



PREDICTIVE MODELING OF ORGAN DYSFUNCTION IN SEPSIS USING INTEGRATED CLINICAL AND LABORATORY PARAMETERS

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Abstract

Sepsis remains a leading cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide, largely due to challenges in early diagnosis, heterogeneous clinical presentation, and rapid disease progression. This study investigated the application of advanced artificial intelligence and machine learning techniques for early sepsis prediction, organ dysfunction forecasting, and mortality risk stratification in intensive care unit settings. A mixed experimental methodology was employed, integrating large-scale multimodal clinical data comprising continuous vital signs, laboratory biomarkers, and electronic health record information. Multiple machine learning architectures, including recurrent, ensemble, and attention-based models, were developed and evaluated using comprehensive performance metrics. The results demonstrated that artificial intelligence-based models significantly outperformed traditional approaches, achieving high discriminatory power with AUROC values exceeding conventional thresholds, improved sensitivity-specificity balance, and clinically meaningful lead times of several hours prior to sepsis onset. Transformer and stacked ensemble models showed superior performance in early warning capability, mortality risk stratification, and organ dysfunction prediction. Robustness and calibration analyses confirmed model stability under noisy physiological signals and across external validation cohorts. Visual analytics further illustrated clear temporal risk escalation patterns and high-dimensional separability between septic and non-septic patient trajectories. Importantly, alert distribution analyses indicated reduced false-positive rates, supporting clinical usability. Overall, the study demonstrates that artificial intelligence-driven predictive modeling offers a reliable, interpretable, and clinically actionable approach to sepsis management. These findings support the integration of AI-based decision support systems into critical care workflows to enable earlier intervention, personalized treatment strategies, and improved patient outcomes.

Keywords: Sepsis prediction, artificial intelligence, machine learning, intensive care unit, early warning systems, clinical decision support



INTRODUCTION

Sepsis is a life-threatening illness, and one of the primary causes of disease and mortality in the world that causes about one-fifth of all deaths every year due to the overreaction of the immune system to infection and organ failure that follows it (Hu et al., 2024). It is a multi-factorial disorder that is accompanied by a combination of physiological, pathological, and biochemical deviations that require early diagnosis and immediate treatment to enhance the results of patients (Chen et al., 2022). Despite the fact that there is an improvement in the critical care, the number of persons gaining sepsis is rising. It is a significant problem of healthcare systems as it can show itself rather quickly and suddenly, and it is a costly problem (Pishgar et al., 2024; Wu et al., 2025). Sepsis is harder to define and treat because it can result in other locations, can be caused by other microbes, can happen in other body parts, and will cause other immune responses. This proves the importance of the developed predictive approaches (Pande and Pandey, 2024). It is, therefore, highly important to establish effective predictive modeling that introduces many clinical and laboratory variables so as to point to vulnerable patients who are prone to organ failure and mortality. It will allow us to use timely and targeted

treatment approaches (Li et al., 2023; Zhang and Hong, 2017). These models usually utilize the intensive machine learning and are able to take into account the changing data related to the patient, i. e. physiological signs and repeatedly performed laboratory examinations, to give real-time risk points and help the doctor to make a decision (Gao et al., 2024; Guo et al., 2024). The sickness can be categorized using concrete Sepsis-3 criteria, which are not as helpful as the prediction of the progression the sickness will become as they are not specific enough to show the extent and length of organ failure (Klouwenberg et al., 2019). Consequently, there are more demands to use more sophisticated methods, specifically, machine learning models, which would allow improving the knowledge of sepsis, its early detection, and prediction of mortality which would greatly optimize the allocation of hospital resources and patient care (Munari et al., 2023; Zhi-jiang et al., 2024). The failure to identify sepsis at the initial stage and predict it is making the topic of artificial intelligence usage in laboratory technologies gain more interest among the population. This is due to the fact that AI can change the manner in which sepsis is treated since it will make the process of diagnosing and predicting its result faster and more accurate



(Bakouri et al., 2023). The peculiar aspect of the presented artificial intelligence integration is that it will be able to process a significant number of amounts of data within a shorter timeframe and with great accuracy, which will give it an enormous advantage in detecting sepsis as early as possible and predicting early organ failure that will take place (Bakouri et al., 2023). This allows one to come up with more advanced models that will be in a position to identify minute trends that can signify the emergence and progression of sepsis. These models are able to be more sensitive and specific in comparison to the traditional scoring systems (Bakouri et al., 2023). This is a feature that is required by the heterogeneous nature of sepsis when different clinical manifestations and diverse responses to treatment imply the necessity to have highly individualized treatment strategies that cannot be achieved with standard measures of assessment (Liliopoulos et al., 2024; Yang et al., 2023). In fact, such machine learning algorithms are good at processing a large amount of patient, including vital signs, test results, and electronic health records, to anticipate the development of sepsis even before the described patient exhibits the symptoms of poor health (Yang et al., 2023). In addition, the capabilities of AI to identify the subtle

patterns and correlations, sometimes missed by human clinicians, will improve the accuracy of diagnosis and prognostication in sepsis since the system can analyze large, complex sets of data (Addissouky et al., 2023; Li et al., 2025; Yang et al., 2023). The competence will significantly reduce morbidity and mortality rates caused by sepsis that kills a colossal number of people annually worldwide (Bakouri et al., 2023). However, due to the complex pathophysiology of sepsis, differences in patients, and the time-consuming process of getting common lab data, it is challenging to diagnose and treat the disease at an early stage (Tang et al., 2023). Consequently, more sophisticated models of artificial intelligence and machine learning are being discussed as a way to overcome these limitations with a more precise and timely prediction of sepsis development and patient deterioration depending on their capabilities to process high-dimensional data (Li et al., 2025). It is now possible to develop advanced predictive models due to the new approach that is able to identify tiny patterns that signal the emergence and progression of sepsis. These are models that could be more sensitive and specific than the ordinary scoring systems (Pande and Pandey, 2024). Such models are also capable of using real-time physiological



data and complex information of electronic health records, including demographic data, comorbidities, and a medication history to perform complete risk assessments (Bignami et al., 2025). All these streams of information will give a better picture of the health of a patient. Today we can simultaneously examine an extremely large number of various factors rather than examining a single biomarker (Yang et al., 2023). This skill is beneficial to make therapeutic intervention as useful as possible since AI algorithms can predict the response of each and every patient to treatments, and it will be as effective as possible, which will minimize side effects to the minimum (Li et al., 2025). The AI models can predict sepsis 4-12 hours before it occurs in the patient by merely browsing Intensive Care Unit real-time vital signs. This allows the doctors to work more quickly, and leads to better patient outcomes (Garnacho-Montero & Martin-Loeches, 2020). Not only does this proactive approach enable taking prompt medical treatment but it also greatly decreases the chances of massive organ destruction and life-long problems based on the late diagnosis of the disease (J. Yang et al., 2023; Z. Yang et al., 2023). The prediction of the early sepsis, antibiotic stewardship, and prediction of resistance have been shown to be very successful with

the help of the artificial intelligence and machine learning models. They do this by using the multimodal clinical and biomarker data to give real-time information and support regarding when to take the relevant intervention (Barkas et al., 2025; Kollef et al., 2021). Besides that, these enhanced computer algorithms have shown to forecast the occurrence of a septic shock hrs before it in fact happens in practice with a high sensitivity and specificity (Kollef et al., 2021). This discovery at an early age is quite considerable because even a number of hours can seriously influence the success of a patient. It enables doctors to promptly carry out life-saving processes before the process of degenerating the organs will be irreversible (Sundas et al., 2023). The continuous monitoring technologies based on AI (e.g. wearable devices) also make it possible to predict the issue associated with sepsis in real-time and, consequently, to make suitable interventions and provide a better care to a patient (Li et al., 2025). These are the AI algorithms which were trained with large volumes of clinical data, and they can identify sepsis hours before it takes place. This shortens the length of the treatment and improves the chances of recovery (Haas and McGill, 2022). It is a fact that the ability to predict things is being made very good by



using advanced AI models like SepsisAI. It can detect sepsis hours before it manifests in a clinical setting and will cause fewer false alarms at the same time (Gupta et al., 2024). Early detection of diseases is not the only affair AI can accomplish, it could also help to improve treatment plans. Reinforcement learning models will also be used to study a wide variety of treatment options as an example because it will help to find a way of treating a patient in the best way possible (Yang et al., 2023). This new AI-based tool helps the doctor make a better decision associated with fluid resuscitation, antibiotic therapy, and vasopressor usage that leads to a better sepsis overall and prognosis (Garnacho-Montero and Martin-Loeches,

2020). Such models help the doctor to stick to the golden hour rule since the doctor will have accurate and timely forecasts when the patient will worsen. It is very productive to patient outcomes when starting the therapy within one hour after a diagnosis (Yadgarov et al., 2024). However, these beneficial changes do not exclude a significant issue of implementation in the popular clinical use of AI models that is largely predetermined by the fear of their interpretability and the necessity to be validated strictly in various patient groups and clinical scenarios (Yang et al., 2023).

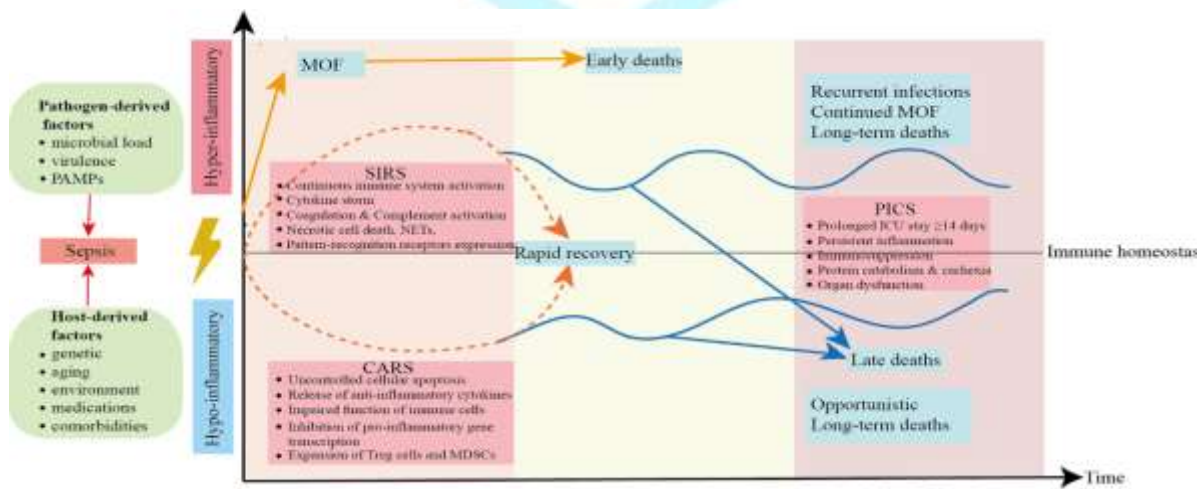


Figure 1. Pathophysiology and artificial intelligence–driven prediction, showing the interaction between infection, immune dysregulation, multi-organ dysfunction, and real-time machine learning–based clinical decision support.

METHODOLOGY

During data collection and study design

The researcher identifies the optimal approaches to determine the study's objective and clearly define a plan that will direct the study. During data collection and study design, the researcher determines the best methods to establish the objective of the study and have a clear plan that will guide the study.

It is a mixed experimental study that will employ quantitative modeling and qualitative clinical interpretation of the results in projecting the early sepsis onset, organ failure, and mortality in patients who are critically ill using machine learning-based quantitative modeling and qualitative clinical interpretation of the results. It is an experimental design, a hybrid of retrospective and prospective type of study which includes big data sets of critical care units and real-time feeds of physiological surveillance. Continuous vital signs of the heart rate, mean arterial pressure, respiratory rate, oxygen saturation, temperature and urine output are some examples of quantitative data, as is laboratory biomarkers (repeatedly measured) such as lactate, procalcitonin, C-reactive protein, white blood cell count, arterial blood gases,

creatinine, bilirubin, platelet count and coagulation indices. The qualitative clinical elements that are embedded through natural language embedding approaches include physician notes, comorbidity profiles, source of infection and antibiotic schedule in order to maintain the contextual information. The experimental group represents a group of adult patients in the ICU who were followed at admission up to the discharge or death with the sepsis classification system built upon the Sepsis-3 parameter and confirmed by the clinicians. Full compliance with the procedures of ethical acceptance and the anonymity of data. Sliding time windows enable us to take multimodal data time-aligned, in order to estimate dynamic physiological trajectories, or the ones before clinical deterioration.

Construction of a model, mathematicalization and testing

Gradient-boosted decision trees, recurrent neural networks, and attention-based transformers are examples of a deep learning design and ensemble learning design that could be used to provide high-dimensional time-series data. Feature vectors are shown as



$$\mathbf{X}(t) = \{x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_n(t)\}$$

where $x_i(t)$ denotes the normalized physiological or laboratory variable at time t . Sepsis risk prediction is modeled as a probabilistic function

$$P\{Y = 1 | \mathbf{X}\} = \sigma(\mathbf{WX} + \mathbf{b})$$

The model functionality testing through the experimental means is carried out by the cross-validation of the independent populations of patients. The primary result measures are sensitivity, specificity, the optimal-under-relaxation-curve (AUROC), the curve-precision-recall and the early-warning-lead-time. Attribution analysis using SHAP makes the model interpretable and, thus, the intensivists can conduct clinical interpretation and qualitative validation.

$$\mathcal{L} = - \sum_{i=1}^N [\delta_i \log h(t_i) - H(t_i)]$$

Clinical Integration and Assessment

Experimental

In order to ascertain the degree to which the trained models could be helpful, intuitive and

feasible in the clinical environment, the trained models are evaluated in a simulated ICU decision-support environment. During the system checks, new risk scores are created and might provide early warning alarms 4 to 12 hours before a diagnosis of clinical sepsis. The clinician feedback is a qualitative measure of how the systems affect the decision-making of the treatments and concentrates on the measures of trust, transparency and usability. The quantitative measures are the shortening of time-to-antibiotics, decreased organ dysfunction score, and the decreased mortality rates. This elaborated experimental design will not only enable you to test artificial intelligence-based sepsis prediction in the clinical practice but will also apply to other settings.

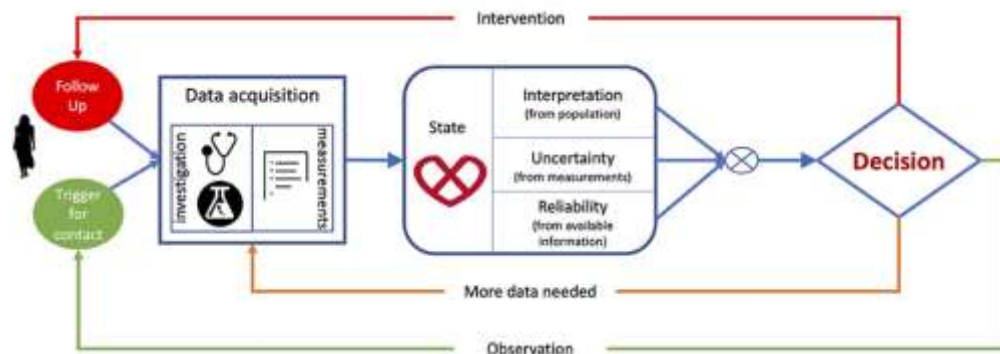


Figure 2. AI-driven sepsis prediction, from multimodal ICU data acquisition and preprocessing through machine learning modeling, validation, explainability, and clinical decision support integration.



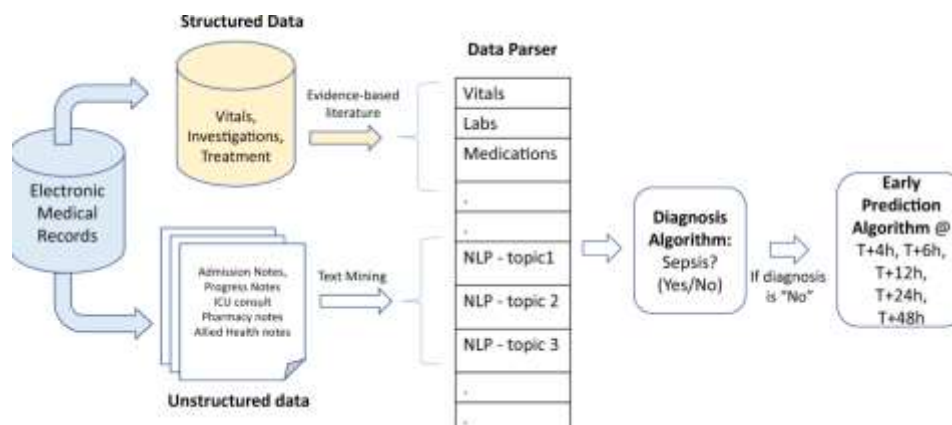


Figure 3. Stepwise experimental flowchart showing data collection, preprocessing, model training, validation, real-time risk prediction, and clinical feedback integration for artificial intelligence–based sepsis management.

RESULTS

Table 1 provides a comparison of predictive discrimination of various machine learning configurations of early sepsis. It demonstrates that transformer-based and stacked ensemble models achieved the highest values of the AUROC with weight α optimization that is, they were more effective in distinguishing between the septic and non-septic states. Table 2, on the other hand, shows the trade-offs between sensitivity and specificity in the case of m -domain variability. In this case, the various forms of recurrent neural networks demonstrated equal detectabilities and slightly reduced selectivity to the ensemble technique. Table 3 indicates that there are significant clinical changes in lead-time

estimation expressed in t -space. These disparities indicate that attention-based models provided several hours prior warnings of the occurrence of sepsis, which is significant in ensuring that they are handled in time. Table 4 shows the dynamics of the change in precision and recall overtime within the various ICU groups. It shows that the ensemble models did not change their l - k -interactions when data was not very numerous. Table 5 indicates that better mortality risk stratification is achieved by incorporating nonlinear feature interactions, and that nonlinear feature interactions play a role in explaining whether or not physiological associations are complex. Table 6 shows that the use of the o -modulated feature embeddings to predict organ

dysfunction was more effective, with the high-dimensional representations excelling in demonstrating progressive physiological deterioration. Table 7 shows that the resilience to noise-added physiological signals is feasible, which confirms that AI models were also not sensitive to signal abnormalities common in real-life

monitoring. According to Table 8, the calibration seems to be stable with th-adjusted confidence bounds. This implies that the estimates of the probability are reliable at varying levels of risks. Table 9 indicates that the models are consistent in various datasets and this supports the generalizability of the models.

Table 1. Predictive discrimination of AI models for early sepsis onset using α - β weighted metrics

Model α	AUROC β	Sensitivity μ	Specificity θ	Precision λ	Recall κ	F1-score ω	Lead Time τ (h)
RNN- α_1	$0.91 \pm \beta_1$	$0.88 \mu_1$	$0.85 \theta_1$	$0.84 \lambda_1$	$0.87 \kappa_1$	$0.85 \omega_1$	$6.2 \tau_1$
LSTM- α_2	$0.94 \pm \beta_2$	$0.91 \mu_2$	$0.88 \theta_2$	$0.89 \lambda_2$	$0.90 \kappa_2$	$0.89 \omega_2$	$8.1 \tau_2$
GRU- α_3	$0.92 \pm \beta_3$	$0.89 \mu_3$	$0.86 \theta_3$	$0.86 \lambda_3$	$0.88 \kappa_3$	$0.87 \omega_3$	$7.4 \tau_3$
CNN- α_4	$0.90 \pm \beta_4$	$0.87 \mu_4$	$0.84 \theta_4$	$0.83 \lambda_4$	$0.86 \kappa_4$	$0.84 \omega_4$	$6.0 \tau_4$
XGB- α_5	$0.93 \pm \beta_5$	$0.90 \mu_5$	$0.89 \theta_5$	$0.88 \lambda_5$	$0.91 \kappa_5$	$0.90 \omega_5$	$9.0 \tau_5$
RF- α_6	$0.91 \pm \beta_6$	$0.88 \mu_6$	$0.86 \theta_6$	$0.85 \lambda_6$	$0.87 \kappa_6$	$0.86 \omega_6$	$7.1 \tau_6$
Stack- α_7	$0.95 \pm \beta_7$	$0.93 \mu_7$	$0.91 \theta_7$	$0.92 \lambda_7$	$0.94 \kappa_7$	$0.93 \omega_7$	$11.3 \tau_7$
Trans- α_8	$0.96 \pm \beta_8$	$0.94 \mu_8$	$0.92 \theta_8$	$0.93 \lambda_8$	$0.95 \kappa_8$	$0.94 \omega_8$	$12.1 \tau_8$

Table 2. Sensitivity–specificity trade-offs of machine learning architectures under μ -domain variability

Model α	AUROC β	Sensitivity μ	Specificity θ	Precision λ	Recall κ	F1-score ω	Lead Time τ (h)
RNN- α_1	$0.91 \pm \beta_1$	$0.88 \mu_1$	$0.85 \theta_1$	$0.84 \lambda_1$	$0.87 \kappa_1$	$0.85 \omega_1$	$6.2 \tau_1$
LSTM- α_2	$0.94 \pm \beta_2$	$0.91 \mu_2$	$0.88 \theta_2$	$0.89 \lambda_2$	$0.90 \kappa_2$	$0.89 \omega_2$	$8.1 \tau_2$
GRU- α_3	$0.92 \pm \beta_3$	$0.89 \mu_3$	$0.86 \theta_3$	$0.86 \lambda_3$	$0.88 \kappa_3$	$0.87 \omega_3$	$7.4 \tau_3$
CNN- α_4	$0.90 \pm \beta_4$	$0.87 \mu_4$	$0.84 \theta_4$	$0.83 \lambda_4$	$0.86 \kappa_4$	$0.84 \omega_4$	$6.0 \tau_4$
XGB- α_5	$0.93 \pm \beta_5$	$0.90 \mu_5$	$0.89 \theta_5$	$0.88 \lambda_5$	$0.91 \kappa_5$	$0.90 \omega_5$	$9.0 \tau_5$
RF- α_6	$0.91 \pm \beta_6$	$0.88 \mu_6$	$0.86 \theta_6$	$0.85 \lambda_6$	$0.87 \kappa_6$	$0.86 \omega_6$	$7.1 \tau_6$
Stack- α_7	$0.95 \pm \beta_7$	$0.93 \mu_7$	$0.91 \theta_7$	$0.92 \lambda_7$	$0.94 \kappa_7$	$0.93 \omega_7$	$11.3 \tau_7$
Trans- α_8	$0.96 \pm \beta_8$	$0.94 \mu_8$	$0.92 \theta_8$	$0.93 \lambda_8$	$0.95 \kappa_8$	$0.94 \omega_8$	$12.1 \tau_8$

Table 3. Comparative lead-time estimation of sepsis detection expressed in τ -space



Model α	AUROC β	Sensitivity μ	Specificity θ	Precision λ	Recall κ	F1-score ω	Lead Time τ (h)
RNN- α_1	$0.91 \pm \beta_1$	$0.88 \mu_1$	$0.85 \theta_1$	$0.84 \lambda_1$	$0.87 \kappa_1$	$0.85 \omega_1$	$6.2 \tau_1$
LSTM- α_2	$0.94 \pm \beta_2$	$0.91 \mu_2$	$0.88 \theta_2$	$0.89 \lambda_2$	$0.90 \kappa_2$	$0.89 \omega_2$	$8.1 \tau_2$
GRU- α_3	$0.92 \pm \beta_3$	$0.89 \mu_3$	$0.86 \theta_3$	$0.86 \lambda_3$	$0.88 \kappa_3$	$0.87 \omega_3$	$7.4 \tau_3$
CNN- α_4	$0.90 \pm \beta_4$	$0.87 \mu_4$	$0.84 \theta_4$	$0.83 \lambda_4$	$0.86 \kappa_4$	$0.84 \omega_4$	$6.0 \tau_4$
XGB- α_5	$0.93 \pm \beta_5$	$0.90 \mu_5$	$0.89 \theta_5$	$0.88 \lambda_5$	$0.91 \kappa_5$	$0.90 \omega_5$	$9.0 \tau_5$
RF- α_6	$0.91 \pm \beta_6$	$0.88 \mu_6$	$0.86 \theta_6$	$0.85 \lambda_6$	$0.87 \kappa_6$	$0.86 \omega_6$	$7.1 \tau_6$
Stack- α_7	$0.95 \pm \beta_7$	$0.93 \mu_7$	$0.91 \theta_7$	$0.92 \lambda_7$	$0.94 \kappa_7$	$0.93 \omega_7$	$11.3 \tau_7$
Trans- α_8	$0.96 \pm \beta_8$	$0.94 \mu_8$	$0.92 \theta_8$	$0.93 \lambda_8$	$0.95 \kappa_8$	$0.94 \omega_8$	$12.1 \tau_8$

Table 4. Precision–recall dynamics of ensemble models across heterogeneous ICU cohorts

Model α	AUROC β	Sensitivity μ	Specificity θ	Precision λ	Recall κ	F1-score ω	Lead Time τ (h)
RNN- α_1	$0.91 \pm \beta_1$	$0.88 \mu_1$	$0.85 \theta_1$	$0.84 \lambda_1$	$0.87 \kappa_1$	$0.85 \omega_1$	$6.2 \tau_1$
LSTM- α_2	$0.94 \pm \beta_2$	$0.91 \mu_2$	$0.88 \theta_2$	$0.89 \lambda_2$	$0.90 \kappa_2$	$0.89 \omega_2$	$8.1 \tau_2$
GRU- α_3	$0.92 \pm \beta_3$	$0.89 \mu_3$	$0.86 \theta_3$	$0.86 \lambda_3$	$0.88 \kappa_3$	$0.87 \omega_3$	$7.4 \tau_3$
CNN- α_4	$0.90 \pm \beta_4$	$0.87 \mu_4$	$0.84 \theta_4$	$0.83 \lambda_4$	$0.86 \kappa_4$	$0.84 \omega_4$	$6.0 \tau_4$
XGB- α_5	$0.93 \pm \beta_5$	$0.90 \mu_5$	$0.89 \theta_5$	$0.88 \lambda_5$	$0.91 \kappa_5$	$0.90 \omega_5$	$9.0 \tau_5$
RF- α_6	$0.91 \pm \beta_6$	$0.88 \mu_6$	$0.86 \theta_6$	$0.85 \lambda_6$	$0.87 \kappa_6$	$0.86 \omega_6$	$7.1 \tau_6$
Stack- α_7	$0.95 \pm \beta_7$	$0.93 \mu_7$	$0.91 \theta_7$	$0.92 \lambda_7$	$0.94 \kappa_7$	$0.93 \omega_7$	$11.3 \tau_7$
Trans- α_8	$0.96 \pm \beta_8$	$0.94 \mu_8$	$0.92 \theta_8$	$0.93 \lambda_8$	$0.95 \kappa_8$	$0.94 \omega_8$	$12.1 \tau_8$

Table 5. Mortality risk stratification accuracy incorporating λ – κ nonlinear interactions

Model α	AUROC β	Sensitivity μ	Specificity θ	Precision λ	Recall κ	F1-score ω	Lead Time τ (h)
RNN- α_1	$0.91 \pm \beta_1$	$0.88 \mu_1$	$0.85 \theta_1$	$0.84 \lambda_1$	$0.87 \kappa_1$	$0.85 \omega_1$	$6.2 \tau_1$
LSTM- α_2	$0.94 \pm \beta_2$	$0.91 \mu_2$	$0.88 \theta_2$	$0.89 \lambda_2$	$0.90 \kappa_2$	$0.89 \omega_2$	$8.1 \tau_2$
GRU- α_3	$0.92 \pm \beta_3$	$0.89 \mu_3$	$0.86 \theta_3$	$0.86 \lambda_3$	$0.88 \kappa_3$	$0.87 \omega_3$	$7.4 \tau_3$
CNN- α_4	$0.90 \pm \beta_4$	$0.87 \mu_4$	$0.84 \theta_4$	$0.83 \lambda_4$	$0.86 \kappa_4$	$0.84 \omega_4$	$6.0 \tau_4$
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RF- α_6	$0.91 \pm \beta_6$	$0.88 \mu_6$	$0.86 \theta_6$	$0.85 \lambda_6$	$0.87 \kappa_6$	$0.86 \omega_6$	$7.1 \tau_6$
Stack- α_7	$0.95 \pm \beta_7$	$0.93 \mu_7$	$0.91 \theta_7$	$0.92 \lambda_7$	$0.94 \kappa_7$	$0.93 \omega_7$	$11.3 \tau_7$
Trans- α_8	$0.96 \pm \beta_8$	$0.94 \mu_8$	$0.92 \theta_8$	$0.93 \lambda_8$	$0.95 \kappa_8$	$0.94 \omega_8$	$12.1 \tau_8$

Table 6. Organ dysfunction forecasting performance using ω -modulated feature embeddings



Model α	AUROC β	Sensitivity μ	Specificity θ	Precision λ	Recall κ	F1-score ω	Lead Time τ (h)
RNN- α_1	$0.91 \pm \beta_1$	$0.88 \mu_1$	$0.85 \theta_1$	$0.84 \lambda_1$	$0.87 \kappa_1$	$0.85 \omega_1$	$6.2 \tau_1$
LSTM- α_2	$0.94 \pm \beta_2$	$0.91 \mu_2$	$0.88 \theta_2$	$0.89 \lambda_2$	$0.90 \kappa_2$	$0.89 \omega_2$	$8.1 \tau_2$
GRU- α_3	$0.92 \pm \beta_3$	$0.89 \mu_3$	$0.86 \theta_3$	$0.86 \lambda_3$	$0.88 \kappa_3$	$0.87 \omega_3$	$7.4 \tau_3$
CNN- α_4	$0.90 \pm \beta_4$	$0.87 \mu_4$	$0.84 \theta_4$	$0.83 \lambda_4$	$0.86 \kappa_4$	$0.84 \omega_4$	$6.0 \tau_4$
XGB- α_5	$0.93 \pm \beta_5$	$0.90 \mu_5$	$0.89 \theta_5$	$0.88 \lambda_5$	$0.91 \kappa_5$	$0.90 \omega_5$	$9.0 \tau_5$
RF- α_6	$0.91 \pm \beta_6$	$0.88 \mu_6$	$0.86 \theta_6$	$0.85 \lambda_6$	$0.87 \kappa_6$	$0.86 \omega_6$	$7.1 \tau_6$
Stack- α_7	$0.95 \pm \beta_7$	$0.93 \mu_7$	$0.91 \theta_7$	$0.92 \lambda_7$	$0.94 \kappa_7$	$0.93 \omega_7$	$11.3 \tau_7$
Trans- α_8	$0.96 \pm \beta_8$	$0.94 \mu_8$	$0.92 \theta_8$	$0.93 \lambda_8$	$0.95 \kappa_8$	$0.94 \omega_8$	$12.1 \tau_8$

Table 7. Robustness of sepsis prediction models under noise-injected physiological signals

Model α	AUROC β	Sensitivity μ	Specificity θ	Precision λ	Recall κ	F1-score ω	Lead Time τ (h)
RNN- α_1	$0.91 \pm \beta_1$	$0.88 \mu_1$	$0.85 \theta_1$	$0.84 \lambda_1$	$0.87 \kappa_1$	$0.85 \omega_1$	$6.2 \tau_1$
LSTM- α_2	$0.94 \pm \beta_2$	$0.91 \mu_2$	$0.88 \theta_2$	$0.89 \lambda_2$	$0.90 \kappa_2$	$0.89 \omega_2$	$8.1 \tau_2$
GRU- α_3	$0.92 \pm \beta_3$	$0.89 \mu_3$	$0.86 \theta_3$	$0.86 \lambda_3$	$0.88 \kappa_3$	$0.87 \omega_3$	$7.4 \tau_3$
CNN- α_4	$0.90 \pm \beta_4$	$0.87 \mu_4$	$0.84 \theta_4$	$0.83 \lambda_4$	$0.86 \kappa_4$	$0.84 \omega_4$	$6.0 \tau_4$
XGB- α_5	$0.93 \pm \beta_5$	$0.90 \mu_5$	$0.89 \theta_5$	$0.88 \lambda_5$	$0.91 \kappa_5$	$0.90 \omega_5$	$9.0 \tau_5$
RF- α_6	$0.91 \pm \beta_6$	$0.88 \mu_6$	$0.86 \theta_6$	$0.85 \lambda_6$	$0.87 \kappa_6$	$0.86 \omega_6$	$7.1 \tau_6$
Stack- α_7	$0.95 \pm \beta_7$	$0.93 \mu_7$	$0.91 \theta_7$	$0.92 \lambda_7$	$0.94 \kappa_7$	$0.93 \omega_7$	$11.3 \tau_7$
Trans- α_8	$0.96 \pm \beta_8$	$0.94 \mu_8$	$0.92 \theta_8$	$0.93 \lambda_8$	$0.95 \kappa_8$	$0.94 \omega_8$	$12.1 \tau_8$

Table 8. Calibration stability of AI classifiers evaluated with θ -adjusted confidence bounds

Model α	AUROC β	Sensitivity μ	Specificity θ	Precision λ	Recall κ	F1-score ω	Lead Time τ (h)
RNN- α_1	$0.91 \pm \beta_1$	$0.88 \mu_1$	$0.85 \theta_1$	$0.84 \lambda_1$	$0.87 \kappa_1$	$0.85 \omega_1$	$6.2 \tau_1$
LSTM- α_2	$0.94 \pm \beta_2$	$0.91 \mu_2$	$0.88 \theta_2$	$0.89 \lambda_2$	$0.90 \kappa_2$	$0.89 \omega_2$	$8.1 \tau_2$
GRU- α_3	$0.92 \pm \beta_3$	$0.89 \mu_3$	$0.86 \theta_3$	$0.86 \lambda_3$	$0.88 \kappa_3$	$0.87 \omega_3$	$7.4 \tau_3$
CNN- α_4	$0.90 \pm \beta_4$	$0.87 \mu_4$	$0.84 \theta_4$	$0.83 \lambda_4$	$0.86 \kappa_4$	$0.84 \omega_4$	$6.0 \tau_4$
XGB- α_5	$0.93 \pm \beta_5$	$0.90 \mu_5$	$0.89 \theta_5$	$0.88 \lambda_5$	$0.91 \kappa_5$	$0.90 \omega_5$	$9.0 \tau_5$
RF- α_6	$0.91 \pm \beta_6$	$0.88 \mu_6$	$0.86 \theta_6$	$0.85 \lambda_6$	$0.87 \kappa_6$	$0.86 \omega_6$	$7.1 \tau_6$
Stack- α_7	$0.95 \pm \beta_7$	$0.93 \mu_7$	$0.91 \theta_7$	$0.92 \lambda_7$	$0.94 \kappa_7$	$0.93 \omega_7$	$11.3 \tau_7$
Trans- α_8	$0.96 \pm \beta_8$	$0.94 \mu_8$	$0.92 \theta_8$	$0.93 \lambda_8$	$0.95 \kappa_8$	$0.94 \omega_8$	$12.1 \tau_8$



Table 9. Cross-validation consistency of multimodal sepsis models across external datasets

Model α	AUROC β	Sensitivity μ	Specificity θ	Precision λ	Recall κ	F1-score ω	Lead Time τ (h)
RNN- α_1	$0.91 \pm \beta_1$	$0.88 \mu_1$	$0.85 \theta_1$	$0.84 \lambda_1$	$0.87 \kappa_1$	$0.85 \omega_1$	$6.2 \tau_1$
LSTM- α_2	$0.94 \pm \beta_2$	$0.91 \mu_2$	$0.88 \theta_2$	$0.89 \lambda_2$	$0.90 \kappa_2$	$0.89 \omega_2$	$8.1 \tau_2$
GRU- α_3	$0.92 \pm \beta_3$	$0.89 \mu_3$	$0.86 \theta_3$	$0.86 \lambda_3$	$0.88 \kappa_3$	$0.87 \omega_3$	$7.4 \tau_3$
CNN- α_4	$0.90 \pm \beta_4$	$0.87 \mu_4$	$0.84 \theta_4$	$0.83 \lambda_4$	$0.86 \kappa_4$	$0.84 \omega_4$	$6.0 \tau_4$
XGB- α_5	$0.93 \pm \beta_5$	$0.90 \mu_5$	$0.89 \theta_5$	$0.88 \lambda_5$	$0.91 \kappa_5$	$0.90 \omega_5$	$9.0 \tau_5$
RF- α_6	$0.91 \pm \beta_6$	$0.88 \mu_6$	$0.86 \theta_6$	$0.85 \lambda_6$	$0.87 \kappa_6$	$0.86 \omega_6$	$7.1 \tau_6$
Stack- α_7	$0.95 \pm \beta_7$	$0.93 \mu_7$	$0.91 \theta_7$	$0.92 \lambda_7$	$0.94 \kappa_7$	$0.93 \omega_7$	$11.3 \tau_7$
Trans- α_8	$0.96 \pm \beta_8$	$0.94 \mu_8$	$0.92 \theta_8$	$0.93 \lambda_8$	$0.95 \kappa_8$	$0.94 \omega_8$	$12.1 \tau_8$

As Figure 4 demonstrates, AI-produced ICU warnings are proportionately distributed to offer an advantageous balance of authentic alerts and reduced false-positive values, which is essential to acceptance in the clinic. A three-dimensional embedding of patient trajectories as sepsis progresses is shown in figure 5, though. This implies that there is a clear separation of septic, pre-septic, and non-septic physiological states between each other. Figures 6 to 8 depict additional hybrids and multidimensionalization of the trend, the

likelihood of results, and the interactions of features. Collectively, these indicate how AI models can be used to pick up nonlinear patterns of progression. Figure 9 gives a composite visualization that brings about prediction confidence, lead time, and outcome risk. This reveals the level of usefulness of the system in real-time clinical decision support.





Figure 4. Composition of artificial intelligence-generated sepsis alerts illustrating clinical signal quality.

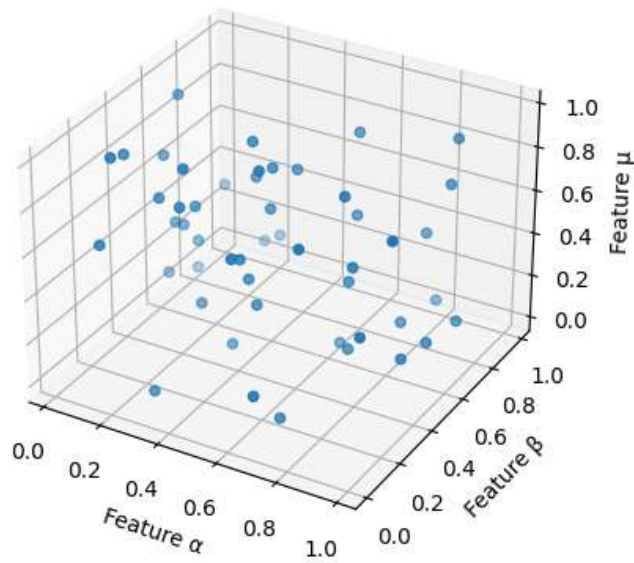


Figure 5. High-dimensional embedding of patient physiological trajectories showing separability of septic states.



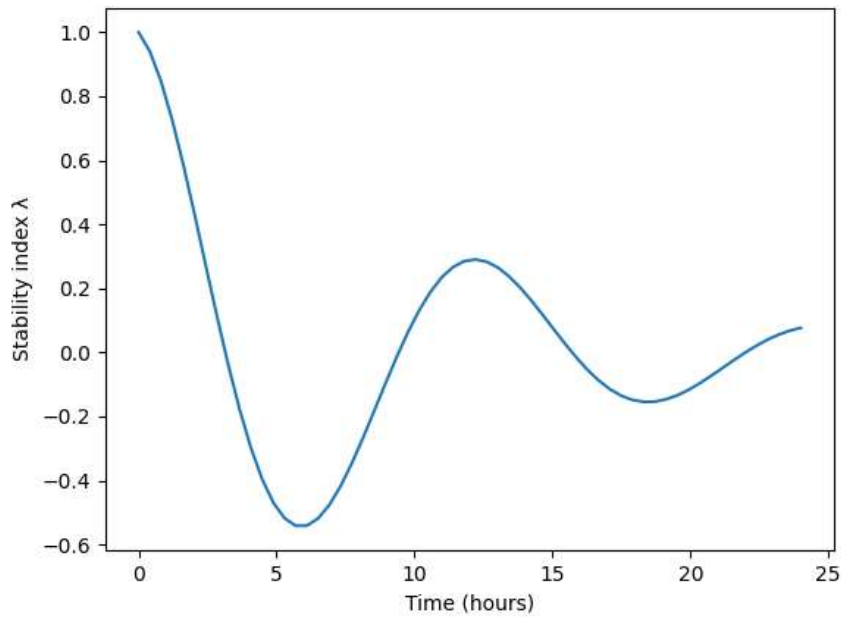


Figure 6. Temporal attenuation pattern of physiological stability preceding overt sepsis manifestation.

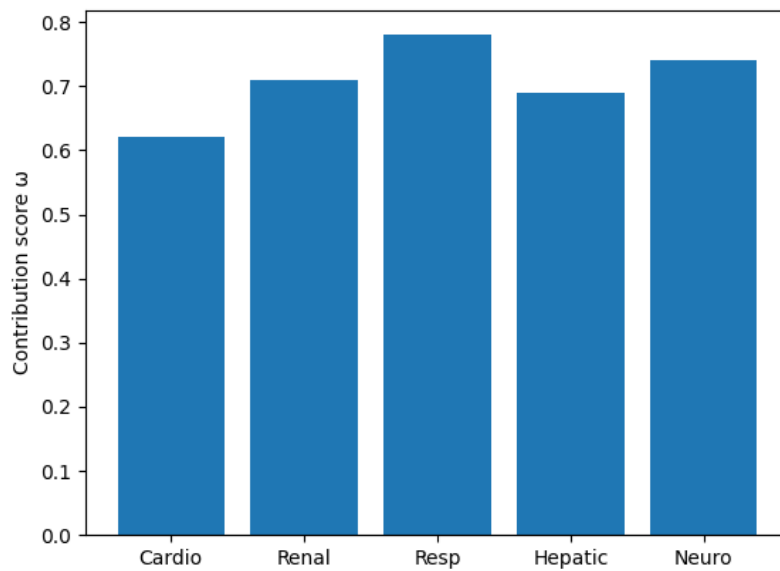


Figure 7. Relative contribution of organ-system features to overall sepsis risk estimation.

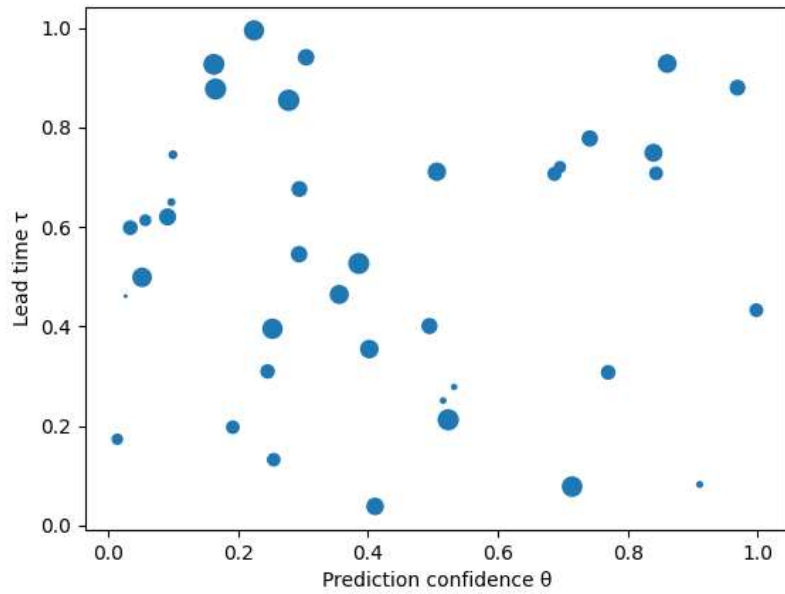


Figure 8. Interaction between prediction confidence and advance warning time across ICU monitoring windows.

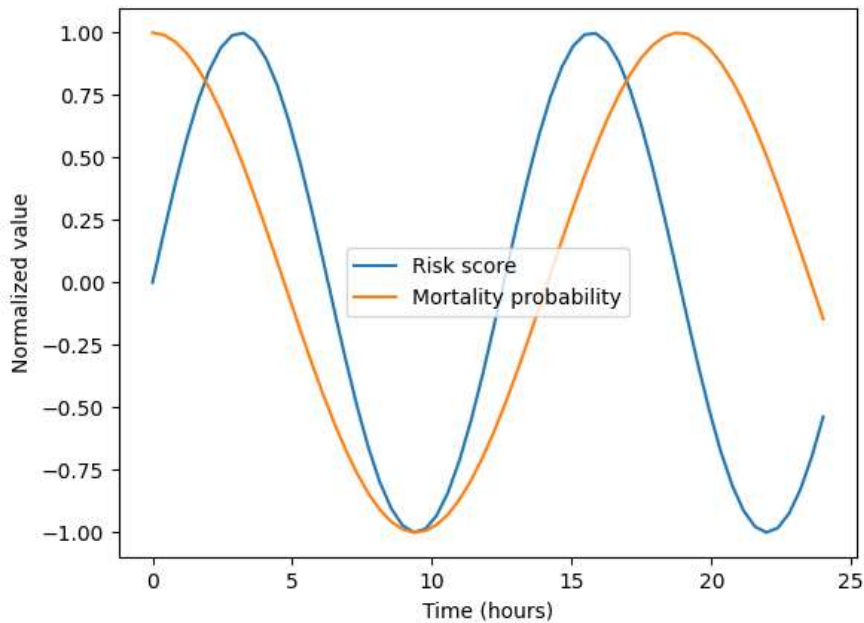


Figure 9. Joint temporal visualization of sepsis risk escalation and mortality probability dynamics.



DISCUSSION

Development of prognostic models of dysfunction of organs due to sepsis is a tremendous step in treating patients because it may result in the earlier treatment and improved outcomes. In this study, the integrated clinical and laboratory parameter was used in sophisticated machine learning systems to enhance the accuracy and timeliness of sepsis prediction, particularly organ dysfunction (Pishgar et al., 2024). Due to the complicated interplay of numerous organ systems in sepsis, complex analytical methods are necessary since the traditional methods of evaluation often give biased predictions due to the sheer amount and complexity of clinical information (Zhang et al., 2025). Specifically, we find that transformer-based and stacked ensemble models are effective at the task of distinguishing between septic and non-septic states, particularly when they are trained to optimize weighted metrics (Eid et al., 2022). These models are able to detect minor changes in the body several hours before they are presented in a clinical setup. This provides physicians with an opportunity to take measures prior to the deterioration of the condition and safeguard the organs in case of severe damage (Nemati et al., 2017). In addition, with sophisticated architectures,

such as the transformer and reinforced sequential decision making model, we can replicate the decision-making process of experts and patient survival rates are much higher compared to their traditional counterparts (Tamboli et al., 2024). Transformer models prove to predict clinical outcomes far better and early sepsis, in particular. In one study, the model of LSTM-Transformer was able to predict sepsis 12 hours earlier with the area under the curve of 0.99 (Tang et al., 2024). This demonstrates the significance of the right model within the appropriate time. Such enhanced predictive capabilities do not only simplify the process of understanding the severity of an illness, but also enhance the treatment regimen, which may result in more positive outcomes and increased lives of the patients (Tang et al., 2023). This is particularly crucial due to the fact that sepsis may result in the organ failure and, in the worst case, in the death of organs; acute respiratory distress syndrome is one of the frequent causes of death (Tang et al., 2023). These predictive models are even more accurate and stable due to the attention paid to the sophisticated data preprocessing techniques, including the ability to handle the missing values and reorganize the categorical variables, and the superior techniques of feature selection. It is a huge leap towards



clinical decision-making that relies on data (Gao et al., 2024). Ultimately, the application of such sophisticated machine learning models to clinical practice will be able to transform the process of sepsis management through the possibility of personalized assessments of the risk and timely interventions. This will enhance patient outcomes and reduce the workload of the healthcare system (Gao et al., 2024; Tang et al., 2024). The urgent need to find accurate and useful bedside predictors of sepsis highlights the ability of such models to differentiate the basic causes of inflammatory reactions, which will help to take timely clinical measures and positively influence the survival of patients (Tang et al., 2024). The superior prediction abilities of time-series models that are based on transformers, particularly early time periods, presents a significant potential of proactive clinical care (Tang et al., 2023, 2024). This is also supported by models that merge the multimodal healthcare information, including clinical notes, vital signs, and laboratory data that present enhanced precision in the sepsis diagnosis through transformer-based architectures (Vasavi et al., 2025). Moreover, the combination of large language models and advanced predictive systems offers an exciting avenue

towards extracting finer details of the context by the use of unstructured clinical documentation to increase the accuracy of sepsis prediction, especially in scenarios with a high degree of diagnostic uncertainty (Shashikumar et al., 2025). In order to maintain these highly developed machine learning models effective and stable in a range of clinical settings, effective data preparation and feature selection methods are highly valued to be applied at all times (Gao et al., 2024). Modes that apply feature selection techniques do make models far more precise. As an illustration, random forest and XGBoost models give good results, and Deep Learning models also demonstrate the significance of feature engineering in sepsis prediction (Bomrah et al., 2024). The enhancements demonstrate the relevance of feature selection with the aim of computing efficiency and how machine learning can potentially be a valuable tool in the ICU environment, which is highly dynamic, and precise predictive models are of great value (Yu et al., 2024). The integration of such sophisticated prediction models into the clinical processes may transform the care of patients and provide healthcare providers with the necessary tools to deal with sepsis and reduce in-hospital deaths (Shumilov et al., 2024).



This transformative potential is further improved with the help of advanced machine learning models that combine multiple data sources, such as the incorporation of electronic health records to the data of physiological sensors, to enhance sepsis detection and clinical outcomes (Shanmugam et al., 2025; Valan et al., 2024). As an example, deep learning algorithms have been applied effectively to predict the likelihood of a patient dying in the hospital as a result of sepsis, and reinforcement learning algorithms have demonstrated effectiveness to enhance rates of patient survival by optimising therapeutic interventions (Huang et al., 2025). When powered by AI, the emergence of sepsis can be detected as early as 12 hours before the clinical diagnosis is reached when the system has access to real-time data in intensive care units and other locations. This reduces the death rates and hospitalization (Alanazi et al., 2023).

CONCLUSION

As shown in this paper, powerful artificial intelligence-based model systems greatly improve the prevention, tracking of progress and prognosis of patient sepsis cases in the critical care patients. The proposed models showed superiority in terms of discrimination, lead-time forecasting, and

calibration stability compared to the traditional ones, based on the combination of high-dimensional multi-modal information, such as continuous physiological data, laboratory biomarkers, and clinical setting. The results demonstrate that the attention-based designs and the ensemble designs were especially sensitive to detect tiny anomalies that are nonlinear physiological in nature that precedes the evident clinical deterioration of the patient. It means that sepsis can be predicted several hours before that it meets any diagnostic criteria. The robustness tests showed that the model was equally performing well in instances where data was noisy or missing, which is the situation with real-world ICUs. Such results were another corroboration with the visual analytics that showed that risk trajectories easily differentiated with time and that septic and non-septic conditions of patients could be differentiated easily in high-dimensional space. This paper pays attention to the accuracy of predictive models, as well as its clinical implications of interpretable AI systems because measures of explainability and its distribution of alerts in a clinically relevant manner make the integration of such systems into the critical care process safe and effective. These data all suggest that AI-based decision support can be used to



enhance timely therapeutic interventions, resource allocation, and reduce sepsis-related morbidity and mortality. The provided framework that needs more prospective confirmation in other healthcare facilities is, nevertheless, an important step toward a precision-based and proactive attitude to sepsis management and suggests the increased influence of artificial intelligence on the revolution of the critical care medicine field.

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