

Real-time detection of sleep apnea and hypopnea syndrome by individual-based model

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Abstract:

Sleep apnea and hypopnea syndrome (SAHS) affects the quality of people's life and may lead to various kinds of diseases. In this paper, an individual-based method is proposed for real-time detection of SAHS using the features extracted from both nasal flow (NF) and saturation of peripheral oxygen (SpO₂). An overlapping window was utilized to help segment the original signals and locate the start and end time of SAHS. Nine time-frequency features were extracted from each segment and fed into a support vector machine (SVM) for a fivefold cross validation. Individual-based model was trained and finally real-time detection of SAHS with one-second resolution was achieved with a sensitivity (Sen) of 89.6% and a specificity (Spe) of 91.7% in average. It is shown in the experimental results that this method has a more generalization ability within different people compared with previous studies and can be a strong candidate for the real-time detection of SAHS clinically.

Key words: Sleep apnea and hypopnea syndrome, Real-time detection, Individual-based model, SVM, Nasal flow, SpO₂

1. Introduction:

Sleep apnea and hypopnea syndrome (SAHS) is a highly prevalent sleep disease which is estimated to affect 2-4% of the middle-aged population [1]. It may cause sleepiness and fatigue during daytime and lead to more road traffic accidents [2]. Even worse, SAHS is also related to some cardiovascular diseases though not definitively [2].

Polysomnogram (PSG) is the gold standard for SAHS detection. However, it is expensive, time consuming and labor intensive. In order to find a substitute for PSG, some research groups[3-5] have proposed several automatic methods to evaluate the severity of SAHS. However, these researches rely on a delayed diagnosis based on the overnight signals. On the other side, there are also some methods developed to detect SAHS in real time. Bsoul, M et al. [6] employed SVM to detect apnea based on the features from one-minute ECG epoch using the Apnea-ECG database [7]. Baile Xie and Hlaing Minn [8] applied classifier combination in the real-time SAHS detection based on the features extracted both from ECG and SpO₂. H. D. Nguyen et al. [9] introduced an online sleep apnea detection method based on heart rate complexity using a fusion of SVM and neural network (NN). Most recently Hyoki Lee et al. [10] developed a rule-based algorithm for automatic real-time detection of SAHS using a nasal pressure signal and achieve a sensitivity of 86.4%.

Among these studies, only Bsoul, M et al. have run an individual-based experiment. The rest studies mainly put the focus on the features extracted for training and different algorithms for classification while ignore the generalization ability of the method for different groups of people. Furthermore, all studies above except Hyoki Lee et al. are only able to achieve a time resolution of one-minute instead of detecting the start and duration of SAHS. In view of that, this paper aims to propose a method that can be applied to different groups of people for real-time detection of SAHS with a high time resolution. The flow chart of the process of this study is shown in Fig. 1.

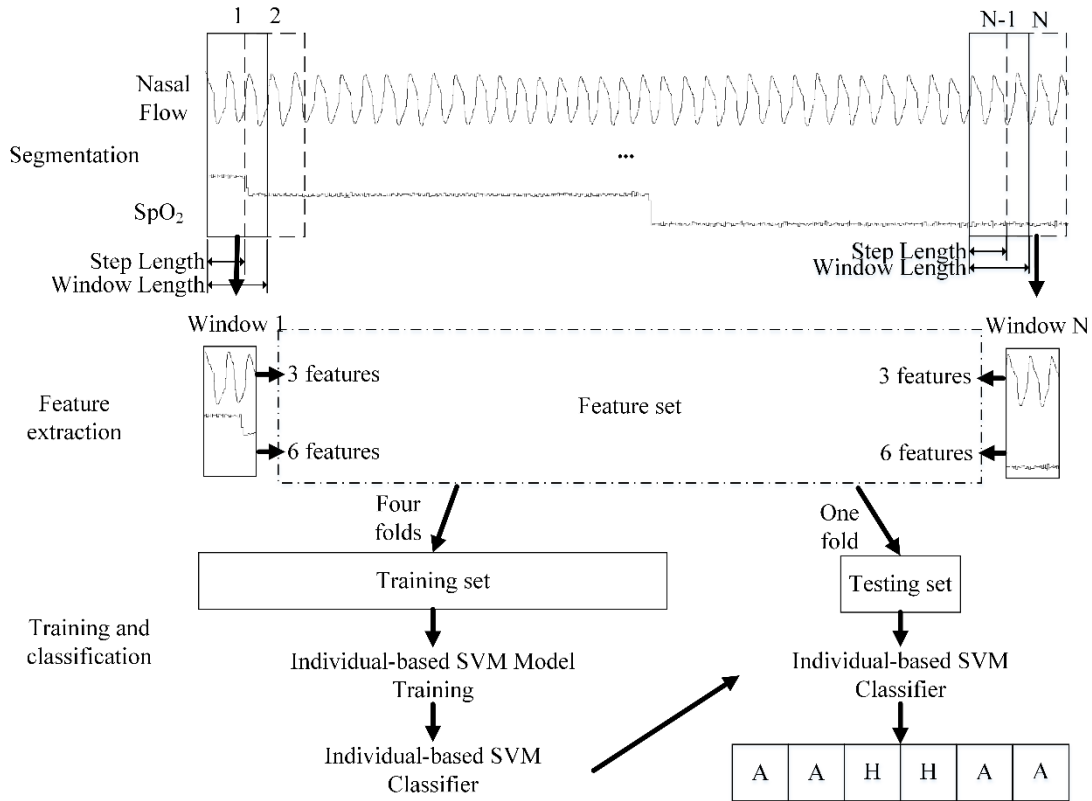


Fig. 1 The flow chart of the process of this study

Since SpO₂ and NF are the two straightforward signals to score SAHS according to the 2012 AASM criteria [11], both signals were adopted for SAHS detection in this paper. Firstly, we utilized an overlapping window to slide over the original signals for segmentation. As a result, both signals were divided into a series of segments with fixed width and interval. From each segment we extracted nine features for the following training and classification. A SVM model was trained for every subject and the performance of it was evaluated using a fivefold cross validation. Besides, the effects of different overlapping windows and feature sets were tested in the experimentation. Finally, a real-time detection of SAHS with a sensitivity of 89.6% and a specificity of 91.7% in average was achieved.

This paper is divided into five sections. The first section contains the introduction. The second section describes the database and the methods adopted in our experiment. The third section shows the classification results of different parameters and training strategies. The fourth section discusses the influence of different parameters and the comparison with other research groups. The last section concludes this paper.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Database

ST. Vincent's University Hospital/University College Dublin Sleep Apnea Database [12] is used throughout this study. This database is available on Physionet [13]. Twenty-five full overnight polysomnograms with detailed start time and duration of every SAHS event are included in this database. The following experiments ran on MATLAB 2013b using a computer with Intel core i5-7600K CPU. All graphics were performed with Excel 2016.

The SpO₂ signal is sampled from a finger pulse oximeter while the NF signal is from a thermistor. The sample frequencies are both 8Hz. All subjects in this database are above eighteen years of age with no known cardiovascular diseases interfere with heart rate [12]. The details of the subjects are shown in the Table 1.

Table 1 The details of the subjects in ST. Vincent's University Hospital/University College Dublin Sleep Apnea Database

Number of Subjects	Gender Distribution	Age Range (Years)	Study Duration Range (Hours)	SAHS Duration Range (Hours)	Normal Duration Range (Hours)
25	4F&21M	[28 68]	[5.9 7.7]	[0.1 2.8]	[3.1 7.4]

Due to the loss of the NF signal in subject 3&9 in the dataset, only the rest twenty-three subjects were taken into study in the following work. Besides SpO₂ in some periods falls lower than 50% which may be caused by the loose contact between skin and sensor. As a result, these periods were also not taken into study. It has been found that the imbalance in the species of training patterns always has a great effect on the training success [14]. However, the SAHS duration is less than a quarter of the normal duration in most subjects in the dataset thus making it difficult for fully training the individual-based models. Therefore, we applied an overlapping window to segment the original signals.

2.2. Signal preprocessing

The overlapping window is determined by the window length L_w and the step length L_s and abbreviated as W_{L_w, L_s} in the rest of paper. Both signals were divided into a series of segments with it. As a result, the length of each segment was L_w seconds meanwhile there was a L_s -second interval between the two consecutive segments. Besides, the original annotation files were transformed into label files with either

positive (1) or negative (0). The segment with less than three consecutive seconds of SAHS was labeled negative. Otherwise, it was labeled positive. The number of segments obtained per subject in average using windows with different L_s is shown in Fig. 2.

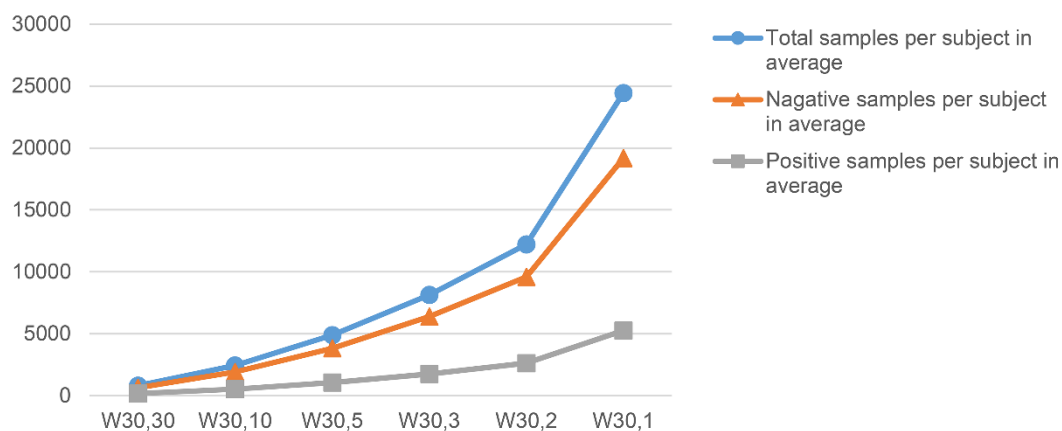


Fig. 2 The number of samples per subject in average we obtain with different L_s

It is illustrated that only less than one thousand samples are obtained per subject in average with a no overlapping window. While as the L_s sets shorter, several times more samples can be received thus making it possible to get the individual-based model fully trained.

2.3. Feature extraction

From the perspective of reducing the computation, some typical nonlinear features used before such as Lempel-Ziv complexity [8,3,15,16] and approximate entropy [8,3,15,16] were not taken into study. On the contrary, we adopted some easily calculated features.

There is always significant fluctuations in the SpO_2 recordings from patients affected by SAHS because of the desaturation events [17]. Therefore, the standard deviation was calculated as an approximate measure of the fluctuation in each SpO_2 segment and denoted as $Spstd$. Secondly a regression line was fitted for every SpO_2 segment [8] in a least squares sense then the absolute slope ($Spmu$) and bias ($Spbia$) of the regression line were calculated to show the tendency of each segment. Besides, oxygen saturation in normal subjects tends to stay constant around 96%, while in the SAHS-positive patients significant changes can be found due to the recurrent apnea events [18]. Therefore, the accumulative time spent below 93% and the mean value ($SpI93$, $SpIm$) of each segment was calculated to represent the significant changes between positive and negative segments. Additionally, the commonly used saturation variability index ($Delta\ index$) [19,8,20] was also adopted in this study. People normal respiratory rate is twelve per minute. As a result, the sum value of every ten-second SpO_2 interval was first calculated and the Delta index was derived as the differences between the two sum values of successive intervals. The six features constituted the SpO_2 feature set (SPFS).

Furthermore, the variability and irregularity of NF may be modified by the complete or partial collapse of the upper airway in SAHS-positive patients [3]. Based on that, the tidal volume was firstly calculated in every ten-second interval and the changes in tidal volume of the two consecutive intervals ($Fdif$) were measured to show the variability in NF. Besides, the main frequency energy of NF signal was calculated and denoted as Fmp . In addition, a spectral band of interest was defined between 0 Hz and 0.5 Hz corresponding to the people respiratory rate. And the standard deviation (Fsd) of FFT in this band was calculated to show the irregularity of the NF segment. The three features constituted the NF feature set (NFFS) and totally nine features were extracted from each segment. The details of each feature are

shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Detailed description of each feature

	Feature Name	Description
SpO ₂ Feature Set (SPFS)	<i>Spstd</i>	The Standard deviation of each SpO ₂ segment
	<i>Spmu</i>	The absolute slope of the regression line fitted for each SpO ₂ segment
	<i>Spbia</i>	The bias of the regression line fitted for each SpO ₂ segment
	<i>Spl93</i>	The accumulative time that SpO ₂ stays lower than 93
	<i>Splm</i>	The accumulative time that SpO ₂ stays lower than the mean value of each SpO ₂ segment
	<i>Delta index</i>	The differences between the two sum values of successive ten-second interval
NF	<i>Fmp</i>	The proportion of main frequency energy to total energy
Feature Set	<i>Fdif</i>	The differences between the two tidal volumes of successive ten-second interval
(NFFS)	<i>Fsd</i>	The standard deviation of FFT in the interest spectral band

2.4. Training and classification

SVM has been developed by Vapnik [21] and has a high generalization ability for two-group classification through mapping original features into a very high-dimension feature space.

Here the SVM model contains four kinds of kernels with different kernel parameters. In addition to that, the penalty factor C determines the level of soft margin for the model. Gaussian radial basis functions (RBF) was utilized in this study because of its high numerical and geometrical efficiency for classifying nonlinear data. The following experiments were conducted with the radius of RBF kernel and the penalty factor C both set to one. Features were normalized before fed into the SVM model. It should be noted that for each subject there would be one SVM model trained and totally twenty-three models were trained in the end. Furthermore, every SVM model was trained using a fivefold cross validation and the experiment result was averaged over five folds in order to avoid the risk of overfitting implicitly due to the sample redundancy caused by the utilization of overlapping window. To achieve that, the feature sets of each subject were randomly divided into five folds. Each time onefold would be chosen to be the testing group while the rest folds were used for training group.

Firstly, individual-based model was trained with the full feature set extracted from a thirty seconds window with different L_s . In next experiment, individual-based model was trained using the full feature set extracted from a window with different L_w . Then individual-based model was trained using SPFS and NFFS separately. Finally, non-individual-based model was trained using the same features in the same way as the individual-based model.

3. Results

A sensitivity-specificity plot was used to evaluate the performance of the model. Sensitivity, specificity and accuracy (Acc) are defined as the equation (1), (2) and (3) show.

$$sensitivity = 100 \times \frac{TP}{TP+FN} \quad (1)$$

$$specificity = 100 \times \frac{TN}{TN+FP} \quad (2)$$

$$accuracy = 100 \times \frac{(TP+TN)}{(TP+FP+TN+FN)} \quad (3)$$

Here TP refers to the number of true positives while TN refers to the number of true negatives. On the contrary, FP and FN represent the number of false positives and false negatives respectively. Sensitivity and specificity represent the ability to identify the positives and negatives. The result of every subject was pointed in the sensitivity-specificity plot. And the point on the top right represents a better performance.

3.1. Classification results of different L_s

The classification results using the full feature set extracted from the thirty seconds window with different L_s are firstly shown in Fig. 3.

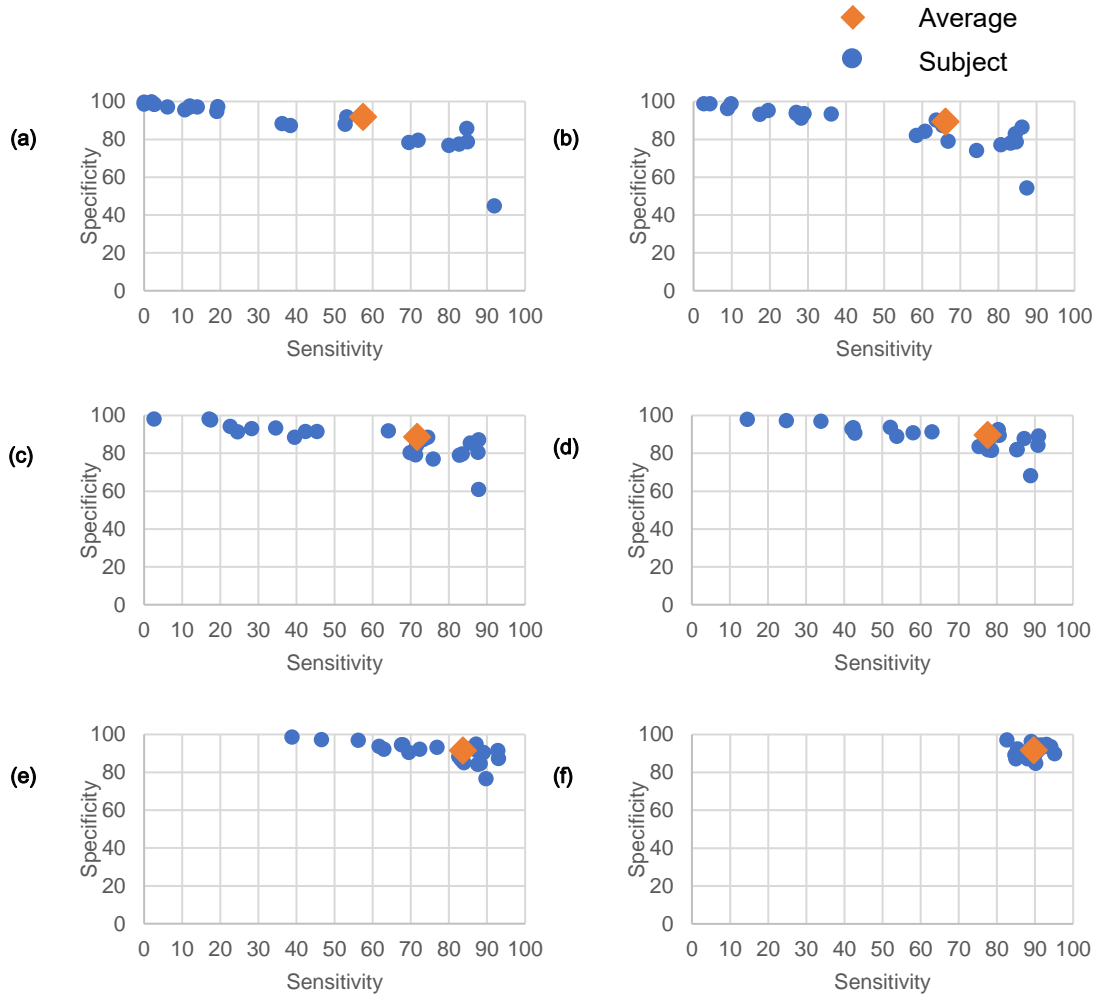


Fig. 3 a The classification results of $W_{30,30}$. b The classification results of $W_{30,10}$. c The classification results of $W_{30,5}$. d The classification results of $W_{30,3}$. e The classification results of $W_{30,2}$. f The classification results of $W_{30,1}$

The SVM classifier only reached a sensitivity of 57.5% in average using a no overlapping window (see Fig. 3(a)). When the L_s was set to ten seconds, the sensitivity increased to 66.1% in average (see Fig. 3(b)). However, the SVM classifier reached a specificity of over 90.0% but a sensitivity lower than 40.0%

in some subjects just as the points in the top left show. Besides, there was also a subject with a sensitivity of 87.5% but a specificity of 54.4%. This was a result of the model not being fully trained because of the lack of training samples (see Fig. 2). However, the SVM classifier performed more stably among different subjects and provided a better performance as the L_s set shorter (see Fig. 3(c), (d) and (e)). When the L_s was set to one second, the SVM classifier reached a sensitivity of 89.6% and a specificity of 91.7% in average (see Fig. 3(f)). Moreover, the SVM classifier had a strong generalization ability among different subjects. As a result, the L_s was set to one second and the influence of L_w was taken into analysis in the following study.

3.2. Classification results of different L_w

The classification results using the full feature set extracted from the window with different L_w are shown in Fig. 4.

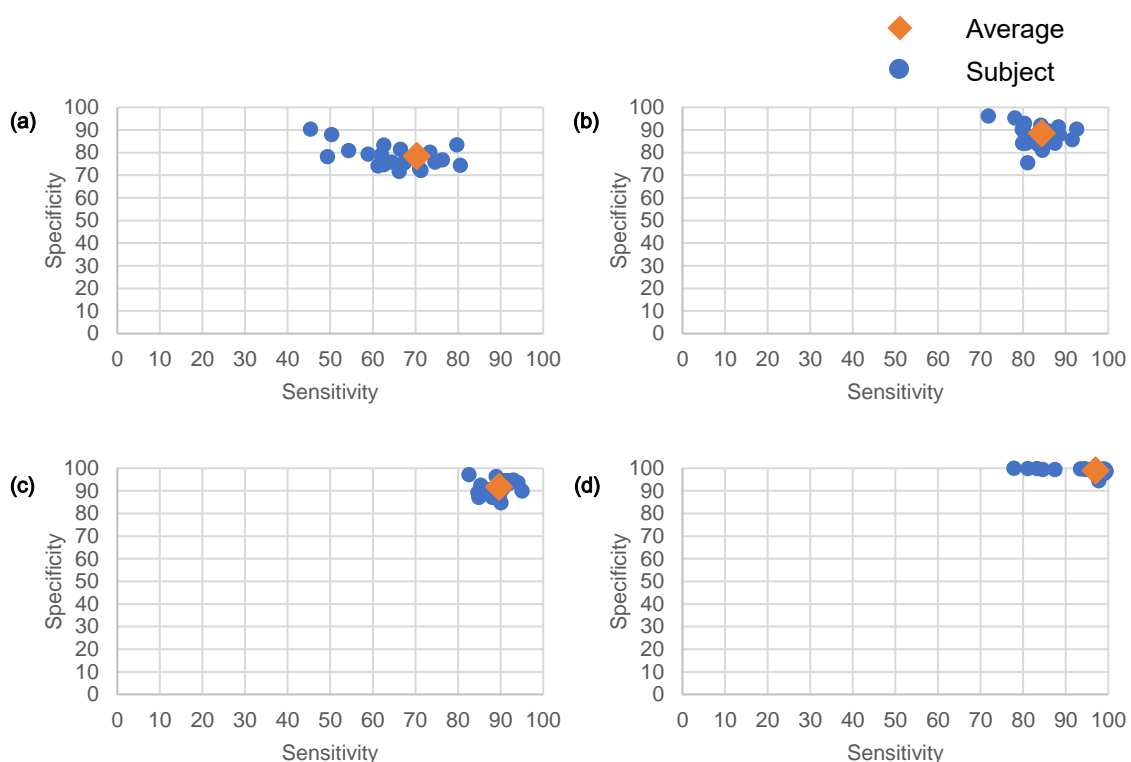


Fig. 4 **a** The classification results of $W_{10,1}$. **b** The classification results of $W_{20,1}$. **c** The classification results of $W_{30,1}$. **d** The classification results of $W_{60,1}$

The SVM classifier reached a sensitivity of 70.3% in average with $W_{10,1}$. However, there is a significant variance among different subjects (see Fig. 4(a)). With the L_w set longer than ten seconds, the sensitivity of over 84.4% and the specificity of over 88.6% in average were reached (see Fig. 4(b), (c) and (d)). Meanwhile the SVM classifier performed stably among different subjects.

3.3. Classification results using SPFS and NFFS separately

The classification results using SPFS, NFFS and the full feature set respectively are tabulated in Table 3.

Table 3 The classification results using SPFS, NFFS and the full feature set respectively extracted

from $W_{30,1}$			
Feature set	Acc (%)	Sen (%)	Spe (%)
SPFS	82.8	82.3	82.9
NFFS	74.7	77.4	73.9
The full feature set	91.3	89.6	91.7

Table 3 shows that there are different degrees of decline in all three measures when we use either SPFS or NFFS alone. When we switched from the full feature set to SPFS, all three measures decreased by around ten percent. As for NFFS, the decrease was heavier. Which indicates that the SPFS and NFFS can complement each other in the real-time detection and the combination of them provides an improvement in the classification results.

3.4. Classification results of non-individual-based model

The comparison between individual-based and non-individual-based model is shown in Table 4.

Table 4 The classification results of individual-based model and non-individual-based model in average

Window	Model type	Acc (%)	Sen (%)	Spe (%)
$W_{20,1}$	individual-based	87.8	84.4	88.6
	non-individual-based	86.0	75.7	87.2
$W_{30,1}$	individual-based	91.3	89.6	91.7
	non-individual-based	86.2	75.7	87.4
$W_{60,1}$	individual-based	98.4	97.0	98.9
	non-individual-based	83.1	75.9	84.0

For the case of non-individual-based model, there were decreases in all three measures especially in the sensitivity compared to individual-based model. Taking individual differences into consideration, different people may differ in the inspiratory time and expiratory time. Besides, there are also differences in the amplitude and frequency in breath among different people. The non-individual-based model is not able to adapt itself to the individual differences thus does not have a strong generalization ability like the individual-based model.

4. Discussion

4.1. The influence of L_s

On one hand L_s determines the number of samples for training. On the other hand, it represents the time resolution of the detection. Fig. 2 shows that when we set L_s to one second, several times more training samples are obtained though the imbalance between positive and negative still exists, there are over five thousand positive samples for training. Thus, the influence of the imbalance can be minimized. Fig. 3 illustrates that the individual-based model provides a good performance with the L_s set to one second. As a result, we are able to locate the start and end time of SAHS in second with it.

4.2. The influence of L_w

L_w represents the data length required for feature extraction and detection. Fig. 4 shows that the classifier is able to provide a good performance with the L_w set to longer than ten seconds. It is thought that with

a longer window, there would be more data to be processed thus more time would be required for detection. Here the processing time using different windows is tabulated in Table 5.

Table 5 Comparison with different L_w

Window	Acc (%)	Sen (%)	Spe (%)	Processing Time (10000 Samples)
$W_{10,1}$	77.4	70.4	78.5	7.12
$W_{20,1}$	87.8	84.4	88.6	6.75
$W_{30,1}$	91.3	89.6	91.7	6.58
$W_{60,1}$	98.4	97.0	98.9	7.57

Around seven seconds would be spent on processing ten thousand samples whatever window we utilized (see Table 5). It should be noted that the processing time not only relies on the data length required for feature extraction and detection, but also affected by the complexity of SVM model. However, the complexity of SVM model can be significantly decreased with the individual-based method and the small amount of features we extracted. Hence the response time of this method is expected to meet the demand in real-time detection.

4.3. Comparison with other related work

As mentioned in the introduction, several methods have been developed to detect SAHS on an epoch basis [6,8-10]. A summary of these methods is presented in Table 6.

Table 6 Comparison with other related works

Methods	Acc (%)	Sen (%)	Spe (%)	Resolution	Features	Database
SVM with RBF kernel function[6]	89.3	95.1	85.9	1min	111ECG features	Apnea-ECG database
Bagging,ERPTree + AdaBoost + decision Table[8]	81.0	83.6	80.1	1min	8ECG features 31SpO ₂ features	UCD database
Soft decision fusion from SVM and NN[9]	85.2	86.4	83.5	1min	72ECG features	Apnea-ECG database
Detection based on different thresholds[10]	Nan	88.5	Nan	Nan	Nasal pressure features	Clinical data
SVM with RBF kernel function (this paper)	91.7	91.3	89.6	1s	8SpO ₂ features 3NF features	UCD database

Compared to the studies before, it is exhibited in Table 6 that our SHAS detection method provides a good performance compared with other approaches. Individual-based model for different people, high time resolution and the combination of SpO₂ and NF signals are three bright points in this paper. Firstly, individual-based model was trained by a sufficient number of samples obtained through the utilization of the overlapping window and was adaptive to different people compared to the non-individual-based model. Secondly, one-second resolution was achieved without degrading the classification results (see Fig. 3) which can help us locate the start and end time of SAHS. Thirdly, the nasal flow and SpO₂ signals are able to complement each other. Therefore, using the combination of SpO₂ and NF is able to provide a better performance than using them alone just as Table 3 shows.

On the other hand, several limitations remain in this study. Though twenty-three subjects are

included, still larger populations are expected to test the generalization ability of this method. Besides, this study is conducted offline while the redundancy caused by the overlapping window may lead to the overfitting of the individual-based model though a fivefold cross validation is included in this paper. We are looking forward to conducting an online test in the future.

5. Conclusion

Real-time SAHS detection by training individual-based model has been studied in this paper using totally nine features extracted from SpO₂ and NF signals. The influence of the overlapping window and the feature sets are tested in the experimentation. The experimental results indicate that the performance of our proposed method is good and the complexity of the method is decreased by the small amount of features we extract and the individual-based model trained for every subject. Therefore, this method is considered to have a more generalization ability for different groups of people and expected to be a strong candidate for the real-time SAHS detection clinically.

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