Recommender System for Alarm Thresholds in Medical Patient Monitors

Denise Schmidt\(^{a}\), Jonas Chromik\(^{b}\) and Bert Arnrich\(^{c}\)
Hasso Plattner Institute, University of Potsdam, Germany

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Abstract: Intensive care unit staff relies on patient monitors to identify critical conditions. The monitors trigger alarms as soon as the patient’s vital parameters deviate from predefined threshold ranges. However, these ranges are usually not adapted to the individual patient. High numbers of false alarms burden clinical staff and pose a major risk to patient safety. We propose a recommender system for threshold values to enable a patient-centered monitoring system. This can reduce false alarms caused by default monitoring settings. We employ CatBoost – a gradient boosting algorithm – to predict blood pressure and heart rate thresholds. We use SHAP values to evaluate the importance of different patient characteristics, diagnoses, or medications. Several patient characteristics show an impact on the model output: Diagnoses, first care unit, vital parameter measurements, and the amount of general anaesthetics are the most important features in all threshold models. The recommendations of our system deviate from the actual thresholds by approximately 3.5 bpm for the heart rate and 4.9 mmHg for the blood pressure thresholds. Blood pressure thresholds have a higher variance which leads to larger errors. However, the underlying data is not very patient-centered and we require better alarm data to further improve threshold recommendation.

1 INTRODUCTION

In the intensive care unit (ICU), patient monitors alert medical staff through audiovisual alarms when the patient’s vital parameters are outside a healthy range. These alarms – called threshold alarms – manifest the most common type of alarms (Drew et al., 2014). However, most of these alarms are not actionable – they have no medical consequence (Schmid et al., 2011; Sendelbach and Funk, 2013). One reason for this is that the healthy range for vital parameters is often defined by default values which are not patient-specific. Medical staff adjusts thresholds manually at their own discretion often lacking good standards (Chambrin, 2001). Manually adjusting thresholds requires time and an accurate assessment of the patient’s current situation.

We try to find out how to automatically recommend patient-specific thresholds rather than relying on default values. Similar research uses supervised machine learning to predict clinical outcomes and therapy characteristics: the duration of mechanical ventilation (Pelter et al., 2020), opioid prescriptions (Suba et al., 2019), mortality (González-Nóvoa et al., 2021), or sepsis (Zhao et al., 2020).

In this paper, we develop a recommender system for automated heart rate and blood pressure alarm thresholds. We create patient-centered features and implement a tree-based supervised machine learning model. We evaluate the feature importance for each model, thereby creating an explainable artificial intelligence. The overall approach aims to be as generic as possible, so that it can be transferred to other vital parameters.

2 MATERIALS

We use semantic networks, machine learning concepts, SHAP values, and the database MIMIC-IV. We use SNOMED-CT and ICD-10 to enrich the MIMIC-IV data with additional medical information. For the machine learning concepts, we focus on the gradient boosting algorithm CatBoost. We then evaluate each feature with SHAP values.
MIMIC-IV. In March 2021, the MIT Laboratory for Computational Physiology published the MIMIC-IV database – the fourth version of its clinical database MIMIC (Johnson et al., 2021). MIMIC-IV is a single-centre database of de-identified health data from patients admitted to the intensive care units at the Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center in Boston (Torres, 2022). MIMIC-IV incorporates patient data from 2008 to 2019 and focuses on data from MetaVision bedside monitors. MIMIC-IV has six modules: Core, hosp, ICU, ED, CXR, and Note. But we are only interested in the first three as these contain data specific to intensive care unit stays. This leaves us with 28 tables that provide a good grasp of the events at the respective intensive care units throughout the eleven years.

SNOMED CT. We use the Clinical Terms section of the Systematized Nomenclature of Medicine (SNOMED CT) to group the substances included in MIMIC-IV according to their effect class. We only consider medications that influence heart rate or blood pressure. The development of SNOMED started in 1965 under the name of Systemized Nomenclature of Pathology (SNOP). The College of American Pathologists (CAP) published the nomenclature to describe morphology and anatomy. SNOP has been steadily expanded and spread internationally. SNOMED CT was created in 2002 by standardizing several previous variants and is now used in over 50 countries (NIH, 2022).

ICD-10. Diagnoses recorded in MIMIC-IV are coded using the International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems (ICD). The World Health Organization (WHO) publishes the ICD and continues to develop it (WHO, 2022). It is the international standard for the classification and uniform naming of diseases. We use ICD chapters to group similar individual diagnoses together, thus creating new features.

CatBoost. Categorical Boosting (CatBoost) is an open-source algorithm announced in 2017 by the company Yandex (CatBoost, 2017). Like many other popular gradient boosting algorithms, CatBoost builds on binary, symmetric decision trees as base predictors (Prokhorenkova et al., 2017). As opposed to other gradient boosting algorithms like XGBoost (Chen and Guestrin, 2016) or LightGBM (Ke et al., 2017), CatBoost can cope with categorical features during the training process and does not require previous feature encoding. Besides the advantage of categorical features, CatBoost outperforms comparable algorithms in several other studies (Zhao et al., 2020) (Kong et al., 2020) (Yu et al., 2020) and shows a faster learning speed for GPU and CPU implementation (Dorogush et al., 2018). CatBoost’s ordered boosting differs from other gradient boosting algorithms by using and new schema to calculate the leaf values of a decision tree. This new schema aims to further reduce over-fitting. Classic boosting calculates the average of all gradients within a leaf to provide a prediction value. Thereby it considers all objects within the training dataset at once, leaking information about later appearing objects. CatBoost prevents that leakage by creating models that were trained only on previous records within the training set.

SHAP. Shapley Additive Explanation (SHAP) values are based on Shapley values established in 1953 by Lyod Shapley (Shapley, 1953). Initially, Shapley values originated from game theory. They explain the contribution of a single player within a coalition to an output. Lundberg and Lee applied this concept to explain machine learning models and published the SHAP algorithm in 2017 (Lundberg and Lee, 2017). They replaced the idea of the player with a feature to answer the question of how much an individual feature contributes to the output of a model. SHAP values are model agnostic and can be used on every kind of machine learning model. Lundberg and Lee provide several specific explainers for different models.

3 METHODS

To create a threshold recommender system based on the MIMIC-IV data, we follow the approach for data science projects by McIlwrath et al., 2016). The process is adapted for machine learning and based on the steps of Fry (Fry, 2004).

The first step is to acquire the data. In this project, MIMIC-IV serves as the main data source, enriched by additional external data such as SNOMED CT. In the next step, the collected data needs to be parsed and cleaned. We discuss the application of this step in more detail in the following paragraphs on static and transactional patient data. We explore and examine the cleaned data to gain initial insights and we prepare machine learning models by extracting features from the data. In this step of the process, it is advantageous to rely on existing domain knowledge to bring already-known information into the data. In this project, this is achieved by using SNOMED CT to map very low-level substance information to medication classes. After feature engineering, we create and...
train several CatBoost models which we outline in the paragraph on the automation of thresholds. The last step of the process is evaluating the models. We apply the mean absolute error and SHAP values for the model evaluation. In the following, we briefly outline the steps taken to parse and clean the data, create additional features and configure the models.

**Static Patient Data.** Static patient data are all patient-related data that do not change during the stay at the intensive care unit. These information are to be found in the MIMIC-IV tables `patients`, `admissions`, `diagnoses_icd`, `d_diagnoses_icd`, and `icustays`. We focus on the following attributes: gender, ethnicity, age at intake, and the three ICD codes with the highest priority. The age at intake and the ICD codes require additional transformations. We pivot the diagnoses data in order to retrieve one set of features per stay. The attribute selection is based on factors known to influence heart rate and blood pressure. Other characteristics like the body mass index or the history of smoking would have been desirable but are not accessible via MIMIC-IV.

**Transactional Patient Data.** With transactional data, we refer to the vital parameter measurements and threshold settings which change throughout the stay. This data is stored in MIMIC-IV’s `chartevents` table. We first filter the data set to retain only data items related to heart rate (HR) or non-invasively measured systolic blood pressure (NBPs) events. Afterwards, we remove measurements and thresholds which fall outside clinically valid ranges (Table 1). Finally, we exclude all stays that do not have at least one pair of thresholds (low and high) and one measurement for both parameters (HR and NBPs).

Table 1: Valid ranges used for cleaning of values. Adapted from (Harutyunyan et al., 2019).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vital Parameter</th>
<th>Lower Limit</th>
<th>Upper Limit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HR</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NBPs</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>375</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the cleaned data, we create additional features. First, we extract the vital parameter measurements that occurred between the threshold adjustments. We calculate several descriptive measures like the minimum vital parameter measured within this period or the measurement closest to the threshold setting. Also, we extract the time that passed since the patient was administered to the unit, as well as the hour of the day in which the threshold was changed. This characteristic is used for the analysis of the circadian rhythm.

**Data Enrichment with SNOMED-CT.** The MIMIC-IV `inputevents` table — which contains the administered medication — has more than nine million records of 325 substances. In our model, we only incorporate substances that influence HR or NBPs. To do so, we classify the 325 substances into medication groups. MIMIC-IV maintains a category attribute for each substance (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Number of MIMIC-IV substances stratified by the category maintained in MIMIC-IV.

We exclude nutrition and antibiotics as they should not influence HR and NBPs. Fluids and intake influence the body volume and we include those with an amount larger than 490mL: 500mL are commonly administered and we allow for a 10mL error margin. Substances in the medications category do not allow for further insights. Thus, we extract relevant substances by incorporating SNOMED CT data. We extract all substances referring to the SNOMED CT concepts catecholamine, hypotensive agents, sedatives, diuretics, antiarrhythmic agents, and general anaesthetic from the SNOMED CT browser (SNOMED International, 2022). We then join the extracted SNOMED CT data to the `inputevents` table via the substance description from the `d_items` table and the Fully Specified Name. 39 of the 120 substances categorized as medication match a SNOMED CT parent. Implementing those steps reduces the initial number of 325 unique substances to 91 that are incorporated in further analysis. The distribution by medication category is shown in (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Number of MIMIC-IV substances stratified by the medication category (MIMIC or SNOMED).
We extend the transactional data with the data for these substances. For each threshold update, we provide the answers to the following questions in form of features:

- How many minutes passed since the patient last received medication of this class?
- Which medication amount was administered for the substance of the class that had last been given?
- Which medication rate was administered for the substance of the class that had last been given?

### Data Enrichment with ICD-10

The first three diagnosis codes maintained across all MIMIC-IV admissions contain 8,471 unique ICD codes. But the codes stem from different ICD versions: 47% use version 9 and 53% use version 10. Thus, we first need to transform all the diagnosis codes to one ICD version – we choose ICD-10. An insight from this is that both ICD-9 code 008.01 and ICD-10 code A04.0 refer to the same infection (enteropathogenic Escherichia coli) and thus, influence the alarm thresholds in the same way (an increased high HR threshold). We harmonize the ICD versions using the General Equivalence Mappings provided by the National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER, 2022). Afterwards, we enrich the ICD-10 codes with their respective ICD chapters as a supplement feature to the individual disease codes.

### Automation of Thresholds

Within this project, we focus on creating a recommender system for HR and NBP thresholds. However, the approach is designed to be generic, so that it can be transferred to other vital parameters. Our goal is not only to predict thresholds correctly but also to create explainable models. We want to understand a feature’s impact and identify the model with the best results. This can help identify suitable features in other data sets as well. To do so, we iteratively increase the pool of features to train and evaluate the model. We use the mean absolute error to evaluate the model performance and SHAP values to examine the feature impact. We create four model configurations:

1. Static features
2. Static and dynamic features
3. Static, dynamic and structural features
4. Static, dynamic and structural features with previous feature selection

The dynamic features refer to transactional and medication features. Structural features refer to organisational aspect of the hospital, like the first care unit.

This reveals underlying structural information about the hospital environment in which the thresholds were set. Each configuration is applied for each threshold type (HR low, HR high, NBP low, NBP high).

For each model, we perform hyperparameter tuning for the number of iterations, learning rate, and bootstrap type by using a grid search. Before training, we perform a Spearman correlation analysis for the features to exclude highly correlated features.

### Missing Values

For the static features, there are no missing data except for 11% of the stays that do not have a second or third diagnosis. We replace these missing values with -1. For missing medications, we use a small number (-1) to code missing rate and amount and a large number (i.e. 1,000,000) to code missing time since administration. These default values help with the SHAP evaluation: A small number (-1) for rate and amount means no medication and a large number for the time since administration means a long time – ideally forever – since the last medication was given.

### 4 RESULTS

In this section, we present the performance of the various CatBoost models trained on the transformed data. We also identify the most influential patient characteristics. We first give a brief overview of the data after data cleaning and feature engineering.

#### 4.1 Data

Table 2 contains the number of rows resulting from the data transformation steps described in section 3. These refer to 75,841 ICU stays for the HR thresholds and 72,094 ICU stays for the NBP thresholds.

The distributions of the HR events in Figure 3 show two dominant threshold values per threshold type. These are 50 and 60 bpm for the low and 120 and 130 bpm for the high threshold. The high thresholds vary more than the low thresholds.

In contrast to the HR thresholds, the NBP thresholds show only one main value (Figure 4). This is 90 mmHg for the low threshold and 160 mmHg for the high threshold. The variance and thus the number of outliers is higher than for the HR thresholds.

#### 4.2 Threshold Automation

The CatBoost algorithm does not require any further data transformation. The algorithm can cope
Table 2: Overview of observation counts for HR and NBPs events.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>HR (No. rows)</th>
<th>NBPs (No. rows)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Original (All)</td>
<td>8,111,589</td>
<td>5,279,925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After Value Range Cleaning (All)</td>
<td>8,110,973</td>
<td>5,279,337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After Inclusion Criteria (Measurements)</td>
<td>6,793,230</td>
<td>4,255,749</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After Inclusion Criteria (Threshold Low)</td>
<td>656,188</td>
<td>498,889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After Inclusion Criteria (Threshold High)</td>
<td>656,605</td>
<td>499,195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

with categorical variables intrinsically. However, we later calculate the SHAP values to evaluate the feature impact. As we utilize the beeswarm plots of the SHAP library (SHAP, 2022), we perform label encoding on the categorical features to enable visual interpretations. Therefore, all following CatBoost models are trained on label-encoded categorical features. By adding the respective indices to the cat_features attribute of the fit() method, they are still marked as categorical and not interpreted as continuous features. Features which we added as categorical features are marked with a _cat suffix in the beeswarm plots.

4.2.1 Low HR Threshold

The MAE for the test data set ranges from 3.91 for the simplest configuration to 2.95 for the fourth configuration in which we select the ten most important features. Comparing the best to the worst MAE, a relative improvement of 24.3% can be achieved by adding dynamic and structural features. Nevertheless, the largest relative improvement of 20.2% occurs when adding the second and third diagnoses in form of the original ICD code and the respective ICD-10 chapters.

Static Features. For the first configuration, the impact on the model output ranges between -3 and +5 bpm from the base value (Figure 5). High age causes the lowest predictions but – in general – age at in-time has a low feature importance. The first diagnoses chapter is the most important feature, leading to an impact on the model output of +5 bpm for the highest prediction values. Based on the colour coding of the 19 chapters, no clear trend can be observed: There is no distinct relationship between specific chapters and a lower or higher prediction. However, 90% of the ICD codes with values above 1.1 bpm stem from ICD-
9. This suggests that the ICD version has a higher impact than the diagnostic similarity of the codes.

Figure 5: SHAP beeswarm plot for the low HR model.

For ethnicity, a clearer trend can be observed. Low-coded ethnicities like white (factorized with 0), African American (factorized with 1) and unknown (factorized with 2) tend to range around the expected prediction value of 51.67 bpm. Higher predictions refer to events of patients with the ethnicity other (factorized with 3), and unable to obtain (factorized with 6). That matches the trend in the actual test data. Events referring to the ethnicity other or unable to obtain show the highest mean low HR thresholds.

Gender shows the least impact on the predicted values. The mean SHAP value for males is slightly above 0, therefore slightly increasing the prediction. Consequently, females get a slightly lower mean prediction. This is a trend that we not only found in the predictions but also in the actual data.

Static and Dynamic Features. When adding dynamic features, we find that blood products and coloids are the most influential medications regarding all three aspects: time of administration, amount, and rate (Figure 6). General anesthetics form the second most important medication category and for hypotensive agents, the time since administration seems to be the most important characteristic.

Figure 6: Mean absolute SHAP values stratified by medication category for HR Low.

Static, Dynamic, and Structural Features. Adding structural information changes the feature importance. Most notably, the first diagnosis is replaced by the first care unit as the most important feature. Stays in the neurological ICUs receive the lowest predictions while stays in the cardiovascular ICU receive the highest. This matches the observations in the actual data as shown in Figure 7.

Feature Selection. When performing a feature selection before the training of the model, all structural features are selected within the ten most important features. Ethnicity is the only demographic feature included. Furthermore, all original ICD codes but no ICD chapter information are selected. For the dynamic features, general anaesthetics is the only represented medication class, and the last measured vital parameter is the only time-related feature. Low threshold predictions can mainly be explained by low previous HR measurements. The selection is displayed in Figure 8.

Figure 7: Relation between the predictions and the actual low HR thresholds for the first care unit in the third configuration. We derive the rank from the mean low threshold for each category. A low mean refers to a low rank. We can observe a good match between the predictions and the actual values.

Figure 8: SHAP beeswarm plot for the low HR model with previous feature selection. Medication categories without a suffix refer to the time since administration.

4.2.2 High HR Threshold

The MAE for the high HR threshold predictions in the test data set ranges from 4.68 for the simplest configuration to 4.01 for the model with the ten most im-
important features. That translates to a maximum improvement of 14.32%. As for the low HR threshold, the largest improvement can be observed when the second and third diagnoses are added to the model. However, the MAE only improves by 9.4%, whereas for the low HR threshold it improved by 20.2%. Comparing the distribution of the predicted value to the actual ones shows that the variance for the predictions is lower than for the actual data. The distinction of the peaks at 120 and 130 bpm is also represented in the predictions.

Static Features. As for the low HR threshold, the first diagnosis is most important. Figure 9 shows two clusters: one reducing the threshold and one increasing it. Closer inspection shows that ICD-9 codes lead to lower predictions and ICD-10 codes lead to higher predictions. The demographic features ethnicity, age, and gender show a lower impact on the model output than for the low HR model. The lowest predictions are impacted by a low age, showing SHAP values down to -3.22 bpm from the base value. All events showing SHAP values below -2 bpm refer to patients between 19 and 33 years at intime.

Static and Dynamic Features. Adding the medication as time since administration features reveals two dominant trends: Catecholamines, antiarrhythmic agents, sedatives, and hypotensive agents raise the prediction when administered a short time before setting the threshold (Figure 10). This matches the trends in the actual data, in which those categories displayed the highest high thresholds. Blood products/colloids decrease the threshold prediction by up to 5 bpm. This also supports the findings from the data analysis in which stays receiving this medication showed the lowest high HR threshold. The data analysis also revealed that stays receiving general anaesthetics display lower high HR thresholds. This does not become evident from the SHAP analysis. When observing the medication trends for the amount related features, blood products/colloids and general anaesthetics show similar trends to the time since administration. A high amount rather decreases the prediction. Hypotensive and antiarrhythmic agents given as amount lead to an impact in both directions, whereas when given as time, both categories increased the prediction.

In general, features given as amount show the highest mean absolute SHAP values (Figure 11). As for the low HR models, blood products/colloids and general anaesthetics are the two most important categories.

Static, Dynamic, and Structural Features. The ICD codes lose importance when we add structural features. ICD codes coded with ICD version 9 show a lower prediction than ICD version 10. This needs to be enriched with information gained during the correlation analysis. It can relate to different care units using different thresholds or changed default values during the acquisition years. The ICD version already showed a clear split for the low HR threshold, indicating that the low HR threshold decreased for ICD version 10, leading to a larger threshold range.
**Feature Selection.** When performing a feature selection and only selecting the ten most important features (Figure 12), the ICD codes gain a more prominent role again. General anaesthetics coded as amount and blood products/colloids coded in minutes since administration are the only two medication features represented in this selection. Seven out of the ten most important features are similar between the low and the high HR model.

![Feature Selection Plot](image)

**Figure 12:** SHAP beeswarm plot for the high HR model with previous feature selection.

The first care unit again scores high on feature importance. Stays referring to the medical or surgical ICU are associated with lowering the prediction by up to -17.47 bpm. Comparing the threshold predictions to the actual ones for the test data set (Figure 13), the ranks match with four minor swaps. Stays in the cardiovascular ICU have the lowest mean threshold prediction of 120.40 bpm. The actual mean for stays of that first care unit on the test data is slightly lower with 118.94 bpm, however, also shows the lowest value. The neurosurgical ICU scores the highest mean for the predicted as well as the actual thresholds, being 128.88 bpm and 125.93 bpm.

![Threshold Prediction Plot](image)

**Figure 13:** Relation between the predictions and the actual high HR thresholds for the first care unit in the fourth configuration. We derive the rank from the mean low threshold for each category. A low mean refers to a low rank. We can observe a good match between the predictions and the actual values.

### 4.2.3 Low NBPs Threshold

Due to the low variance of the low NBPs thresholds, we will only quickly summarize the main findings without going into the details of the configurations. The MAE ranges from 3.35 for the simplest configuration to 3.31 for the fourth configuration, therefore only showing a maximum improvement of 1.19%. Due to the prevailing default value of 90 mmHg, there is a high risk of overfitting in the event of deviating threshold values. Performing the feature selection prior to training the model, eight out of ten features match the selected features of the low HR model, and six out of ten features match the selected features for the high HR model, thereby showing a high consistency. Besides the eight identical selected features, the time since catecholamines were administered as well as the administered amount are selected as features with the highest impact. A short time since catecholamines were administered leads to a deviation from the base value in both directions. Even though fluids coded as rate information are the most important feature within the configuration for static and dynamic features (Figure 14), they are not selected when performing the feature selection prior to the training.

![SHAP Values Plot](image)

**Figure 14:** Mean absolute SHAP values stratified by medication category for NBPs Low.

Again visualizing the relation between prediction and actual data at the example of the first care unit, the predictions mirror the trend in the actual data (Figure 15). The lowest SHAP values for the first care unit refer to stays in the neuro ICU. We performed the prediction on the test data set which resulted in a mean threshold prediction of 89.83 mmHg compared to an actual mean of 89.49 mmHg. Even though the ranks are mostly aligned between the actual and predicted threshold, the actual data shows a larger standard deviation across the first care units. The lowest mean threshold refers to stays in the medical ICU with 86.61 mmHg whereas the mean prediction for that care unit is 89.52 mmHg. Similar accounts to the upper end of the threshold means with stays on the neuro stepdown showing the highest mean of 91.62 mmHg.
The predictions are closer to the expected value of 89.76 mmHg, showing a mean of 90.07 mmHg. However, when comparing the standard deviation of the actual thresholds to the predicted ones, the differences are more pronounced. Figure 18 shows the relation between the predictions and the actual values, illustrating a good match between the two.

### 4.2.4 High NBPs Threshold

The MAE for the test data set ranges from 7.41 for the first to 6.69 for the fourth configuration, resulting in a maximum improvement of 9.85%. The rather high MAE compared to the other thresholds can be explained by the higher variance of the data and the higher amount of outliers. The largest relative MAE improvement can be achieved by adding the medication features in form of the time since administration to the static ones. This is similar to the high HR model, whereas the low threshold models benefited from the data analysis in which patients receiving catecholamines or blood products/colloids showed the same trend in all three models. This matches the findings from the data analysis in which patients receiving catecholamine or blood products showed lower high thresholds. A high last measured vital parameter can increase the prediction up to 20 mmHg. A high time since intake rather decreases the prediction, but only up to more than 15 mmHg. The same trend can be observed for a high amount as well as the rate that was administered. Blood products/colloids show the same trend in all three models. This matches the findings from the data analysis in which patients receiving catecholamine or blood products showed lower high thresholds. A high last measured vital parameter can increase the prediction up to 20 mmHg. A high time since intake rather decreases the prediction, but only up to more than 15 mmHg.

### Static Features

As for the high HR model, the ICD code referring to the first diagnosis has the highest feature importance, followed by the respective chapter (Figure 16). Whereas ethnicity was the most important demographic feature for the other models, age at intime ranks higher in the high NBPs model. A higher age corresponds to a higher high NBPs threshold for multiple prediction events. Gender shows the least feature importance. Whereas most predictions are not impacted by gender. 593 events are associated with the male gender and a decreased threshold prediction. 659 events are associated with the female gender and increase the prediction. That is congruent with the observations made within the actual data, where males tend to show slightly lower high thresholds than females.

### Static and Dynamic Features

Adding medication features to the high NBPs model, catecholamines are the most important medication category when given as time since administration or rate (Figure 17). Within the amount model, blood products/colloids rank higher. Sedatives, antiarrhythmic agents, and diuretics show the lowest mean absolute SHAP value on the model.

A short time since catecholamines were administered leads to a reduction of the high NBPs threshold up to more than 15 mmHg. The same trend can be observed for a high amount as well as the rate that was administered. Blood products/colloids show the same trend in all three models. This matches the findings from the data analysis in which patients receiving catecholamine or blood products showed lower high thresholds. A high last measured vital parameter can increase the prediction up to 20 mmHg. A high time since intake rather decreases the prediction, but only up to more than 15 mmHg.

### Static, Dynamic, and Structural Features

Adding structural features to the model does not change the feature impact much. The first care unit becomes the second most important feature. Stays in the cardiovascular ICU receive the lowest predictions (on average 147.98 mmHg) which matches the underlying data (on average 147.48 mmHg). As for the high HR threshold, stays on one of the three neurological ICUs receive the highest predictions – which mirrors the actual data as well (Figure 18). However, when comparing the standard deviation of the actual thresholds to the predicted ones, the...
predictions show fewer deviations.

**Feature Selection.** When performing a feature selection and only selecting the ten most important features, the first ICD code scores the highest impact (Figure 19). Five features appear in the feature selection process of all four models: The first and third ICD code, the first care unit, the last measured vital parameter before the threshold setting, as well as the previously administered amount for general anaesthetics. Furthermore, the time since intime, the second ICD code, as well as the first ICD chapter, are selected as the ten most important features in three out of four models, including NBPs high. The time since blood products/colloids and catecholamine were administered are the two remaining features in the selection process for the NBPs high model. Therefore, the ten most important features of the low HR model and the high NBPs model are all shared by at least one other model (Table 3).

**5 DISCUSSION**

By using CatBoost and SHAP values we are able to present a generic recommender system for alarm thresholds. In the current practice, default values are predominantly used to set healthy ranges. Medical staff must adjust thresholds manually and at their own discretion, often lacking good standards (Chambrin, 2001). Incorporating recommender systems in clinical practice can provide patient-centred thresholds and reduce non-actionable alarms.

**5.1 Limitations**

We divided the limitations into two areas. The first relates to the data set. The second refers to the boundaries of our approach.

**Data Quality.** Since MIMIC-IV is a single-centre database, there is a risk of overfitting this patient cohort. Thus, this is a retrospective study that should be supplemented by a prospective study in the future. In addition, some groups are only represented to a small extent (for example, the native ethnicity or patients under 20 years of age), which reduces the generalisability of these results. In addition, there are data quality issues in MIMIC-IV that suggest, for example, input errors in the threshold value entry and thus affect the results. We conducted cleaning steps prior to the analysis but this does not guarantee clinically valid thresholds. The biggest limitation is the tendency to default thresholds also in MIMIC-IV. Therefore, the model in particular can only make patient-centred predictions as far as the data basis allows.

**Defined Boundaries.** Feature engineering manifests the most relevant boundary of our approach: Our feature creation process does not consider all possible relevant influences. Future work could extend the number of features, for example by adding laboratory values or patient output (e.g. urine). Also, further medication classes such as antibiotics or cardiovascular agents could be included via the MIMIC-IV category or the SNOMED CT mapping.

We could not perform an external validation on a second data set. Other prominent ICU databases such as eICU CRD (Pollard et al., 2018) or HiRID (Faltyt et al., 2021) do not provide alarm thresholds. We outline a possible approach to incorporate them in the next section. Lastly, we do not analyze the thresholds in terms of clinically relevant alarms. Ideally, we knew whether a threshold violation led to a clinically relevant alarm and focus only on those.
5.2 Future Work

This work provides several touch points for future research toward the automation of smart alarm thresholds. The straightforward addition is the inclusion of additional features available in MIMIC-IV.

Since there are few databases containing the threshold values, it would also be possible to extend the approach to a semi-supervised ML approach. For example, an existing MIMIC-IV trained model could be used to predict thresholds, for example, the eICU CRD database. The results could in turn be used to re-train the model.

Before applying the model in a practical environment, the focus should be on real-time implementation. For example, it needs to be clarified whether threshold values are recalculated at fixed intervals – e.g., every two minutes – to detect changes in the patient, or whether there are event-based indicators for recalculation – e.g., an increase in the dose of a medication. Furthermore, it must be ensured that all information used in the model is available very promptly and is not available in the system with a long-time delay.

6 CONCLUSION

Patient-specific alarm thresholds are necessary – both for patient-centred medical care but also to alleviate the long-standing problem of alarm fatigue in intensive care medicine. Our work is the first step towards smart alarm thresholds that take into account each patient’s specific need rather than relying on a set of default values. When incorporated into patient monitors, our method will make intensive care units quieter and more efficient wards.

REFERENCES


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