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Descriptive Modelling of Clinical Conditions with Data-driven Rule Mining in Physiological Data

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Abstract: This paper presents an approach to automatically mine rules in time series data representing physiological parameters in clinical conditions. The approach is fully data driven, where prototypical patterns are mined for each physiological time series data. The generated rules based on the prototypical patterns are then described in a textual representation which captures trends in each physiological parameter and their relation to the other physiological data. In this paper, a method for measuring similarity of rule sets is introduced in order to validate the uniqueness of rule sets. This method is evaluated on physiological records from clinical classes in the MIMIC online database such as angina, sepsis, respiratory failure, etc.. The results show that the rule mining technique is able to acquire a distinctive model for each clinical condition, and represent the generated rules in a human understandable textual representation.

1 INTRODUCTION

Wearable sensors are widely used in clinical settings in order to collect a range of vital signs, which are definitely necessary to be monitored and interpreted during hospital care. Nowadays, the rate of accumulating physiological sensor data is much faster than the rate of analysing and modelling them (Chen et al., 2006). These health parameters can be analysed in different clinical conditions for early diagnosis or behavioural interpretation. For instance, monitoring the continuous records of heart rate, respiration rate, glucose level, etc. during or after clinical surgery is an essential task in clinical settings. Often the measurements of physiological attributes are sequential data, i.e. time series. Consequently, the rapid growth of health records in medical informatics improves to affect the healthcare, increases the need to apply a comprehensive data mining in order to model the acquired knowledge (Sow et al., 2013). Most automatic decision support systems in clinical applications apply diverse data mining techniques on sensor data in order to acquire patient-specific information (Banaee et al., 2013a). The study in (Cao et al., 2008) proposes a predictive modelling approach based on the extracted trends and features from heart rate and blood pressure time series data. In (Rutledge et al., 1990), a

Bayesian network is proposed to model the intensive care unit (ICU) data to derive a descriptive model of physiological states of the patients. In (Buchman et al., 2002), and (Riordan Jr et al., 2009) the usability of analysing heart rate measurements to predict and diagnose of various clinical applications in ICU is proposed. Also, few works have been applied data mining tasks in clinical settings related to the vital signs, specifically in operating room monitoring systems. For instance, (Agarwal et al., 2007) presents a context-aware framework in order to analyse physiological data collected in surgical procedure to detect the significant changes and events. In (Garrard et al., 1993) and (Lake et al., 2002), the authors present a correlation of heart rate variability and sepsis.

In general, data mining approaches used in health informatics are context-based so that the applied methods leverage predefined domain knowledge. Using a knowledge-driven approach leads to have a supervised model of information, which is restricted with expert domain knowledge (Yoo et al., 2012). An overview of the works that use data-driven methods in order to unsupervisedly discover hidden and potentially useful information through the physiological sensor data and to build the corresponding model is provided in (Banaee et al., 2013a). Automatic rule generation as a data-driven approach in data min-

ing is an appropriate choice to extract the behaviour of physiological data. Recently, temporal association rule mining methods have been applied on clinical data stream to identify complex relationships. In (Combi and Sabaini, 2013), the authors present temporal rule extraction for physiological data and address the problem of visually analysing this kind of data. (He et al., 2012) propose a novel multivariate association rule mining based on change detection for complex data set including numerical data streams. The authors in (Muflikhah et al., 2013) introduce an approach to generate the rules automatically from the linguistic data of coronary heart disease using subtractive clustering and fuzzy inference in order to determine the diagnosis of disease. In this work, the process of rule mining from the physiological time series of clinical conditions is an unsupervised approach, which leads to define a data-driven model to describe the behaviour of vital signs in each clinical condition. This approach helps the end user of the system to apply the models on unknown measurements, or to extract more descriptive features for clinical situations.

The main focus of this paper is to address 1) individualisation, and 2) representation of the extracted rules from physiological sensor data of clinical conditions. In this study, temporal rule mining has been employed to generate meaningful and interesting rules among physiological data streams in clinical settings, in order to individually build a descriptive model for clinical conditions. More precisely, first, the temporal patterns of the given health parameters are abstracted. Further, with clustering the extracted patterns, the cluster centres are represented as prototypical patterns, which represent the significant patterns of happenings through the data. Using association rule mining, the relationships between the prototypical patterns in multivariate data are discovered as a set of rules. The proposed approach is applied to health records in different classes of clinical conditions such as angina, sepsis, respiratory failure, and brain injury (Moody and Mark, 1996). The result is an individual model of rule set for each of the classes. To evaluate the uniqueness of the provided models for clinical classes, a novel similarity function between a pair of rule sets is proposed. This method calculates the appearance ratio of rules from a rule set in another rule set. Meanwhile, the description of the generated rules is represented as a textual output by employing natural language generation (NLG) approach to characterise the main behaviours of trends (Banaee et al., 2013b), but here, the patterns within the rules.

The paper is structured as follows: Section 2 describes the general methodology to achieve a descriptive model of rules in sequential data. In Section 3,

first, data acquisition is described and then the general methodology is characterised for physiological data of clinical conditions. Also, a novel similarity method to compare the rule sets is introduced in this section. The results of rule sets for clinical conditions are presented in Section 4, following by the evaluation results to assess the uniqueness of rule sets per clinical conditions, along the textual outputs for a selection of the provided rules. Finally, Section 5 concludes with a discussion for the direction of future work.

2 RULE MINING IN SEQUENTIAL DATA

This section describes the methodology used for rule mining in sequential data in order to discover prototypical patterns and then qualitative rules. This process applies data mining techniques to generate a descriptive model of rules in one or several sequential data in general (i.e. time series) for an individual case. In this approach, an input time series are firstly discretised into a set of subsequences of time series. Then, a set of prototypical patterns is abstracted by clustering the extracted subsequences. Afterwards, these prototypical patterns are considered as the attributes and items to discover the expressive rules among the data. Finally, the rules which are linguistically informative are represented as a descriptive model. Figure 1 shows the general steps of the proposed methodology in this paper.

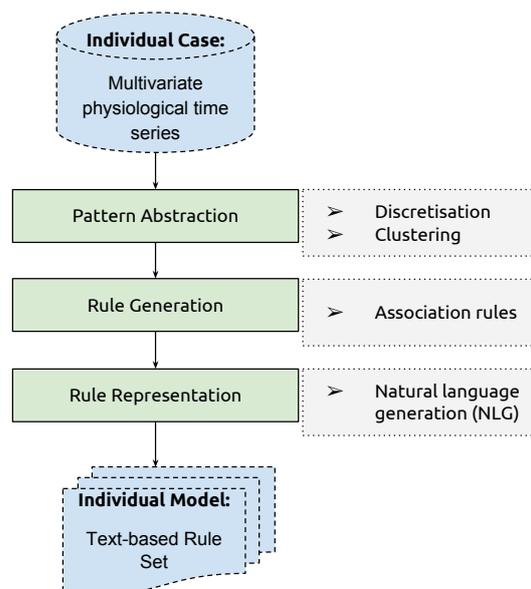


Figure 1: Schematic overview of proposed methodology.

2.1 Prototypical Pattern Abstraction

The main objective of the prototypical pattern abstraction is to provide a set of representative patterns from raw sequential data, which are temporally occurred in time series. Here, two phases have been proposed for this task: 1) discretisation and 2) clustering.

Discretisation: Since dealing with large time series with high granularities is typically challenging (Kotsiantis and Kanellopoulos, 2006), discretisation is a solution which transforms a time series $t=(t_1, \dots, t_n)$, as a representative term of sequential data, into a discrete sequence of segments $S(t) : s_1 s_2 \dots s_m$, where usually $m \ll n$. Different approaches can be applied for time series discretisation (Fu, 2011). This work uses a sliding window method in a sense that the time series t is discretised to a set of segments $S(t)$ by sliding a window of size w with a given overlap on two consecutive windows. Each segment $s_i = (t_{i_1}, \dots, t_{i_{w-1}})$ is a subsequence of the time series t , ($1 \leq i \leq m$). The provided segments are potentially the candidate to describe the unique attributes of the input data.

Clustering: To exploit a reasonable number of representative patterns from numerous segments, clustering techniques are used for categorising the subsequences. Before applying clustering methods on the set of segments, each segment is normalised to zero means ($\mu=0$). This normalisation leads to have a unified set of segments in order to only consider the behaviour of segments by ignoring the effect of their amplitudes. Afterwards, k-means algorithm as a widespread approach is used for pattern clustering (Warren Liao, 2005). The algorithm categorises all the segments $s_i \in S(t)$ into k clusters $C_t = \{c_1, \dots, c_k\}$. Now, the centre of each cluster (o_j) is considered as the prototypical pattern for the segments which are labelled with c_j , where $1 \leq j \leq k$. Suppose $O_t = \{o_1, \dots, o_k\}$ is the set of prototypical patterns of time series t . Each centre (pattern) $o_j = (t'_{i_1}, \dots, t'_{i_{w-1}})$ is a sequence of time values, which is not necessarily a subsequence of time series t . So, in the sequence of segments $S(t)$, By replacing each segment s_i with its label in clustering (prototypical pattern), the corresponding sequence of prototypical patterns $P(t)$ for time series t is generated as: $P(t) : p_1 \dots p_m$, where $p_i \in O_t$ and $1 \leq i \leq m$. The advantage of using clustering algorithm is that the prototypical patterns are purely provided in a data-driven way without involving any domain knowledge to customise the typical patterns.

2.2 Automatic Rule Generation

Association rule discovery is a proper approach to generate a meaningful set of rules from the abstracted patterns of time series data (Schluter and Conrad, 2011). Here, first the standard association rule mining method is described, and then the method of rule generation in temporal data is presented. Suppose in a system that $I = \{i_1, \dots, i_d\}$ is a set of items that can be occurred (e.g. all the products in a store). Let $D = \{d_1, \dots, d_N\}$ be a transactional database with N transactions (e.g. all shopping lists in a week). The support of an itemset $A \in I$ is the frequency of the occurrence of A in the transactions D . The standard association rule discovery provides a set of rules in form of $A \Rightarrow B$, where A and B are disjoint itemsets. Generally, a rule like $A \Rightarrow B$ in a system means if the items of A appear in a transaction d_i , then the items of B also will plausibly appear in that transaction. Typical measures to show the strength of a rule are *support* (sup) and *confidence* (conf). Support of a rule shows how often the rule appears in a given transactional database. Further, the confidence of rule $A \Rightarrow B$ determines how frequent itemset B occurs in transactions which contain itemset A . Let $P_D(A)$ be the probability of the occurrence of A in D . Then, support and confidence are formally defined as (Schluter and Conrad, 2011):

$$\text{sup}(A \Rightarrow B) = p_D(A \cup B) \quad (1)$$

$$\text{conf}(A \Rightarrow B) = p_D(A|B) = \text{sup}(A \Rightarrow B) / p_D(A) \quad (2)$$

The rules with sufficient support and confidence are typically called strong rules. Association rules with low supports may be occurred accidentally which would be not interesting as significant rules. Similarly, a rule with low confidence cannot be effective on modelling the behaviour of the system. Thus, the thresholds *minsup* and *minconf* given by the user of the system can avoid involving the ineffective rules in the final result. Several versions of association rule mining algorithms have been introduced to deal with non-transactional data which consist sequential items (i.e time series) in order to give temporal rules (Kotsiantis and Kanellopoulos, 2006). These algorithms adapt the form of the terms in association rules based on the time stamped data to involve temporal constraints in a rule like $A \xrightarrow{T} B$, which intends “If A happens, B will happen within time T ” (Das et al., 1998).

In this study, each abstracted pattern from a time series would be an item, which can occur before or after another pattern (item). To define the collection of transactions in the sequences of patterns (from single or multi time series data), this work uses a meaningful span around every pattern to make its corre-

sponding transaction. Thus, for a sequence of prototypical patterns $P(t) : p_1 \dots p_m$, m transactions would be generated, where each transaction, d_i ($1 \leq i \leq m$) contains the pattern p_i together with a number of patterns appropriately close to it. As an instance, if the approach wants to discover the rules from two time series t_1 and t_2 (with the abstracted sequences of patterns $P(t_1) : p_1 \dots p_m$ and $P(t_2) : q_1 \dots q_m$ and finds the effect of t_1 on the behaviour of t_2 , the transaction d_i could be defined with the pattern p_i in t_1 and including the patterns $q(i+1), \dots, q(i+T-1)$ within time T in t_2 , which are occurred after p_i . The next step would be to apply the described association rule mining algorithm on the provided set of transactions d_1, \dots, d_m , using the abstracted patterns as the set of items. The output of rule generation step is a set of rules $R = \{r_1, r_2, \dots\}$, where each rule $r_i : A \Rightarrow B$ represents the effect of patterns in $A \subset P(t_1)$ on the patterns in $B \subset P(t_2)$.

2.3 Rule Representation

A descriptive way of representing the rules is to provide a textual representation for the end user of the system. Simple representation of a typical rule, $r : A \Rightarrow B$ in natural language text is to put the definition of itemsets A and B in a textual format like: “*If (when, while) A occurs (happens, or any verb in context), then (after that, simultaneously, just after that, within time T) B will occur*”. For instance, in the market basket example (Silverstein et al., 1998), a rule could be explained like: “*If customers buying bread and cheese, are likely to buy milk*”. The purpose of this study is to describe the itemsets (patterns) in a sense that the provided rules from time series patterns be linguistically meaningful. Particularly, if a rule like $r : A \Rightarrow B$ discovered from the method, it is important to have a significant description for A and B , otherwise the representation of “*if A happens, then B happens*” would be pointless. So, an output text like “*After a gradual decrease in pattern A, then pattern B has a big rise and then a sharp drop*” is more understandable, in order to interpret the behaviour of patterns in discovered rules. A text generation method proposed in (Banaee et al., 2013b) provides a framework to detect partial trends in sequential data and then represent those trends in a textual form. By employing this method, the patterns in a rule can be described based on their partial trends. The benefit of using natural language generation to represent the trends is that all the rules from a set of time series data could be summarised in a textual output, which helps the end user to get a global perspective of the repetitive patterns and their correlations in the input data.

3 MATERIALS AND METHODS

It is significant to analyse the prototypical patterns in physiological time series data, due to formulate the behaviour of sequential data, specially for different clinical settings. This section presents the way of characterising the proposed methodology in Section 2 to the health parameters under clinical conditions. Moreover, the new similarity method to compare the appearance of rules in other rule sets is introduced.

3.1 Data Acquisition

Database Outline: Throughout this paper, MIMIC (Multi parameter Intelligent Monitoring for Intensive Care) database¹ is considered which contains periodic numeric measurements of physiological variables, such as heart rate, blood pressure, respiration rate, and oxygen saturation, obtained from bedside ICU monitors (Moody and Mark, 1996). This database includes multiple recordings of 90 subjects with various lengths of measurements (from 1 hour to 77 hours), also different ages and genders. The subjects are manually labelled in the database into different clinical classes related to their medical problems. In this work, the numeric records of the subjects from nine major clinical conditions with sufficient amount of data have been selected to be analysed and modelled. The considered clinical conditions include Angina, Bleed (loss of blood from the circulatory system), Brain injury, Post-op CABG (coronary artery bypass grafting surgery), CHF (chronic heart failure), MI (myocardial infarction, i.e. heart attack), Respiratory failure, Sepsis, and Post-op Valve (heart valve surgery). The information of the subjects and the physiological records for nine clinical conditions in MIMIC database is shown in Table 1.

In order to analyse the coherence of vital signs and also study the unique behaviour of physiological variables in clinical conditions, three physiological measurements have been chosen to be processed: heart rate (HR), blood pressure (BP) and respiration rate (RR). Each measurement is a time series, sampled at intervals of 1.024 seconds.

Data Cleansing and Preprocessing: Dealing with the raw data in MIMIC database is faced with several issues. Numeric physiological variables are available for most of the records for 90 subjects, but not all of them. In the first step, the records with all three variables are selected for analysis. Next, the measurements with a very short recorded times were discarded, because finding significant rules in a short

¹physionet.org/physiobank/database/mimicdb/numerics

Table 1: The information of clinical classes and their records in MIMIC database.

Clinical Conditions	No. of records	Average length (hours)	No. of Male/Female (%)	Age: [min,max] average
Angina	4	41.1	75/25	[67,68] 67
Bleed	4	44.7	75/25	[45,70] 57
Brain injury	3	21.5	33/67	[68,75] 70
Post-op CABG	3	40.3	33/67	[49,80] 66
CHF	17	33.2	35/65	[54,92] 75
MI	8	42.6	50/50	[63,80] 68
Resp. failure	17	32.4	70/30	[38,90] 67
Sepsis	5	31.3	60/40	[27,88] 64
Post-op Valve	5	40.7	20/80	[49,67] 58

period of data is not reasonable. Further, since the data is gathered in a clinical environment with wearable sensors, there are a lot of artefacts and noise among the time series records. To avoid processing incorrect information, 1) the data with unreliable values (e.g. zero value for heart rate) are ignored; 2) a smoothing function is applied on data to flatten the noisy data. It is worth mentioning that these preprocessing steps are applied on each segment of time series after discretisation.

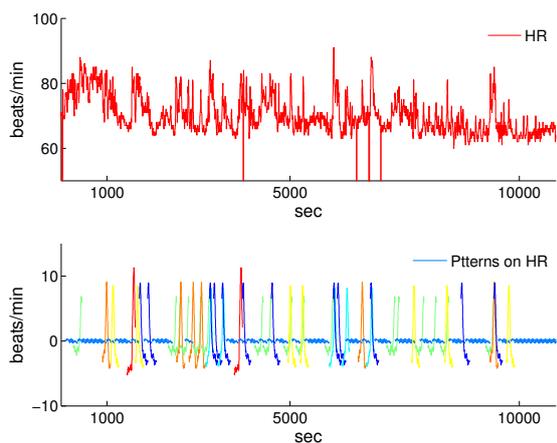
3.2 Rules in Physiological Data of Clinical Conditions

To applying association rule discovery approach on each clinical condition records, all the measurements of subjects with the same condition are considered together. In this way, a prolonged amount of data is involved in the process of modelling that makes a more robust model of rules for each clinical condition. The average length of available measurements for conditions is about 100 hours, including all three mentioned variables (HR , BP , and RR). Suppose there are three time series t_{hr} , t_{bp} , and t_{rr} , with the length of n . The rule mining algorithm is applied to the physiological time series in following phases:

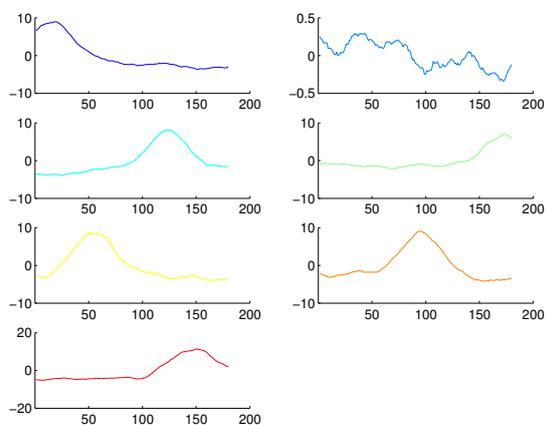
Prototypical Pattern Abstraction: In order to provide the sequence of Prototypical patterns for each time series, the algorithm starts with discretisation method, described in Section 2. Since this approach aims to provide a set of descriptive rules based on the patterns, a meaningful range of values for the size of the sliding window (w), from 1 minute to 10 minutes, has been tested. This range of data would show seemingly the physiological changes and variations through the data, which is interpretable for clinicians or the expert user. The length of overlap of two consecutive windows is initialised by half of window's size, to avoid concerning particular breaks between the segments. After discretisation of time series, a sequence of segments will be obtained for each signal, $S(hr)$, $S(bp)$, and $S(rr)$, where $|S(var)|=2 \times (n/|w|) - 1$, and $var \in \{hr, bp, rr\}$.

The next step is to extract the prototypical patterns of each time series using clustering methods. Here, k-means method (Das et al., 1998) is applied to each set of segments, in order to categorise the segments into a set of clusters (k). Different values for the numbers of clusters ($3 \leq k \leq 15$) have been examined to get the optimal clustering result with considering the final patterns. Before applying clustering, each segment $s_i \in S(var)$ is prepared as follows: If the number of artefacts in the segment's values is more than a defined threshold, the segment s_i is removed from $S(var)$, otherwise, the artefacts will be replaced by the values given by an interpolation method (i.e. cubic interpolation). Then, each segment s_i (with the average value μ_{s_i}) is simply normalised to get zero mean by subtracting the μ_{s_i} from all values of s_i . This normalisation will invalidate the amplitude of segment values. It is important while clustering of the segments, because the segments with the same shape and treatment would be categorised in the same cluster, rather than the segments with a similar range of amplitudes. The k-means algorithm classifies the processed segments of $S(var)$ into k clusters, with the set of centres O_{var} . Then, as described in Section 2.1, the corresponding sequence of the Prototypical patterns $P(var)$ is provided as: $P(var) : p_1 \dots p_{|S(var)|}$, where $p_i \in O_{var}$ and $1 \leq i \leq |S(var)|$. Figure 2 shows an example of heart rate measurement in about 3 hours, which depicts the extracted sequence of prototypical patterns (Figure 2(a)), along the centres of the clustering method (Figure 2(b)), with window size 3 minutes ($|w|=240$) and $k=7$ clusters.

Automatic Rule Generation: So far, there are sequences of patterns P_{hr} , P_{bp} , and P_{rr} , obtained from the prototypical pattern abstraction approach. Now to find the coherence relation between the occurred patterns among the multi variables, association rule dis-



(a)



(b)

Figure 2: An example of physiological time series data, with abstracted prototypical patterns. (a) raw data of *HR* (about 3 hours) with corresponding sequence of patterns, (b) Centres of clusters (O_{hr}) as the prototypical patterns, with $|w|=180$, and $k=7$.

covery can be applied. In this work, the focus is on the association rules between two pairs of physiological time series, heart rate with blood pressure and heart rate with respiration rate. Here, the algorithm is described for the first pair and it would be similarly applied on the second one. Without losing the generality of the algorithms, let's suppose that this method is looking for the effect of *HR* patterns on the behaviour of patterns in second signal (*BP* or *RR*). While considering the relation of *HR* and *BP* patterns, the alphabet set of items ($I=\{i_1, \dots, i_{k \times 2}\}$) includes all the prototypical patterns (centres of k clusters) in both *HR* and *BP*, with $k \times 2$ members, $I = O_{hr} \cup O_{bp}$. As discussed in section 2.2, the first requirement for association rule discovery is to define the set of transactions. For each pattern $p_i \in P(hr)$, the corresponding

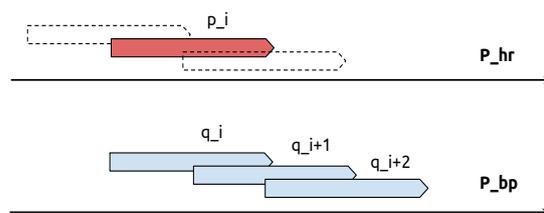


Figure 3: Relational positions of patterns in two sequences of *HR* and *BP*.

transaction d_i is defined as: $d_i = \{p_i, q_i, q_{i+1}, q_{i+2}\}$ (where $q_j \in P(bp)$), which means when the pattern p_i occurs in heart rate data, at the same time or just after that the patterns q_i , q_{i+1} , and q_{i+2} appear in blood pressure data. Figure 3 shows the relational positions of these patterns in their corresponding sequences.

The priori algorithm, introduced in (Agrawal et al., 1993) is an efficient algorithm for association rule discovery from a set of transactions D , which initialises all possible itemsets from the items I and then determines the support and confidence of each potential rule like $A \Rightarrow B$ in the transactions (where A and B are two itemsets). This algorithm works based on the symbolic order of items, so it could destroy the temporal relations in sequential data. However, in the proposed approach the temporal relations of the patterns are hidden in the introduced definition of transactions. So, applying the priori algorithm with accurate values for *minsup* and *minconf* leads to have a set of rules (R) as a result, consisting the main repetitive behaviours of physiological data in clinical conditions.

3.3 Rule Set Similarity

The main idea to measure the uniqueness of rule sets is to show that the number of rules from one rule set which appear in another rule set is very low. It means that the rules of one clinical class are not repeated frequently in other classes. So, they could potentially represent the individual behaviour of their clinical condition. For this reason, a novel similarity function between a pair of rule sets is proposed here, in order to compare the appearance of rules in another rule set.

Appearance Ratio: In order to show that how much the rule sets are different, a similarity measure needs to compare each pair of rule sets. The overlapping ratio of rule sets is a basic measure to investigate the common properties of rule sets (Dudek, 2010). Suppose there are two rule sets $R_1:\{r_1, \dots, r_m\}$ and $R_2:\{r_1, \dots, r_n\}$ including m and n rules, respectively.

The overlapping ratio as a similarity function between a pair of rule sets is typically defined as:

$$Overlap(R_1, R_2) = |R_1 \cap R_2| / |R_1 \cup R_2| \quad (3)$$

In standard rule association approach with a fix database of items, counting the intersection of the rules in R_1 and R_2 is uncomplicated, since it is easy to check the equivalence of rules. Two rules $r_i : A \Rightarrow B$ and $r_j : C \Rightarrow D$ are equivalent if their corresponding itemsets are equal: $A=C$ and $B=D$. But the main issue in the rule sets produced in our approach is that the items of different rule sets have completely distinct alphabets of items. In other word, for different clinical conditions, there are different sets of prototypical patterns (items), and consequently different itemsets will be appeared in the final rules. Suppose that the set of items (patterns) for the rule set R_1 is $I_1 = \{i_1, \dots, i_l\}$, and for the rule set R_2 the set of items is $I_2 = \{i'_1, \dots, i'_l\}$, where the items in two sets are most likely distinct. Therefore, to find the equivalent rule to $r_i : A \Rightarrow B \in R_1$ in rule set R_2 (if exists), the approach searches for the closest rule $r'_i : A' \Rightarrow B' \in R_2$ which is sufficiently similar to r_i . If r'_i exists, then one overlap is founded between R_1 and R_2 . Algorithm 1 shows how to find the most similar rule $r' \in R$ to an input rule r . For this aim, the algorithm first finds the best match patterns A' and B' from I to the patterns A and B , respectively, and then makes the rule $r' : A' \Rightarrow B'$. Further, it checks if the rule r' exists in the rule set R . If it exists, that means two rules r and r' are so similar together, and almost derive that the rule r appears in R as well.

Algorithm 1: RuleMatch(r, R, I)

Finds the best match to the rule r in rule set R .

Data: $r:A \Rightarrow B, R:\{r_1, \dots, r_n\}$ with the set of items $I=\{i_1, \dots, i_l\}$.

Result: $r':A' \Rightarrow B'$, where $r' \in R$ and $A', B' \subset I$.

foreach $r_i \in R$ **do**

$A' \leftarrow$ best match patterns to A from I ;

$B' \leftarrow$ best match patterns to B from I ;

$r' \leftarrow A' \Rightarrow B'$;

if $r' \in R$ **then**

 | return r' ;

end

end

return \emptyset ; //rule not found

The method for checking the appearance of a rule in another rule set leads to define a non-symmetric similarity measure, called the appearance ratio of R_1 in R_2 , $Appearance_{R_1}(R_2)$, which represents how much the rules in R_1 are appeared in R_2 , with considering their strength in R_2 . It means that while finding

the closest rules of R_2 to the rules in R_1 , the supports and confidences of matched rules are also involved in the value of Appearance ratio. The Algorithm 2 presents the details of the computing Appearance ratio measure. If the appearance ratio of a rule set in another one is high, it means these two rule sets are meaningfully related to each other. If the ratio is low, it means there are few connections between the rule sets, in a sense that these two rule sets are distinct.

Algorithm 2: Appearance(R_1, R_2)

Calculates the appearance ratio of R_1 in R_2 .

Data: Rule set R_1 and rule set R_2 with the set of items $I_2=\{i'_1, \dots, i'_l\}$.

Result: Appearance ratio of R_1 in R_2 .

$weight \leftarrow 0$;

$weight_{R_2} \leftarrow 0$;

foreach $r_i \in R_1$ **do**

$r' \leftarrow$ **RuleMatch**(r_i, R_2, I_2);

if $r' \neq \emptyset$ **then**

 | $weight \leftarrow weight + sup(r') \times conf(r')$;

end

end

foreach $r_j \in R_2$ **do**

 | $weight_{R_2} \leftarrow weight_{R_2} + sup(r_j) \times conf(r_j)$;

end

return $weight/weight_{R_2}$;

4 RESULT AND EVALUATION

This section presents an experimental result of the rule sets in clinical conditions from MIMIC database records, with evaluating the uniqueness of generated rules for each clinical class. This result followed by a sample output of natural language generation to represent a textual description of the provided rules.

4.1 Rule Sets for Clinical Conditions

As discussed in Section 3.1 the raw data to test the proposed approach is fetched from MIMIC numeric database. The records of three health parameters heart rate (HR), blood pressure (BP) and respiration rate (RR) are considered from nine clinical conditions. According to the phases shown in Figure 1, the proposed algorithm is applied on two pairs of time series: $HR\&BP$ and $HR\&RR$. The important point through applying the algorithm was the parameter selection. To select the optimal values of parameters during pattern abstraction and rule generation phases, a voting approach is used with considering the strength of the

generated rules. Particularly, four measures are applied to compare the efficiency of association rules. First, several experiments with various values for parameters, window size (w : between 1 to 10 minutes), and number of clusters (k : between 3 and 15 clusters) have been conducted. Then the provided rules for each combination of parameters are examined with the measures: support, confidence, Interest, and J-measure (Tan et al., 2004). These measures show the quality of a rule in different aspects. By voting between the top rules with highest values in four measures, the best values for the parameters are selected as: $w=3$ minutes and $k=7$. After rule generation phase, in order to filter the produced rules, the minimum support and minimum confidence of the rules are set to the values 10% and 40%, respectively. The output model is a collection of rule sets for clinical conditions. Figure 4 shows the number of provided rules in relation to the multivariate time series ($HR\&BP$ and $HR\&RR$) in each clinical class. The output sets of rules specify a data-driven collection of features which are independently able to describe their corresponding clinical conditions. A random selection of rules from different rule sets is visually represented in Figure 5, in order to illustrate the variation of prototypical patterns among the rules.

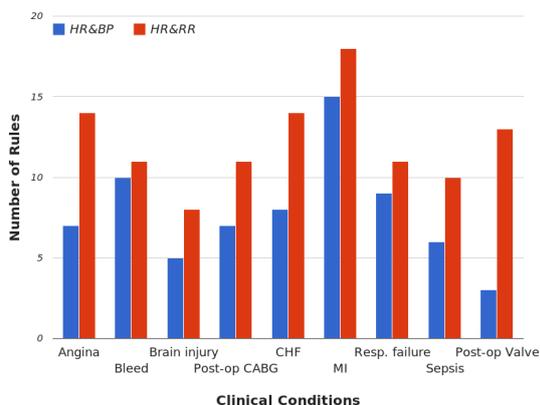


Figure 4: The number of rules in each clinical class in relation to the multivariate time series $HR\&BP$ and $HR\&RR$.

4.2 Evaluation of Individual Modelling

This section presents the evaluation of the uniqueness of rule sets for clinical conditions, in a sense that a set of rules which are extracted for one clinical class is differentiable from other sets of rules in the model. For this reason, the new evaluation method based on the proposed similarity function in Section 3.3 is applied to measure the appearance ratio of rules in other rule sets.

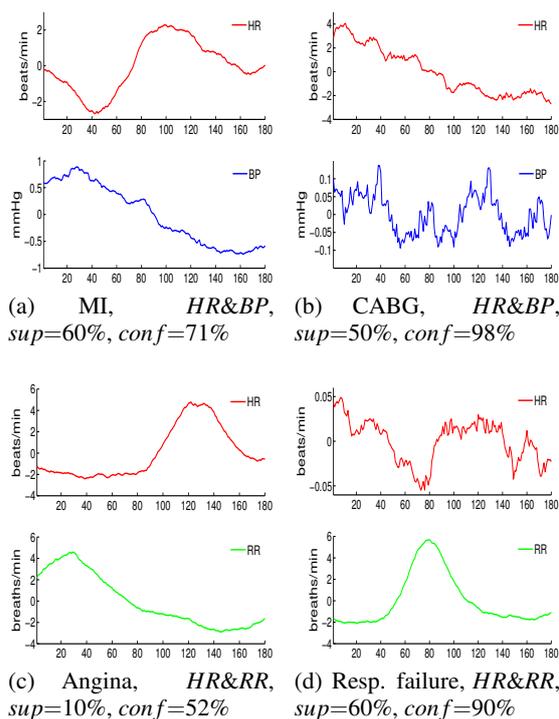


Figure 5: A selection of rules from the provided rule sets of clinical conditions for the multivariate time series $HR\&BP$ and $HR\&RR$ with the values of *support* and *confidence*.

Appearance Ratio of Rule Sets in Clinical Conditions: Based on the rule sets achieved from the proposed method for clinical conditions, the evaluation approach is applied to each pair of rule sets. For nine clinical categories, the appearance ratios for rule sets are calculated. The matrix in Table 2 shows the obtained values of appearance ratio for rule sets in $HR\&RR$ time series. Since, the appearance ratio is a non-symmetric similarity function, the values in Table 2 are not symmetric. For instance the $Appearance_{R_{Angina}}(R_{Valve})$ is 27%, whereas $Appearance_{R_{Valve}}(R_{Angina})$ is 9%. The main reason for this difference in the ratios is that appearance ratio is a weighted function which is calculated based on the values of supports and confidences of rules in the second rule set. Therefore, a subset of rules with strong supports and confidences can appear in another rule set, but with weak supports and confidences. However, the results in the matrix show that the ratios of appearing the rules are mostly low.

Figure 6 depicts the boxplot of each row in Table 2, which is graphically presenting that most of the values are close to the zero ratio. More precisely, close to 90% of all appearance ratios are lower than 30%, besides, 70% of them are lower than 15%. So, this

Table 2: The matrix of appearance ratios for each pair of rule sets provided from the clinical conditions in multivariate time series *HR&RR*.

Clinical Conditions	Angina	Bleed	Brain injury	Post-op CABG	CHF	MI	Resp. failure	Sepsis	Post-op Valve
Angina	-	41%	23%	49%	14%	9%	15%	9%	27%
Bleed	13%	-	18%	18%	9%	12%	26%	8%	16%
Brain injury	10%	25%	-	36%	10%	13%	13%	14%	20%
Post-op CABG	2%	18%	7%	-	6%	6%	2%	4%	23%
CHF	1%	10%	6%	30%	-	13%	0%	0%	8%
MI	0%	11%	13%	9%	8%	-	1%	3%	0%
Resp. failure	10%	44%	26%	47%	8%	13%	-	4%	76%
Sepsis	8%	16%	20%	19%	2%	6%	7%	-	8%
Post-op Valve	9%	4%	0%	23%	0%	0%	2%	0%	-

evaluation guarantees the methods generates distinctive rule sets, which the rules in one category of clinical condition can sufficiently provide an individual behaviour descriptions in vital signs for clinical care.

4.3 Sample Text of Descriptive Rules

Most significant task in representation of rules in natural language is to characterise the numeric information among the rule’s elements. Based on the strength of a rule, different terms and phrases can be used in the corresponding sentence. For instance the sentence of a rule with a high confidence value will be started with the terms like: “*most of the time*” or “*constantly*”. Similarly, the partial trends in the patterns of the rule are represented based on their features and components, as described in (Banaee et al., 2013b). In this paper, since the rules are generated to show the sequential happenings during the whole data, the general conditional (if-then) sentence is implemented to

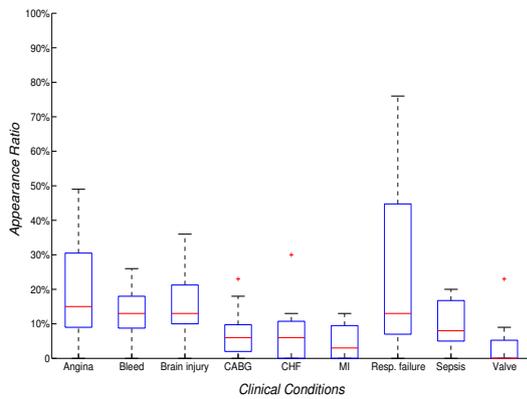


Figure 6: Boxplot of the appearance ratios for each clinical condition (each row) in Table 2.

characterise the rule. It is worth to note that in order to make the final text more natural, different templates of conditional sentences have been applied (e.g. using “*when*” or “*after*”, instead of “*if*”). Table 3 shows a selection textual outputs for the acquired rules in Figure 5. Each sentence describes a discovered rule 1) to specify the features of its corresponding clinical condition in text format, and 2) to be understandable for the end user of the system.

Table 3: A sample textual representation of the acquired rules in Figure 5.

Rule	Output text
Rule 1, Fig 5 (a)	In MI condition, most of the time, when heart rate first suddenly increases (5 beats) and then steadily decreases (2 beats), blood pressure steadily reduces (2 units).
Rule 2, Fig 5 (b)	In post-op CABG condition, commonly, if heart rate steadily decreases (8 beats), then blood pressure fluctuates in a very small range.
Rule 3, Fig 5 (c)	In Angina condition, sometimes, when heart rate first sharply rises (7 beats) and then steadily falls (6 beats), respiration rate steadily decreases (9 breaths).
Rule 4, Fig 5 (d)	In Respiratory failure condition, most of the time, after heart rate fluctuates in a very small range, respiration rate first steadily rises (8 breaths) and then steadily falls (7 breaths).

5 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

Automatic rule generation from physiological sensor data is still challenging while considering individualisation of clinical conditions. This paper presents an approach of automatic rule mining and representation from physiological sensor data considering the individualisation of clinical conditions. Here, the main role of rule generation as a data-driven method is to model the behaviour of prototypical patterns in physiological data streams to produce a qualitative set of rules in clinical settings. This paper addresses 1) rule mining for modelling sensor data in clinical conditions, 2) individualised modelling of rule sets, and 3) representation of the models in a descriptive textual output. The proposed approach considers 9 clinical conditions such as angina, sepsis, and respiratory failure, along three physiological measurements (i.e. heart rate, blood pressure, and respiration rate). To evaluate the uniqueness of the provided rule sets, a novel rule set similarity, appearance ratio, is introduced, which measure the occurrence of rules in other rule sets. The results on clinical conditions show that around 90% of all appearance ratios are lower than 30%, besides, 70% of them are lower than 15%. In this study, a textual representation of the extracted rules is also considered by applying natural language generation techniques. However, the semantic modelling based on the rule sets and characterising the semantic model to improve the quality of text is limited in this paper. In future, the aim is to apply the proposed approach in temporal abstraction for more complex pattern extraction. Moreover, the text output of descriptive models needs experimental evaluations in application settings.

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