

Patient-Ventilator Interaction using Autoencoder derived Magnitude of Asynchrony Breathing

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Abstract: The occurrence of asynchronous breathing (AB) is prevalent during mechanical ventilation (MV) treatment. Despite studies being carried out to elucidate the impact of AB on MV patients, the asynchrony index (*AI*), a metric to describe the patient-ventilator interaction, may not be sufficient to quantify the severity of each AB fully in MV patients. This research investigates the feasibility of using a machine learning-derived metric, the ventilator interaction index (*VI*), to describe a patient's interaction with a mechanical ventilator. *VI* is derived using the magnitude of a breath's asynchrony to measure how well a patient is interacting with the ventilator. 1,188 hours of hourly *AI* and *VI* for 13 MV patients were computed using a convolution neural network and an autoencoder. Pearson's correlation analysis between patients' *AI* and *VI* versus their levels of partial pressure oxygen (PaO_2) and partial pressure of carbon dioxide (PaCO_2) was carried out. In this patient cohort, the patients' median *AI* is 38.4% [Interquartile range (IQR): 25.9-48.8], and the median *VI* is 86.0% [IQR: 76.5-91.7]. Results show that high *AI* does not necessarily predispose to low *VI*. This difference suggests that every AB poses a different magnitude of asynchrony that may affect patient's PaO_2 and PaCO_2 . Quantifying hourly *VI* along with *AI* during MV could be beneficial in explicating the aetiology of AB.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Asynchronous breathing (AB) is a spontaneous event during mechanical ventilation (MV) treatment. AB often occurs when there is a mismatch between ventilatory support with the patient's demand (Moorhead et al., 2013, Mellott et al., 2014). Different phenotypes of AB can be caused by patient-related factors such as excessive patient respiratory effort or inadequate MV settings (de Haro et al., 2019). Frequent occurrence of AB may predispose patients to adverse outcomes (Epstein, 2011, Blanch et al., 2015). However, the implementation of monitoring tools to automatically classify and quantify AB is still limited. This limitation obscures the elucidation of the aetiology and the impact of AB on patient outcomes (Georgopoulos et al., 2006, Dres et al., 2016). Therefore, multiple efforts using machine learning algorithms or models have been proposed for automated AB detection (Loo et al., 2018, Chatburn and Mireles-Cabodevila, 2020, Gutierrez, 2020, Zhang et al., 2020, Rehm et al., 2020).

The asynchrony index (*AI*) is a metric commonly applied in a clinical setting to assess patient-ventilator interaction (PVI) by determining the frequency of AB occurrence within a breathing period (de Wit et al., 2009b). While the relationship between *AI* and patient outcomes has been investigated (Thille et al., 2006, de Wit et al., 2009b, de Wit et al., 2009a, Blanch et al., 2015, Rué et al., 2017), the actual impact of AB on a patient's condition remains uncertain. For example, Blanch et

al. and Martos-Benítez et al. found that severe AB occurrence ($AI > 10\%$) is associated with high mortality and lower $\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2$ ratio (Blanch et al., 2015, Martos-Benítez et al., 2020). However, a study by Rolland et al. found that severe AB occurrence is not associated with adverse outcomes (Rolland-Debord et al., 2017). Such contradiction may suggest that counting *AI* alone may not be able to fully reflect the actual impact of AB.

We hypothesise that the magnitude of patient effort induced in AB might play a deterministic role in affecting the patient's outcome. Chiew et al. proposed the idea of measuring the magnitude of patient effort induced in AB by reconstructing it to a presumably normal breathing cycle (Chiew et al., 2018b). This enables the magnitude of AB quantification by computing the differences between an AB versus a presumably normal breathing cycle (Kannangara et al., 2016, Chiew et al., 2018b, Arunachalam et al., 2020, Damanhuri et al., 2016, Loo et al., 2021, Ang et al., 2022).

In this study, we investigate the feasibility of a metric, a ventilator interaction index (*VI*) derived using a machine learning autoencoder with a focus placed on inspiratory airflow and triggering-based asynchrony. *VI* describes a patient's 'receptivity' to ventilatory support by measuring the asynchrony 'element' in each AB. The *VI* aims to quantify how well a patient interacts with the ventilator with consideration of the severity of AB during MV treatment. A study comparing

the relationship between the AI and VI metrics with the patient's arterial partial pressure oxygen (PaO_2) and carbon dioxide ($PaCO_2$) level is also carried out.

2. METHODS

2.1 Patients

13 mechanically ventilated respiratory failure patients from an observational trial were included in this study (Chiew et al., 2018a). The patients were ventilated using Puritan Bennet 980 ventilators, with synchronous intermittent mandatory ventilation (SIMV) volume-controlled (VC) mode. The ventilator waveform data were collected using the CURE data acquisition system (Szlavec et al., 2014, Davidson et al., 2014). The patient's information, such as sex, age, APACHE II score, SOFA score and arterial blood gases (PaO_2 and $PaCO_2$) were collected. Informed consent was obtained from family members of patients. The study was approved by the International Islamic University Malaysia, Research Ethics Committee (IREC) with the approval number IREC666.

2.2 Asynchronous and Ventilator-Interaction Index (VI)

This work analyses inspiratory airflow asynchrony which is characterised by strong patient inspiratory effort due to insufficient inspiratory airflow provided by the ventilator and also triggering-based AB (de Haro et al., 2019, Loo et al., 2021). Triggering-based AB are classified into: early, reverse, and late triggering, all described by negative inflections on the airway pressure waveform due to patient inspiratory effort. The asynchrony index (AI) is computed using a deep learning (DL) algorithm (convolutional neural network) (Loo et al., 2018). The patient's hourly AI is computed using (1):

$$AI = \frac{\text{Number of AB in an hour}}{\text{Total breathing cycle in an hour}} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

The AI effectively describes the prevalence of asynchronous events as a percentage of the total breaths in an hour. The magnitude of an AB is obtained using a convolutional autoencoder (CAE) proposed by Loo et al. (Loo et al., 2021). The method of computing the magnitude of asynchrony, M_{asyn} is shown in Fig. 1. The calculation is shown in (2) (Chiew et al., 2018b):

$$M_{asyn} = \frac{|AUC_{Rec} - AUC_{Asyn}|}{AUC_{Rec}} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

where AUC_{Rec} and AUC_{Asyn} are the area under the curve of the reconstructed and original AB airway pressure waveform respectively. The area difference between AUC_{Rec} and AUC_{Asyn} as shown in Fig. 1a (shaded black area) defined as M_{asyn} . A larger shaded area or higher M_{asyn} indicates more 'severe' asynchrony.

The proposed ventilator-interaction index (VI) is a metric aimed at measuring how well a patient interacts with the ventilator with consideration of AB 'severity' during MV. A higher VI indicates better PVI and less asynchrony. From (2), the hourly VI can be calculated using (3) as the average percentage of how well a patient interacts with the ventilator.

$$VI = \frac{\sum(100\% - M_{asyn})}{\text{Total breathing cycle in an Hour}} \quad (3)$$

The calculation of M_{asyn} and subsequently VI requires for AUC_{Rec} to be determined. However, given an asynchronous patient breath, it would not be possible to know the true "asynchrony-free" breath. Thus, DL models trained with sufficient data can reconstruct these "asynchrony-free" breaths for the calculation of M_{asyn} in an automated process.

Pearson's correlation test was carried out between AI and VI to determine the relationship between these two metrics. As AB can disrupt the normal breathing process and lead to haemodynamic disturbances, therefore it is possible that large asynchrony magnitudes and prevalence (described by M_{asyn} and VI respectively) may affect the balance of arterial blood gases. Therefore, Pearson's correlation test was also performed between AI , VI with PaO_2 and $PaCO_2$ to determine if either AI or VI can directly reflect the patient's condition during MV. All statistical analyses in this study were performed using MATLAB 2017b (Natick, MA).

3. RESULTS

Fig. 1 depicts an example of computing M_{asyn} . Fig. 2 (a)-(c) shows 5 consecutive breathing cycles experienced in a patient sample. The shaded black region indicates the magnitude of the breathing cycle encapsulated by the reconstructed airway profile. Fig. 2 (a)-(c) shows that different AB may impose dissimilar magnitudes of AB. Fig. 2 (d)-(f) shows three patient samples (Patient P1, P10 and P13) experiencing different AB magnitudes.

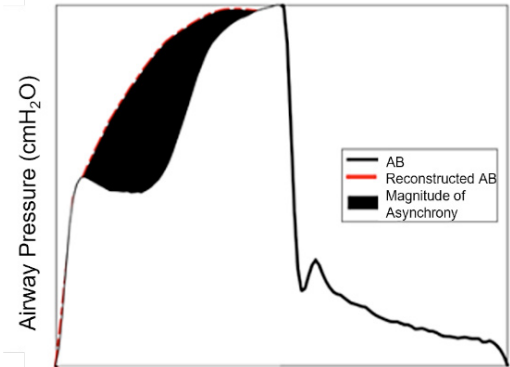


Fig 1. An example of how to compute the M_{asyn} for a breath. The area under the curve between the reconstructed AB-free and AB (shaded black) waveform is the magnitude of AB.

Table 1 summarises the patient's demographics, and Table 2 shows the patient's AI and VI . 11 of 13 patients were mechanically ventilated due to pneumonia. The MV patients' median [interquartile range (IQR)] AI and VI are 38.4% [25.9–48.8] and 86.0% [76.5–91.7] respectively. The range of AI is wider compared to the VI range. Fig. 3 shows a scatter plot of VI versus AI for this patient cohort. A Pearson's coefficient of correlation $R = -0.34$ was found between VI and AI , indicating a weak negative relationship between these two metrics. The result is expected as VI is opposed to AI , as a measure of how well a patient interacts with the ventilator. Table 3 shows the correlation coefficient, R of AI and VI when tested against PaO_2 and $PaCO_2$. A positive correlation ($R > 0$) between VI and PaO_2 together with a negative correlation ($R < 0$) $PaCO_2$ may

suggest a good PVI which leads to improved patient oxygenation and carbon dioxide expulsion.

As shown in **Table 3**, a total of 6 patients (Patients P4-7, P11 and P12) exhibited this aforementioned trend, whereas only

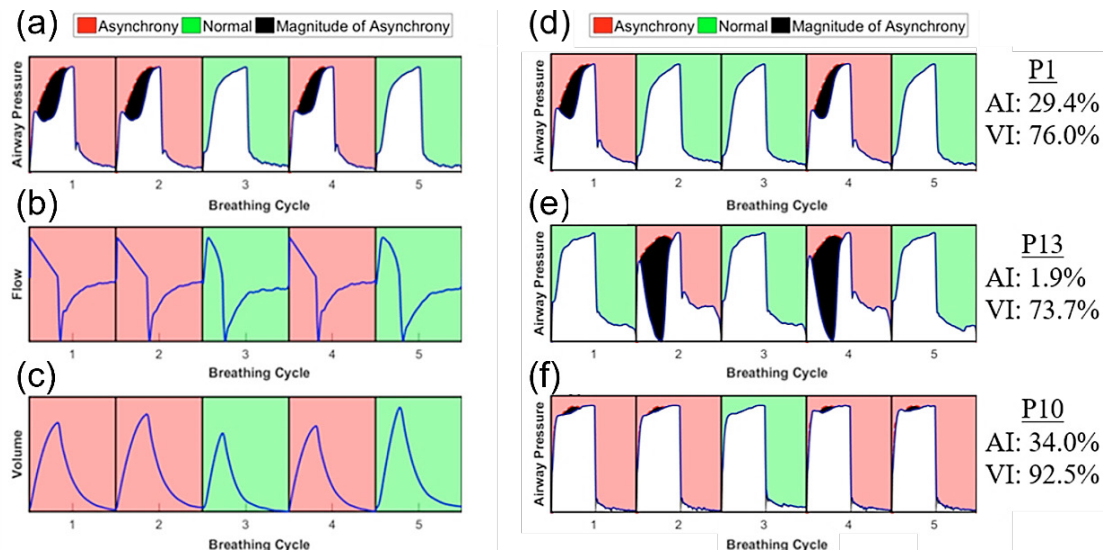


Fig 2. (a)-(c) shows 5 consecutive breathing cycles, where (a), (b) and (c) are the airway pressure, flow and volume waveforms respectively. AB and normal breathing cycles are shaded red and green respectively. Figures (d), (e) and (f) shows samples of patients' AI and VI for 5 breathing cycles in three different patients (P1, P10 and P13). The AI and VI are values throughout the treatment duration. (a) Patient P1 had AI of 50% with average M_{asyn} of 14.78% and VI of 85.23%. P1 achieved a median AI of 29.4% and median VI of 76.0% throughout the treatment. (b) Patient P13 experienced AI of 50% with average M_{asyn} of 46.26% and VI of 53.73. Although P13 attained the lowest AI among the three patients with only 1.9%, P13 also experienced the lowest VI with 73.7% during treatment. (c) Patient P10 experienced AI of 90% with average M_{asyn} of only 3.45% and VI of 96.66%. Overall, P10 achieved a median AI of 34.0% with 92.5% VI throughout the treatment.

Table 1: Summary of Patients' Demographic

Patient No.	Age	Sex	Clinical Diagnosis	APACHE II	SOFA	Initial P/F Ratio	MV Mode
P1	43	F	Thyroid Carcinoma	6	1	150	SIMV
P2	54	M	Pneumonia	21	6	202	SIMV
P3	64	M	HAP	22	16	238	SIMV
P4	63	F	Klebsiella Sepsis	25	10	146	SIMV
P5	64	F	Pneumonia	14	4	117	SIMV
P6	48	M	CAP	18	6	128	SIMV
P7	53	M	HAP	10	7	133	SIMV
P8	34	F	Pneumonia	15	4	155	SIMV
P9	43	M	Acute Pancreatitis	14	1	157	SIMV
P10	61	F	Right Lobar Pneumonia	14	10	92	SIMV
P11	48	M	CAP	31	11	350	SIMV
P12	66	M	HAP	16	9	119	SIMV
P13	53	M	HAP	4	3	246	SIMV

Table 2: Summary of Patient AI and VI

Patient No.	MV Hours	No. of BC	PaO ₂ (mmHg)	PaCO ₂ (mmHg)	AI (%)	VI (%)
P1	168	270,580	89.4 [81.2-93.6]	38.4 [32.9-41.0]	29.4 [3.6-42.9]	76.0 [70.0-81.0]
P2	59	61,785	95.7 [81.5-153.5]	43.2 [40.4-46.1]	64.5 [25.0-93.8]	88.5 [78.1-98.7]
P3	20	21,286	133.0 [130.8-142.8]	31.3 [30.0-34.1]	26.1 [19.3-53.3]	91.4 [83.8-94.5]
P4	139	152,464	175.0 [141.5-186.3]	38.8 [31.0-41.6]	38.4 [24.6-49.8]	89.5 [84.6-97.1]
P5	34	38,865	92.2 [79.7-126.0]	32.0 [31.4-34.3]	45.8 [40.8-58.4]	76.6 [63.3-85.9]
P6	35	36,566	95.8 [87.9-109.0]	44.9 [42.3-45.4]	74.2 [58.4-87.6]	75.4 [74.6-77.4]
P7	49	38,908	107.0 [103.0-130.8]	47.1 [45.9-48.3]	25.3 [4.5-44.4]	92.7 [87.3-99.4]
P8	112	120,172	86.7 [73.3-95.1]	37.9 [36.7-40.7]	41.4 [5.4-60.6]	86.0 [82.5-93.4]
P9	42	52,960	117.0 [103.0-130.8]	36.4 [34.2-37.3]	40.3 [9.0-56.5]	83.7 [71.0-87.6]
P10	64	62,145	65.9 [61.4-79.5]	63.1 [58.6-85.7]	34.0 [6-65.9]	92.5 [78.2-97.4]
P11	303	368,689	76.8 [66.5-110.0]	34.4 [26.2-38.8]	57.7 [45.3-68.0]	82.1 [52.7-93.0]
P12	114	149,158	82.1 [76.2-91.0]	46.2 [46.2-49.1]	14.2 [1.0-36.8]	97.0 [94.4-98.6]
P13	49	56,227	89.1 [80.5-132.5]	39.6 [37.7-41.2]	1.9 [0.9-3.3]	73.7 [68.2-83.6]
			95.7 [85.6-109.5]	38.8 [35.9-45.2]	38.4 [25.9-48.8]	86.0 [76.5-91.7]

*APACHE II – Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation II; BC – Breathing Cycle; BiPAP – Bilevel Positive Airway Pressure; CAP – Community-Acquired Pneumonia; HAP – Hospital Acquired Pneumonia; IQR – Interquartile Range; SIMV – Synchronized Intermittent-Mandatory Ventilation; SOFA – Sequential Organ Failure Assessment; SPONT – Spontaneous Breathing; SVC – Superior Vena Cava

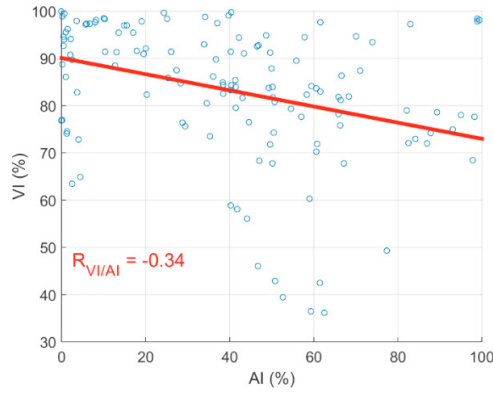


Fig 3. Patients' VI versus AI scatter plot.

As shown in **Table 3**, a total of 6 patients (Patients P4-7, P11 and P12) exhibited this aforementioned trend, whereas only one patient (Patient P1) showed the opposite trend. The rest of the patients manifested a mixed coefficient of correlation in VI versus PaO_2 and VI versus $PaCO_2$. **Fig. 4** depicts the trend of VI and AI metrics versus all 13 patients' PaO_2 and $PaCO_2$. The result shows that, in general, AI indicated a negative trend. As AI increases, the $PaCO_2$ decreases and vice versa with AI versus PaO_2 . However, VI showed a positive trend when assessing both $PaCO_2$ and PaO_2 .

4. DISCUSSION

A CAE model trained with 400,000 unique AB-NB (normal breath) pairs is used to quantify the M_{asyn} (Loo et al., 2021). The CAE model receives an AB waveform as an input (**Fig. 1** black line) and reconstructs/ predicts the AB-free pressure waveform (**Fig. 1** red line), subsequently determining M_{asyn} (**Fig. 1** shaded area).

We found that AB occurrence is prevalent among this patient cohort with a median AI of 38.4% [IQR: 25.9-48.8], consistent with literature-reported values where $AI > 10\%$ in several patients (Vignaux et al., 2009, Mellott et al., 2014, Rolland-Debord et al., 2017). However, the proposed VI is also high, with a median of 86.0% [IQR: 76.5-91.7]. In one instance, an AI of $> 90.0\%$ within an hour was observed, but the VI is equally high at 98.2%. This high AI could indicate that patient AB was common, but M_{asyn} was low most of the time. In other words, the patient's resistance to ventilator support is minimal, possibly due to the mismatch between the MV supply and patient demand. However, the M_{asyn} is insufficient to deform the patient's airway waveform, a marker of asynchrony incidence (Yoshida et al., 2018, Baedorf Kassis et al., 2021).

A Pearson's coefficient of correlation $R = -0.34$ was observed between VI and AI , suggesting that as AI increases, the VI decreases. However, not all high hourly AI lead to lower VI because VI also accounts for breath-specific M_{asyn} . This is illustrated in **Fig. 2(f)**, where patient P10 experienced frequent occurrence of AB, but M_{asyn} was minimal at 3.45%; whereas Patient P2 experienced a less prevalent AB but exhibited an average M_{asyn} of 46.26%. This result shows that measuring AI alone may be insufficient to assess PVI, and it is important to quantify the 'severity' of each asynchrony.

A high VI suggests that patients are receptive to ventilatory support, with lesser occurrences of 'severe' AB, however it does not truly reflect the patient's condition in several cases. Confounding factors such as patient condition, level of MV support, MV settings and sedation may influence the quality of MV treatment (Blackwood et al., 2006, Guo et al., 2018, Aragón et al., 2019). We speculate that high VI indicates good PVI and should predispose the patient to high PaO_2 and low $PaCO_2$ during treatment, but **Fig. 4** shows otherwise. However, it is important to note that PaO_2 and $PaCO_2$ measurements are intermittent and based on clinical decision or need (**Table 3**), and thus may not indicate real-time patient

Table 3 Pearson's Correlation Coefficient when testing AI or VI with PaO_2 or $PaCO_2$

Patient No.	No. of ABG Data	VI		AI	
		PaO_2 R-value	$PaCO_2$ R-value	PaO_2 R-value	$PaCO_2$ R-value
P1 ⁺	13	-0.48	0.18	0.44	-0.17
P2	4	-0.56	-0.05	0.64	0.24
P3	3	0.41	0.91	-0.50	-0.85
P4*	15	0.17	-0.57	-0.25	0.57
P5*	4	0.84	-0.25	0.90	0.27
P6*	4	0.65	-1.0	-0.11	-0.36
P7*	7	0.32	-0.52	-0.49	0.32
P8	19	0.16	0.24	0.04	0.23
P9	7	-0.37	-0.04	0.57	0.08
P10	10	0.45	0.56	-0.43	-0.48
P11*	28	0.51	-0.24	0.46	-0.47
P12*	14	0.30	-0.20	-0.47	0.06
P13	4	-0.28	-0.82	0.87	0.96
Median	7	0.30	-0.20	0.04	0.08
IQR	[4-14]	[-0.30-0.47]	[-0.53-0.20]	[-0.44-0.59]	[-0.39-0.28]

Patients with * indicate attaining a positive VI correlation with PaO_2 but a negative correlation with $PaCO_2$. Patients with ⁺ indicate attaining a negative VI correlation with PaO_2 but a positive correlation with $PaCO_2$.

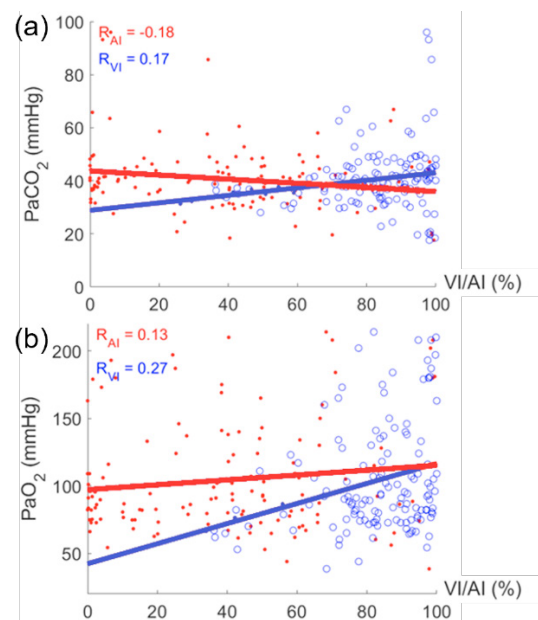


Fig 4. Scatter plots of combined patient's AI (red solid dot) and VI (blue circle) versus $PaCO_2$ (a) and PaO_2 (b). In **Fig (a)** VI shows a positive correlation whereas AI shows a negative correlation. In **Fig (b)**, VI shows a greater correlation of $R_{VI} = 0.27$ (line with steeper gradient) as compared to AI .

responses towards AB. The sporadic measurement frequency of PaO₂ and PaCO₂ may also lead to statistically underpowered results. Hence, further studies are necessary to elucidate the prevalence of AI and VI towards patients' PaO₂ and PaCO₂.

One of the limitations in this study is that VI is currently limited to reconstructing airway pressure asynchronies observed in a VC ventilation mode. The calculation of VI can be extended to include airway flow asynchrony during any form of pressure support or controlled ventilation. One potential method is to calculate M_{asyn} via the difference between a missed tidal volume to their supposed tidal volume, as proposed by Kannangara et al. and Ang et al. (Kannangara et al., 2016, Ang et al., 2022). Besides that, the DL algorithm used is trained with limited and unspecified types of AB data, potentially affecting AB detection and AI calculation performance particularly when presented with cases of AB not within the training dataset (Loo et al., 2018). Furthermore, the CAE model is also limited to the reconstruction of pressure waveforms exhibiting flow starvation or triggering-based AB. Future work warrants the diversification of AB phenotypes within the training dataset while extending application to other MV modes or respiratory waveforms.

Finally, a lack of additional clinical data such as sedation levels which might cause AB occurrence may affect the quality of this study (de Wit et al., 2009b). Further studies are required to relate a VI metric towards assessing the quality of PVI. For example, an observational trial with continuous breath-by-breath airway pressure and flow data of MV patients (Ng et al., 2021, Ng et al., 2022) for quantification of AI and VI, together with an hourly collection of arterial blood gas PaO₂ and PaCO₂ can be carried out for better correlation studies.

5. CONCLUSION

In this study, the automated calculation of AI using machine learning methods has shown the potential to provide additional insight into a patient's response to MV treatment that is previously unavailable. In addition, the feasibility of VI for PVI has been carried out. VI can potentially be used alongside AI to quantify the severity of each asynchronous breathing on top of the frequency of AB occurrence. It could be beneficial in understanding the quality of patient-ventilator interaction in the quest to better manage MV treatment.

6. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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