

Predicting Adverse Events in Senior Care Settings Using Multi Source EHR and Operations Data: A Responsible AI Pipeline

NICHOLAS DONKOR¹, MUNASHE NAPHTALI MUPA², KWAME OFORI BOAKYE³, ZAINAB MUGENYI⁴, HILTON HATITYE CHISORA⁵

¹Park University, ORCID: 0009-0000-6667-9229

²Hult International Business School, ORCID: 0000-0003-3509-861X

³Pace University, ORCID: 0009-0001-1464-6123

⁴Park University, internationalstudent@park.edu ORCID

⁵Yeshiva University, ORCID: 0009-0006-5927-4577

Abstract- Falls, unplanned transfers, and readmissions are some of the adverse events threatening patient safety in senior care due to the complex comorbidities and aging populations. Artificial intelligence (AI) provides the opportunities to combine electronic health record (EHR) and operational information, followed by proactive prevention. However, disjointed systems and cloudy algorithms are obstacles to adoption and ethical issues on fairness and accountability. The present research formulated a responsible AI pipeline that incorporates the vitals, medication history, nurse notes, and staffing data to forecast falls and unexpected transfers. The model was based on explainability and fairness, which was achieved through the use of machine learning, natural language processing, and bias auditing (Peng, 2025; Kalu-Mba et al., 2025). The results measured by validation using a stepped-wedge design included falls per 1000 resident days and 30-day readmissions. The findings showed a better predictive accuracy ($AUC > 0.85$), understandable SHAP-generated insights, and nurse-actionable dashboards. In general, the strategy improved patient safety, operational efficiency, and clinical decision-making in senior care environments.

causing hospitalization, loss of independence, and higher care costs (Cameron et al., 2018). Equally, unexpected transfers interfere with the continuity of care and impose pressure on healthcare systems, which highlights the urgency of preventive and predictive measures (Okuyucu, 2025).

Traditional ways of monitoring in elder care are predominantly heavy on the use of manual reviews of charts and retrospective assessment activities. These methods are slow and reactive and will most probably be influenced by human error; thus, they cannot be applicable in real-time risk detection. On the contrary, AI and ML technologies are changing the capabilities of the healthcare apparatus to foresee and prevent these instances through the application of data-driven insights. It has been demonstrated in recent times that AI models can combine multimodal data, including vitals, clinical notes, and medication histories, to identify risk patterns that cannot be identified by human observers (Gunzo et al., 2025a). The process of identifying the warning signs may be automated to allow clinical teams to avoid adverse effects by acting before they occur. Furthermore, such models may be complemented with operational data such as staffing levels and throughput measures, which may capture contextual variables that influence the safety of residents (Dewasiri et al., 2024).

I. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and Significance

Demographic changes in the world have aggravated the need to have sustainable and effective long-term care systems since the aging population is increasing at an unprecedented pace (Aximu et al., 2025). Along with this growth, there is a greater risk of adverse events like falls and unplanned hospital transfers, which persist to present a threat to the safety, quality of life, and health outcomes of the older adults in the senior care facilities. In older populations, falls are considered to be one of the most common sources of injury-associated morbidity and mortality, frequently

1.2 Research Problem and Rationale

However, the care centers currently possess siloed data systems even though AI in healthcare has a promise to offer. Clinical data in vital signs and nurse notes do not necessarily correspond to operational data, and they reduce the potential to build a

comprehensive view of patient risk (Fernandes et al., 2024). Such absence of connection does not allow planning proactive care and limits the opportunities of predictive modeling to enhance safety and efficiency. Moreover, the ethical issues of the AI implementation, in particular, the absence of fairness, accountability, and privacy, are not adequately discussed within the frames of long-term care (Merhi, 2022). Trained algorithms may exhibit bias in the situation where there is no bias and result in the undesired harm of vulnerable sub-populations, but unclear models might produce mistrust among the healthcare workers (Khan, 2025). Informed consent and secure data sharing that are related to data governance are also problems that do not ease the implementation (Peng, 2025).

1.3 Aim and Objectives

The overall aim of the study is to design and test a reproducible, responsible artificial intelligence pipeline that predicts undesired events in geriatric settings based on a mix of electronic health record (EHR) and operational data. The specific objectives are

1. To create a unified system of analysis by integrating heterogeneous data categories that comprise vitals, medication history, nurse notes, and staffing indicators.
2. To develop explainable and fair machine learning models such that they can predict falls and unplanned transfers, and explainability mechanisms such as SHAP such that interpretability can be enhanced.
3. To develop feasible and easy-to-use dashboards that can help charge nurses and frontline caregivers make evidence-based choices.
4. To validate the effectiveness of the system based on results obtained using the method of assessing the system in terms of numbers of falls per 1,000 resident days and 30-day readmission.

Through these objectives, the study seeks to foster responsible AI application in geriatric care through a tradeoff between predictive accuracy and equity, transparency, and clinical utility.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Predictive Analytics in Senior Care

Predictive analytics has laid new ground for modern geriatric care that has the potential to forecast adverse

events before they occur. By demonstrating that data in multi-source electronic health records (EHR) could be beneficial in identifying the risk of falls among the elderly residents, as the latter could identify the indicators of subtle physiological shifts preceding the incident. However, other models like these are not scaled in the real-life conditions, as these models fail to capture consistent data across the different facilities. Luo (2023) also mentioned that predictive sensitivity can be enhanced by adding operational measures, such as staff responsiveness and frequency of mobility assistance, or any other contextual variables that are not taken into account in purely clinical models. Conversely, Okuyucu (2025) claimed that it is not only the penetration of information but also the continuous retraining of the AI tools that provides them with the ability to keep pace with the changes in the care patterns and makes an untouched model obsolete in a relatively brief period.

Besides falls, machine learning (ML) has found wide application in predicting unplanned hospital readmissions and transfers in the geriatric population. Le et al. (2025) developed gradient boosting models that have the ability to predict readmission in 30 days on the basis of vital sign trends and medication history and demonstrated an improved calibration compared to traditional regression techniques. These models were encouraging and had some limitations on the interpretability, as Spaeder (2015) found out that deep learning models predicting ICU transfers performed well yet could not be interpreted, consequently posing a challenge of making clinicians trust or at least assume action based on the result. The study proposed that it is possible to increase accuracy by using a hybrid format of time-series and non-varying variables, but Zhang (2025) acknowledges that preciseness and the complexity of the model make it difficult to find a middle ground when it comes to clinical usability.

Employment of various data modalities is also a theme in predictive care studies. The combination of vital signs, medication data, and personnel ratio may provide a full picture of patient stability and disclose the existence of multifactorial risks potentially omitted by the use of single-source models (Wolfe, 2018). However, Muchenje et al. (2025a) cautioned that the adverse impact of inconsistent reporting habits, or incomplete reporting, cannot be prevented by the advanced data fusion approach, particularly in

long-term care settings. Collectively, the literature indicates the technical potential and organizational challenges of predictive analytics in elder care, stating that accuracy alone is not enough without interpretability and contextual awareness.

2.2 Responsible and Ethical AI in Healthcare

The swift integration of AI into the healthcare sector triggered the increasing interest in responsible AI models. Khan (2025) noted that the prevention of algorithmic harm in vulnerable groups like the elderly relies on fairness, transparency, and accountability. The author observed that models educated on biased data have the potential to promote disparities, including underestimating risk among particular demographics. Merhi (2022) also underlined that the openness of consent and privacy protection are the requirements of an ethical use of AI, and this is particularly true of medical and data management information, which is rather sensitive. Unlike the fairness-based approach used by Khan, Merhi took into account the governance mechanisms, such as the difference in privacy and minimization of data, to implement the healthcare regulations.

Peng (2025) continued this discussion and proposed that this type of ethical AI might be considered through a multilayered model to summarize technical, legal, and organizational dimensions of ethical AI. This framework is the opposite of the model-oriented strategy that Khan uses, with the focus on the accountability in the institution where ethical management is not confined to model development but also to the deployment and monitoring. The evidence presented by Adesokan-Imran (2025) is cross-industrial and shows that other industries in the finance and aviation sector employ standardized audit pipelines, which can be applied to healthcare to monitor bias and explicability. Likewise, Kalu-Mba (2025) introduced the significance of the ethical culture and leadership commitment of the successful AI governance and stated that organizational values should facilitate the technological protection. Hoviari (2025) advances the latter by suggesting the concept of transparency-by-design, that the said trust of the stakeholders may be acquired through such tools as documentation of models and publicly available validation reports.

Even the methods such as SHAP and LIME, which are such tools of interpretability, have gained

popularity in the health sector. Muchenje et al. (2025b) put forward a point that the explainability mechanisms are not part-time, but the medical regulatory agencies need them to meet their accountability needs. Clinicians may utilize SHAP values to pay attention to the interventions and make the model fair by explaining complex model outputs to human-understandable risk factors. However, Gunzo et al. (2025b) also cautioned that excessive reliance on post-hoc interpretability may conceal more fundamental design flaws and recommended the use of naturally interpretable models wherever feasible.

2.3 EHR and Natural Language Processing

Natural language processing (NLP) is altering trends on how unstructured EHR data (e.g., nurse notes) are being consumed within predictive modeling. Gunzo et al. (2025a) demonstrated that by using a narrative documentation, the signs of decline are likely to be observed in the early stages, such as finding gait instability or confusion subtly, which is impossible to reflect in the structured fields. Subsequently, Upadhyaya (2024) suggested domain-specific language models that can be deployed to obtain semantic features of clinical notes to enhance the precision of fall prediction. However, these models were quite accurate, yet required extensive annotation and computation and thus could not be used across institutions.

Ozobu (2023) touched upon the context extraction techniques to identify the mobility and pain-related variables related to falls and concluded that linguistic measures of the context would precede the measurable physiological consequences. In its turn, Islam (2024) has reinforced the pragmatic usefulness of NLP by applying it to the workload allocation and showing how the utilization of staff stories can be applied to optimize the shift allocation and deal with the issue of fatigue-related errors. In general, these studies suggest that NLP can be viewed as a two-faceted approach to managing the workplace and improving patient safety. Nevertheless, the quality and interpretability of data, especially when dealing with heterogeneous documentation styles across facilities, still pose a few challenges.

2.4 Operational and Human Resource Factors

Resident safety depends on human factors. In the work of Aximu (2025), a strong relationship was

established between the staffing ratios, caregiver fatigue, and the occurrence of falls, and it was concluded that predictive models should take into account workforce variability to make them effective in terms of grasping a considerable degree of precision. Luo (2023) stated in agreement with this view that operational predictors such as staff turnover and workload pressure are among the most reliable predictors of care quality. However, Luo warned that these aspects introduce certain ethical concerns due to the surveillance of the workforce, and information about users must be anonymous and aggregated within the application.

Chang (2024) addressed the topic of human resource problems in long-term care and discovered that the lack of scheduled appointments and burnouts act as barriers to evidence-based interventions. Owot (2024) further demonstrated that the distribution of the load of work and the reduction in fatigue, indirectly resulting in the reduction of the number of falls, may be evenly distributed by the application of an algorithm in tasks scheduling. On the other hand, Amiri (2024) concluded that those models that incorporated both clinical and organizational data were best predictive valid, but they required robust data governance structures to prevent misuse. This analogy refers to the trade-off between predictive performance and ethical integrity, which means that the future systems must be constructed based on the two intentions.

2.5 Risk Management and Proactive Safety Frameworks

Risk prediction has been a longstanding foundation of the safety-critical domains that are not related to healthcare. According to Hoviari (2025), active risk detection, which is prevalent in the aviation and manufacturing industries, could be applicable in healthcare and redundancy and human control specifically. The predictive safety model proposed by Thienthanukit (2025) with the emphasis on real-time monitoring and feedback mechanisms in order to eliminate system drift can also be applied to the facilities of senior care, and in this case it would guarantee the reliability of the systems over the long term.

Dewasiri (2024) applied the same principles and told you that the integrated sensor data and the ML models could be used to anticipate equipment

breakdowns. Although the field under consideration is quite different, the commonalities in proactive monitoring indicate the applicability of the ideas to the healthcare sector. This cross-sector observation was supported by Matenga (2025), who opined that, to develop effective risk modelling, proper technical accuracy was needed in addition to the human interpretability of the system outputs.

The synthesized literature review shows a logical trend towards the ethically oriented and data-driven predictive systems in the field of elder care. However, the areas of integration of the heterogeneous origin of data, the equilibrium of the predictive power and the equity, and the sustainability of the credibility between the frontline care providers are still under the loopholes. These challenges require a cross-solution that will unite technical innovation with environmentally friendly AI management and human-centered design.

III. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Study Design

The design applied in this study was the quasi-experimental/stepped-wedge validation, which evaluated the effectiveness and efficiency of the AI-based predictive pipeline in senior care facilities. The design aided in the implementation of the intervention in phases across the multiple care units whereby every participant would experience the intervention and internal validity would be preserved because of the comparison of the data at different points. According to Hoffman (2023), the approach is suitable in a healthcare environment when randomization is limited due to both ethics and operational concerns. The information was documented during the pre- and post-intervention periods and compared to give baseline and intervention results. Such a staggered design also facilitated manipulation of time and comparison of cross-units that ensured that the fact that improvement was related to the intervention and not due to random variation in clinical states or workforce dynamics.

3.2 Data Sources and Collection

The electronic health record (EHR) systems provided clinical data (vital signs, comorbidity indices, medication histories, and past adverse events). These are structured items of data that were objective

indicators of the health status of residents, and this is what predictive modelling is founded on. Inclusion of the medication and comorbidity profiles as inpatient risk predictors was warranted since Wolfe (2018) identified them. Standardized procedures were used to extract data, and missing values were addressed using multiple imputation in order to ensure representativeness and analytical rigor.

Nurse notes were inserted to represent unstructured information with contextual aspects that tend to antecede falls or subsequent transfers. The natural language processing (NLP) was used to extract key phrases that were related to confusion, agitation, mobility deterioration, or pain. Price (2021) identified that NLP contributes to the acknowledgement of more specific clinical indicators, and Upadhyaya (2024) discovered that models based on domains can be more precise when applied to interpret healthcare stories. Inclusion of such notes added more qualitative data to the data set in terms of clinical observations on a daily basis. De-identification of narrative data was done to protect staff and resident privacy.

Operation statistics included staffing, occupancy, and unit throughput. These steps referred to the situational pressures of workload and exhaustion, which influence the possibilities of adverse events. The Aixmu (2025) article indicates that staffing shortages significantly affect the outcomes of residents, whereas Luo (2023) implied that the use of human resource information has a high predictive validity, as it can predict environmental risk factors. The rules of the HIPAA and GDPR were followed, and they encompassed encryption, secure access, and storage, which aligns with the values of governance outlined by Khan (2025).

3.3 Model Development Pipeline

The feature engineering, model training, interpretability analysis, and fairness auditing were arranged into a systematic pipeline development structure that was used to develop the pipeline. The feature engineering involved the fusion of time series of vital signs and medications in order to discover some temporal trends. The non-numeric data, like the type of comorbidity and the type of medication, were encoded as a category. Text-derived features of NLP were converted to frequency-weighted embeddings that represented types of risk-related narratives.

These planning features ensured that structured and unstructured sources of data are all represented.

The gradient boosting algorithms and time-dependent convolutional neural networks (CNNs). Gradient boosting provided good performance even on structured information, but the temporal CNNs helped in capturing sequential dependencies of events in time-based data. Le (2025) pointed out that deep temporal architectures are capable of modeling the dynamic patient trajectories, which is why they are to be used. The hyperparameter optimization caused by the cross validation that is designed by nesting decreases the overfitting and enhances the generalizability of the model.

To estimate the contribution of all the features to individual predictions, the explainability was performed with SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations). This ensured easy visualization of model reasoning, which favored clinical interpretability. This pipeline has incorporated the concept of explainability by Peng (2025) in enhancing trust and accountability of clinicians in AI-assisted systems. Fairness auditing was an evaluation of equity among demographic subpopulations of the population founded on demographic parity and equalized odds. Merhi (2022) claims that the use of algorithmic discrimination should be avoided, and it should be achieved by bias auditing, in particular in healthcare. The bias minimization strategies, such as reweighting, were applied in cases of the disparities that had been spotted to obtain equitable outcomes.

3.4 Dashboard Design

An interactive dashboard that is friendly to the clinical users was developed in order to present predictive outputs and risk insights. The visual descriptions of the drivers of predictions used in the dashboard were also presented as a user-friendly interface that would lead to understanding and making decisions in real-time. Gunzo et al. (2025a) observed that interpretability in clinical systems would promote adoption, but Price (2021) observed that accuracy of response is enhanced by having a visual image. The dashboard demonstrated the level of risk on a resident level, the tendency in the risk of falls, and prioritized the warnings to the residents who required immediate response. The system became integrated with the existing EHR processes and reduced duplication and cognitive burdens to the

nursing personnel. Real-time updates facilitated the continuity of the monitoring and intervention planning provision in creating a link between predictive analytics and bedside care.

3.5 Evaluation Metrics

The predictive performance was measured using all the standard predictive performance measures, such as the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC-ROC), sensitivity, specificity, and precision-recall score. These signals were concerned with the precision and predictability of predictive models.

Falls per 1,000 resident days, as described by Cameron et al. (2018), and the count of 30-day readmissions (that were selected in accordance with the structure of metrics proposed by Patel, 2025) were the quality indicators used to evaluate clinical effectiveness. The pre- and post-implementation comparisons indicated whether the predictive system was useful at the level of tangible improvement of patient safety. The success of implementation was measured in terms of structured nurse feedback and focus groups on usability, trust, and integration in the daily routine. As noted by Owot (2024), user trust is the key to the sustainability of technology within a care setting, and the provided qualitative data serves as the essential background to the quantitative findings. These combined methods allowed having a balanced evaluation of the technical and human results of performance.

3.6 Ethical and Responsible AI Considerations

Moral uprightness informed all the phases of building a model and implementation. Fairness auditing also guaranteed that there was no disparity between prediction performance in demographic and clinical subgroups and the responsible AI principles proposed by Khan (2025). Clear communication of model limitations, level of uncertainty, and retraining requirements was put at the forefront of transparency, which was highlighted by Peng (2025). Human supervision was ensured by a human-in-the-loop review system where a nurse had to verify that the high-risk alerts were met before taking action. This protection resembled the request of Aror and Mupa (2025) to maintain professional judgment in decision-making based on technology. Additionally, the frequent feedback allowed constant improvement

as per the input of staff, which is consistent with Sena (2024), who emphasized the value of the iterative learning between systems and users.

IV. FINDINGS

The predictive pipeline could process the multi-source data of the electronic health record (EHR) and operational systems in order to determine the residents at risk of falling or unplanned transfer. The predictive capacity of the developed model was also much higher compared to the traditional risk assessment scales such as the Morse Fall Scale, and the average AUC values were above 0.85 in both test groups. The sensitivities and precision-recall curves indicated a continuous increase, particularly in the identification of the high-risk cases that were previously missed during the manual screening. The model implementation was validated by the stepped-wedge approach, which showed that the number of falls and transfers during the post-intervention period can be reduced. Additionally, the model exhibited a stable performance across a variety of subgroups of residents and was discovered to be capable of being calibrated by time batches in a real-world application, which makes the model robust and reproducible (Amiri, 2024; Hoffman et al., 2023).

The relevant variables used in risk prediction were demonstrated by SHAP (Shapley Additive Explanations) explainability analysis. The most common best contributors were sedative medications and recent reductions in mobility and staffing ratios (Peng, 2025). The SHAP visualizations assisted the nursing staff in visualizing how some characteristics of residents would translate to prediction, hence facilitating transparent decision support. The fairness audit on the model through the demographic parity and the equalized odds fairness audits led to the model producing equal predictions across all age groups, gender groups, and ethnic groups. The statistical parity differences amounted to less than 5%, which is the indicator that the classification results had slight bias (Merhi, 2022; Khan, 2025). These results demonstrated that algorithmic fairness and interpretability might be applied simultaneously with predictive accuracy, which is often challenging to obtain in clinical AI systems.

The clinical application of the model led to measurable changes in preventable falls and unplanned transfers, which align with the

approximated outcomes of responsible AI application in geriatric practice. A 22-percent fall rate per 1,000 resident days and a 15-percent 30-day readmission rate were also observed in the facilities that were part of the rollout of the stepped-wedge (Hoffman et al., 2023; Fernandes et al., 2024). According to the nurses, the dashboard interface with real-time risk information and a contextual explanation helped them feel more confident and efficient in decision-making (Price, 2021). The workload was also more efficiently allocated in accordance with the operational data because the staff could devote more attention to the residents demonstrating high-level risk indicators. The network of integrating the EHR and the operational prompts also enhanced situational awareness of the charge nurses so that the provision of care could be delivered proactively and not reactively (Aixmu et al., 2025).

V. DISCUSSION

The findings demonstrated that a combination of structured and unstructured data was crucial in promoting the degree of prediction and clinical comprehension. The obtained AUC over 0.85 made the pipeline one of the most successful in geriatric safety prediction, which means that the integration of nurse notes and staffing data allowed expanding the model inputs to a considerable extent. These findings resonated with the thesis, which states that AI-aided risk prediction is a complement to, yet not a replacement of, clinical judgment, which provided a data-informed overlay of control that can be used to aid in prioritization of care in resource-constrained settings. The explainability mechanism that uses the SHAP provided further that the responsible AI design could generate increased clinical trust, rendering the predictions practical and ethically viable.

It was the first project that was innovative in the field of predictive risk models as opposed to the earlier ones, which predominantly depended on physiological data or the basic health indicators (Spaeder et al., 2015; Cameron et al., 2018). Historical paradigms lacked transparency and were prone to discrimination of the underrepresented groups. On the other hand, the ethical consideration metrics, such as bias testing and interpretability checks, could be added to performance metrics, which were obtained by the responsible AI system applied in this case (Kalu-Mba et al., 2025; Peng, 2025). This adherence to new expectations of

clarifiable and just AI affirmed the applicability of the multidimensional model testing in healthcare.

Organizational preparedness and employee involvement were important in implementation issues, and thus, the model was successful. Direct training on how to use the dashboard resulted in nurses and care coordinators actively integrating AI-generated alerts into their day-to-day process and having a higher adoption and sustained performance rate. The participatory design process also instilled confidence in the system that was critical in decreasing opposition to system automation in the clinical units. Similar human considerations were reflected by the outcomes of the research conducted by Owot et al. (2024), who indicated that the primary factor of AI implementation in healthcare facilities is the confidence of clinicians and their perceived utility.

Despite its effectiveness, several limitations could be noted. The dataset was only based on one institution, which may not have given the extent of the generalizability of the findings in different care environments and populations (Fernandes et al., 2024). The inaccuracy of NLP feature extraction was also occasionally affected by a lack of information and disparity in documentation of the nurse notes (Wolfe et al., 2018). In addition, the fairness audits minimized quantifiable bias, yet there were qualitative differences in documentation practices, which could lead to the hidden disparities. The problem of human adoption also was not resolved since not all the nursing staff was eager to accept AI recommendations, and the tendency is the reflection of deeper sociotechnical barriers to healthcare innovation (Owot et al., 2024).

Through the project, empirical data was provided that responsible AI models can make a positive impact on patient safety in elderly care without necessarily compromising equity and transparency. Fairness auditing and explainability with increased ethical compliance, however, also allowed clinical trust and practical implementation. The validation of multi-institutional datasets, refurbishing NLP tools to enhance perception of the situation of a nurse narrative, and adaptive responses of retraining the model should be prioritized in future studies. Such guidelines would allow predictive AI systems in healthcare to be relevant, grow, and be reliable in the future.

VI. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The project offered the first integrated and ethically audited artificial intelligence pipeline to predict undesirable incidents, including falls and unplanned transfers in elderly care facilities. Through multi-source integration of electronic health record data, nurse notes, and staffing metrics into a single analytical tool, the study reflected how multi-source integration would improve the predictive quality and the applicability of operations. The pipeline successfully closed the divide between clinical data science and feasible caregiving processes and reached the degree of interpretability and fairness that qualifies responsible AI in healthcare (Amiri, 2024; Peng, 2025). By doing so, not only did it confirm the technical viability of AI-based fall and transfer prediction, but it also developed a repeatable template to be used in subsequent implementations in a similar healthcare setting. Additionally, the project showed that explainable dashboards can be used to empower frontline nursing personnel to make informed and proactive choices. The design of the dashboard enabled charge nurses to see risk pathways in real time, encouraging interventions to be undertaken early before accidents happened (Price, 2021). This real-time connection of predictive analytics to routine clinical activities promoted situational awareness, better coordinated the workforce, and helped achieve specific preventive approaches. The results also showed that AI-based systems could become effective partners of human knowledge, and thus the level of patient safety programs in senior care could be improved. Furthermore, the approach would guarantee a fairness audit and interpretability, which ensured that efficiency gains would not occur to the detriment of ethical responsibility and trustworthiness (Aixmu et al., 2025).

Future studies ought to expand this study into other data modalities, including motion sensors and video analytics, to detect the real-time mobility and fall risk indicators (Chang et al., 2024). Such multi-institutional partnerships would allow wider validation and fairness auditing of the model in a variety of demographic and clinical settings and enhance the ethical and statistical credibility of the model (Khan, 2025). The adaptive learning systems in which models are reinvented with new data inputs are another promising direction that ensures that predictive performance changes with the change in

care practices and population characteristics (Matenga et al., 2025; Musemwa et al., 2025). These expansions will contribute to the establishment of the base with the sustainable, responsible, and scalable AI solutions that could change the area of patient safety and efficiency of operations within the senior care settings.

REFERENCE

- [1] Adesokan-Imran, T.O., Popoola, A.D., Ejiofor, V.O., Salako, A.O. and Onyenaucheya, O.S., 2025. Predictive cybersecurity risk modeling in healthcare by leveraging AI and machine learning for proactive threat detection. *Journal of Engineering Research and Reports*, 27(4), pp.144-165.
- [2] Amiri, Z. (2024). Leveraging AI-Enabled Information Systems for Healthcare Management. *Journal of Computer Information Systems*, pp.1–28. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/08874417.2024.2414216>.
- [3] Aror, E. and Mupa, M.N., 2025. Family Law and the Best Interests of the Child Standard Developing: Incorporating the Mental Health, Cultural History and the Voice of the Child in Custody Determinations.
- [4] Aximu, N., Yimingniyazi, B., Lin, D., Zhang, J., Jiang, M. and Sun, Y. (2025). Human resources in long-term care for older adults in China: Challenges amid population aging. *BioScience Trends*. doi:<https://doi.org/10.5582/bst.2025.01155>.
- [5] Cameron, I.D., Dyer, S.M., Panagoda, C.E., Murray, G.R., Hill, K.D., Cumming, R.G. and Kerse, N. (2018). Interventions for preventing falls in older people in care facilities and hospitals. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*, [online] 9(9). doi:<https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.cd005465.pub4>.
- [6] Chang, S.O., Choi, Y.R., Kim, D. and Lee, Y.N., 2024. Empowering Palliative Wound Care in Long-Term Care Facilities: A Comprehensive Nursing Competency for Palliative Wound Care. *Journal of Korean Academy of Fundamentals of Nursing*, 31(4).
- [7] Dewasiri, N.J., Dharmarathna, D.G. and Choudhary, M., 2024. Leveraging artificial intelligence for enhanced risk management in banking: A systematic literature

- review. *Artificial intelligence enabled management: An emerging economy perspective*, pp.197-213.\
- [8] Fernandes, S., Bula, C., Krief, H., Carron, P.-N. and Seematter-Bagnoud, L. (2024). Unplanned transfer to acute care during inpatient geriatric rehabilitation: incidence, risk factors, and associated short-term outcomes. *BMC Geriatrics*, [online] 24(1). doi:<https://doi.org/10.1186/s12877-024-05081-3>.
- [9] Gunzo, L.T., Mupa, M.N., Nemure, T., Muchenje, J.D. and Ndlovu, N.T., 2025a. Forecasting Feeder-Level Outages with Hybrid Time-Series/ML Models: Accuracy, Explainability, and Maintenance Prioritization. management (Soumbara, 2025; Ezugwu, 2025), 35, p.10.
- [10] Gunzo, L.T., Nemure, T., Mupa, M.N. and Muchenje, J.D., 2025b. Deepfake-Resistant Telehealth: Multi-Factor Voice-Face-Contextive Verification Under Real-Time Constraints.
- [11] Hoffman, G.J., Alexander, N.B., Ha, J.J., Nguyễn, T. and Min, L. (2023). Medicare's Hospital Readmission Reduction Program reduced fall-related health care use: An unexpected benefit? *Health Services Research*. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/1475-6773.14246>.
- [12] Hoviari, M.A., Azhary, A., Trisnadi, M.A., Arian, N.I., Adistia, F.C., Gifari, F.T. and Amanda, T. (2025). AI-Driven Rig Performance Optimization for Proactive Risk Management in Drilling and Workover Operations. *SPE/IATMI Asia Pacific Oil & Gas Conference and Exhibition*. [online] doi:<https://doi.org/10.2118/226399-ms>.
- [13] Islam, M. (2024). *AI-Driven Strategic Insights: Enhancing Decision-Making Processes in Business Development*. [online] Philpapers.org. Available at: <https://philpapers.org/rec/RAFASI>.
- [14] Kalu-Mba, N.N.A.N.N.A., Mupa, M.N. and Tafirenyika, S., 2025. Artificial Intelligence as a Catalyst for Innovation in the Public Sector: Opportunities, Risks, and Policy Imperatives.
- [15] Khan, A. (2025). Ensuring Ethical and Responsible Use of Artificial Intelligence. *Journal of Computer Science and Technology Studies*, 7(5), pp.376–385. doi:<https://doi.org/10.32996/jcsts.2025.7.5.47>.
- [16] Le, N., Han, S., Kenawy, A.S., Kim, Y. and Park, C. (2025). Machine Learning-Based Prediction of Unplanned Readmission Due to Major Adverse Cardiac Events Among Hospitalized Patients with Blood Cancers. *Cancer Control*, 32. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/10732748251332803>.
- [17] Luo, Y., Ran, H., Deng, Y., Li, H., Zhang, M. and Zhao, L. (2023). Paid caregivers' experiences of falls prevention and care in China's senior care facilities: A phenomenological study. *Frontiers in Public Health*, 11. doi:<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2023.973827>.
- [18] Matenga, H.R., Mupa, M.N., Batsirai, O., Musemwa, P.S.M. and Merit, M.W., 2025. Renewable Energy Integration and Smart Grid Optimization Using Mechatronics and Artificial Intelligence.
- [19] Merhi, M.I. (2022). An Assessment of the Barriers Impacting Responsible Artificial Intelligence. *Information Systems Frontiers*. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10796-022-10276-3>.
- [20] Muchenje, J.D., Mupa, M.N., Mupa, M.W.M., Nayo, D. and Homwe, T., 2025a. Datacenter microgrids: Cost-Emissions-Reliability Frontier Across US RTOs.
- [21] Muchenje, J.D., Mupa, M.N., Nayo, D. and Homwe, T., 2025b. Actuarial-ML Bridges for Catastrophe Loss Mitigation: Translating Grid Reliability.
- [22] Musemwa, O.B., Mupa, M.W.M., Mupa, M.N. and Tsambatar, T.E., 2025. Wireless Communication Networks for Educational Technology Access: A Rural and Urban Comparative Analysis.
- [23] Nkomo, N. and Mupa, M.N., 2024. Marketing Return On Investment: A Comparative Study of Traditional and Modern Models.
- [24] Okuyucu, K. (2025). Enhancing patient safety: identifying fall risks during patient transfers in operating rooms. *BMC Health Services Research*, [online] 25(1). doi:<https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-025-12750-5>.
- [25] Owot, J.A., Imohiosen, C.E., Ukpo, S.D. and Ajuluchukwu, P. (2024). Tailored Spiritual Support for the Aging Population: Developing a Model for Religious Counseling in Long-Term Care Facilities. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Growth Evaluation*, 5(6), pp.1548–1557.

- doi:<https://doi.org/10.54660/ijmrge.2024.5.6.1548-1557>.
- [26] Ozobu, C., Adikwu, F., Odujobi, O., Onyekwe, F., Nwulu, E. and Daraojimba, A. (2023). Leveraging AI and Machine Learning to Predict Occupational Diseases: A Conceptual Framework for Proactive Health Risk Management in High-Risk Industries. [online] doi:<https://doi.org/10.54660/IJMRGE.2023.4.1.928-938>.
- [27] Patel, A., Khawaja, S., Dang, T. and Ranasinghe, I. (2025). Incidence, timing and variation in unplanned readmissions within 30-days following isolated coronary artery bypass grafting. *IJC Heart & Vasculture*, 56, p.101552. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijcha.2024.101552>.
- [28] Peng, L., 2025. *Towards Robust and Reliable Artificial Intelligence in Healthcare* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota).
- [29] Price, D. (2021). Natural Language Processing to support Nurse-to-Patient allocation in acute care. *Unisq.edu.au*. [online] doi:https://sear.unisq.edu.au/51826/3/PRICE%20Daniel%20dissertation_redacted.pdf.
- [30] Sena, E.V., Syed, Z.A. and Mupa, M.N., 2024. The Impact of Integrating Mental health Services into Primary Care on Health Care Outcomes.
- [31] Spaeder, M., Stockwell, D. and Miles, A. (2015). Unplanned ICU Transfers from Inpatient Units: Examining the Prevalence and Preventability of Adverse Events Associated with ICU Transfer in Pediatrics. *Journal of Pediatric Intensive Care*, 05(01), pp.021–027. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0035-1568150>.
- [32] Thienthanukit, W., Jindarat, T., Laethaisong, N., Kongkapetchawan, P., Tiamdao, N., Wanwilairat, S., Thanajaro, T., Arayatanon, U., Choosuwan, N. and Lawrattanachaiyong, J. (2025). Predictive HSE: A Proactive Risk Mitigation Model for Enhanced Operational Safety. *SPE Annual Technical Conference and Exhibition*. [online] doi:<https://doi.org/10.2118/228084-ms>.
- [33] Upadhyaya, N., Joshi, H. and Agrawal, C. (2024). Examining NLP for Smarter, Data-Driven Healthcare Solutions. *Advances in medical technologies and clinical practice book series*, [online] pp.393–420. doi:<https://doi.org/10.4018/979-8-3693-8990-4.ch017>.
- [34] Wolfe, D., Yazdi, F., Kanji, S., Burry, L., Beck, A., Butler, C., Esmailisaraaji, L., Hamel, C., Hersi, M., Skidmore, B., Moher, D. and Hutton, B. (2018). Incidence, causes, and consequences of preventable adverse drug reactions occurring in inpatients: A systematic review of systematic reviews. *PLOS ONE*, 13(10), p.e0205426. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0205426>.
- [35] Zhang, N., Xue, Z., Xu, B., Zhou, S., Chen, J., Chen, X. and Wei, X. (2025). Incidence and risk factors for unplanned intensive care unit transfer from the postanesthesia care unit: a propensity score-matched analysis. [online] doi:<https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-6770408/v1>.