

Joint risk-measurement model for the risk of decompression sickness accidents based on the biophysical model of decompression

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based on the joint work with L. Pronzato and J. Rendas

9 september 2015, workshop MathStatNeuro



Plan:

1 Introduction

- Decompression sickness accidents (DCS)
- Biomarker of individual response to decompression.
- Two competing classical approaches.

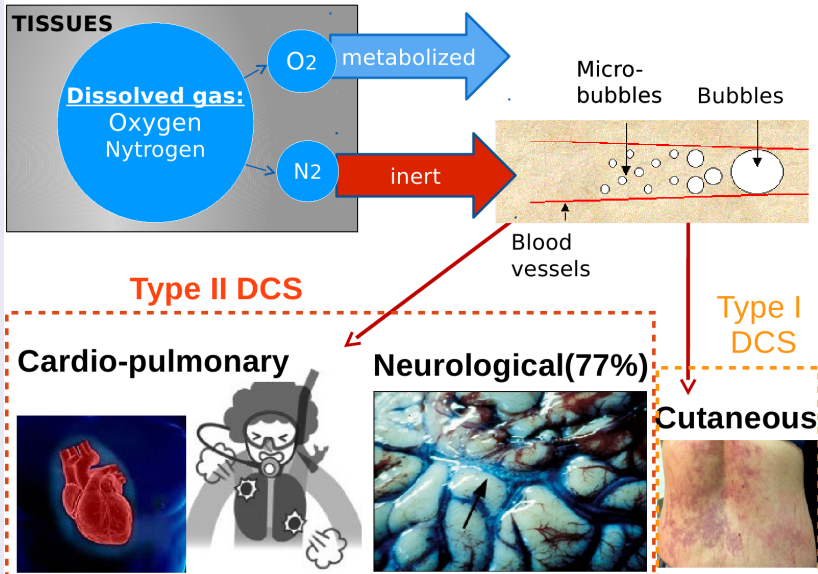
2 Main model

- Individual risk model for DCS.
- Joint risk measurement model.
- Results: simulations and real data.

3 Conclusions

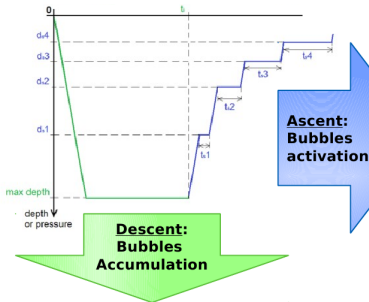
- Discussion and perspectives

Diverse manifestations of decompression sickness accidents



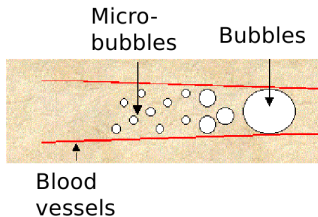
Biophysical mechanism of bubble formation

Dive profile



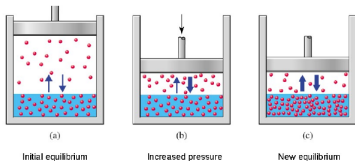
Effect of decompression :

Gas is transferred from tissues to blood and gas bubbles are growing



Effect of compression :

Gas is dissolved in tissues



The effect of bubbles

The formation of bubbles affects :

- 1 brain
 - 2 spinal cord
 - 3 cranial and peripheral nerves
 - 4 neural vasculature
- Nitrogen bubbles can injure neural tissues by mechanical disruption, compression, vascular stenosis or obstruction, and activation of inflammatory pathways.
 - Cerebral decompression sickness (30 to 40 percent of cases) usually involves arterial circulation.
 - Spinal cord decompression sickness (50 to 60 percent of cases) involves obstruction of venous drainage and the formation of bubbles within the cord parenchyma

Symptomatology of neurological DCS

- 1 **Cerebral DCS:** Confusion, focal weakness, fatigue, visual loss, speech dysfunction, headache...
- 2 **Spinal cord DCS:** Paresthesias, sensory loss in trunk and/or extremities, leg weakness, loss of bowel/bladder function.
- 3 **Headache:** Severe generalized headache associated with alteration of consciousness

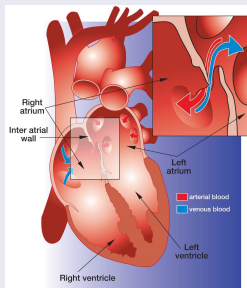
Event when no DCS occurs, bubbles have a damaging effect on endothelium: reduced endothelial function after exposure.

Characteristics of DCS

- Strong inter-individual and intra-individual variability: same dive P can produce few or many bubbles, with a variation in the response to bubbles.
- Rare event: incidence about 1 per 10000.
- 50% of DCS cases occurs when respecting decompression procedure.

Risk factors for DCS

- **Exposure: depth and duration of dive.**
- **Decompression: short ascent time**
- Repetitive dives.
- **Gas breathed: air, nitrox.**
- PFO (Patent Foramen Ovale)
- others ...



Control and therapy

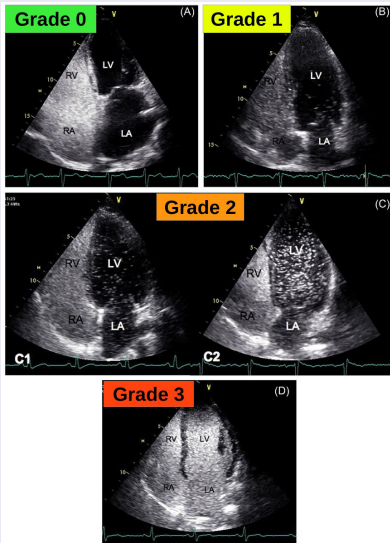
- Decompression stops
- Recompression
- Gas breathed: oxygen



Introduction: Biomarker of individual response to decompression: bubble grade measure

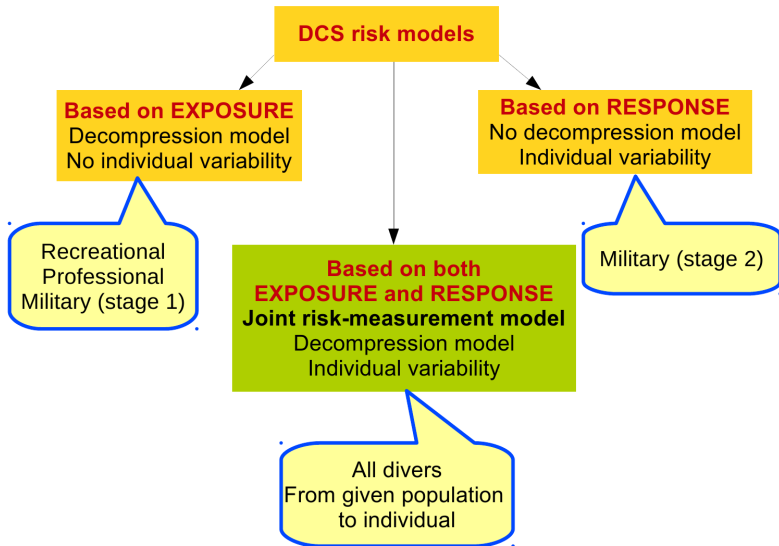
Biomarker of individual response to decompression: bubble grade measure

- Bubble monitoring:
 - oral by Doppler ultrasound
 - visual 2D echocardiography
- Clinical measure is made by specialist.
- Strongly quantized:
grade $G \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$.



Introduction: two competing classical approaches to DCS risk prediction

Three approaches to DCS risk modeling



DCS prediction based on **exposure** (Weathersby & al.1991)

- **$\Pr(\text{DCS} \mid \text{dive profile } P) = \text{function}(P_t)$** , where P_t is a gas pressure in tissues.
- Binary event (logistic) or time-to-event (linear hazard) risk models.
- Multi-compartment(up to 16) model

dive profile $P \rightarrow$ model \rightarrow tissues gas pressure P_t .

- Divers are copies of «standard diver».

Drawbacks: Ignore the individual variability, can underestimate the risk.

DCS prediction based on **response** (Eftedal & al.2007)

- **$\Pr(\text{DCS} \mid \text{grade } G) = \text{function}(G)$** where G is the maximal observed individual bubble grade measure.
- Divers are different.
- Conditional independence $\Pr(\text{DCS} \mid G, P) = \Pr(\text{DCS} \mid G)$.
- Risk in population

$$\Pr(\text{DCS} \mid \text{dive profile } P) = \sum \Pr(\text{DCS} \mid G) \Pr(G \mid P)$$

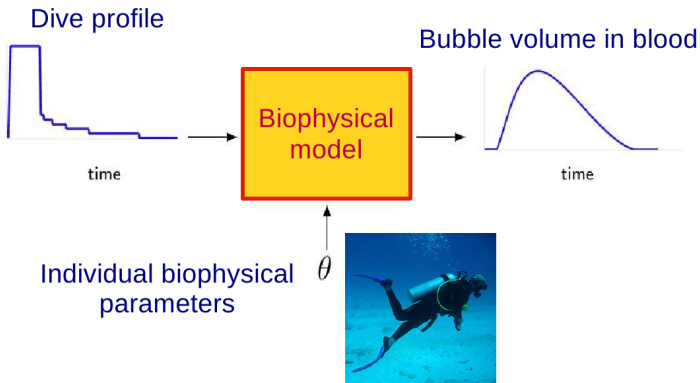
is based on grades statistics $\Pr(G \mid P)$ for the profile P .

Drawbacks: Unstable prediction (grades depend on measurement time), **needs many dives** (to estimate $\Pr(G \mid P)$).

Individual biophysical model of bubble formation (2010 J. Hugon)

- Nonlinear multi-compartment model.
- Divers are different: individual biophysical parameters $\theta \in \Theta$
- In population: θ are i.i.d. of law π_θ

Evolution of bubble volume in blood $V(t) = V(t, P, \theta)$



Hazard model of individual risk of DCS

For a given dive profile P and biophysical parameters θ : the DCS is described by hazard model with intensity $\beta_1 h(V(s, P, \theta))$ and pure hazard component β_0 :

$$\Pr(\text{DCS before } t \mid P, \theta) = \beta_0 + 1 - \exp\left(-\beta_1 \int_0^t h(V(s, P, \theta)) ds\right)$$

where $\beta_1 > 0$ and $0 < \beta_0 < \exp\left(-\beta_1 \int_0^T h(V(s, P, \theta)) ds\right)$, $h(v) \geq 0$ is known function that defines relevant time-dependent features of bubble volume.

Risk of DCS in population

For a given dive profile P and a distribution π_θ of parameters θ in population:

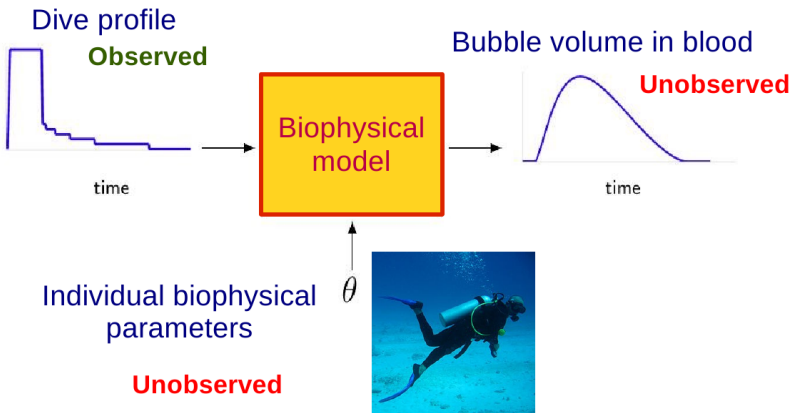
- Mean probability of DCS in population:

$$\Pr(\text{DCS} \mid P) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi_\theta} \Pr(\text{DCS} \mid P, \theta).$$

- Distribution of probabilities of DCS in population:

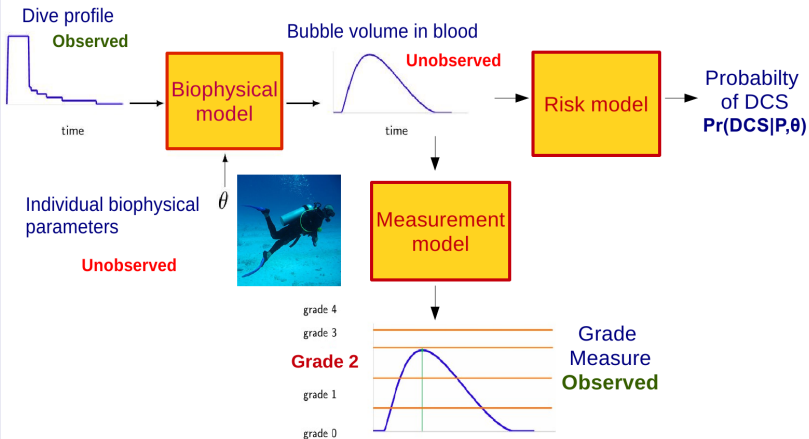
$$(\Pr(\text{DCS} \mid P, \theta), \theta \sim \pi_\theta).$$

Observability problem



Main model: Joint risk-measurement model.

Solution: Joint risk-measurement model



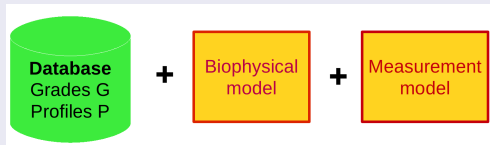
Measurement model for grades

Grade measure $G(P, \theta)$ is supposed to be treshold transformation of $\max_{t \in [0, T]} V(t, P, \theta)$:

$$\forall G \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\} \quad G(P, \theta) = G \iff \max_{t \in [0, T]} V(t; P, \theta) \in [\tau_G, \tau_{G+1}]$$

Thresholds $\tau = (\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3, \tau_4)$, $\tau_G < \tau_{G+1}$, are supposed to be known.

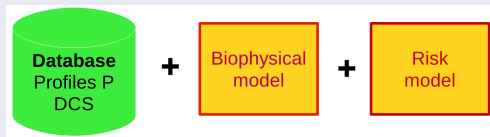
Distribution of individual parameters π_θ



(Y. Bennani & al. 2015) Continuous, non-gaussian distribution $\hat{\pi}_\theta$ is estimated on a compact set $\Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ using nonparametric methods.

We assume π_θ is known and equal $\hat{\pi}_\theta$.

Database for risk estimation



- 131 standard military dive profiles P_k
- $N=53215$ dives, $A=24$ accidents (DCS rate 0.045%)
- Highly unbalanced data: dangerous profiles are much less used.

Considered model

Linear hazard model with “total volume features”

$$\Pr(\text{DCS}|P, \theta) = \beta_0 + 1 - \exp\left(-\beta_1 \int_0^T V(t, P, \theta) dt\right), \quad \beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1) \in \mathcal{B} \in \mathbb{R}^2.$$

We consider the data as being generated by a Cox process with random intensity $\beta_1 V(t, P, \theta)$, that depends on a couple (P_k, θ) with known P_k 's and θ randomly distributed according π_θ .

Maximum Likelihood Estimation of parameters

We estimate $\beta \in \mathcal{B} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ by the maximum of (log-)likelihood:

$$\hat{\beta} = \arg \max_{\beta \in \mathcal{B}} LL_{(A_k, N_k, P_k)_{k=1}^K}(\beta)$$

where the loglikelihood is:

$$LL_{(A_k, N_k, P_k)_{k=1}^K}(\beta) \propto \sum_{k=1}^K (A_k \ln(\mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\theta}} \Pr(\text{DCS} | P_k, \theta)) + (N_k - A_k) \ln(1 - \mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\theta}} \Pr(\text{DCS} | P_k)))$$

and A_k is the number of DCS within N_k dives with profile P_k .

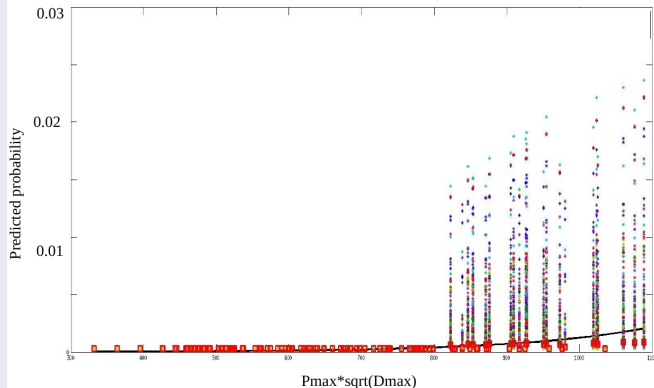
Numerical challenges

- 1 For 131 profiles P_k , we need 131 s to compute $V(t, P_k, \theta)$ for one θ .
 - Monte-Carlo sampling from π_{θ} .
 - Gaussian process interpolation $\int_0^T V(t, P_k, \theta) dt \sim \mathcal{GP}(\mu_k, K_k(\theta, \theta'))$ with respect to θ using the Best Linear Prediction. We learn 131 kriging models.
- 2 The distribution of estimators is not guaranteed to be close to asymptotic normal law. So we use the parametric bootstrap methods for confidence bounds.

Results obtained on real data

- We succeeded in parameter estimation. The loss in loglikelihood was 30 points wrt $\mathcal{B}(P_k, p_k)$ model.

Distribution of predicted individual probabilities



Results obtained in simulations

- Estimators are not in asymptotic gaussian regime. But the the mean of bootstrap distribution of estimators is close to estimated value.
- Scaling simulation: $N_k^\lambda = \lambda \cdot N_k$. For $\lambda = 10$ we are already close to asymptotic regime. For $\lambda = 100$ the asymptotic normal regime is attained for estimators and for loglikelihoods.

Asymptotic formulas

Convergence of estimators: $\sqrt{\lambda}(\hat{\beta}_\lambda - \beta_{true}) \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(0, I^{-1}(\beta_{true}))$ with

$$I(\beta_{true}) = \sum_{k=1}^K N_k f_k^t(\beta_{true}) f_k(\beta_{true}), \quad f_k(\beta_{true}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p_{\beta_{true}}(P_k)(1-p_{\beta_{true}}(P_k))}} \nabla_{\beta} p_{\beta_{true}}(P_k)$$

Convergence of loglikelihood: $\sqrt{\lambda} \left(\frac{LL(\beta_\lambda)}{\lambda} - H(\beta_{true}) \right) \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma(\beta_{true}))$ with

$$H(\beta_{true}) = \sum_{k=1}^K N_k (p_{\beta_{true}}(P_k) \ln p_{\beta_{true}}(P_k) + (1-p_{\beta_{true}}(P_k)) \ln(1-p_{\beta_{true}}(P_k)))$$

$$\Sigma(\beta_{true}) = \sum_{k=1}^K N_k \Sigma_k(\beta_{true}), \quad \Sigma_k(\beta_{true}) = p_{\beta_{true}}(P_k)(1-p_{\beta_{true}}(P_k)) \cdot \ln^2 \left(\frac{p_{\beta_{true}}(P_k)}{1-p_{\beta_{true}}(P_k)} \right)$$

Conclusions

- Estimation procedure work well.
- Model reproduces the variability in DCS exposure.
- We cannot replace the divers by a “standard diver”.
- Model selection and testing is complicated : rare data and multiple testing problem.

Perspectives

- Apply our approach to the data with grades measures and more DCS (first results are very encouraging).
- Get DCS time data in order to check the predicted risk evolution with time
- Introduce covariates: PFO (with size), obesity....
- Design of experience (dive profiles to be tested) to optimize the model estimation.
- Learn the bubble volume signal forms to simplify computations.
- For testing: introduced metric on the dive profiles set.
- Individualise predictions: use multiple longitudinal bubble grade measures.
- Classify the divers into risk groups, compute class-conditioned predictions.

Thank you for your attention!

Questions?