Original Paper

Evaluation of the Privacy Risks of Personal Health Identifiers and Quasi-Identifiers in a Distributed Research Network: Development and Validation Study

SeHee Oh¹, BS; MinDong Sung¹, MD; Yumie Rhee², PhD; Namki Hong², MD; Yu Rang Park¹, PhD

Corresponding Author:

Yu Rang Park, PhD
Department of Biomedical Systems Informatics
Yonsei University College of Medicine
50 Yonsei-ro
Seodaemun-gu
Seoul, 03722
Republic of Korea

Phone: 82 2 2228 2493 Email: yurangpark@yuhs.ac

Abstract

Background: Privacy should be protected in medical data that include patient information. A distributed research network (DRN) is one of the challenges in privacy protection and in the encouragement of multi-institutional clinical research. A DRN standardizes multi-institutional data into a common structure and terminology called a common data model (CDM), and it only shares analysis results. It is necessary to measure how a DRN protects patient information privacy even without sharing data in practice.

Objective: This study aimed to quantify the privacy risk of a DRN by comparing different deidentification levels focusing on personal health identifiers (PHIs) and quasi-identifiers (QIs).

Methods: We detected PHIs and QIs in an Observational Medical Outcomes Partnership (OMOP) CDM as threatening privacy, based on 18 Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act of 1996 (HIPPA) identifiers and previous studies. To compare the privacy risk according to the different privacy policies, we generated limited and safe harbor data sets based on 16 PHIs and 12 QIs as threatening privacy from the Synthetic Public Use File 5 Percent (SynPUF5PCT) data set, which is a public data set of the OMOP CDM. With minimum cell size and equivalence class methods, we measured the privacy risk reduction with a trust differential gap obtained by comparing the two data sets. We also measured the gap in randomly sampled records from the two data sets to adjust the number of PHI or QI records.

Results: The gaps averaged 31.448% and 73.798% for PHIs and QIs, respectively, with a minimum cell size of one, which represents a unique record in a data set. Among PHIs, the national provider identifier had the highest gap of 71.236% (71.244% and 0.007% in the limited and safe harbor data sets, respectively). The maximum size of the equivalence class, which has the largest size of an indistinguishable set of records, averaged 771. In 1000 random samples of PHIs, Device_exposure_start_date had the highest gap of 33.730% (87.705% and 53.975% in the data sets). Among QIs, Death had the highest gap of 99.212% (99.997% and 0.784% in the data sets). In 1000, 10,000, and 100,000 random samples of QIs, Device_treatment had the highest gaps of 12.980% (99.980% and 87.000% in the data sets), 60.118% (99.831% and 39.713%), and 93.597% (98.805% and 5.207%), respectively, and in 1 million random samples, Death had the highest gap of 99.063% (99.998% and 0.934% in the data sets).

Conclusions: In this study, we verified and quantified the privacy risk of PHIs and QIs in the DRN. Although this study used limited PHIs and QIs for verification, the privacy limitations found in this study could be used as a quality measurement index for deidentification of multi-institutional collaboration research, thereby increasing DRN safety.

(JMIR Med Inform 2021;9(5):e24940) doi: 10.2196/24940



¹Department of Biomedical Systems Informatics, Yonsei University College of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea

²Department of Internal Medicine, Endocrine Research Institute, Yonsei University College of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea

KEYWORDS

distributed research network; Observational Medical Outcomes Partnership common data model; privacy risk quantification; personal health identifier; quasi-identifier

Introduction

As medical data include sensitive personal patient information, various challenges are being studied to protect patient information and optimize research results, including artificial intelligence, federated learning, and distributed research networks (DRNs) [1-11]. Among the above challenges, the DRN is a multi-institutional collaboration network [1] for standardizing the data of participating institutions into a common structure, terminology, and software called a common data model (CDM) [12-16]. In such research networks, data are not shared directly, and only analysis results are shared [1,3,6,17]. In research where sharing sensitive patient information has limitations or where large-scale data privacy needs to be preserved, the DRN structure is applied to standardize the data, terminology, and software [4-6]. There are several CDMs in DRNs, including the Observational Medical Outcomes Partnership (OMOP) CDM of Observational Health Data Sciences and Informatics (OHDSI), Sentinel CDM of the Food and Drug Administration, and Patient - Centered Outcomes Research Network of the Patient-Centered Outcomes Research Institute [18,19].

A DRN was recently recognized as a platform for protecting large-scale data [16,20-22]. DRN-based studies have argued two factors that enable the DRN infrastructure to mitigate privacy issues relative to other data sharing—based studies [1,6,23-29]. First, a DRN process protects patient information without directly sharing data [1,3,6,17]. Second, a CDM structure excludes some direct identifiers that could threaten the privacy of patient information, such as names and exact birthdays, by complying with the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA) [30-33]. Therefore, a DRN protects patient information through processes and structures.

However, previous studies have revealed limitations of DRNs in terms of data privacy. First, a DRN in a single site has privacy issues similar to a conventional database owing to repeated reuse [34-41]. Second, DRN privacy may be threatened when the remaining age and local information are used, even if direct identifiers are removed [34-43]. DRN researchers have recognized that there are no satisfactory solutions to privacy risk [43]. Despite such privacy risks, few studies have objectively measured these risks as compared to conventional data sharing—based studies [44-46]. To mitigate the possible risk to a DRN, an objective measurement of the privacy risk should be performed.

Thus, this study aimed to quantify DRN privacy risk by comparing different deidentification levels focusing on personal health identifiers (PHIs) and quasi-identifiers (QIs) of patient information. The key research questions in this study are as follows: (1) What PHIs and QIs are included in a DRN, and how many exist? (2) Using a PHI and QI, when comparing the deidentification level of a CDM to a safe harbor policy, how much will be the decrease in the DRN privacy risk? and (3) What is the true privacy risk of the PHI or QI itself when adjusted for the number of records?

Methods

Data Sources

We used the Synthetic Public Use File 5 Percent (SynPUF5PCT) data set, which is a sample data set of the OMOP CDM. The OMOP CDM (version 5.2.2), which was developed by OHDSI [18,47], is a database of relational schema and consists of 37 tables with demographic information, disease natural history, health care cost, etc [48]. The SynPUF5PCT is a synthetic data set with 5% random sampling from a synthetic public use file of the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services [49] and complies with the limited data set policy of the HIPAA [32]. The SynPUF5PCT consists of 33 of 37 OMOP CDM tables and is provided from the OHDSI [50]. We used only 12 tables with patient information without missing and null variables from the SynPUF5PCT [51].

Target PHIs and QIs

In this study, PHIs and QIs were focused on as privacy-threatening patient information by referencing previous studies [52-54]. For the PHIs, we manually matched the structure of the OMOP CDM based on 18 HIPAA identifiers (Figure 1) [55]. For the QIs, we selected the target range in demographic variables (eg, year of birth and gender) and clinical variables (eg, clinical order code) based on previous studies on the privacy risk of QIs [52-54,56,57]. In the 18 HIPAA identifiers, however, dates (excluding the year) and zip codes are defined as PHIs with a QI characteristic [56]. We prioritized the 18 HIPAA identifiers and fixed the dates and zip codes as PHIs instead of QIs. Forty-five PHIs and 17 QIs were detected from the OMOP CDM structure (Multimedia Appendix 1) [58]. Because there were missing tables in the SynPUF5PCT compared to the OMOP CDM, 16 PHIs and 12 QIs were targeted from the SynPUF5PCT (Figure 1 and Table 1). Detailed information for the 28 targeted variables is presented in Multimedia Appendix 2.



Figure 1. Study workflow. PHI: personal health identifier; QI: quasi-identifier.

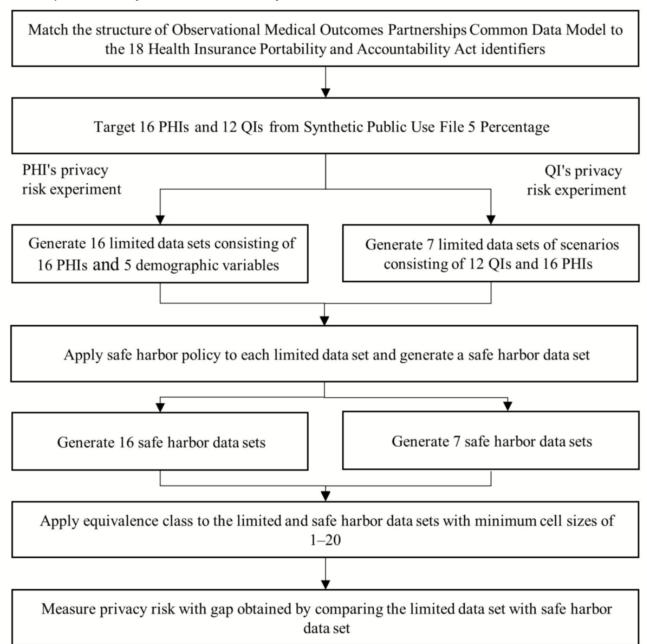




Table 1. Sixteen personal health identifiers and 12 quasi-identifiers targeted in the Observational Medical Outcomes Partnership common data model based on not null values in the Synthetic Public Use File 5 Percent data set.

Standard clinical tables in the OMOP ^a CDM ^b	Variable of personal health identifier	Demographic variable of quasi- identifier	Clinical variable of quasi-identifier
Person	Month_of_birth and Day_of_birth	Year_of_birth, Gender_con- cept_id, Race_concept_id, and Ethnicity_concept_id	N/A ^c
Death	Death_date	N/A	N/A
Device_exposure	Device_exposure_start_date and Device_exposure_end_date	N/A	Device_concept_id
Drug_exposure	Drug_exposure_start_date and Drug_exposure_end_date	N/A	Drug_concept_id
Location	County	State	N/A
Measurement	Measurement_date	N/A	Measurement_concept_id
Observation	Observation_date	N/A	Observation_concept_id
Procedure_occurrence	Procedure_date	N/A	Procedure_concept_id
Visit_occurrence	Visit_start_date and Visit_end_date	N/A	N/A
Condition_occurrence	Condition_start_date and Condition_end_date	N/A	Condition_concept_id
Provider	NPI ^d	N/A	N/A
Care_site	N/A	N/A	Place_of_service_concept_id

^aOMOP: Observational Medical Outcomes Partnership.

Study Design

We conducted privacy risk experiments of the PHIs and QIs. We generated data sets for each experiment. The workflow for this study is shown in Figure 1. In the privacy risk experiment of the PHIs, 16 limited data sets were generated, with each comprising one of the 16 PHIs merged with five common demographic variables (Year_of_birth, Gender_concept_id, Race concept id, Ethnicity concept id, and State), as in previous clinical studies [53,54]. For example. Condition_start_date, which is the name of data set 1 of the 16 limited data sets, consists of one PHI (Condition_start_date variable) and five common demographic variables. Another example is the Procedure_date data set consisting of one PHI (Procedure_date variable) and five common demographic variables. Thus, each limited data set consists of six variables.

In the QI privacy risk experiment, we mocked up seven scenarios based on the core tables of the OMOP CDM [16,59-61], which are frequently used in the real world. The seven scenarios are as follows: (1) diagnosis, (2) procedure, (3) drug treatment, (4) lab test, (5) device treatment, (6) death, and (7) medical history (Multimedia Appendix 3). Based on the scenarios, seven limited data sets were generated: 10 PHIs and seven QIs were assigned according to the characteristics of each scenario differently, and five demographic variables and six PHIs were used as common variables (Multimedia Appendix 3). For example, the diagnosis scenario consisted of 14 variables as follows: two PHIs (Condition_start_date and

Condition_end_date) and one QI (Condition_concept_id), which followed the characteristics of the diagnosis scenario, and 11 common variables were merged.

To compare different deidentification levels for the same data set, we applied the safe harbor policy to the 16 limited data sets. For example, when the safe harbor policy was applied to the limited data set, the PHIs were partially or completely masked. The date type (such as start date, end date, and death date) was masked from "YYYY-MM-DD" to "YYYY-**-**." In other words, they used only the "year". The others (such as Month_of_birth, Day_of_birth, NPI, and County) were completely masked. We additionally generated 16 and seven safe harbor data sets for PHIs and QIs, respectively, by applying the safe harbor policy on the limited data sets.

Privacy Risk Evaluation Metrics

An equivalence class (EC) denotes a group of indistinguishable record forms with common attributes. The common attribute sizes that are included in each group can be represented as the calculated size of the EC [46]. An EC size of one represents the highest possibility of privacy disclosure for a certain patient's information [56]. In contrast, if the size is maximum, it indicates the highest deidentification level of the data set. In previous studies, the minimum cell size was an empirically defined threshold with the calculated EC size [56,57]. The minimum cell size determines the level of deidentification and measures the privacy risk in the data set. The most commonly used minimum cell size in practice is five, and a larger size, such as



^bCDM: common data model.

^cN/A: not applicable.

^dNPI: national provider identifier.

20, is used for data sets that include highly sensitive patient information [56]. The minimum cell size, calculated by the EC, was compared for both the limited and safe harbor data sets.

The trust differential mechanism represents the privacy risk of a data set with a gap obtained by comparing two different deidentification levels [54]. The gap represents the following two factors: (1) the quantified difference of the deidentification level and (2) the degree of decrease in privacy risk. In other words, when a certain privacy policy applies to the data set that complies with another privacy policy, a gap will occur between the two different privacy policies, which have different deidentification levels. Therefore, the gap indicates that the data set's privacy level with the lower deidentification privacy policy could be protected as the difference that arises when the higher privacy policy is applied.

Through the PHI and QI privacy risk experiments, we measured privacy risk in terms of the following two aspects: (1) measurements based on the number of total records in each data set and (2) measurements based on the identical number of records through random sampling from each data set. In the first aspect, we considered that clinical studies perform analysis with clinical tables according to clinical scenarios [16,59-61]; thus, we measured privacy risk with the number of total records in the data set generated by referring to previous studies [53,54]. With the number of total records, we compared the limited and safe harbor data sets based on the total records of each PHI and

QI. Then, we measured with different minimum cell sizes from each PHI and QI experiment. To measure PHI privacy risk, we compared the limited and safe harbor data sets with the maximum EC size and a minimum cell size of one. In the QI privacy risk experiment, we compared the limited and safe harbor data sets with a minimum cell size of 1 to 20. In the second aspect, we extracted 1000, 10,000, 100,000, and 1 million random samples from each limited and safe harbor data set and iterated them 100 times. With the iterated random samples, we calculated the average of the minimum cell size 1 and then compared the limited and safe harbor data sets for PHIs and QIs.

Results

Overview

Overall, when compared with the limited and safe harbor data sets, privacy risk was reduced in both PHIs and QIs according to the trust differential gap. For the trust differential gap of a minimum cell size of one, there are two overall results. In the number of total records, the trust differential gaps of PHIs and QIs averaged 31.448% and 73.798%, respectively. In the random samples, the trust differential gaps of PHIs and QIs averaged 18.869% and 6.493% (1000 samples), 50.730% and 33.248% (10,000 samples), 74.013% and 60.306% (100,000 samples), and 50.744% and 71.868% (1,000,000 samples), respectively (Table 2).

Table 2. The averaged trust differential gap according to total records and random samples.

Number of total records ^a and sample ^b	Trust differential gap ^c with a minimum cell size of one ^d					
	Personal health identifier (mean percentage)	Quasi-identifier (mean percentage)				
Number of total records	31.448%	73.798%				
Sample						
1000	18.869%	6.493%				
10,000	50.730%	33.248%				
100,000	74.013%	60.306%				
1,000,000	50.744%	71.868%				

^aNumber of total records is each personal health identifier's total record.

Evaluation of the Personal Health Identifier Privacy Risk of the DRN

In the number of total record results of the limited data set, the variable with the most included minimum cell size of one was Death_date, which was 98.787% (1141/1155). In addition, the maximum EC size of two for Death_date means that every record consists of only two value types. In Death_date of the safe harbor data set, the minimum cell size of one was 87.359% (1009/1155), and the maximum EC size was three. Even though the safe harbor policy was applied, privacy was still threatened. In the Death_date trust differential gap, the gap with a minimum

cell size of one was 11.428%, and the maximum EC size was one. The maximum EC size of one is the lowest trust differential gap among all the maximum EC size gaps. In the limited data set, the variable with the least minimum cell size of one was Condition_end_date, which was 4.540% (146,727/3,231,730). In Condition_end_date from the safe harbor data set, the minimum cell size of one was 0.003% (125/3,231,730). Even though the safe harbor policy was applied, the records of a minimum cell size of one did not significantly decrease. In the Condition_end_date trust differential gap, the minimum cell size of one was 4.536%, and the maximum EC size was 2348. This maximum EC size of 2348 was the highest trust differential



^bSample is the number of random samples (ie, 1000, 10,000, 100,000, or 1 million) from the limited and safe harbor data sets.

^cTrust differential gap is the difference obtained by comparing two data sets to measure privacy risk.

^dMinimum cell size of one is the percentage of unique records. This can be expressed with the number of unique records as the numerator and the number of total records as the denominator.

gap among all the maximum EC size gaps. In the trust differential gaps with a minimum cell size of one, the NPI variable had the highest trust differential gap of 71.236%, which was the difference between the limited (71.244%) and safe harbor (0.007%) data sets. For Drug_exposure_start_date and Drug_exposure_end_date, both data sets exhibited the same maximum EC size and a minimum cell size of one.

Day_of_birth consists of the day part of the date of birth and was already deidentified as "1" in the SynPUF5PCT data set (eg, "dd" to "1"); thus, every patient had the exact same Day_of_birth value. Because it was the same deidentified

method as for the safe harbor policy, the Day_of_birth trust differential gap was zero (Table 3). It could be provided as a statistical baseline for five demographic variables without any PHI variables. When the measured result of the Day_of_birth variable (13.079%) was compared with that of the Condition_end_date variable, the result of the Condition_end_date variable was lower by 8.539 percentage points (from 13.079% to 4.540%), and when it was compared with that of the Death_date variable, the result of the Death_date variable was higher by 85.708 percentage points (from 13.079% to 98.787%).

Table 3. Comparison of 16 personal health identifier variables and five demographic variables of the SynPUF5PCT with limited and safe harbor data sets in terms of a minimum cell size of one and the maximum size of the equivalence class.

Variable ^a	Number of total	Limited data set			Safe harbor data set			Trust differential gap ^c	
records ^b		Number of unique records ^d	Minimum cell size of one ^e (%)	Maximum size of the equiva- lence class ^f	Number of unique records ^d	Minimum cell size of one ^e (%)	Maximum size of the equivalence class	Minimum cell size of one (%)	Maximum size of the equivalence class
Visit_start_date	1,218,881	771,684	63.310	10	581	0.047	888	62.952	878
Visit_end_date	1,218,881	771,891	63.327	10	581	0.0395	889	62.960	879
Death_date	1155	1141	98.787	2	1009	87.359	3	11.428	1
Condition_start_date	3,231,730	146,828	4.543	45	137	0.004	2391	4.538	2346
Condition_end_date	3,231,730	146,727	4.540	45	125	0.003	2393	4.536	2348
Procedure_date	3,024,452	257,161	8.502	64	201	0.006	2180	8.495	2116
Measurement_date	741,161	168,180	22.691	43	595	0.080	575	22.610	532
Observation_date	420,986	182,497	43.349	28	983	0.233	335	43.115	307
Device_expo- sure_start_date	47,655	13,232	27.766	40	3190	6.693	218	21.073	178
Device_expo- sure_end_date	47,655	13,219	27.739	40	3191	6.696	187	21.043	147
Drug_expo- sure_start_date	158,316	55,042	34.767	45	2845	1.797	409	32.970	364
Drug_expo- sure_end_date	158,316	55,042	34.767	45	2845	1.797	409	32.970	364
Month_of_birth	25,200	14,508	57.571	8	3296	13.079	49	44.492	41
Day_of_birth	25,200	3296	13.079	49	3296	13.079	49	0	0
NPI ^g	1,215,317	865,840	71.244	70	91	0.007	2247	71.236	2177
County	25,200	18,103	71.837	12	3296	13.079	49	58.757	37
Average	N/A^h	N/A	40.488	34.75	N/A	8.999	829.437	31.448	771.937

^aVariable refers to the variable targeted from the Observational Medical Outcomes Partnership common data model as the personal health identifier.



^bNumber of total records is each personal health identifier's total record.

^cTrust differential gap is the difference obtained by comparing two data sets to measure privacy risk.

^dNumber of unique records is the number of records with a common attribute size of one within the total record.

^eMinimum cell size of one is the percentage of unique records. This can be expressed with the number of unique records as the numerator and the number of total records as the denominator.

¹Maximum size of the equivalence class is the largest size of the indistinguishable common attributes.

^gNPI: national provider identifier.

^hN/A: not applicable.

In randomly sampled PHIs, privacy risk reduction was different depending on the number of samples (Table 4 and Multimedia Appendix 4). The variables with a highly ranked trust differential gap were Device_exposure_start_date (1000 samples) (33.730%; 87.705% and 53.975% in the limited and safe harbor data sets, respectively), NPI (10,000 samples) (83.852%; 98.945% and 15.094% in the limited and safe harbor data sets, respectively), Visit_start_date (100,000 samples) (92.566%; 95.583% and 3.016% in the limited and safe harbor data sets, respectively), and NPI (1,000,000 samples) (73.588%; 73.599% and 0.011% in the limited and safe harbor data sets, respectively).

Overall, for 1000 random samples, both data sets consisted primarily of the minimum cell size of one. In the limited data set, the variables with the most and fewest included minimum cell size of one records were Visit_end_date (99.978%) and Day_of_birth (73.754%), respectively. In the safe harbor data set, the variables with the most and fewest included minimum cell size of one records were Death_date (89.044%) and NPI (67.377%), respectively (Table 4). For Visit_end_date in the limited data set with the most included minimum cell size of one records, after applying the safe harbor policy, the minimum

cell size of one records of the Visit end date variable decreased to 86.171% (861.710/1000). Even though the safe harbor policy was applied, the minimum cell size of one records did not decrease significantly. Death_date, with the most included minimum cell size of one records in the safe harbor data set, had a trust differential gap of 9.862% (98.906% and 89.044% in the limited and safe harbor data sets, respectively). The privacy risk did not decrease significantly after applying the safe harbor policy. In the trust differential gap, the variable with the highest gap was Device_exposure_start_date (33.730%; 87.705% and 53.975% in the limited and safe harbor data sets, respectively). When the safe harbor policy was applied, the Death_date privacy risk could be significantly reduced. In the number of total records of the limited and safe harbor data sets, with a minimum cell size of one, the most privacy-threatening variables were Death_date (98.787%) and Death_date (87.359%), respectively. However, in the random sample of 1000, it was Visit end date (99.978%) and Death date (89.044%), respectively. Therefore, we verified that privacy-threatening variables could differ depending on the number of records. Detailed random sampled results are displayed in Multimedia Appendix 4.



Table 4. Comparison of records with a minimum cell size of one between the limited and safe harbor data sets from 16 personal health identifier data sets.

Sample ^a and variable ^b	Limited data set		Safe harbor data set	Trust differential gap ^c (%)	
	Number of minimum	m cell sizes of one ^d	Number of minimum		
	Mean ^e (SD ^f)	Percentage ^g (%)	Mean ^e (SD ^f)	Percentage ^g (%)	
1000 samples	,				
Visit_start_date	999.26 (1.125)	99.926	859.68 (16.229)	85.968	13.958
Visit_end_date	999.78 (0.629)	99.978	861.71 (15.086)	86.171	13.807
Death_date	989.06 (2.155)	98.906	890.44 (7.478)	89.044	9.862
Condition_start_date	998.44 (1.766)	99.844	857.59 (15.178)	85.759	14.085
Condition_end_date	998.12 (2.006)	99.812	858.7 (16.45)	85.87	13.942
Procedure_date	998.24 (1.804)	99.824	858.61 (16.504)	85.861	13.963
Measurement_date	995.14 (2.971)	99.514	855.11 (15.321)	85.511	14.003
Observation_date	997.54 (2.162)	99.754	854.79 (14.238)	85.479	14.275
Device_exposure_start_date	877.05 (13.107)	87.705	539.75 (16.877)	53.975	33.73
Device_exposure_end_date	875.34 (16.05)	87.534	539.68 (20.112)	53.968	33.566
Drug_exposure_start_date	956.34 (8.669)	95.634	720.7 (17.729)	72.07	23.564
Drug_exposure_end_date	956.34 (8.669)	95.634	720.7 (17.729)	72.07	23.564
Month_of_birth	971.47 (7.612)	97.147	738.4 (17.707)	73.84	23.307
Day_of_birth	737.54 (17.774)	73.754	737.54 (17.774)	73.754	0
NPI ^h	998.8 (1.775)	99.88	673.77 (19.212)	67.377	32.503
County	979.69 (6.59)	97.969	738.46 (16.856)	73.846	24.123
Average	N/A ⁱ	N/A	N/A	N/A	18.869

^aSample is the number of random samples (ie, 1000, 10,000, 100,000, or 1 million) from the limited and safe harbor data sets.

Evaluation of the Quasi-Identifier Privacy Risk of the DRN

In the results for the number of total records, the privacy risk of the QI with a minimum cell size of 1 to 20 was measured in the limited and safe harbor data sets. As shown in Figure 2, for the minimum cell size of one, the minimum and maximum percentages in the seven scenarios were 71% and 99%, respectively, in the limited data set (Figure 2A) and 0.7% and 41%, respectively, in the safe harbor data set (Figure 2B). The QI privacy risk was represented with a minimum cell size of one to five (Multimedia Appendix 5 and Table 5). For the

minimum cell size of one in the limited data set, the Diagnosis (71.465%) and Procedure (76.123%) scenarios showed lower privacy risks than the other five scenarios (Drug treatment [95.475%], Lab test [93.012%], Medical history [92.353%], Death [99.997%], and Device treatment [97.647%]). For the Death scenario, the limited data set records were concentrated in the minimum cell size of one to two. The average gaps between the limited and safe harbor data sets, with the minimum cell size of one to five decreased from 73.798% to 54.548%. For the gaps of the minimum cell size of one, the Diagnosis scenario showed the smallest gap (28.869%), whereas the Death scenario showed the largest gap (99.212%).



^bVariable is the variable targeted from the Observational Medical Outcomes Partnership common data model as the personal health identifier.

^cTrust differential gap is the difference obtained by comparing two data sets to measure privacy risk.

^dNumber of minimum cell sizes of one is the number of records with a unique record among the total records.

^eMean is the average of the quantity with a minimum cell size of one obtained by iterating the random sampling of each variable 100 times.

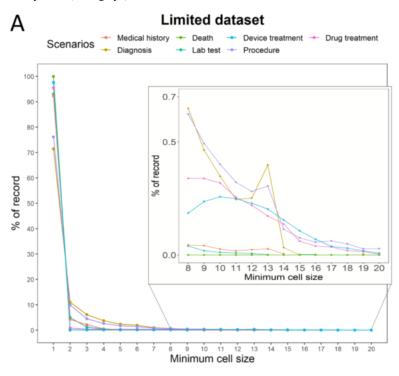
^fSD is the standard deviation of the quantity with a minimum cell size of one obtained by iterating random sampling of each variable 100 times.

^gPercentage is the percentage of the quantity with a minimum cell size of one. The numerator is the mean of the minimum cell size of one, which was obtained from 100 iterations, and the denominator was the number of random samples.

^hNPI: national provider identifier.

ⁱN/A: not applicable.

Figure 2. Percentage of records measuring the quasi-identifier privacy risk with a minimum cell size of 1–20 for the (A) limited and (B) safe harbor data sets. The flattened lines are expanded (inner graph).



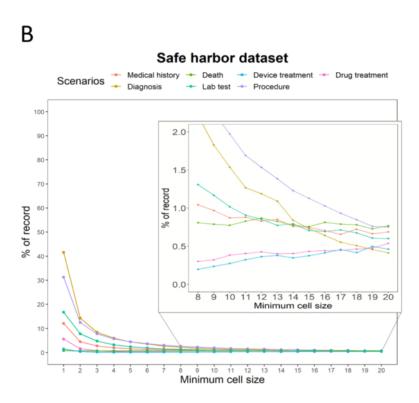




Table 5. Percentage of records measuring quasi-identifier privacy risk with gaps between the limited and safe harbor data sets with a minimum cell size of one, two, and five.

Scenarios Number of	Minimum cell size of one, two, and five,			Safe harbor data set Minimum cell size of one, two, and five, percentage ^c (record ^d)			Trust differential gap ^b Minimum cell size of one, two, and five, percentage ^c			
total records ^a										
		1	2	5	1	2	5	1	2	5
Diagnosis	3,369,468	71.465 (2,407,996)	11.049 (186,162)	2.333 (15,726)	41.595 (1,401,556)	14.248 (240,043)	4.412 (29,737)	29.869	35.361	19.986
Procedure	3,105,665	76.123 (2,364,135)	9.902 (153,767)	1.731 (10,752)	31.251 (970,568)	12.472 (193,672)	4.460 (27,708)	44.871	42.301	33.173
Drug treatment	1,300,649	95.475 (1,241,796)	0.895 (5826)	0.306 (796)	5.558 (72,292)	1.625 (10,569)	0.356 (927)	89.917	89.187	88.611
Lab test	1,622,884	93.012 (1,509,486)	5.043 (40,923)	0.138 (448)	16.749 (271,819)	7.748 (62,875)	2.385 (7744)	76.263	73.558	64.958
Medical history	1,348,569	92.353 (1,245,455)	4.286 (28,900)	0.224 (606)	12.079 (162,898)	4.466 (30,115)	1.550 (4183)	80.274	80.094	76.759
Death	1,218,881	99.997 (1,218,845)	0.003 (18)	0 (0)	0.784 (9557)	0.686 (4185)	0.719 (1755)	99.212	98.529	0
Device treatment	1,247,726	97.647 (1,218,368)	0.152 (954)	0.059 (149)	1.464 (18,271)	0.380 (2372)	0.139 (348)	96.182	95.955	95.625
Average	N/A ^e	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	73.798	73.569	54.458

^aNumber of total records denotes each total record of the scenarios.

In the random samples with a minimum cell size of one, (1) the average percentage of the limited data set decreased from 99.986% to 99.327%, (2) the average percentage of the safe harbor data set decreased from 93.493% to 21.460%, and (3) the average trust differential gap increased from 6.493% to 71.868% (Table 6). In the limited data set with 1000 to 1 million random samples, the scenario with the most included records of a minimum cell size of one was the Death scenario (1000 to 100,000 random samples had 99.999% and 1 million had 99.998%). In the safe harbor data set with 1000 to 1 million random samples, the scenario with the most included records of a minimum cell size of one was the Diagnosis scenario (1000 random samples had 99.858%, 10,000 had 98.685%, 100,000 had 89.758%, and 1 million had 60.361%). In the order of the four random samples, the scenarios with the highest trust differential gap were Device_treatment (1000 random samples: 12.980%, 99.980% and 87.000% in the limited and safe harbor data sets, respectively; 10,000 random samples: 60.118%,

99.831% and 39.713% in the limited and safe harbor data sets, respectively; 100,000 random samples: 93.598%, 98.805% and 5.207% in the limited and safe harbor data sets, respectively) and Death (1 million random samples: 99.063%, 99.998% and 0.934% in the limited and safe harbor data sets, respectively). When the safe harbor policy was applied, privacy risks were significantly reduced. In the number of total records, the most privacy-threatening scenarios were Death (99.997%) and Diagnosis (41.595%) in the limited and safe harbor data sets, respectively, with a minimum cell size of one. In the random samples with a minimum cell size of one in the limited data set, the most privacy-threatening scenario was Death, which had privacy risks of 99.999% (1000 to 100,000 random samples) and 99.998% (1 million random samples). In the safe harbor data set, Diagnosis had privacy risks of 99.858% (1000 random samples), 98.685% (10,000 random samples), 89.758% (100,000 random samples), and 60.361% (1 million random samples).



^bTrust differential gap indicates the differences obtained by comparing two data sets to measure privacy risk.

^cMinimum cell size of one, two, and five represents the percentage of records that have a common attribute size of one, two, and five, respectively. This percentage is presented as the records of minimum cell size of one, two, and five as the numerator and the total number of records as the denominator.

^dRecord is the number of records with a common attribute size of one, two, and five within the total records.

^eN/A: not applicable.

Table 6. Comparison of records with a minimum cell size of one between the limited and safe harbor data sets from seven scenarios.

Sample ^a and scenario ^b	Limited data set		Safe harbor data	Safe harbor data set Number of minimum cell sizes of one ^d		
	Number of minim	num cell sizes of one ^d	Number of minin			
	Mean ^e (SD ^f)	Percentage ^g (%)	Mean ^e (SD ^f)	Percentage ^g (%)		
1000			·	,	·	
Diagnosis	999.800	99.980	998.580	99.858	0.122	
Procedure	999.760	99.976	997.400	99.740	0.236	
Drug_treatment	999.860	99.986	889.470	88.947	11.039	
Lab_test	999.900	99.990	956.910	95.691	4.299	
Medical_history	999.960	99.996	932.320	93.232	6.764	
Death	999.990	99.999	899.830	89.983	10.016	
Device_treatment	999.800	99.980	870.000	87.000	12.980	
Average	N/A ^h	99.986	N/A	93.493	6.493	
10,000						
Diagnosis	9975.850	99.759	9868.540	98.685	1.073	
Procedure	9974.680	99.747	9743.830	97.438	2.309	
Drug_treatment	9980.620	99.806	4642.820	46.428	53.378	
Lab_test	9993.920	99.939	7320.070	73.201	26.739	
Medical_history	9989.730	99.897	6226.700	62.267	37.630	
Death	9999.980	99.9990	4851.230	48.512	51.487	
Device_treatment	9983.140	99.831	3971.310	39.713	60.118	
Average	N/A	99.854	N/A	66.606	33.248	
00,000						
Diagnosis	97,724.930	97.725	89,757.540	89.758	7.967	
Procedure	97,742.680	97.743	82,093.250	82.093	15.649	
Drug_treatment	98,419.410	98.419	12,062.980	12.063	86.356	
Lab_test	99,375.690	99.376	42,164.130	42.164	57.212	
Medical_history	99,022.020	99.022	28,552.750	28.553	70.469	
Death	99,999.640	99.999	9106.630	9.107	90.892	
Device_treatment	98,804.960	98.805	5206.990	5.207	93.598	
Average	N/A	98.727	N/A	38.420	60.306	
,000,000						
Diagnosis	846,819.090	84.682	603,607.950	60.361	24.321	
Procedure	864,575.710	86.458	472,502.940	47.250	39.207	
Drug_treatment	957,078.730	95.708	59,825.330	5.983	89.725	
Lab_test	951,528.090	95.153	206,809.130	20.681	74.472	
Medical_history	936,158.630	93.616	134,617.450	13.462	80.154	
Death	999,975.900	99.998	9344.160	0.934	99.063	
Device_treatment	976,802.140	97.680	15,496.020	1.550	96.131	
Average	N/A	93.327	N/A	21.460	71.868	

^aSample is the number of random samples (ie, 1000, 10,000, 100,000, or 1 million) from the limited and safe harbor data sets.

^dNumber of minimum cell sizes of one is the number of records with a unique record among the total records.



^bScenario is the variable targeted from the Observational Medical Outcomes Partnership common data model as the personal health identifier.

^cTrust differential gap is the difference obtained by comparing two data sets to measure privacy risk.

Discussion

Principal Findings

In this study, we quantified the DRN privacy risk focusing on PHIs and QIs using 18 HIPAA identifiers and the findings of previous studies [34-43]. To measure the DRN privacy risk, we compared the limited data set, consisting of PHIs and QIs from the SynPUF5PCT data set, with the safe harbor data set generated by applying the safe harbor policy on the limited data set. More specifically, privacy risk was measured with the gap obtained between the two data sets, based on the trust differential, applying the threshold of the minimum cell size with the calculated size by the EC. We verified that the PHIs and QIs increased the DRN privacy risk. However, the privacy risk decreased overall when the safe harbor policy was applied to the DRN. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to verify that PHIs and QIs may threaten patient privacy within DRNs.

Prior studies have shown that patient privacy is threatened by PHIs and QIs within clinical databases [53,54]. The DRN of this study may have the same privacy risk as those in previous studies because the DRN at a single site follows a conventional database, although it does not share data [34-41]. Therefore, the privacy risk in a DRN should be quantified and objectively measured for three important reasons. First, because existing patient information in a CDM affects the privacy risk, the DRN privacy risk can be mitigated by providing objectively measured PHI and QI privacy risks [62]. Second, researchers can understand the mechanism of privacy risk change with the objective differences measured by comparing two different deidentification levels of data sets [63]. Finally, an objective measurement of privacy risk will contribute to the design of more secure privacy protection methods suitable for a DRN.

Consideration for Measuring Privacy Risk From Variable Characteristics

The PHI results, which measure the privacy risk, were verified in two different deidentification levels and indicated a much greater privacy risk reduction in the safe harbor data set than in the limited data set. In addition, we found that privacy risks differ depending on PHI characteristics. The privacy risk of the Visit_start_date variable, which occurs multiple times per patient, was significantly reduced after applying the safe harbor policy. However, the Death date variable, which occurs only once per patient, still had many remaining unique records after the safe harbor policy was applied. The State variable, which is one of the demographic variables in the data set of the Death_date variable, still had unique values because it had not been deidentified by the safe harbor policy. Although the NPI variable had the highest reduction rate of privacy risk after applying the safe harbor policy, we found that it could not be used as data because it was completely masked. For the

Day_of_birth as a statistical baseline, we compared the Day_of_birth with other PHI variables and could interpret a privacy risk according to the characteristics of the variable as follows. First, because each patient had multiple points for the Condition_end_date value in the SynPUF5PCT, there were fewer unique records relatively. Thus, the privacy risk of Condition_end_date was lower than that of Day_of_birth. Second, because every patient had only one point for the Death_date value, most of them had unique records. Thus, the privacy risk of Death_date was higher than that of Day_of_birth.

In the results of QI, when the limited data set had a minimum cell size of one, the privacy risk differed based on the characteristics of the scenario. In our study, we found that the QI privacy risks of the Drug treatment, Lab test, Medical history, Death, and Device treatment scenarios decreased on average 1.3 times more than those of the Diagnosis and Procedure scenarios, with a minimum cell size of one. The reason for the relatively low reduction in privacy risk under the Diagnosis and Procedure scenarios is that clinical order codes, such as Condition_concept_id and Procedure_concept_id, which used QIs, were prescribed three times on average with the same code.

The privacy risk could differ depending on the characteristics of variables, and the "balls and bins problem" theoretical basis supports our research [64]. As the number of bins increases, it could frequently take only one ball to fill than fewer bins. Similarly, the Visit_end_date variable, with 1096 distinct values ("bins"), consisted of more unique records ("only one ball") than the Month_of_birth with 12 distinct values. Consequently, a privacy protection approach must be customized or optimized by considering the characteristics of each variable.

Consideration for Measuring Privacy Risk From Record Extraction

Through the random samples, we found the following two facts: (1) Depending on the number of records, the privacy-threatening variable or scenario could differ and (2) The influence of safe harbor policy could differ depending on the number of records, because the number of unique records, which are included with PHI data sets or QI scenarios, differs according to each random sampling. Therefore, to measure the true privacy risk of PHIs and QIs, it is necessary to compare the same records through random sampling.

A minimum cell size of five, which has been a commonly used threshold in previous studies [56], may be difficult to apply as a threshold for measuring the DRN privacy risk. In the QI privacy risk experiment, the Death scenario of the limited data set was not appropriate for a minimum cell size of five because the records were concentrated in a minimum cell size of one to two. Therefore, our results reflect the fact that a minimum cell size of five may not be suitable for the current DRN. However, it should be recognized that the captured features may differ according to the data set used. Therefore, further research is



^eMean is the average of the quantity with a minimum cell size of one obtained by iterating the random sampling of each variable 100 times.

^fSD is the standard deviation of the quantity with a minimum cell size of one obtained by iterating random sampling of each variable 100 times.

^gPercent is the percentage of the quantity with a minimum cell size of one. The numerator is the mean of the minimum cell size of one, which was obtained from 100 iterations, and the denominator was the number of random samples.

^hN/A: not applicable.

required using various real-world data sets to find an appropriate minimum cell size that can contribute to the measurement of the DRN privacy risk.

Limitations

This study has some limitations. First, this study used a public data set (SynPUF5PCT), which does not handle all PHIs or QIs existing in a DRN. Therefore, we could not consider the CDM of real-world data sets generated by each institution. However, the results of this study are reliable because the SynPUF5PCT data set is an officially published data set by the OHDSI [50]. Second, when measuring the QI privacy risk, some QIs were considered based on scenarios and not based on all variables. Thus, we did not handle the privacy risk considering the combination of all QIs. However, the CDM does not use all variables because the research is based on clinical questions [59]. In addition, we focused on the frequently used scenarios. Third, we did not consider some PHIs and QIs within free text from Note and Note_nlp tables [48], because in our research methodology, PHIs and QIs are detected in the structure of OMOP CDM based on 18 HIPAA identifiers and not in the free text. However, previous studies have indicated that free text includes not only PHIs and QIs but also direct identifiers

[65,66]. Therefore, further research needs to include a free text data set. Fourth, we did not consider privacy risk depending on the timespan. Because the SynPUF5PCT data set used in this study contained only 3-year records (2008-2010) and the Day_of_birth variable had already been deidentified as "1," we could not measure privacy risk according to an extended (such as 20-year records) or a narrowed (such as single-week records) timespan. A future study should consider timespan-related privacy.

Conclusions

In this study, we validated and quantified the privacy risks of PHIs and QIs in the DRN. We objectively measured the privacy risk reduction with the gaps obtained by comparing a safe harbor policy with the DRN. In addition, we measured the true privacy risk of PHIs and QIs by random sampling to adjust for the influence of the number of records. Therefore, it is necessary to reinforce a level of privacy protection for each institution because the DRN involves big data research based on multi-institution collaboration. Our study findings can help in constructing an advanced DRN environment that protects these privacy risks as a quality measurement index.

Acknowledgments

This study was supported by the Foundational Technology Development Program (NRF2019M3E5D406468221) of the Ministry of Science and ICT, Republic of Korea, and a grant from the Korea Health Technology R&D Project through the Korea Health Industry Development Institute (KHIDI), funded by the Ministry of Health & Welfare, Republic of Korea (grant number: HI19C0189).

Conflicts of Interest

None declared.

Multimedia Appendix 1

Forty-five personal health identifiers and 17 quasi-identifiers in the structure of the Observational Medical Outcome Partnership common data model.

[DOCX File, 18 KB-Multimedia Appendix 1]

Multimedia Appendix 2

Detailed information of 16 personal health identifier variables and 12 quasi-identifier scenarios. [DOCX File, 37 KB-Multimedia Appendix 2]

Multimedia Appendix 3

Seven scenarios with personal health identifiers and quasi-identifiers in the Observational Medical Outcome Partnership common data model, based on not null values in the Synthetic Public Use File 5 Percent data set.

[DOCX File, 17 KB-Multimedia Appendix 3]

Multimedia Appendix 4

Random sampling and 100 iterations were conducted to compare records with a minimum cell size of one between the limited and safe harbor data sets from 16 personal health identifier data sets.

[DOCX File, 27 KB-Multimedia Appendix 4]

Multimedia Appendix 5

Percentage of records measuring quasi-identifier privacy risk with gaps between the limited and safe harbor data sets with a minimum cell size of one to five.



[DOCX File, 15 KB-Multimedia Appendix 5]

References

- 1. NIH Collaboratory Distributed Research Network (DRN). Rethinking Clinical Trials. URL: https://rethinkingclinicaltrials.org/nih-collaboratory-drn/ [accessed 2020-08-01]
- 2. Passerat-Palmbach J, Farnan T, McCoy M, Harris JD, Manion ST, Flannery HL, et al. Blockchain-orchestrated machine learning for privacy preserving federated learning in electronic health data. 2020 Presented at: 2020 IEEE International Conference on Blockchain (Blockchain); November 2-6, 2020; Rhodes, Greece. [doi: 10.1109/Blockchain50366.2020.00080]
- 3. Cheu A, Smith A, Ullman J, Zeber D, Zhilyaev M. Distributed Differential Privacy via Shuffling. In: Ishai Y, Rijmen V, editors. Advances in Cryptology EUROCRYPT 2019. EUROCRYPT 2019. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol 11476. Cham: Springer; 2019:375-403.
- 4. Konečný J, McMahan HB, Yu FX, Richtárik P, Suresh AT, Bacon D. Federated Learning: Strategies for Improving Communication Efficiency. arXiv. 2016. URL: https://arxiv.org/abs/1610.05492 [accessed 2021-05-22]
- 5. Rieke N, Hancox J, Li W, Milletarì F, Roth HR, Albarqouni S, et al. The future of digital health with federated learning. NPJ Digit Med 2020 Sep 14;3(1):119-117 [FREE Full text] [doi: 10.1038/s41746-020-00323-1] [Medline: 33015372]
- Tkachenko O, Weinert C, Schneider T, Hamacher K. Large-Scale Privacy-Preserving Statistical Computations for Distributed Genome-Wide Association Studies. In: ASIACCS '18: Proceedings of the 2018 Asia Conference on Computer and Communications Security. 2018 Presented at: 2018 Asia Conference on Computer and Communications Security; June 2018; Incheon, Republic of Korea p. 221-235. [doi: 10.1145/3196494.3196541]
- 7. Tomsett R, Chan K, Chakraborty S. Model poisoning attacks against distributed machine learning systems. In: Proceedings Volume 11006, Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning for Multi-Domain Operations Applications. 2019 Presented at: Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning for Multi-Domain Operations Applications; 2019; Baltimore, MD. [doi: 10.1117/12.2520275]
- 8. Takabi D, Podschwadt R, Druce J, Wu C, Procopio K. Privacy preserving Neural Network Inference on Encrypted Data with GPUs. arXiv. 2019. URL: https://arxiv.org/abs/1911.11377 [accessed 2021-05-22]
- 9. Dahl M, Mancuso J, Dupis Y, Decoste B, Giraud M, Livingstone I, et al. Private Machine Learning in TensorFlow using Secure Computation. arXiv. 2018. URL: https://arxiv.org/abs/1810.08130 [accessed 2021-05-22]
- 10. Kaissis GA, Makowski MR, Rückert D, Braren RF. Secure, privacy-preserving and federated machine learning in medical imaging. Nat Mach Intell 2020 Jun 8;2(6):305-311. [doi: 10.1038/s42256-020-0186-1]
- 11. Salem M, Taheri S, Yuan J. Utilizing Transfer Learning and Homomorphic Encryption in a Privacy Preserving and Secure Biometric Recognition System. Computers 2018 Dec 29;8(1):3-24. [doi: 10.3390/computers8010003]
- 12. FitzHenry F, Resnic F, Robbins S, Denton J, Nookala L, Meeker D, et al. Creating a Common Data Model for Comparative Effectiveness with the Observational Medical Outcomes Partnership. Appl Clin Inform 2017 Dec 19;06(03):536-547. [doi: 10.4338/aci-2014-12-cr-0121]
- 13. Klann JG, Joss MAH, Embree K, Murphy SN. Data model harmonization for the All Of Us Research Program: Transforming i2b2 data into the OMOP common data model. PLoS One 2019 Feb 19;14(2):e0212463-e0212413 [FREE Full text] [doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0212463] [Medline: 30779778]
- 14. Gujarathi G, Ma Y. Parametric CAD/CAE integration using a common data model. Journal of Manufacturing Systems 2011 Aug;30(3):118-132. [doi: 10.1016/j.jmsy.2011.01.002]
- 15. Saver JL, Warach S, Janis S, Odenkirchen J, Becker K, Benavente O, et al. Standardizing the Structure of Stroke Clinical and Epidemiologic Research Data. Stroke 2012 Apr;43(4):967-973. [doi: 10.1161/strokeaha.111.634352]
- 16. Overhage JM, Ryan PB, Reich CG, Hartzema AG, Stang PE. Validation of a common data model for active safety surveillance research. J Am Med Inform Assoc 2012 Jan 01;19(1):54-60 [FREE Full text] [doi: 10.1136/amiajnl-2011-000376] [Medline: 22037893]
- 17. Mamo L, Browe D, Logan H, Kim K. Patient informed governance of distributed research networks: results and discussion from six patient focus groups. AMIA Annu Symp Proc 2013;2013:920-929 [FREE Full text] [Medline: 24551383]
- 18. Hripcsak G, Duke JD, Shah NH, Reich CG, Huser V, Schuemie MJ, et al. Observational Health Data Sciences and Informatics (OHDSI): Opportunities for Observational Researchers. Stud Health Technol Inform 2015;216:574-578 [FREE Full text] [Medline: 26262116]
- 19. Data. The National Patient-Centered Clinical Research Network. URL: https://pcornet.org/data/ [accessed 2020-08-01]
- 20. Ji H, Kim S, Yi S, Hwang H, Kim J, Yoo S. Converting clinical document architecture documents to the common data model for incorporating health information exchange data in observational health studies: CDA to CDM. J Biomed Inform 2020 Jul;107:103459-103457. [doi: 10.1016/j.jbi.2020.103459] [Medline: 32470694]
- 21. Timbie J, Rudin R, Towe V, Chen E, Hunter L, Case S, et al. National Patient-Centered Clinical Research Network (PCORnet) Phase I: Final Evaluation Report. RAND. URL: https://www.rand.org/pubs/research_reports/RR1191.html [accessed 2021-05-22]
- 22. Martin-Sanchez FJ, Aguiar-Pulido V, Lopez-Campos GH, Peek N, Sacchi L. Secondary Use and Analysis of Big Data Collected for Patient Care. Yearb Med Inform 2017 Aug 19;26(01):28-37. [doi: 10.1055/s-0037-1606529]



- 23. Zhang Y, Steele A, Blanton M. PICCO: a general-purpose compiler for private distributed computation. In: CCS '13: Proceedings of the 2013 ACM SIGSAC Conference on Computer & Communications Security. 2013 Presented at: 2013 ACM SIGSAC Conference on Computer & Communications Security; November 2013; Berlin, Germany p. 813-826. [doi: 10.1145/2508859.2516752]
- 24. Zhang Y, Blanton M, Almashaqbeh G. Secure distributed genome analysis for GWAS and sequence comparison computation. BMC Med Inform Decis Mak 2015 Dec 21;15(S5):1-12. [doi: 10.1186/1472-6947-15-s5-s4]
- 25. Dubovitskaya A, Urovi V, Vasirani M, Aberer K, Schumacher M. A Cloud-Based eHealth Architecture for Privacy Preserving Data Integration. In: Federrath H, Gollmann D, editors. ICT Systems Security and Privacy Protection. SEC 2015. IFIP Advances in Information and Communication Technology, vol 455. Cham: Springer; 2015:585-598.
- 26. Kho A, Cashy J, Jackson K, Pah A, Goel S, Boehnke J, et al. Design and implementation of a privacy preserving electronic health record linkage tool in Chicago. J Am Med Inform Assoc 2015 Sep;22(5):1072-1080 [FREE Full text] [doi: 10.1093/jamia/ocv038] [Medline: 26104741]
- 27. Huang L, Chu H, Lien C, Hsiao C, Kao T. Privacy preservation and information security protection for patients' portable electronic health records. Comput Biol Med 2009 Sep;39(9):743-750. [doi: 10.1016/j.compbiomed.2009.06.004] [Medline: 19589509]
- 28. Sahi MA, Abbas H, Saleem K, Yang X, Derhab A, Orgun MA, et al. Privacy Preservation in e-Healthcare Environments: State of the Art and Future Directions. IEEE Access 2018 Oct;6:464-478. [doi: 10.1109/access.2017.2767561]
- 29. Seol K, Kim Y, Lee E, Seo Y, Baik D. Privacy-Preserving Attribute-Based Access Control Model for XML-Based Electronic Health Record System. IEEE Access 2018 Feb 5;6:9114-9128. [doi: 10.1109/access.2018.2800288]
- 30. Blacketer C. Chapter 4 The Common Data Model. The Book of OHDSI. URL: https://ohdsi.github.io/TheBookOfOhdsi/CommonDataModel.html [accessed 2020-08-01]
- 31. Lee S, You SC, Park J, Cho J, Borel S, El Emam K, et al. OMOP-CDM Conversion and Anonymization of National Health Insurance Service-National Sample Cohort. Observational Health Data Sciences and Informatics. 2019. URL: https://www.ohdsi.org/2019-us-symposium-showcase-17/ [accessed 2021-05-22]
- 32. Guidance Regarding Methods for De-identification of Protected Health Information in Accordance with the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA) Privacy Rule. U.S. Department of Health & Human Services. 2015. URL: https://www.hhs.gov/hipaa/for-professionals/privacy/special-topics/de-identification/index.html [accessed 2020-08-01]
- 33. Wiley DC, Cory AC, editors. Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act. In: Encyclopedia of School Health. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc; 2013.
- 34. Murphy SN, Gainer V, Mendis M, Churchill S, Kohane I. Strategies for maintaining patient privacy in i2b2. J Am Med Inform Assoc 2011 Dec 01;18 Suppl 1(Supplement 1):i103-i108 [FREE Full text] [doi: 10.1136/amiajnl-2011-000316] [Medline: 21984588]
- 35. Li D. Data management system having a common database infrastructure. Google Patents. 2008. URL: https://patents.google.com/patent/US20040054675 [accessed 2021-05-22]
- 36. Olivier MS. Database privacy. SIGKDD Explor. Newsl 2002 Dec;4(2):20-27. [doi: 10.1145/772862.772866]
- 37. Blum A, Ligett K, Roth A. A learning theory approach to noninteractive database privacy. J. ACM 2013 Apr;60(2):1-25. [doi: 10.1145/2450142.2450148]
- 38. Bergquist T, Brandt P. Prometheus: Differential Privacy in the OMOP CDM. University of Washington. 2018. URL: https://courses.cs.washington.edu/courses/cse544/18wi/project/examples-successful-projects/psbrandt.pdf [accessed 2021-05-22]
- 39. Slavic A, Cordeiro M. Sharing and re-use of classification systems: the need for a common data model. The University of Arizona Libraries. 2005. URL: https://repository.arizona.edu/handle/10150/105132 [accessed 2021-05-22]
- 40. Makadia R, Ryan PB. Transforming the Premier Perspective Hospital Database into the Observational Medical Outcomes Partnership (OMOP) Common Data Model. EGEMS (Wash DC) 2014 Nov 11;2(1):1110-1110 [FREE Full text] [doi: 10.13063/2327-9214.1110] [Medline: 25848597]
- 41. Ganslandt T, Mate S, Helbing K, Sax U, Prokosch H. Unlocking Data for Clinical Research The German i2b2 Experience. Appl Clin Inform 2017 Dec 16;02(01):116-117. [doi: 10.4338/aci-2010-09-cr-0051]
- 42. Liyanage H, Liaw S, Jonnagaddala J, Hinton W, de Lusignan S. Common Data Models (CDMs) to Enhance International Big Data Analytics: A Diabetes Use Case to Compare Three CDMs. Stud Health Technol Inform 2018;255:60-64. [Medline: 30306907]
- 43. Raisaro JL, Choi G, Pradervand S, Colsenet R, Jacquemont N, Rosat N, et al. Protecting Privacy and Security of Genomic Data in i2b2 With Homomorphic Encryption and Differential Privacy. IEEE/ACM Trans. Comput. Biol. and Bioinf 2018:1-1. [doi: 10.1109/tcbb.2018.2854782]
- 44. Sweeney L. k-anonymity: A model for protecting privacy. Int. J. Unc. Fuzz. Knowl. Based Syst 2012 May 02;10(05):557-570. [doi: 10.1142/s0218488502001648]
- 45. Machanavajjhala A, Gehrke J, Kifer D, Venkitasubramaniam M. L-diversity: privacy beyond k-anonymity. 2006 Presented at: 22nd International Conference on Data Engineering (ICDE'06); April 3-7, 2006; Atlanta, GA. [doi: 10.1109/icde.2006.1]
- 46. Li N, Li T, Venkatasubramanian S. t-Closeness: Privacy Beyond k-Anonymity and l-Diversity. 2007 Presented at: 2007 IEEE 23rd International Conference on Data Engineering; April 15-20, 2007; Istanbul, Turkey. [doi: 10.1109/icde.2007.367856]



- Shin SJ, You SC, Park YR, Roh J, Kim J, Haam S, et al. Genomic Common Data Model for Seamless Interoperation of Biomedical Data in Clinical Practice: Retrospective Study. J Med Internet Res 2019 Mar 26;21(3):e13249 [FREE Full text] [doi: 10.2196/13249] [Medline: 30912749]
- 48. OHDSI/CommonDataModel. GitHub. URL: https://github.com/OHDSI/CommonDataModel/wiki [accessed 2020-08-01]
- CMS 2008-2010 Data Entrepreneurs' Synthetic Public Use File (DE-SynPUF). U.S. Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services. URL: https://www.cms.gov/Research-Statistics-Data-and-Systems/Downloadable-Public-Use-Files/SynPUFs/ DE Syn PUF [accessed 2020-08-01]
- Data Standardization. Observational Health Data Sciences and Informatics. URL: https://ohdsi.org/data-standardization/ [accessed 2020-08-01]
- OHDSI Google Drive. URL: https://drive.google.com/file/d/18EjMxyA6NsqBo9eed_Gab1ESHWPxJygz/view [accessed 51. 2020-08-01]
- 52. El Emam K, Arbuckle L, Koru G, Eze B, Gaudette L, Neri E, et al. De-identification methods for open health data: the case of the Heritage Health Prize claims dataset. J Med Internet Res 2012 Feb 27;14(1):e33 [FREE Full text] [doi: 10.2196/jmir.2001] [Medline: 22370452]
- Gong M, Wang S, Wang L, Liu C, Wang J, Guo Q, et al. Evaluation of Privacy Risks of Patients' Data in China: Case Study. JMIR Med Inform 2020 Feb 05;8(2):e13046 [FREE Full text] [doi: 10.2196/13046] [Medline: 32022691]
- Benitez K, Malin K. Evaluating re-identification risks with respect to the HIPAA privacy rule. J Am Med Inform Assoc 54. 2010;17(2):169-177 [FREE Full text] [doi: 10.1136/jamia.2009.000026] [Medline: 20190059]
- 55. Garfinkel SL. De-Identification of Personal Information. National Institute of Standards and Technology, 2015. URL: https://nvlpubs.nist.gov/nistpubs/ir/2015/NIST.IR.8053.pdf [accessed 2021-05-17]
- Committee on Strategies for Responsible Sharing of Clinical Trial Data, Board on Health Sciences Policy, Institute of 56. Medicine, Concepts and Methods for De-identifying Clinical Trial Data. In: Sharing Clinical Trial Data: Maximizing Benefits, Minimizing Risk. Washington, DC: National Academies Press (US); 2015.
- Lee YJ, Lee KH. What are the optimum quasi-identifiers to re-identify medical records? 2018 Presented at: 20th International Conference on Advanced Communication Technology (ICACT); February 11-14, 2018; Chuncheon, Korea (South). [doi: 10.23919/icact.2018.8323926]
- Definition and DDLs for the OMOP Common Data Model (CDM). GitHub. URL: https://github.com/OHDSI/ CommonDataModel/tree/v5.2.2 [accessed 2020-08-01]
- 59. Zhou X, Murugesan S, Bhullar H, Liu Q, Cai B, Wentworth C, et al. An evaluation of the THIN database in the OMOP Common Data Model for active drug safety surveillance. Drug Saf 2013 Feb 4;36(2):119-134. [doi: 10.1007/s40264-012-0009-3] [Medline: 23329543]
- Si Y, Weng C. An OMOP CDM-Based Relational Database of Clinical Research Eligibility Criteria. Stud Health Technol 60. Inform 2017;245:950-954 [FREE Full text] [Medline: 29295240]
- Glicksberg B, Oskotsky B, Thangaraj P, Giangreco N, Badgeley M, Johnson K, et al. PatientExploreR: an extensible application for dynamic visualization of patient clinical history from electronic health records in the OMOP common data model. Bioinformatics 2019 Nov 01;35(21):4515-4518 [FREE Full text] [doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btz409] [Medline:
- Karr AF, Feng J, Lin X, Sanil AP, Young SS, Reiter JP. Secure analysis of distributed chemical databases without data integration. J Comput Aided Mol Des 2005 Nov 3;19(9-10):739-747. [doi: 10.1007/s10822-005-9011-5] [Medline: 16267693]
- Domingo-Ferrer J. Microaggregation for Database and Location Privacy. In: Etzion O, Kuflik T, Motro A, editors. Next Generation Information Technologies and Systems. NGITS 2006. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol 4032. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer; 2006:106-116.
- 64. Raab M, Steger A. "Balls into Bins" — A Simple and Tight Analysis. In: Luby M, Rolim JDP, Serna M, editors. Randomization and Approximation Techniques in Computer Science, RANDOM 1998. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol 1518. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer; 1998:159-170.
- Shin S, Park YR, Shin Y, Choi HJ, Park J, Lyu Y, et al. A De-identification method for bilingual clinical texts of various note types. J Korean Med Sci 2015 Jan;30(1):7-15 [FREE Full text] [doi: 10.3346/jkms.2015.30.1.7] [Medline: 25552878]
- Abdalla M, Abdalla M, Rudzicz F, Hirst G. Using word embeddings to improve the privacy of clinical notes. J Am Med Inform Assoc 2020 Jun 01;27(6):901-907 [FREE Full text] [doi: 10.1093/jamia/ocaa038] [Medline: 32388549]

Abbreviations

CDM: common data model

DRN: distributed research network

EC: equivalence class

HIPAA: Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act

NPI: national provider identifier

OHDSI: Observational Health Data Sciences and Informatics

OMOP: Observational Medical Outcome Partnership



PHI: personal health identifier

QI: quasi-identifier

SynPUF5PCT: Synthetic Public Use File 5 Percent

Edited by G Eysenbach; submitted 12.10.20; peer-reviewed by G Weber; comments to author 03.11.20; revised version received 27.12.20; accepted 11.04.21; published 31.05.21

Please cite as:

Oh S, Sung M, Rhee Y, Hong N, Park YR

Evaluation of the Privacy Risks of Personal Health Identifiers and Quasi-Identifiers in a Distributed Research Network: Development and Validation Study

JMIR Med Inform 2021;9(5):e24940

URL: https://medinform.jmir.org/2021/5/e24940

doi: 10.2196/24940

PMID:

©SeHee Oh, MinDong Sung, Yumie Rhee, Namki Hong, Yu Rang Park. Originally published in JMIR Medical Informatics (https://medinform.jmir.org), 31.05.2021. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work, first published in JMIR Medical Informatics, is properly cited. The complete bibliographic information, a link to the original publication on https://medinform.jmir.org/, as well as this copyright and license information must be included.

