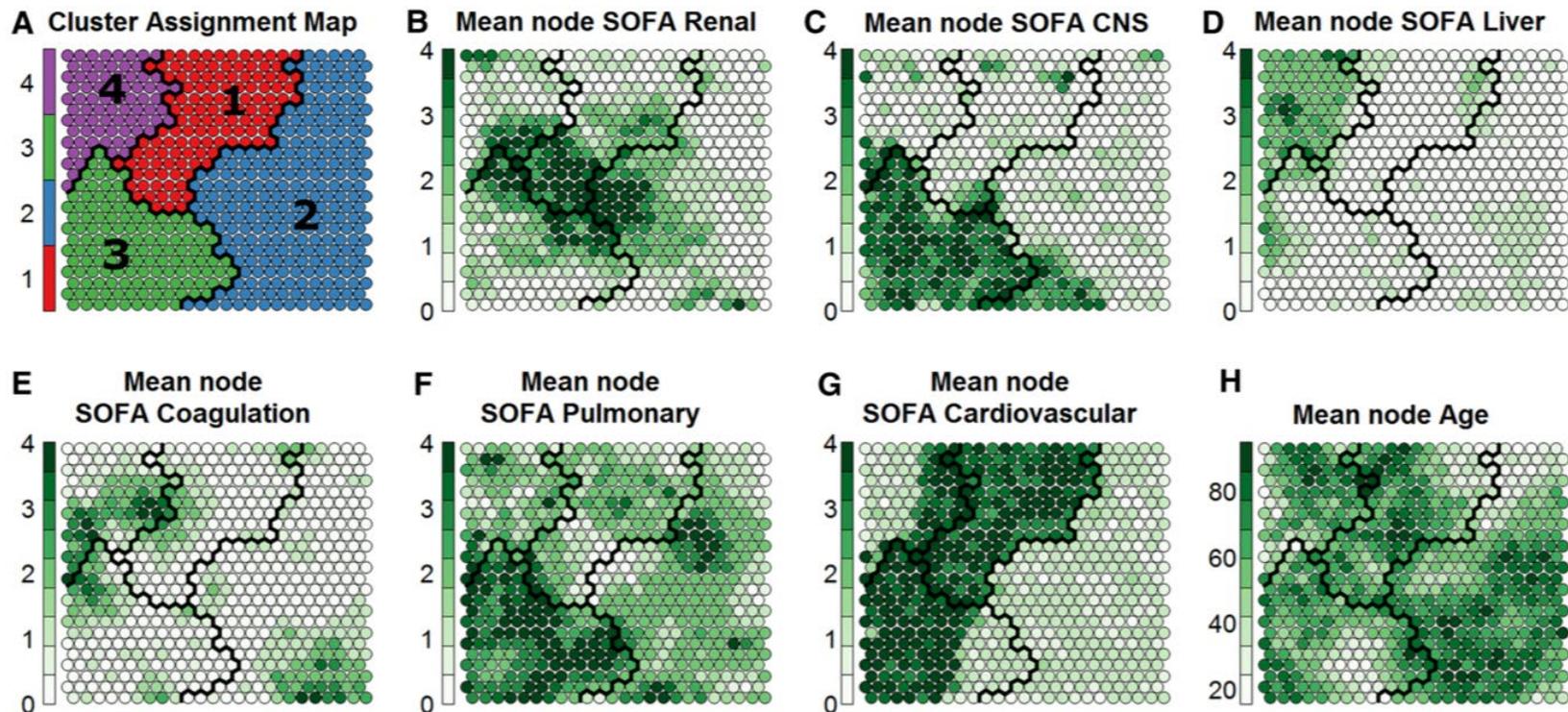
## Description of the clusters

Patient Subgroup Characteristics	Cluster 1 (n = 1,933; 38.7%)	Cluster 2 (n = 622; 12.4%)	Cluster 3 (n = 1,250; 25.0%)	Cluster 4 (n = 897; 17.9%)	Cluster 5 (n = 207; 4.1%)	Cluster 6 (n = 91; 1.8%)
	Relatively Healthy, Short-Stay ICU Patients	Older Patients Suffering Catastrophic Illness	Postsurgical and Postprocedural Patients	Older Patients Discharged With Long-Term Care Needs	Prior Healthy Patients With Prolonged Stay and Good Recovery	Patients With Severe Illness and Desire for Limits of Life-Sustaining Therapy
Patient						
Age (yr)	60.9 ± 17.1	72.7 ± 14.1	63.8 ± 15.0	74.8 ± 12.7	58.7 ± 16.3	79.4 ± 11.6
Male, %	54.6	52.1	60.0	47.5	54.1	53.9
Comorbidity (Comorbidity Point Score, version 2)	44 ± 46	65 ± 52	35 ± 35	63 ± 54	48 ± 49	70 ± 54
Hospitalization						
Emergency department admission, %	100.0	86.8	21.5	82.8	79.7	100.0
Most common diagnosis	Sepsis (19.8%)	Sepsis (38.9%)	<b>Acute myocardial infarction</b> (10.1%)	Sepsis (27.6%)	Sepsis (24.6%)	Sepsis (28.9%)
Need for procedure, %	0.2	9.7	<b>76.9</b>	17.2	19.8	4.4
Code status, %						
Do not resuscitate	0.0	18.0	0.0	28.2	0.0	0.0
Partial code	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.5	<b>100.0</b>
Predicted hospital mortality, %	4.8 ± 7.6	<b>16.5 ± 19.0</b>	1.9 ± 3.0	9.4 ± 11.9	8.1 ± 11.6	<b>22.5 ± 19.7</b>



Daniel B. Knox  
Michael J. Lanspa  
Kathryn G. Kuttler  
Simon C. Brewer  
Samuel M. Brown

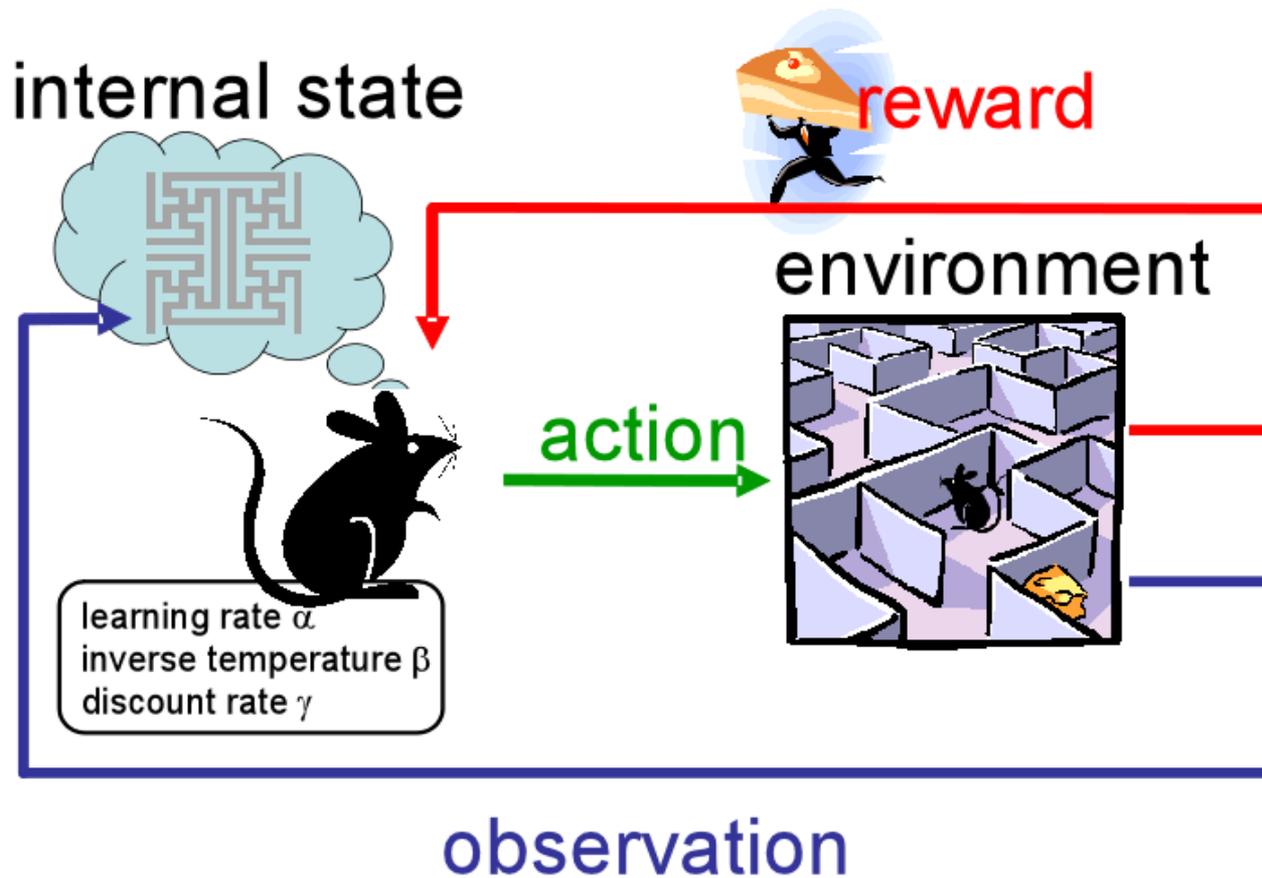
## Phenotypic clusters within sepsis-associated multiple organ dysfunction syndrome



**Fig. 2** Kohonen Self-Organizing Maps. The maps depict both overall clusters and individual nodes (*circles*) to show the internal patterns within clusters. Nodes represent smaller groupings of patients: each node contains 0–20 patients who are extremely similar to each other. The four clusters are divided by *black lines* and depicted in (a). **b–f** Show those same clusters, but with depictions of different attributes of the nodes within each cluster. Within each node, the given value is represented by the darkness of

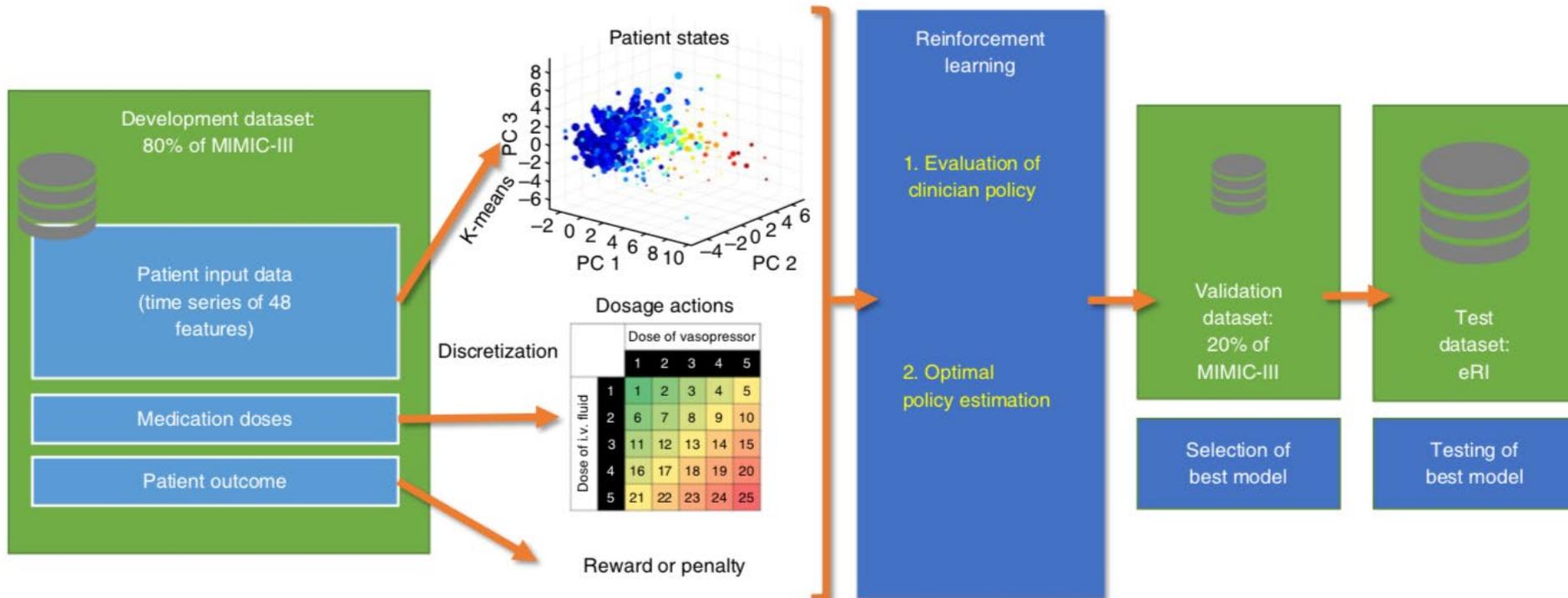
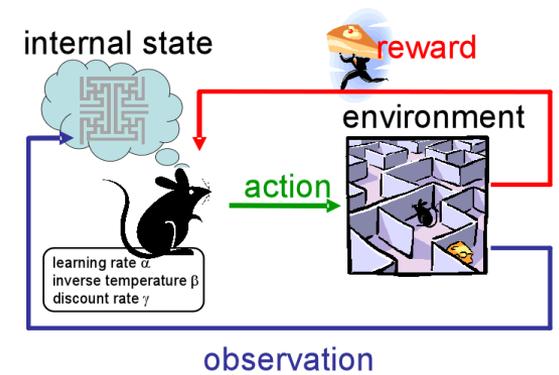
the colour in the node. Each node is *shaded from white to dark green*, where darker colours represent higher average values (e.g., higher SOFA subscore) among the patients in the given node. The patterns visible in (b–f) suggest that the four clusters represent: (1) shock with elevated creatinine, (2) minimal multiple organ dysfunction syndrome, (3) shock with hypoxemia and altered mental status, and (4) hepatic disease

# Reinforcement learning



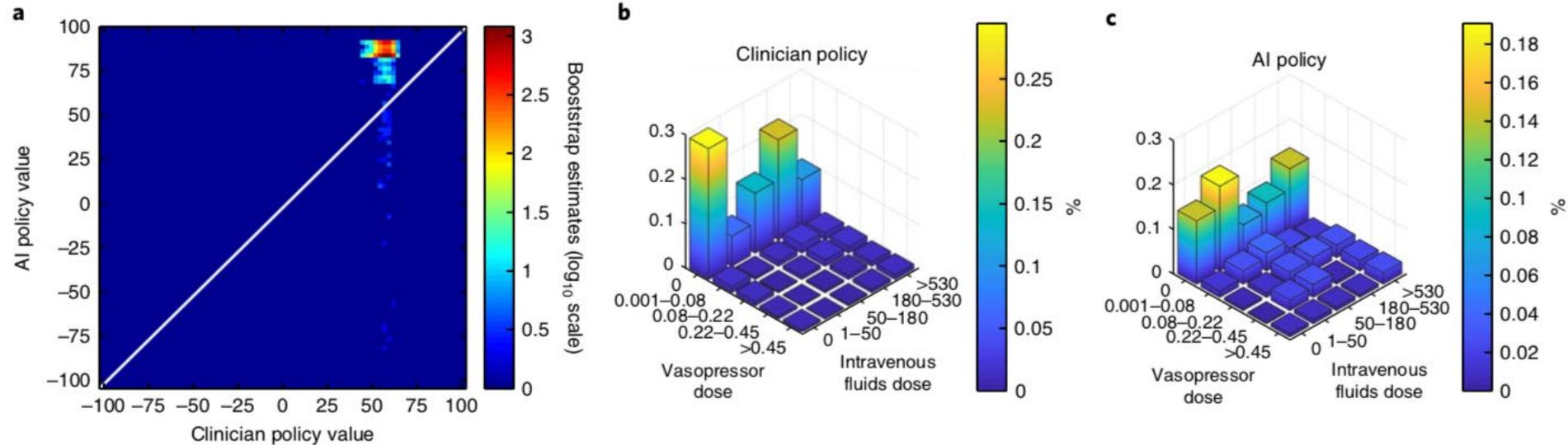
# The Artificial Intelligence Clinician learns optimal treatment strategies for sepsis in intensive care

Matthieu Komorowski <sup>1,2,3</sup>, Leo A. Celi <sup>3,4</sup>, Omar Badawi <sup>3,5,6</sup>, Anthony C. Gordon <sup>1\*</sup> and A. Aldo Faisal <sup>2,7,8,9\*</sup>



# The Artificial Intelligence Clinician learns optimal treatment strategies for sepsis in intensive care

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# Our main fears about AI

1. I do not understand AI!

2. AI will substitute me!

3. Who is responsible, if the AI result is wrong?



# Quintessence



- There are three ML techniques that are widely used:
  - Supervised, unsupervised and reinforcement learning
- They help for classification, clustering, and therapy recommendation
- Proof of concept, but still far away from daily clinical usage

# Artificial Intelligence VS Natural Stupidity

