

Federated learning approaches for fuzzy cognitive maps to support clinical decision-making in dengue

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Abstract

Federated learning is a distributed machine learning approach developed to guarantee the privacy and security of data stored on local devices. In healthcare, specifically in diseases of public health interest such as dengue, it is necessary to develop strategies that guarantee such data properties. Therefore, the aim of this work was to develop three federated learning approaches for fuzzy cognitive maps for the prediction of mortality and the prescription of treatment of severe dengue. The validation of the approaches was performed on severe dengue datasets from two dengue endemic regions in Colombia. According to the results, the use of federated learning significantly improves the performance of models developed in centralized environments. Additionally, the use of federated learning allows guaranteeing the privacy and security of each client's data due to the local training of the models. Federated learning is a useful tool in healthcare because it guarantees the privacy and security of patient data. Our results demonstrated the ability of aggregated models to predict mortality and prescribe treatment for severe dengue.

Keywords: Fuzzy cognitive maps, Federated learning, Clinical decision-making, Predictive modeling, Prescriptive modeling

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1. Introduction

Dengue is a febrile disease caused by a virus of the *Flaviviridae* family, and is transmitted by the bite of female *Aedes* mosquitoes [1]. It causes a clinical picture ranging from asymptomatic processes to severe disease; with a wide spectrum of clinical manifestations such as fever, headache, retro-ocular pain to severe signs such as shock, severe bleeding, multi-organ failure and death [2]. Based on severity, World Health Organization (WHO) categorized the disease into three: i) dengue without alarm signs, ii) dengue with alarm signs, and iii) severe dengue (SD), which includes dengue shock syndrome [3]. The latter category is an important cause of mortality and has reached a rate of 44% [4]. Dengue infection has spread globally, being endemic in more than 120 countries worldwide, mainly in Africa, Western Pacific, Southeast Asia and the Americas, generating a high epidemiological, economic and social impact [5]. According to the WHO, more than 3.8 billion people are at risk of infection and approximately 100 to 400 million infections occur annually worldwide, with approximately 25% of them showing some type of symptom [6].

Diagnosis and treatment of dengue are the main components of the clinical management of the disease. Diagnosis is made by interpreting signs and symptoms to classify the patient according to the severity of the clinical picture, which can be challenging for health personnel due to the variability of clinical manifestations present in infected patients. Additionally, dengue presents similar clinical manifestations to other febrile diseases such as Zika, chikungunya and leptospirosis, with which a differential diagnosis should be made [7]. On the other hand, laboratory tests such as detection of dengue antigens, antibodies against the virus and viral isolates, allow confirmation of the disease, but may cause delays in areas that do not have all the health services [8]. There is currently no specific antiretroviral treatment for dengue available in developing countries. Therefore, available treatment focuses on alleviating signs and symptoms and avoiding complications leading to death, and clinical management of dengue remains a challenge for health professionals [9].

One way to address the problem of clinical management is through the development of computer-aided approaches that use predictive modeling for diagnosis and prescriptive modeling for treatment. The development of such methods can support medical decision-making in relation to the course of disease, which could have an impact on reducing mortality rates due to timely classifi-

29 cation and appropriate treatment [10].

30 The validation of models, approaches and methodologies for the diagnosis and treatment of
31 dengue is quite widespread. However, the works reported in the literature present some limitations.
32 First, the published studies focus on developing complex models that are not very understandable
33 for the medical professional, who is interested in knowing how the model classifies patients ac-
34 cording to their severity. Moreover, they maximize predictive performance by compromising the
35 interpretability of predictor variables in different situations or scenarios. Second, there are few
36 studies focused on the clinical management of dengue in a comprehensive manner. Most of the
37 studies only emphasize one of the two components: diagnosis or treatment; however, it is cru-
38 cial to integrate both processes to optimize medical decision-making aimed at improving health
39 care. Third, the reported works use the traditional machine learning (ML) approach, which gath-
40 ers dengue data in one place for training. This may raise issues with respect to the privacy and
41 security of the data used. Transporting and sending the data from one place to another can cause
42 loss, damage and violate laws related to personal data protection.

43 Therefore, it would be of great clinical utility to generate decision support approaches for
44 the diagnosis and treatment of dengue that provide understandable and explainable results for
45 clinicians. It would also be of clinical interest to develop systems that, in addition to predicting an
46 outcome, also allow treatment to be prescribed according to the specific patient scenario. Finally,
47 the use of distributed learning approaches such as federated learning that guarantee data security
48 and privacy would be a great added value.

49 In this sense, the main contributions of our work are the definition of three approaches as med-
50 ical support tools for the diagnosis and treatment of dengue, specifically SD. These approaches are
51 characterized by using federated learning with fuzzy cognitive maps (FCMs) and optimization al-
52 gorithms for the generation of predictive and prescriptive models. The first approach implemented
53 is based on the similarity of the feature space among the participating clients or sites where the
54 signs and treatment options of SD are identical. The second is based on the objective, where the
55 only feature in common among all clients or parties is a decision variable (for our application
56 domain, it was SD mortality). Each client or party has different characteristics related to mortality
57 and treatment of SD. Finally, the third approach uses parameter learning transfer to send informa-

58 tion from one site/party to another. Specifically, the implemented approach transmits the learned
59 parameters from SD treatment to mortality prediction. The novelties proposed in the present study
60 are focused on several aspects: i) the generation of federated learning approaches with a different
61 architecture (approaches 1 and 2) from that reported in the literature; ii) the application domain,
62 since to date there are no reports on the implementation of federated learning with FCMs for the
63 diagnosis and treatment of dengue; iii) the combination of predictive and prescriptive models in a
64 single architecture that allows integrated support for decision-making with respect to the diagnosis
65 and treatment of dengue.

66 This paper is organized as follows: [Section 2](#) shows the related works about the last trends in
67 FCMs for prediction and prescription. Also, it presents the main studies about federated learning
68 for medical environments. [Section 3](#) describes the methodology used to develop the federated
69 learning approaches, and [Section 4](#) describes the experiments to validate them. [Section 5](#) shows
70 the results for each approach and discusses them. Finally, [Section 6](#) concludes the paper.

71 **2. Related work**

72 In this section, we present the main works related to the use of FCMs for prediction and
73 prescription. Additionally, we present the main studies about federated learning for healthcare.

74 *2.1. FCMs*

75 FCMs are computational intelligence algorithms that allow modeling complex systems using
76 concepts and relationships between them [11, 12]. In the following, we present a literature review
77 on the implementation of this type of algorithm for prediction and prescription.

78 *2.1.1. FCMs for prediction*

79 FCMs use inference functions to make predictions based on the interconnection among the
80 concepts [13]. The development of clinical decision support systems for prediction with FCMs
81 has increased in recent years due to the simplicity of construction and ease of interpretation of
82 results. In previous work, we developed a clinical decision support system for dengue diagnosis
83 based on FCMs [14]. We used the knowledge and experience of clinical experts in dengue to

84 construct the FCM with signs, symptoms, and laboratory test results. The constructed FCM model
85 had the ability to classify dengue severity (dengue with and without warning signs, and SD) with
86 89% accuracy and the additional ability to assess the behavior of severity-related variables. In
87 addition, we developed another previous work with SD prediction models using FCMs trained
88 with the particle swarm optimization algorithm [15]. The models were trained using historical
89 data from two endemic cities in Colombia and their peak performance reached 74% accuracy due
90 to small sample sizes.

91 FCMs have also been widely used for predicting the risk of outbreaks or epidemics of viral
92 diseases such as dengue [16, 17]. For example, Pelaez [16] proposed a model based on FCMs to
93 predict the risk of presenting tropical viral diseases such as dengue. The authors trained FCMs with
94 unsupervised learning to represent causal relationships and knowledge related to environmental
95 conditions, symptoms, and historical data related to tropical viral diseases. The historical data for
96 training the FCMs corresponded to seasonal outbreaks and epidemics in Ecuador. The proposed
97 model had the potential to improve the chances of early forecasting of seasonal diseases related
98 to tropical regions. Jayashree et al [17] used FCMs using expert knowledge to build a system that
99 classified the risk of dengue outbreak in tropical regions of Southern India. The results showed
100 that the performance of FCM was superior when compared to other techniques such as Bayesian
101 classifier, decision tree, support vector machines, and multilayer perceptron. The classification of
102 risk into low, moderate and high allows health authorities to establish prevention strategies in the
103 regions to prevent the spread of the disease.

104 2.1.2. *FCMs for prescription*

105 FCMs have now started to be used to prescribe actions leading to desired outcomes in complex
106 modeled systems. Reported work in the literature using FCMs to support decision-making related
107 to dengue treatment is scarce. However, they have been used for the treatment of other diseases
108 such as urinary tract infections and cancer. Papageorgiou [18] developed a computational tool
109 based on FCMs for treatment management of urinary tract infections. The results of the evaluation
110 of the software on a small sample of diseased patients demonstrated its capability for classification
111 and recommendation of suggested treatments.

112 For cancer treatment, several studies have been performed for treatment management using ra-
113 diotherapy [19, 20]. Papageorgiou [19] used FCMs for computational modeling of the complexity
114 of the clinical radiation procedure to calculate the final dose that should be administered in cancer
115 patients. The model was built with a combination of expert knowledge and fuzzy rule extraction
116 from the data. The system was able to handle uncertainty, is simple, and is less complex than
117 other previously reported models. Papageorgiou and Stylios [20] determined the success of the
118 radiation therapy process by implementing FCMs as a modeling technique. The proposed system
119 had a hierarchical structure to simulate and evaluate the radiation therapy process. The developed
120 model was evaluated in point scenarios to demonstrate its performance with prior determination
121 of treatment variables by the medical professional.

122 According to our literature review, only one work has used FCMs for dengue treatment pre-
123 scription. Hoyos et al [15] developed an extension of FCMs with optimization algorithms for
124 the generation of prescriptive models. The proposed algorithm uses a genetic algorithm to op-
125 timize prescriptive variables leading to desired system values. The methodology was tested in
126 the treatment of SD. The evaluation of the generated model showed a good performance yield-
127 ing accuracies between 81% and 100% accuracy for recommending treatment options for SD,
128 which constitutes an excellent tool to support decision-making for the treatment of SD and reduce
129 mortality rates.

130 2.2. Federated learning in medical environments

131 Federated learning is a distributed ML approach developed by Google [21]. This approach
132 allows training models with distributed data anywhere in the world, such that local models are
133 trained with their data and its parameters are shared in a federated server to build a global model.
134 The main feature of this approach is that the data never leave their original location. This type
135 of methodology is useful to attack the problem of guaranteeing data security and privacy, mainly,
136 in clinical environments [22]. Federated learning in recent years has attracted the attention of the
137 scientific community due to its interesting ability to generate global models avoiding data sharing
138 between involved parties [23]. This distributed ML approach has been widely used in healthcare
139 due to the security and privacy of data in this domain. Additionally, this approach can be used to

140 transfer learning from one healthcare institution to another [24].

141 Several surveys and literature reviews have provided comprehensive reviews of the work re-
142 ported in the literature on architectures, approaches, use, and application of federated learning
143 for healthcare [25–28]. For example, Antunes et al [25] present a systematic literature review
144 where they discuss the main problems of federated learning, possible solutions and the most fre-
145 quently used ML methods. Additionally, they propose an architecture based on the results of the
146 systematic review. A survey by Nguyen et al [26] presents the main advances and requirements
147 for a correct implementation of federated learning with the internet of medical things. The au-
148 thors review several current researches and analyze different aspects such as medical imaging,
149 remote health monitoring and data management. Prayitno et al [27] provide a systematic review
150 of current advances in federated learning for healthcare applications with a data-centric perspec-
151 tive. The review evaluates the use of reference datasets, data protection strategies, data partitioning
152 and distribution properties. Finally, Xu et al [28] conducted a survey presenting a general review
153 on federated learning, specifically, issues related to data privacy, system challenges, and possible
154 solutions to statistical challenges in implementing federated learning in medical environments.

155 According to our literature review, there are no papers that have implemented federated learn-
156 ing for dengue analysis. However, different works on federated learning have been reported for
157 other events of interest in public health. This type of work can be classified into two main groups
158 based on the types of data used: i) federated training for unstructured data, mainly the use of
159 biomedical images; and ii) federated training for structured data. In the following, we will show
160 some relevant works developed in each group.

161 *2.2.1. Federated learning for unstructured data*

162 Unstructured data are those that do not have a defined structure. Within this group, we find
163 images, text and audio. In clinical environments, the most commonly used data type to implement
164 federated learning approaches are medical images such as X-ray images, CT scans, nuclear mag-
165 netic resonance and histopathological images. Thus, several works have been developed to detect
166 COVID from chest X-ray images [29], brain tumor detection [30], and histopathological image
167 analysis [31]. Feki et al [29] proposed a federated collaborative learning approach with deep

168 learning for COVID-19 screening in several healthcare institutions without sharing data among
169 them. The authors used two pre-trained convolutional neural network architectures, VGG16 and
170 ResNet50. The accuracy of the models in the federated approach was similar for both VGG16
171 and ResNet50 when compared to the centralized approach. Sheller et al [30] compared a feder-
172 ated learning approach with collaborative data sharing learning. The study was conducted across
173 several institutions storing brain tumor images. The models developed with federated learning
174 were able to achieve superior performance to the data sharing approach with the additional value
175 of ensuring privacy and confidentiality of the data used. Adnan et al [31] proposed a differentially
176 private federated learning approach for medical image analysis, specifically, histopathological im-
177 ages across multiple healthcare institutions. Although models with federated learning performed
178 well, learning with centralized data obtained better accuracy values.

179 2.2.2. Federated learning for structured data

180 Structured data are those composed of data frames where the columns correspond to patient
181 variables or characteristics and the rows represent the records of each patient. This type of data
182 has been widely used in building federated learning approaches and models [32–36]. For exam-
183 ple, Brisimi et al [32] developed an algorithm to generate federated predictive models with sparse
184 Support Vector Machine to predict hospitalizations due to cardiac diseases. The results showed
185 the ability of federation to generate a global model with local models trained on several hospi-
186 tals, however, the global model did not perform superior to the local models. Dang et al [33]
187 implemented mortality prediction models in intensive care units of several hospitals in a federated
188 environment using two aggregation algorithms (FedAvg and FedProx) and two training approaches
189 (local and centralized). Of all the approaches implemented, FedProx performed the best, however,
190 there was no significant difference between centralized training and federated training. Rahman et
191 al [34] developed regression models in a federated environment to predict the length of hospital
192 stay of patients in ten hospitals. The models were evaluated and the results showed that the per-
193 formance of the models increases when the number of aggregated clients in the federated server
194 increases. Kerkouche et al [35] proposed a federated learning approach that preserves data privacy
195 for the prediction of in-hospital mortality. The authors found a relationship between model per-

196 formance and patient-level privacy. Increasing the level of privacy decreases prediction accuracy.
197 Finally, Salmeron & Arevalo [36] developed an approach based on FCMs for breast cancer diag-
198 nosis, and additionally, preserve data privacy. The development of this approach allowed obtaining
199 performance of federated global models superior to the local models and the model trained with
200 centralized data.

201 **3. Methodology**

202 In this section, we describe the general methodology of the present study. First, we show a
203 global workflow where we schematically represent the activities performed in our research for
204 the development of models under the federated approach and the traditional ML approach. Then,
205 we present the techniques used to build the predictive models (data-driven PSO-FCM) and pre-
206 scriptive models (PRV-FCM). Finally, we describe the federated learning approaches reported in
207 the literature and the proposed approaches. Fig. 1 shows a schematic representing the workflow
208 of this research. Initially, 80% of the data is used for training and validation of the models. We
209 use 5-fold cross-validation to tune hyperparameters and select the best predictive and prescriptive
210 models. The evaluation of these models was done with the remaining 20% of the data. Specif-
211 ically, for the proposed federated approaches, predictive and prescriptive models are trained and
212 tested on local datasets. The parameters of these models are aggregated to build a global model.
213 For the traditional approach, the data were pooled to obtain a single dataset to perform training
214 and testing on the corresponding data. At the end, we performed a comparison of all the predictive
215 and prescriptive models obtained.

216 *3.1. Data-driven PSO-FCM*

217 Predictive models were generated using FCMs due to their simplicity of construction, and
218 inference and interpretability skills. An FCM is a computational intelligence technique that simu-
219 lates human reasoning with concepts and relationships [11, 37]. Concepts correspond to variables
220 within a system and relationships are the influence between those concepts. An FCM can be rep-
221 resented by a matrix that shows the relationships among the concepts. For example, Eq. 1 shows a

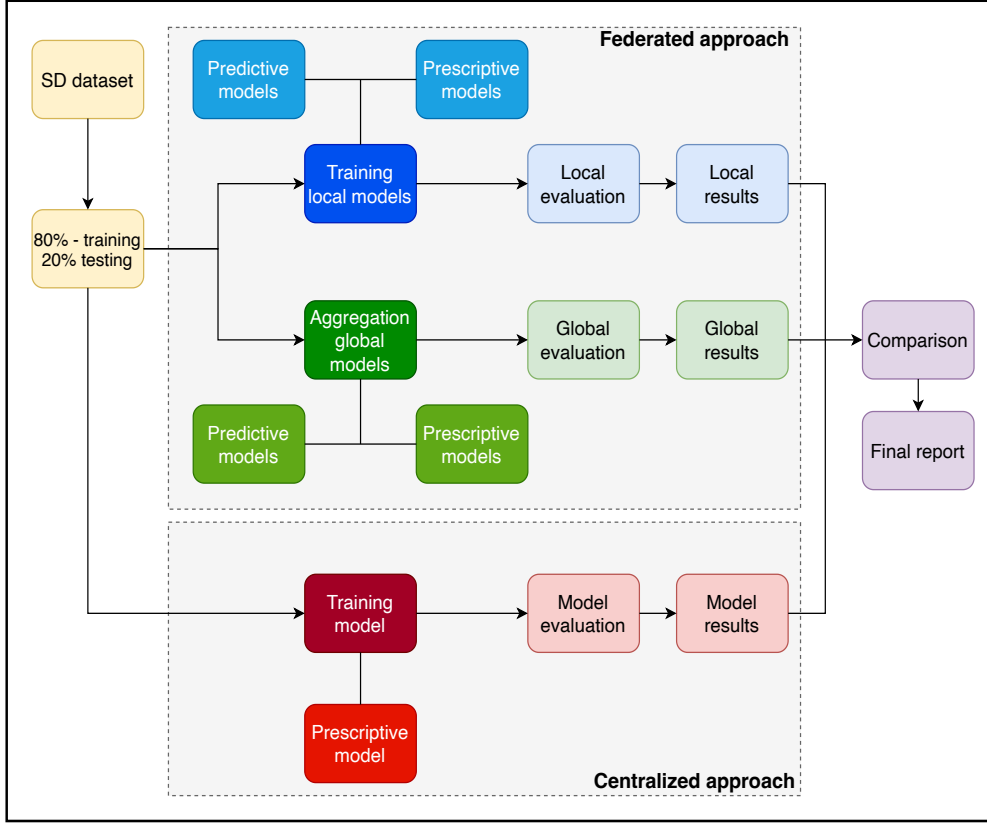


Fig. 1. Flowchart representing the main activities performed in this research.

222 matrix for five concepts and five relationships among them, represented by the values of w_{ij} . Fig. 2
 223 shows a schematic representation of the FCM defined in the matrix of Eq. 1.

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} C_1 & C_2 & C_3 & C_4 & C_5 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} C_1 \\ C_2 \\ C_3 \\ C_4 \\ C_5 \end{matrix} & \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & w_{15} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & w_{25} \\ 0 & w_{32} & 0 & 0 & w_{35} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & w_{45} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{matrix} \quad (1)$$

224 FCMs have been mainly used for description, prediction, and lately, they have been used for
 225 prescription. These three aspects are developed using inference rules that allow an initial state
 226 vector to reach a stable state. For the construction of the predictive models, we used the data-
 227 driven PSO-FCM technique. This technique uses the particle swarm optimization algorithm on

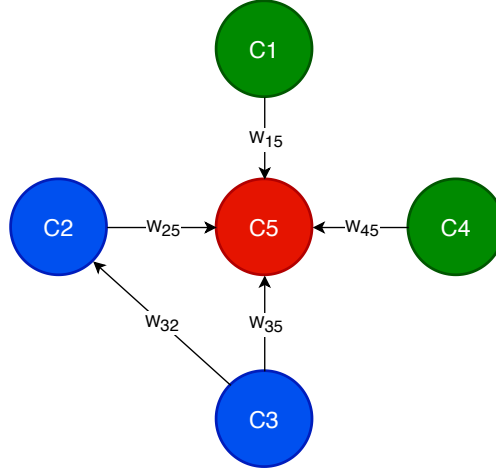


Fig. 2. Example of an FCM with five variables and five relationships.

228 datasets to find an FCM that describes relationships between the variables. The data-driven PSO-
 229 FCM algorithm is defined by:

$$v_i(t + 1) = v_i(t) + s_1 r_1 \cdot (W_i^{best} - W_i(t)) + s_2 r_2 \cdot (W_i^{gbest} - W_i(t)) \quad (2)$$

$$W_i(t + 1) = W_i(t) + v_i(t) \quad (3)$$

230 where v_i is the particle velocity; r_1 and r_2 are random values with uniform distribution; s_1 is
 231 the cognitive coefficient, responsible for the particle tending to move towards the position where it
 232 has obtained the best results so far; s_2 is the social component, also known as collective behavior,
 233 it is responsible for the particle tending to move towards the best position found by the swarm
 234 so far; W_i^{best} is the best position obtained by a specific particle, while W_i^{gbest} is the best position
 235 obtained by any particle in the swarm. For this case, each particle i is an FCM, while the position
 236 is a candidate matrix to build each FCM.

237 3.2. Prescriptive-FCM

238 The generation of prescriptive models was developed with the PRV-FCM methodology [38].
 239 This methodology uses the inference process of FCMs and optimization algorithms to find optimal

240 values of prescriptive variables that lead to the desired results to the concepts of the system. PRV-
 241 FCM first characterizes variables depending on their nature into prescriptive or action variables
 242 and system variables. Prescriptive variables are actions that a decision maker can perform to
 243 solve a problem, while system variables are those related to the system to be modeled. After
 244 initializing the system with desired values, an optimization algorithm is used to find the values of
 245 the prescriptive variables that lead to the desired values to the system variables.

246 3.3. Federated learning

247 Federated learning is a distributed ML approach developed in 2017 [21]. Federated learning
 248 allows to collaboratively generate a shared ML model by keeping all training data at its place of
 249 origin or collection, decoupling the ability to do ML from the need to store the data in the cloud.
 250 Federated learning works like this: one party downloads the current model, improves it by learning
 251 from local data, and then summarizes the changes as a small update. Only this model update is
 252 sent to the cloud, via encrypted communication, where it is immediately averaged with updates
 253 from other parties to improve the shared model. All training data remains in its original location,
 254 and no individual updates are stored in the cloud.

255 To date, three main approaches have been developed, known as horizontal federated learning,
 256 vertical federated learning, and federated learning with transfer learning. Fig. 3 shows a schematic
 257 representation of each. A brief explanation of each follows.

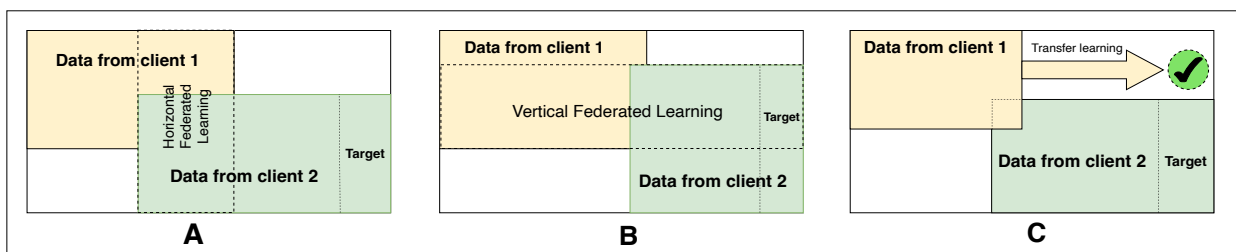


Fig. 3. Schematic representation of federated learning approaches reported in the literature. **A** y **B** represents horizontal and vertical federated learning, respectively, while **C** represents federated learning with transfer learning.

258 3.3.1. *Horizontal federated learning*

259 Scheme A in Fig. 3 shows horizontal federated learning. This type of federated learning is suit-
260 able in the case where the features/variables of the two datasets overlap a lot, but the records/data
261 overlap little. Horizontal federated learning consists of splitting the datasets horizontally (by the
262 dimension of the records), and then, extracting the part of the data where the features/variables are
263 the same but the records are not exactly the same [39].

264 3.3.2. *Vertical federated learning*

265 Vertical federated learning is shown in Scheme B in Fig. 3. Vertical federated learning is suit-
266 able in the case where the features/variables of the two datasets overlap little, but the records/data
267 overlap a lot. Vertical federated learning consists of splitting the datasets vertically (by the dimen-
268 sion of the features/variables), and then, extracting the part of the records that are the same, but
269 the features or variables are not exactly the same [40].

270 3.3.3. *Federated transfer learning*

271 A representation of federated learning with transfer learning is shown in Scheme C in Fig. 3.
272 In the case where the records and variables in the two datasets rarely overlap, the data is not
273 segmented, but transfer learning is used to overcome the missing data or labels. In this approach,
274 models are trained on one dataset and applied to another dataset from another related domain.
275 [41].

276 3.4. *Our proposed approaches*

277 In this section, we describe each of our federated learning approaches. Fig. 4 shows schematic
278 representations of each of the approaches.

279 3.4.1. *Total federated FCM*

280 Scheme A in Fig. 4 shows this approach. We call this approach *total federated learning* be-
281 cause all the variables in client 1 have the same characteristics/features as those in client 2. A clear
282 example is all the signs, symptoms, laboratory tests and classification of dengue in different cities
283 in Colombia.

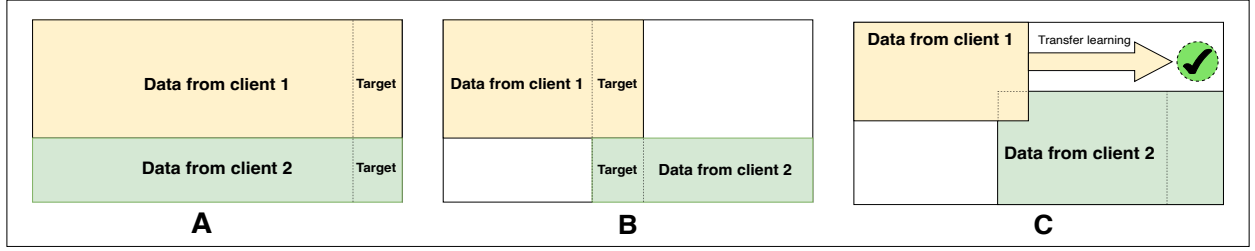


Fig. 4. Schematic representation of our federated learning approaches. **A** represents total federated learning; **B** represents target-based federated learning; and **C** represents federated learning with transfer learning.

284 For this case, the local models are trained by generating a weight matrix W_i^l , where i is the
 285 model number and l indicates that the model is local. Each local model sends the parameters to
 286 the server and this calculates an updated matrix by aggregating the information using the arithmetic
 287 average. Subsequently, the updated matrix W_{ij}^G is sent to each of the parties so that the updated
 288 model is used everywhere. The aggregation of the parts is performed with the average using the
 289 following equation:

$$W_{ij}^G = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{c=1}^n W_{ij}^c \quad (4)$$

290 Where W_{ij}^G is the global matrix aggregated with the two local model matrices, n is the number
 291 of clients used, and c is the client/site number.

292 3.5. Federated target-based FCM

293 In target-based federated learning, only one characteristic is common among the parties in-
 294 volved, and it corresponds to the target (see Scheme B in Fig. 4). This case is focused on pre-
 295 dictive models. For example, one city has signs, another city symptoms, and finally, another city
 296 laboratory tests. In our problem, the only common variable is the label or target for the diagnosis
 297 or prediction of mortality due to SD. From that, a global model is constructed that includes all the
 298 variables from all the cities. Since in this case, there are no common concepts, simply the weights
 299 corresponding to the concepts of the different parts of the architecture are added. At the end, each
 300 city has a global model with all the characteristics to be used. The aggregation process is done

301 according to the following equation:

$$W^G = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & W_{ij} \\ W_{kl} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5)$$

302 Where W^G is the global matrix, W_{ij} is the local matrix of local model 1, and W_{kl} is the local
303 matrix of local model 2.

304 3.6. Federated FCM with transfer learning

305 The federated FCM with learning transfer is useful for the development of prescriptive models.
306 Scheme C in Fig. 4 shows the design of this approach. For this variant, the concepts are divided
307 into system and action. In one part are the action concepts that act on the system concepts. For
308 example, treatment concepts that influence signs or symptoms. In another part are the system con-
309 cepts that influence the prediction. The aggregation process is done using Eq. 5. In that particular
310 case, the predictive model of the second party is previously trained/built, and then, it is transferred
311 for the second party to use to build the predictive model.

312 4. Experiments

313 In this section, we describe the experiments to validate the proposed approaches. First, we
314 describe the datasets used. Then, we show the statistical validation process using 5-fold cross-
315 validation. Subsequently, we present the evaluation metrics, and finally, we present a brief de-
316 scription of the experimental setup for the generation of local and global models in each proposed
317 approach.

318 4.1. Datasets

319 For the validation of our approaches, we used two datasets from two dengue endemic regions
320 in Colombia: Medellín and Córdoba. According to data from the National Institute of Health,
321 this municipality and department are endemic because of the dengue incidence rates they show
322 annually of 161-745 and 51-503 per 100,000 inhabitants for Medellín and Córdoba, respectively
323 [42]. The selected datasets correspond to dengue mortality. Dataset 1 corresponds to the city
324 of Medellín with 400 records collected between January 2008 and December 2019. Dataset 2

325 corresponds to the department of Córdoba and contained 398 records collected between January
326 2010 and December 2021. [Table 1](#) shows the variables included in the datasets. The first variables
327 define SD and were selected according to WHO guidelines for the diagnosis of this type of dengue.
328 The variables related to SD and its mortality are: extravasation, shock, bleeding and organ failure.
329 The variables related to the treatment of this type of dengue are: blood transfusion, crystalloid
330 solutions, colloid solutions and access to intensive care units. Finally, the decision/target variable
331 was mortality due to SD, where 0 means that the patient recovered while 1 indicates that the patient
332 died. The preprocessing of these datasets is described in [43].

Table 1

Brief description of the variables included in the datasets used for the experiments.

Concept	Variable type	Variable name	Description
C1	Sign	Extravasation	It is characterized by serous spills at the level of various cavities.
C2	Sign	Shock	Manifestation of severity evidenced by cold skin, thready pulse, tachycardia and hypotension.
C3	Sign	Bleeding	Blood leaks from the arteries, veins or capillaries through which it circulates, especially when it is produced in very large quantities
C4	Sign	Organ failure	Affectation of several organs due to the extravasation of liquids.
C5	Prescriptive	Blood transfusion	Routine medical procedure in which the patient receives donated blood in a vein in the arm.
C6	Prescriptive	Crystalloid solutions	Solutions containing water, electrolytes and/or sugars in different proportions.
C7	Prescriptive	Colloid solutions	Solutions with high molecular weight particles capable of increasing plasma oncotic pressure and retaining water in the intravascular space.
C8	Prescriptive	ICU	Intensive care unit
C9	Target	Mortality	Dengue mortality

333 4.2. Statistical validation

334 Eighty percent of the data was used for training and validation. During this process, the hy-
335 perparameters were tuned to select the best model with 5-fold cross-validation. The best model
336 was evaluated on the testing set corresponding to the remaining 20% of the data. The evaluation
337 process on the test set was repeated 100 times to perform a mean or median comparison test to
338 determine if there were significant differences between the performances of the developed mod-
339 els. Before performing the comparison test between models of the same approach, the distribution

340 of the data was determined using the Lilliefors test [44]. For this statistical test, we defined the
341 following hypotheses:

- 342 • H_0 : the data come from a normal distribution.
- 343 • H_1 : the data do not come from a normal distribution.

344 According to the result of the Lilliefors test, we use Student's t-test because the data follows
345 a normal distribution. The hypotheses for the comparison between two groups can be defined as
346 follows:

- 347 • $H_0 : \bar{\mu}_{local} = \bar{\mu}_{global}$
- 348 • $H_1 : \bar{\mu}_{local} \neq \bar{\mu}_{global}$

349 In this way, it was possible to test the ability of the models to predict and prescribe on pre-
350 viously unseen data. Additionally, it was possible to test whether the difference in model per-
351 formance was statistically significant. For all experiments, we defined the significance level at
352 0.05.

353 4.3. Evaluation of the models

354 We evaluated the models developed using classification metrics due to the categorical nature
355 of the variables included in the datasets. In the following, we present the three metrics used with
356 a brief description and their corresponding equation.

- 357 • *Accuracy*: percentage of correctly classified examples among the total number of classified
358 examples.

$$Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FN + FP + TN} \quad (6)$$

359 where TP are the true positives, TN are true negatives, FN are false negatives, and TN are
360 true negatives.

- 361 • *Sensitivity*: it measures the ability of the classifier to predict positive cases to those actually
362 positive.

$$Sensitivity : \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \quad (7)$$

- 363 • *Specificity*: it measures the ability of the classifier to predict negative cases to those actually
364 negative.

$$Specificity : \frac{TN}{TN + FP} \quad (8)$$

365 4.4. Total federated FCM

366 [Fig. 5](#) shows the architecture for this approach. In this first approach, the variables are exactly
367 the same in all clients/sites. Here, we see that both the local models and the global model present
368 the same variables (blue = concepts related to prediction, green = concepts related to prescription,
369 red = target). In the following, we explain the local and global training of the models; as well as
370 their evaluation.

371 4.4.1. Local training on clients

372 For this first case, the local training was carried out with all the variables related to the prescrip-
373 tion to avoid mortality in patients with SD. The training was performed on each dataset of each
374 client/site, separately. The training of the FCMs was carried out with the data-driven PSO-FCM
375 technique, which has demonstrated its excellent performance for the optimization of matrices that
376 generate FCMs. Subsequently, the prescriptive modeling technique PRV-FCM was used to find
377 the optimal values of prescriptive variables. Each of these clients/sites shares the parameters, in
378 this case, the weights matrix corresponding to the relationships between the modeled variables.

379 4.4.2. Global training on the federated server

380 After all the clients, in our case cities, train their models, the FCM construction parameters are
381 shared to a global server, where a global model is created using the aggregation method defined in
382 [Eq. 4](#). One of the advantages of this approach is that the sample size of the training is increased
383 because the patients in one client are different from those in the other clients. In this way, we
384 increase the sample size for training. This global model is then sent to all clients, and the trained
385 model is updated so that it can be used by each client.

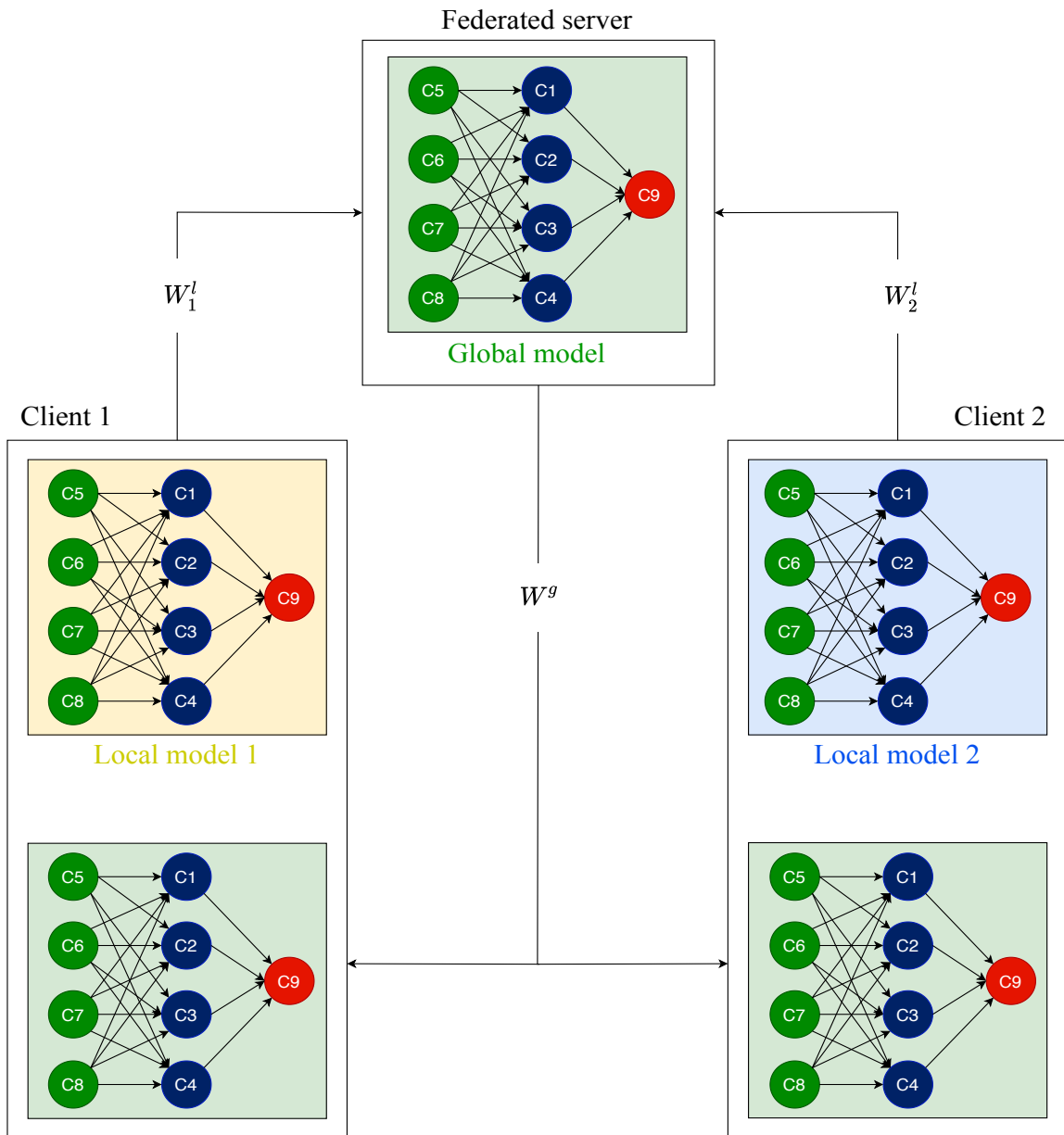


Fig. 5. Architecture of total federated FCM (the blue and green concepts are related to prediction and prescription, respectively. The red concept corresponds to the target).

386 4.5. Federated FCM based on the target

387 Fig. 6 shows the architecture for this approach. In this approach, only the target (this variable
388 is represented in red color in Fig. 6) is common across all client data. In the following, we briefly
389 explain the configuration of local and global training.

390 4.5.1. Local training on clients

391 In this case, the common variable is the prediction class or target. To simulate this case,
392 we eliminate variables in the Medellin and Cordoba dataset. In each client/site, we leave two
393 different variables so that only the target is repeated. In this way, a different predictive model of
394 SD mortality is created for each client. The training is developed using the PSO algorithm to find
395 the optimal weight matrix to build the FCM.

396 4.5.2. Global training on the federated server

397 The aggregation process on the federated server is a little different from the first approach.
398 In this case, we do not use averaging to aggregate the models because the relationships between
399 the concepts and the target are not repeated. Therefore, it is only sufficient to aggregate the two
400 matrices into one, adding the weights of each of the clients. This process is done using Eq. 5 to
401 create the global model. At the end, a global model is obtained that represents the information
402 of all clients/sites. This model is updated for each of the clients so that it can be used to predict
403 mortality from SD.

404 4.6. Federated FCM with transfer learning

405 Fig. 7 shows the architecture of the federated FCM with transfer learning. In the latter ap-
406 proach, learning will be transferred from one client to another because the target is located at a
407 single client/site (see Fig. 4). For this approach, we used parameter-based transfer learning because
408 the sample size in the two clients was approximately similar. In addition, the sign/symptom-related
409 variables were common across the participating clients in the federation. We were interested in
410 transfer learning because of the possibility of learning in one domain and making predictions or
411 prescriptions in a different but related test domain. In healthcare, it is common to find healthcare
412 institutions with treatment-related data and other institutions that collect only diagnosis-related

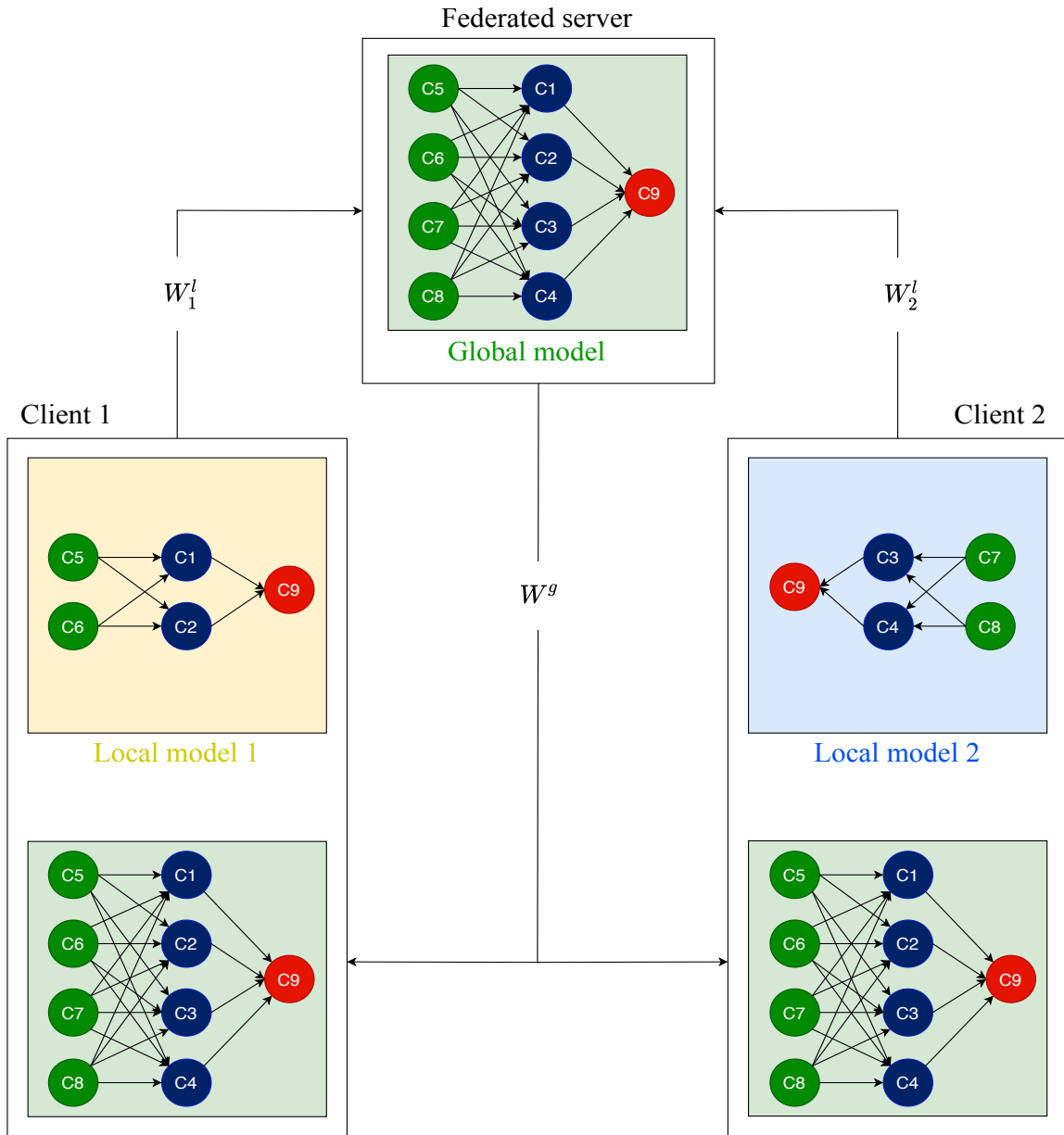


Fig. 6. Architecture of target-based federated FCM (the blue and green concepts are related to prediction and prescription, respectively. The red concept corresponds to the target).

413 data. Specifically, training local models with data that represent the therapeutic process of dengue,
414 and that the extracted knowledge can be transferred to other settings, which would be of great
415 utility to support clinical decision-making. To achieve this goal, two processes were performed:
416 i) a local training of the prescription model (see local model 1 in Fig. 7) and its subsequent eval-
417 uation; ii) the second step consisted of a retraining of the predictive model (see local model 2 in
418 Fig. 7) leaving constant the parameter values of the initial prescriptive model. Next, we explain
419 the training of the variables at the local level and their update in the global model.

420 *4.6.1. Local training on clients*

421 The local training of each client will be different due to the presence of different variables. For
422 example, client 1 has the prescriptive variables acting on the diagnostic variables, while client 2
423 has only the diagnostic variables with the target variable. For the first case (client 1), the PRV-
424 FCM algorithm was used to build the prescriptive models (local model 1), while for the second
425 step (client 2) the data-driven PSO-FCM algorithm was used to train the predictive model and
426 generate local model 2.

427 *4.6.2. Global training on the federated server*

428 The creation of the global model was performed using the aggregation process defined in
429 Eq. 5. This process is responsible for integrating the prediction and prescription FCMs to generate
430 a federated global model.

431 **5. Results and discussion**

432 In this article, we aimed to develop and implement three federated learning approaches for
433 FCMs to support clinical decision-making in dengue, specifically SD. In this section, we show
434 the results obtained from the implementation of each of the proposed approaches on the described
435 datasets. Then, we will discuss each of the results obtained in each approach. Finally, we compare
436 our work with previous studies.

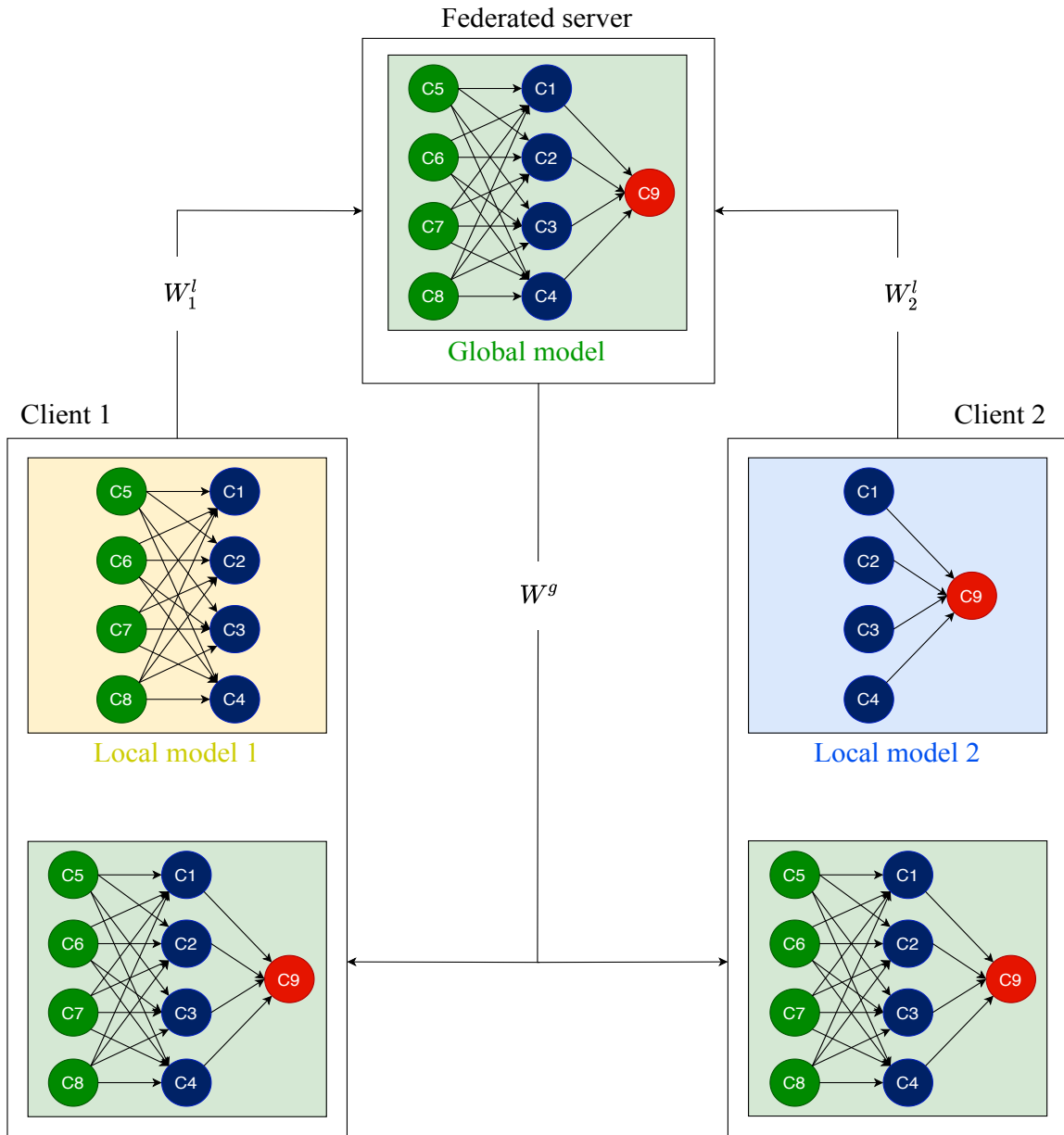


Fig. 7. Architecture of transfer learning federated FCM (the blue and green concepts are related to prediction and prescription, respectively. The red concept corresponds to the target).

Table 2

Performance of the models developed with the total federated FCM approach. * indicates the average for all prescriptive variables. NA = not applicable.

Data type	Model	Data configuration	Task	Accuracy	Sensitivity	Specificity
Signs, treatment options and target	Local 1	Local data from Medellín	Prediction	0.68	0.68	0.50
			Prescription	0.87*	0.75*	1.00*
	Local 2	Local data from Córdoba	Prediction	0.74	0.77	0.51
			Prescription	0.86*	0.89*	0.81*
	Global federated	NA	Prediction	0.76	0.85	0.67
			Prescription	0.96*	0.92*	0.97*
	Global non-federated	Centralized data	Prescription	0.88*	0.83*	0.94*

437 5.1. Total federated FCM

438 **Table 2** shows the results of the local models and the global models applied to the previously
 439 described datasets. **Fig. 8** shows the result of 100 simulations performed during the evaluation
 440 process of the models with a total federated learning approach. Additionally, it shows the sta-
 441 tistical comparison of the performance of the predictive and prescriptive models. Both Local 1
 442 and Local 2 models obtained good results for prescription with accuracy values of 0.87 and 0.86,
 443 respectively. However, it can be seen that the global federated predictive and prescriptive models
 444 were superior to all the local models, including the model with centralized data. Regarding sensi-
 445 tivity and specificity, the results showed the same trend of accuracy where federated global models
 446 performed better than local and centralized models.

447 Total federated learning consisted of a federated learning approach where all client variables
 448 are common. In this way, local models can be trained with different data and the sample size can
 449 be increased to improve prediction or prescription performance. The results of the local predictive
 450 models showed the ability to predict SD mortality. The results were acceptable, with accuracies
 451 between 0.68 and 0.74. Federated learning improved these results with 0.76. This demonstrates the
 452 ability to increase the sample size with federated learning. The same was true for the prescriptive
 453 models. The federated global model performed better than local models perhaps because the
 454 sample size was larger.

455 Although this accuracy is good, we only used a few variables for SD. The use of only 4 system
 456 variables and 4 prescriptive variables is too few to develop more robust models. Additionally, the

Table 3

Performance of the models developed with the target-based approach. * indicates the average for all prescriptive variables. NA = not applicable.

Model	Data configuration	Data type	Task	Accuracy	Sensitivity	Specificity
Local 1	Local data from Medellín	Two signs, two treatment options and target	Prediction	0.71	0.76	0.48
			Prescription	0.75*	0.67*	0.80*
Local 2	Local data from Córdoba	Two signs, two treatment options and target	Prediction	0.69	0.66	0.61
			Prescription	0.85*	0.78*	0.85*
Global federated	NA	All signs, treatment options and target	Prediction	0.76	0.90	0.66
			Prescription	0.95*	0.91*	0.96*
Global non-federated	All data centralized	All signs, treatment options and target	Prescription	0.88*	0.83*	0.94*

457 sample size is small, which is a limitation of the models to generalize. It is necessary to increase
 458 the sample size by adding other cities in Colombia and integrating new variables to explain their
 459 influence on mortality from SD.

460 5.2. Target-based federated FCM

461 Table 3 shows the accuracy, sensitivity and specificity of the models based on target-based fed-
 462 erated FCM. Fig. 9 shows the result of 100 simulations performed during the evaluation process
 463 of the models with a total federated learning approach. Additionally, it shows the statistical com-
 464 parison of the performance of the predictive and prescriptive models. In this approach, the target
 465 is the only variable in common between the clients. As in the first approach, the results showed
 466 that the federated global model performs better than the local models and the centralized model.
 467 One of the methodological novelties of the present work is the federated FCM approach based on
 468 the target variable. On many occasions, we have data in different locations and their only common
 469 feature is the target. This approach allows building global models where features are not repeated
 470 between datasets in different locations.

471 The results show the ability of our approach to predict in local environments with few variables.
 472 Local models 1 and 2 use two prescriptive variables and two diagnostic variables. Despite the small
 473 number of variables, the performance of the models is satisfactory. Additionally, the federated
 474 global model has the ability to predict and prescribe better than a model with centralized data. The
 475 sensitivity and specificity of the federated global models developed in this approach had higher
 476 performance, however, the predictive models are better able to classify positive cases than negative

Table 4

Performance of the models developed with the transfer learning federated approach. * indicates the average for all prescriptive variables. NA = not applicable.

Model	Data configuration	Data type	Task	Accuracy	Sensitivity	Specificity
Local 1	Local data from Medellín	Signs and treatment options	Prescription	0.95*	0.94*	0.93*
Local 2	Local data from Córdoba	Signs and target	Prediction	0.69	0.71	0.50
Global federated	NA	Signs, treatment options and target	Prediction	0.73	0.86	0.61
			Prescription	0.98*	0.96*	0.99*
Global non-federated	All data centralized	Signs, treatment options and target	Prescription	0.88*	0.83*	0.94*

477 cases (see [Table 3](#)). It is clear that the performance could be improved, either by increasing the
 478 size of the data used or by adding variables that explain the influence on dengue severity and
 479 mortality. The results of applying this approach to the data demonstrated that the use of clinical
 480 and treatment data are useful for predicting mortality and prescribing treatment to prevent death.
 481 The presence of warning signs established by the WHO has been shown to influence the severity
 482 and can be used as predictors of mortality from SD. Adding these types of variables to the models
 483 could improve their performance to obtain more robust models.

484 5.3. Federated FCM with transfer learning

485 [Table 4](#) shows the accuracy, sensitivity and specificity of the models based on target-based
 486 federated FCM. [Fig. 10](#) shows the result of 100 simulations performed during the evaluation pro-
 487 cess of the models with a total federated learning approach. Additionally, it shows the statistical
 488 comparison of the performance of the predictive and prescriptive models. In this latter learning
 489 approach, we can observe the ability of the federated global model to predict and prescribe with
 490 excellent performance outperforming the local models and the non-federated centralized model. In
 491 this case, as in the two previous approaches, the accuracy, sensitivity and specificity of the models
 492 were superior in the federated global model. The implementation of federated learning to transfer
 493 learning from prescription to prediction allows the integration of diagnosis and treatment of SD.

494 The federated FCM approach with transfer learning is an approach, which can be used to
 495 transfer learning from one domain to another. In our case, we were able to transfer learning from
 496 SD treatment to the mortality prediction domain.

497 Of the three approaches, this was the one that gave the best results for the prescription. It is

498 true that the division of the data in this approach allowed separating the domains, and only left the
 499 important variables in each part of the architecture. In the client with prescriptive variables and
 500 clinical manifestations, the relationship between treatment and the defining signs of SD is evident.
 501 Predicting SD mortality with only the defining variables remains a challenge. Using only four
 502 variables to predict mortality from this type of dengue is not enough to have models with excellent
 503 performance.

504 Finally, the statistical tests performed, whose significance values (p-values) are inserted in
 505 Fig. 8, Fig. 9 and Fig. 10 for the three approaches show that there are significant differences
 506 between the models developed.

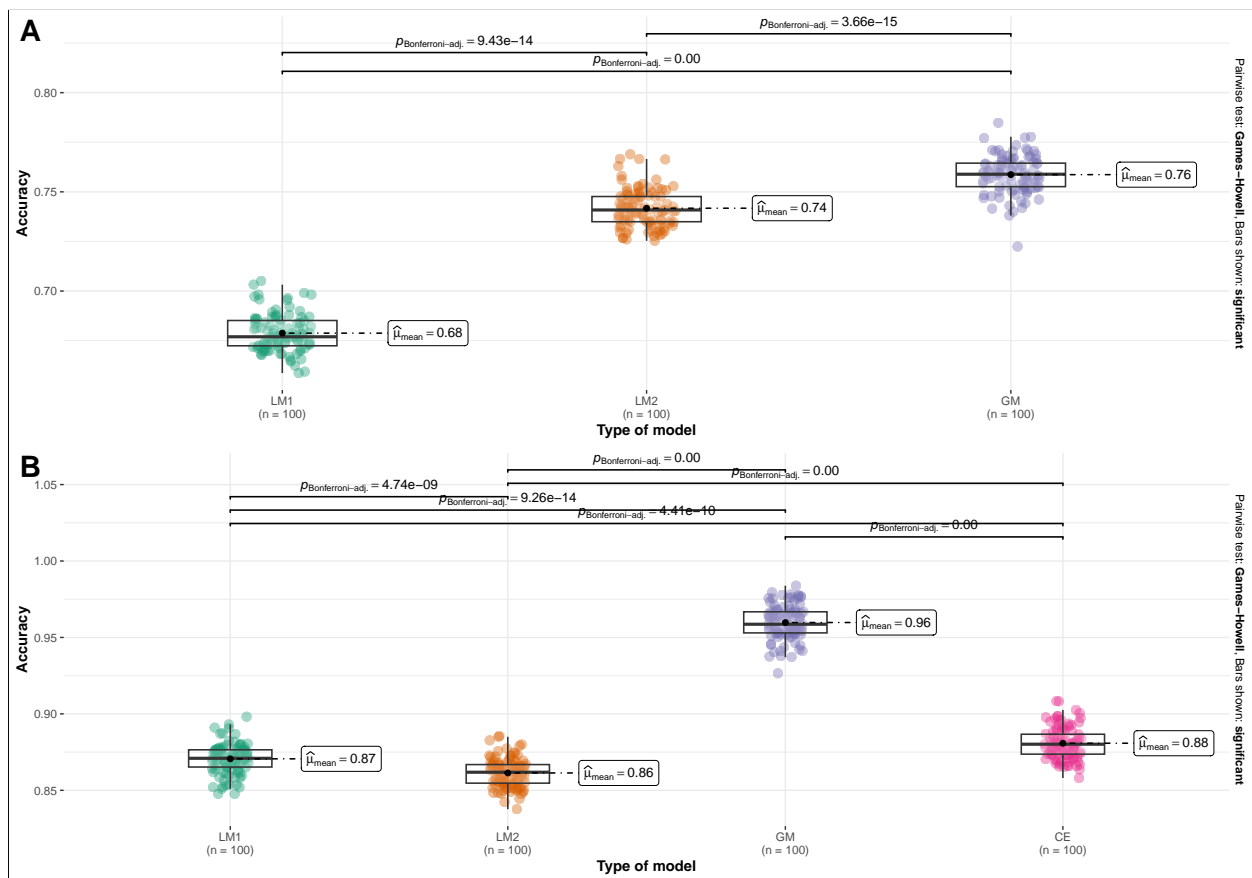


Fig. 8. Boxplots to compare the models' performance in a total federated learning approach. A and B correspond to the predictive and prescriptive models, respectively. Abbreviations: LM1 = local model 1, LM2 = Local model 2, GM = global model, CE = centralized approach.

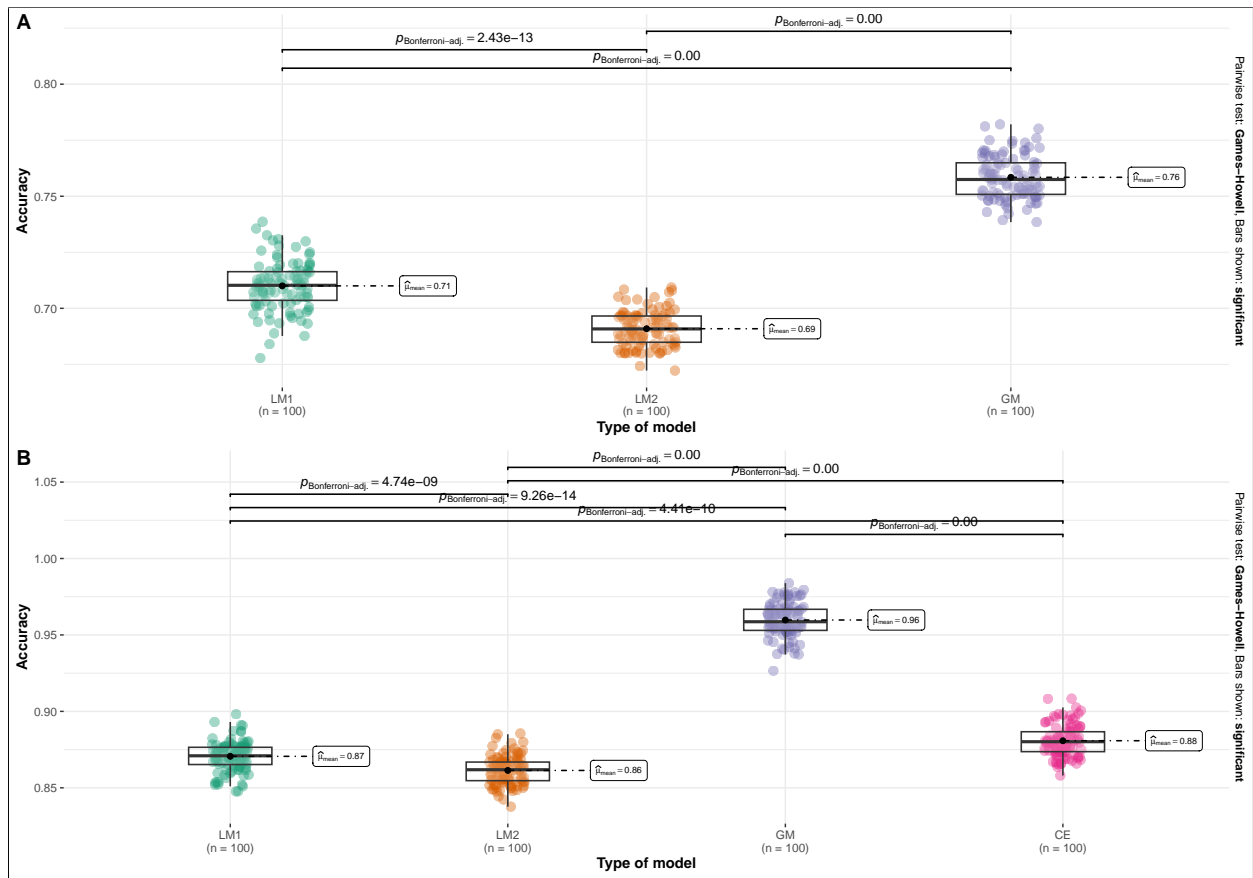


Fig. 9. Boxplots to compare the models' performance in a target-based federated learning approach. A and B correspond to the predictive and prescriptive models, respectively. Abbreviations: LM1 = local model 1, LM2 = Local model 2, GM = global model, CE = centralized approach.

507 **5.4. Comparison with previous work**

508 In this section, we compared the results of the present work with previously developed ap-
 509 proaches published in the literature. Initially, we performed a qualitative comparison with other
 510 federated learning approaches that have been implemented in medical settings. On the other hand,
 511 since this is the first paper to propose federated learning approaches for FCMs for the clinical man-
 512 agement of SD, we compared our results with prediction and prescription models for the clinical
 513 management of SD with centralized approaches.

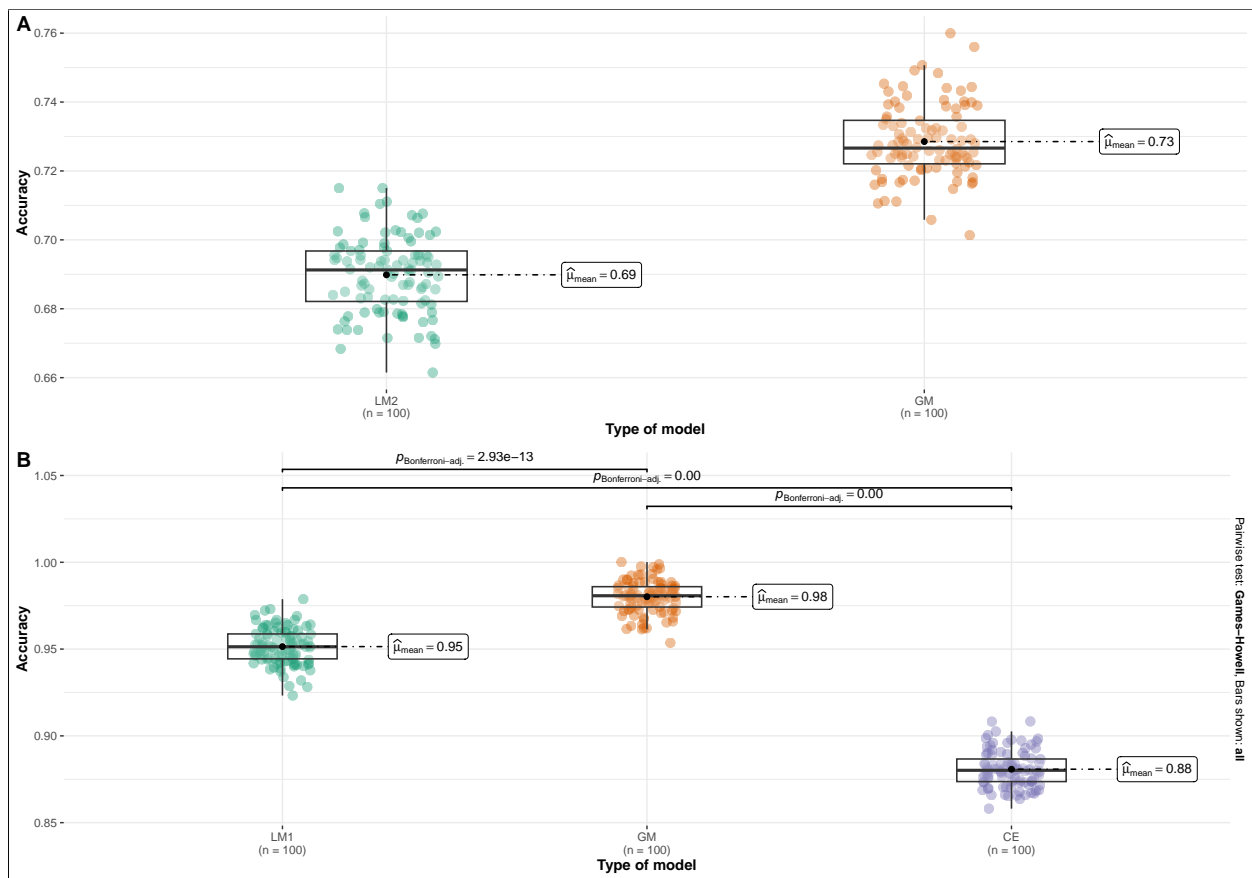


Fig. 10. Boxplots to compare the models' performance in federated transfer learning. A and B correspond to prescriptive and predictive models, respectively. Abbreviations: LM1 = local model 1, LM2 = Local model 2, GM = global model, CE = centralized approach.

514 5.5. Qualitative comparison

515 We performed a qualitative comparison of our work with other studies due to the lack of
 516 research implementing federated learning for SD. We used qualitative criteria defined in [Table 5](#)
 517 for comparison with other approaches reported in the literature. The first criterion is related to
 518 the use and implementation of artificial intelligence techniques for the generation of predictive
 519 models for diagnosis. The second criterion evaluates the use and implementation of prescriptive
 520 models for disease treatment. The third criterion evaluates the ability of proposed systems to have
 521 an integration of predictive and prescriptive models in the federated learning environment. Finally,
 522 the last criterion indicates the ability of the approach to be intuitive and easily adaptable.

Table 5

Qualitative comparison between previous studies and our work.

Qualitative criteria	Work				
	[36]	[45]	[46]	[47]	Our work
AI models with FL for diagnosis	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓
AI models with FL for treatment	✗	✗	✓	✗	✓
Integration of AI models with FL for diagnosis and treatment	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓
Ease of use and adaptability	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

523 Federated learning has been widely implemented in different fields of medical application
524 [36, 45–47]. For example, Salmeron and Arevalo [36] developed a federated learning approach
525 using computational intelligence techniques such as PSO and FCM for cancer diagnosis. The au-
526 thors implemented an identical structure of FCMs across all clients or federation participants and
527 demonstrated the ability of the federated approach to generate models with higher performance
528 than local models. However, this work does not integrate prescriptive models with federated learn-
529 ing, nor does it integrate disease diagnosis and treatment. The proposed system is intuitive and
530 easily adaptable. Another work developed by Li et al [45] supports decision-making in colorectal
531 cancer prognosis by using random forests to build multi-center predictive models. The approach
532 proposed by Li et al is easy to use, adaptable to any medical institution and is aimed at supporting
533 decision-making with respect to diagnosis, guarantees the privacy of patient data, but does not gen-
534 erated treatment-oriented actions. Liu and Yang [46] trained a robot with deep learning to support
535 physicians with the treatment of patients with depression. The work developed by Liu and Yang
536 is novel and ensures privacy of patient data with federated learning. However, this approach only
537 focuses on treatment and does not support decision-making for a depression diagnosis. Finally,
538 a work developed by Li et al [47] preserved data privacy using a federated learning approach for
539 Alzheimer’s disease detection. The developed system used classification models and performed
540 well in diagnosing the disease. Moreover, it can be adapted for the aggregation of new features to
541 increase prediction performance.

542 In contrast to the previously presented work, we implemented three federated learning ap-
543 proaches with different architectures for predictive and prescriptive model generation. These ap-

544 proaches use different configurations to support decision-making in the diagnosis and treatment
545 of SD using AI techniques. The integration of predictive and prescriptive models for diagnosis
546 and treatment could be more useful than generating models only for diagnosis or only for treat-
547 ment. The systems generated in each of our proposed approaches are also intuitive and their easy
548 adaptation would allow the addition of other important variables for the analysis of SD.

549 *5.6. Quantitative comparison*

550 Although the availability of data regarding SD mortality remains scarce, which has led to the
551 development of models based on the expertise of experts [14], our models performed well for
552 both predicting and prescribing when compared to previous work based on data reported in the
553 literature. For example, Hoyos et al [43] developed prediction models for SD mortality using
554 the same dataset used in the present study. The authors developed the models with FCMs with
555 average accuracies of 0.74. Another similar work is developed by Chattopadhyay et al. [48]
556 where they developed classification models to predict dengue death with a maximum performance
557 of 0.72 of accuracy in a smaller sample size (100 patients). Regarding prescriptive models, the
558 PRV-FCM methodology yielded excellent results due to its ability to find optimal values using
559 the FCM inference process and optimization algorithms. Our results confirm the results reported
560 by several previous studies where the prescriptive capability of PRV-FCM in medical settings has
561 been demonstrated.

562 **6. Conclusions**

563 We set out to develop three federated learning approaches for FCMs to support clinical decision-
564 making in dengue, specifically SD. Each approach consisted of clients/sites with different/equal
565 data depending on their settings. For each approach, predictive and prescriptive models were built
566 using FCMs and optimization algorithms. The results showed that the three federated learning
567 approaches with FCMs outperform local models trained on private data. Additionally, the feder-
568 ated approach outperforms models trained with centralized data. Finally, it is shown that federated
569 learning approaches are useful for fields of science where data security and privacy must be guar-
570 anteed.

571 This work has some limitations. For example, the approaches are distributed but centralized,
572 because a single federated server does the aggregation process. If this server has problems or is
573 unavailable due to some circumstances, then the global model cannot be updated. For this reason,
574 it is necessary to develop decentralized federated models. For example, an aggregation process
575 can be performed in all the nodes of the system, so that if one node stops working, the others have
576 a backup of the information and the aggregation information is not lost.

577 Another limitation of the present study is the number of clients used for the simulations. In
578 this case, we only used two clients due to data availability. It is recommended to apply these
579 approaches on larger clients to analyze the predictive and prescriptive capabilities of both local and
580 global models. Finally, the approaches were not validated in licensed clinical institutions. Strict
581 validation of these approaches in hospitals or clinics in Colombia would be useful to understand
582 its usefulness in decision-making in clinical settings.

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587 **Conflict of interest**

588 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

589 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

590 **William Hoyos:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Formal analysis, Investigation,
591 Data curation, Validation, Visualization & Writing – original draft. **Jose Aguilar:** Conceptualiza-
592 tion, Formal analysis, Resources, Supervision, Writing – reviewing & editing. **Mauricio Toro:**
593 Resources, Supervision, Writing – reviewing & editing.

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