



The use of probabilistic graphical models in pediatric sepsis: a feasibility and scoping review

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Background: Recent research has demonstrated that machine learning (ML) has the potential to improve several aspects of medical application for critical illness, including sepsis. This scoping review aims to evaluate the feasibility of probabilistic graphical model (PGM) methods in pediatric sepsis application and describe the use of pediatric sepsis definition in these studies.

Methods: Literature searches were conducted in PubMed, Scopus, Cumulative Index to Nursing and Allied Health Literature (CINAHL+), and Web of Sciences from 2000–2023. Keywords included “pediatric”, “neonates”, “infants”, “machine learning”, “probabilistic graphical model”, and “sepsis”.

Results: A total of 3,244 studies were screened, and 72 were included in this scoping review. Sepsis was defined using positive microbiology cultures in 19 studies (26.4%), followed by the 2005's international pediatric sepsis consensus definition in 11 studies (15.3%), and Sepsis-3 definition in seven studies (9.7%). Other sepsis definitions included: bacterial infection, the international classification of diseases, clinicians' assessment, and antibiotic administration time. Among the most common ML approaches used were logistic regression (n=27), random forest (n=24), and Neural Network (n=18). PGMs were used in 13 studies (18.1%), including Bayesian classifiers (n=10), and the Markov Model (n=3). When applied on the same dataset, PGMs show a relatively inferior performance to other ML models in most cases. Other aspects of explainability and transparency were not examined in these studies.

Conclusions: Current studies suggest that the performance of probabilistic graphic models is relatively inferior to other ML methods. However, its explainability and transparency advantages make it a potentially viable method for several pediatric sepsis studies and applications.

Keywords: Pediatric sepsis; sepsis definition; probabilistic graphical models (PGMs); machine learning (ML)

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Introduction

It is estimated that more than 50 million cases of sepsis are detected each year, and more than 40% of these cases occur in children under the age of five (1,2). Incidence of sepsis in newborns ranged from 1 to 22 per 1,000 births, with a mortality rate of 5–16% worldwide (1,3,4). Approximately 77% of infants with sepsis require intensive care, while 16% of term infants with sepsis die from this condition (4). Sepsis continues to be the primary cause of severe morbidity and mortality for children in pediatric intensive care units (PICUs), with several challenges to address (2,5,6). One of the most pressing challenges is the absence of an objective, robust and universal sepsis definition, while the existence of disparate variations in clinical presentation and variables (based on clinical, biochemistry and microbiology findings) complicates the diagnosis process (2,7). Moreover, adult-based sepsis definitions often do not apply to children, since physiological and laboratory parameter cutoffs need to be age-appropriate (8). The diagnostic challenge is further compounded by the fact that results of microbiological cultures are often unavailable at the time of sepsis evaluation (9).

In recent years, researchers have utilized machine learning (ML) and electronic health records (EHRs)

in an attempt to address these challenges. ML is an interdisciplinary field combining knowledge from mathematics, statistics, and data analytics. It offers a wide range of established methods, including supervised learning (e.g., regression, classification) and unsupervised learning (e.g., clustering). Both supervised and unsupervised learning can be used to search for predictive patterns in health data to distinguish between patients with and without diseases. Using these methods, researchers have developed several models to diagnose sepsis at the early stages with high accuracy, often without the need for microbiology results (10–13). As a result, they have the potential to contribute towards patient care, reducing patient hospital stay and their medical costs (14–16). Amongst the ML methods, probabilistic graphical models (PGMs), a set of methodologies that uses graphs and probability theory, is one of the most robust approaches available (17,18). PGM constructs a complex network of knowledge and incorporates different information for inference and prediction. Informative graphical representation, intuitive uncertainty handling with conditional probability distributions and joint probability factors, and transparent explanation capabilities make PGM an attractive option in the field of medicine (19). Gupta *et al.* (20) developed a risk prediction model for coronary artery disease (CAD) using PGM with an area under the curve of 0.93 ± 0.06 and demonstrated the possibility of personalized CAD diagnosis and therapy selection. The authors also emphasized the strength of PGM and its efficacy in handling data with uncertainty or missing information. Other investigators have exhibited that PGM could capture the underlying distribution of the dataset and generated the synthetic data effectively with transparency (21). Even though their applications in pediatric sepsis are currently limited, past studies suggest that PGM has the potential to improve several aspects of pediatric sepsis applications (19–21).

In this scoping review, we aim to (I) evaluate the feasibility of PGM in pediatric sepsis application and (II) describe how pediatric sepsis definitions are used in the ML literature. The result of this review will allow us to evaluate potential research opportunities to use PGM for various applications in pediatric sepsis as well as provide our perspective on the use of pediatric sepsis definition for these studies. We present this article in accordance with the PRISMA-ScR reporting checklist (available at <https://tp.amegroups.com/article/view/10.21037/tp-23-25/re>) (22).

Highlight box

Key findings

- Performance of probabilistic graphical model (PGM) is relatively inferior to other machine learning (ML) methods on the same dataset.
- Considering their qualities in explainability and transparency, PGM can be useful in pediatric sepsis applications.

What is known and what is new?

- ML demonstrates potential to in pediatric sepsis applications, with certain advantages.
- PGM provides advantages of interactive representation, transparent reasoning, and missing data handling. There is, however, a lack of in-depth discussion of these aspects in comparison to other ML methods in the current literature.

What is the implication, and what should change now?

- PGM is a potential candidate for pediatric sepsis applications, demonstrating efficacy, robustness, explainability, reliability, and trustworthiness.
- More granular data should be collected to facilitate the extraction and application of multiple definitions of sepsis to enhance the predictive ability of ML models.

Table 1 Inclusion criteria for title/abstract screening

Inclusion criteria
(I) Year: 2000–2022
(II) Journal articles
(III) Study contains the predefined keywords
(IV) Study in English
(V) Pediatric study
(VI) Study conducted on humans
(VII) Real data use

Methods

The following medical databases (January 2000 to May 2023) were used for this review: PubMed, Scopus, Cumulative Index to Nursing and Allied Health Literature (CINAHL+), and Web of Science.

The keywords used for the searches included “sepsis”, “neonates”, “infants”, “pediatric”, “machine learning” and “probabilistic graphical model”. Similar keywords were found by using the Thesaurus dictionary, and the keyword list was refined through several iterative rounds of preliminary searches. At each round, the abstracts and titles of the top search were screened to extract more keywords. The process was repeated until there was no new word to add, and the search results were sufficiently comprehensible. The same processes were applied to the Mesh terms in the PubMed database and subheadings in CINAHL+ and Web of Science. In Scopus, searches were conducted using only keywords. In PubMed, CINAHL+, and Web of Science, searches were conducted using keywords, Mesh terms, and subheadings.

The search results were combined and imported into Covidence (Australia), a licensed literature review web application for screening and review (23). The screening included title/abstract, full-text screening and was completed by two authors (T.M.N., S.W.L. or Y.C.K.H.). They screened the publications independently, and conflicts were resolved by discussion or by involving a third author. *Table 1* lists our inclusion criteria. Data charting was performed using a predetermined Microsoft Excel (United States) template and iteratively reviewed. Extracted data included: title, authors, publication year, objectives, patient characteristics, study design, data source, sepsis definition, sepsis incidence rate, ML variables, ML methodology, performance metrics, and results.

There are a number of metrics that can be used to measure the performance of ML models, depending on their characteristics. In supervised learning for classification task, sensitivity (SEN), specificity (SPE), accuracy (ACC), area under the receiver-operating curve (AUROC), positive predictive value (PPV), and negative predictive value (NPV) are often popular choices. These measurements evaluate how reliable the model is by calculating the proportion of correctly and incorrectly predicted cases on the given dataset. Their equations are derived from the confusion matrix, which comprises the true positive (TP), true negative (TN), false positive (FP), and false negative (FN). AUROC is calculated by measuring the true positive rate against the false negative rate. An AUROC nearer to 1.0 represents a higher capability to distinguish between positive and negative cases. The choice of appropriate metrics depends on the nature of the problem and the dataset. In the event of an imbalanced dataset, the use of ACC, AUROC, or any single metric alone is not recommended because it does not accurately reflect the model’s predictive ability. A combination of them with additional F-score, G-mean, area under precision-recall curve (AUPRC), and various other metrics that provide different views on the predicted positives and negatives should be used instead. The most commonly used evaluation metrics for regression tasks in supervised learning are R squares or adjusted R squares, mean square errors (MSE) or root mean square errors (RMSE), and mean absolute errors (MAE). These metrics measure the fit between prediction values and ground truth values. As for unsupervised learning, performance evaluation is less straightforward as it often requires the evaluation of both the results and the unsupervised algorithms employed. Essentially, it seeks to determine whether the number of clusters discovered is optimal and reliable, as well as validate whether members within a cluster and between clusters are similar. Common metrics include the Davies-Bouldin Index, Calinski-Harabasz Index, and Silhouette Coefficient (24).

The capabilities of ML extend far beyond those of conventional statistical methods. They are, however, difficult to interpret because of their mathematical complexity. A common question that arises when using such a model is why a particular result is reached. One way to approach this question is by examining the features involved in the learning process and the extent to which they contribute to the final result, as seen in some explainable artificial intelligent (XAI) tools. In particular, Shapley additive explanations (SHAP) and local interpretable model-agnostic explanations (LIME) have been gaining

popularity due to their model-agnostic nature and user-friendly interfaces that work on several ML models. Other approaches of XAI can be referred to (25).

In this review, we present the performance comparison in two approaches: (I) an overall qualitative comparison between PGM and other ML methods, and (II) a deeper

comparison based on studies using both PGM and other ML methods on the same dataset. Performance was assessed using AUROC, SEN, SPE, NPV, and PPV, as these metrics have been reported commonly across several studies. In addition to the performance comparison, an analysis of pediatric sepsis definitions was also conducted from selected publications.

Results

Our search identified 3,244 studies, with 2,483 remaining after duplicate removal. Following title/abstract screening, 1,968 irrelevant studies were filtered. An additional 443 were excluded after the full-text screening, leaving 72 studies that met our inclusion criteria (Figure 1, Table S1). Among them, 59 studies (81.9%) were published after 2018 with most studies published in 2021 (n=19, 26.4%). There was a total of 57 retrospective studies (79.2%) conducted using EHR, eight literature reviews, one randomized controlled clinical trial, three observational cohort studies, a derivation-validation, a case-control and a prospective study. We analyzed the use of different pediatric sepsis definitions and classified them into four major categories: (I) positive cultures (n=19, 26.4%), (II) systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS) with suspected or proven infections (IPSCS, 2005, n=11, 15.3%), (III) dysregulated infection response with organ dysfunction criteria (Adapted Sepsis-3, 2016, n=7, 9.7%), and (IV) general infections, including bacteremia, bacterial, viral, or fungal infections, (n=3, 4.2%) (Table 2). The remaining definitions vary from international classification of disease codes, clinician

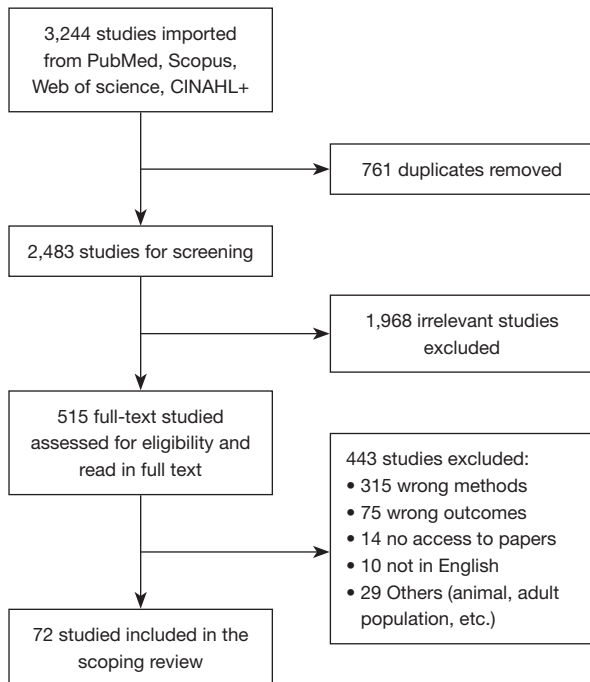


Figure 1 PRISMA-ScR flowchart of the study selection process. A total of 3,244 studies were screened and 72 of them were included in the scoping review.

Table 2 Pediatric sepsis definition

Definitions	Description
IPSCC [2005]	SIRS and presence of suspected or proven infections
Positive cultures	Positive cultures of blood, CSF, etc.
Adapted Sepsis-3 [2016]	Dysregulated host response to infection and dysfunctional organs measured by age-based pSOFA
General infections	
Bacteremia	Blood stream infections with positive cultures
Bacterial infection	Bacterial infection with or without positive cultures
Viral infection	Viral infection with or without positive cultures
Fungal infection	Invasive fungal infection with or without positive cultures

In this review, asymptomatic patients with culture positive are not considered to have sepsis. CSF, cerebrospinal fluid; IPSCC, international pediatric sepsis consensus conference; SIRS, systemic inflammatory response syndrome; pSOFA, pediatric sequential organ failure assessment.

reviews, to the time of antibiotic administration (26–33). We observed an increase in Sepsis-3 use ($n=1$ before 2020, $n=6$ after 2020), even though positive cultures continue to be the most widely used definition ($n=8$ before 2020, $n=11$ after 2020). Most studies utilized only one definition to identify the sepsis cohort, and some did not provide a rationale as to why a particular definition was chosen ($n=11$, 15.3%). Number of study participants ranged from 15 to 35,074, with a number of studies focusing on infants ($n=25$, 34.7%). The incidence of sepsis ranged from 1.2–81%. Among the 25 studies focusing on infants, the common sepsis definitions used were positive cultures ($n=14$, 56%), bacterial sepsis ($n=3$, 12%), time of antibiotic administration ($n=3$, 12%). The study objectives in this group of studies mostly focused on identifying early and late onset sepsis or distinguishing between sepsis and other signs of infection such as SIRS.

The application of ML models in pediatric sepsis is limited to early prediction, risk calculation, and biomarker identification, while studies on sepsis treatment and progression remain relatively scarce. Among the most common ML approaches used were logistic regression (LR, $n=27$), random forest (RF, $n=24$), and neural network (NN, $n=18$). In addition, other tree-based models, including classification and regression tree (CART, $n=6$), decision tree (DT, $n=5$), gradient boosted decision tree (GBDT, $n=8$), extra trees (ET, $n=3$), bagged trees ($n=1$), are also frequently used. Commonly chosen performance metrics were AUROC ($n=49$, 68.1%), and SEN/SPE ($n=29$, 40.3%) (Table S1). PGM models were used in 13 studies (18.1%, Table 3). PGM methods used included naïve Bayes (NB, $n=9$), tree augmented naïve Bayes (TAN, $n=2$), hidden Markov model (HMM, $n=2$), and Markov chain ($n=1$). Overall, the performance of PGM (AUROC: 0.59–0.91, SEN: 0–0.84, SPE: 0.18–0.99, NPV: 0.31–0.98, PPV: 0.28–0.80) vary on different settings and datasets. When comparing PGM and other MLs on the same dataset, PGM showed a relatively inferior performance to other MLs in most cases (Tables 3,4). Furthermore, the studies that used both PGM and other MLs examined and compared only the quantitatively measurable aspects of the methods (e.g., AUROC, SEN, SPE), whereas other attributes, such as explainability and visualization, were not examined. Otherwise, only three studies (34–36) utilized XAI tools, such as SHAP or LIME, to enhance the interpretation of the ML process/models.

Discussion

In this review of ML-based pediatric sepsis literature, we found that most studies used retrospective EHR data and incorporated multiple ML methods to develop predictive models. LR, RF, and NN were the most frequently used ML methods, while positive cultures and IPSCC were the most widely used sepsis definitions. Our findings suggests that PGM performs relatively inferior compared to other ML techniques in most cases. In this section, we review the general ML approaches and assess the potential of PGM in pediatric sepsis.

ML approaches in pediatric sepsis

We observed that in pediatric sepsis, LR, RF, and NN were the most common ML methods, followed by the tree-based models. Similar to linear regression (fitting of a regression line to the data), the LR concept uses the sigmoid function in order to fit an S-curve to the data and determine the probability of the outcome. The RF consists of several small decision trees that work together as an ensemble, where the final decision is determined by a majority vote. Finally, a neural network is a structure of interconnected nodes nested in several layers, where each node is associated with a weight and an activation function. Secondly, the ML studies follow a similar structure for data processing, feature selection, model fitting, testing, and sensitivity analysis. Data is usually divided into training and testing subsets for model learning and validation. To reduce biases during the learning process, k cross-validations can be performed on the whole dataset or the training set. Model fitting is often preceded by feature selection methods such as Elastic Nets, RF, and Lasso when a number of variables are involved (37). Metrics of performance are carefully considered in ML tasks, and sensitivity analyses are usually required for studying the behavior of models under different conditions.

The application of ML models in pediatric sepsis is limited to early prediction, risk calculation, and biomarker identification, while studies on sepsis treatment and progression remain relatively scarce. It is expected that these topics should be explored further, especially in the area of sepsis management. Furthermore, research based on physiological markers, laboratories, heart rate variability, and genes are promising areas for future endeavors (38). Likewise, image and text data should be examined in pediatric sepsis in the same manner as they

Table 3 An overview of PGM studies in the selected articles

Authors, year (number of patients)	Objectives	ML methods	PGM methods	Performance metrics	Other ML results	PGM results	PGM and ML methods performance comparison
Mani <i>et al.</i> , 2014 (N=299)	To develop non-invasive predictive models for late-onset neonatal sepsis from off-the-shelf medical data and EHR	SVM, AODE, K-NN, DT, CART, RF, LR, LBR	NB, TAN	SEN, SPE, AUC, PPV, NPV	SEN (0.75–0.88), SPE (0.18–0.36), PPV (0.68–0.71), NPV (0.24–0.38), AUC (0.54–0.65)	SEN (0.75–0.84), SPE (0.18–0.32), PPV (0.7), NPV (0.31–0.32), AUC (0.59–0.64)	PGM (NB, TAN) yielded comparable results with other ML methods in all performance metrics
Stanculescu <i>et al.</i> , 2014 (N=36)	To use Autoregressive HMM to model the distribution of the physiological events to detect early neonatal sepsis		Autoregressive HMM	AUC, EER		AUC (0.72 to 0.8), EER (0.27–0.34)	PGM (autoregressive HMM) yielded high AUC (0.72–0.8) in all reported models
Gomez <i>et al.</i> , 2019 (N=79)	To develop a minimally invasive and cost-effective tool, based on HRV monitoring and ML algorithms, to predict sepsis risk in neonates within the first 48 hours of life	RF, LR, SVM, AdaBoost, Bagged Trees, Classification Tree, K-NN	NB	SEN, SPE, PPV, NPV, AUC	SEN (0.57–0.94), SPE (0.72–0.95), PPV (0.67–0.95), NPV (0.62–0.94), AUC (0.64–0.94)	SEN (0.43), SPE (0.9), PPV (0.8), NPV (0.6), AUC (0.67)	PGM (NB) yielded comparable SPE, PPV, NPV with other ML methods. However, the yielded NPV, SEN and AUC were lower
Masino <i>et al.</i> , 2019 (N=1,188)	To develop a model using readily available EHR data capable of recognizing infant sepsis at least 4 hours prior to clinical recognition	LR, RF, SVM, K-NN, Gaussian process, AdaBoost, GBDT	NB	AUC, SPE, NPV, PPV	SPE (0.6–0.74), PPV (0.39–0.53), NPV (0.9–0.93), AUC (0.79–0.87)	SPE (0.73), PPV (0.52), NPV (0.92), AUC (0.84)	PGM (NB) yielded comparable results with other ML methods in all performance metrics
Honore <i>et al.</i> , 2020 (N=3,501)	To explore the use of traditional and contemporary HMM for sequential physiological data analysis and sepsis prediction in preterm infants		GMM-HMM, Flow-HMM, DFlow-HMM	ACC		ACC (0.69–0.75)	PGM (HMMs) yielded relatively high ACC (0.69–0.75)
Song <i>et al.</i> , 2020	To examine the feasibility of a prediction model by using noninvasive vital sign data and machine learning technology	LR, RF, DT, ET, GBDT, AdaBoost, Bagging Classifier, multilayer perceptron	Gaussian NB	AUC, ACC, F1, PPV, NPV	ACC (0.81–0.87), AUC (0.77–0.86), F1 (0.13–0.52), PPV (0.28–0.53), NPV (0.87–0.96)	ACC (0.69), AUC (0.82), F1 (0.42), PPV (0.28), NPV (0.96)	PGM (GNB) yielded comparable results with other ML methods in most performance metrics. The yielded ACC, PPV were lower
Cabrera-Quiros <i>et al.</i> , 2021 (N=64)	To predict late-onset sepsis in preterm infants, based on multiple patient monitoring signals 24 hours before onset	LR, nearest mean classifier	NB	SEN, SPE, PPV	SEN (0.68–0.82), SPE (0.75–0.8), PPV (0.73–0.82)	SEN (0.68±0.09), SPE (0.74±0.15), PPV (0.73±0.13)	PGM (NB) yielded comparable performance compared to other ML methods
Ying <i>et al.</i> , 2021 (N=364)	To develop an optimal gene model for the diagnosis of pediatric sepsis using statistics and machine learning approaches	ET, RF, SVM, GBDT, NN	NB	AUC	AUC (0.8–0.94)	AUC (0.8–0.91)	PGM (NB) yielded comparable AUC with other ML
Kausch <i>et al.</i> , 2021 (N=1,425)	To use Markov chain modeling to describe disease dynamics over time by describing how children transition between illness states	Markov chain	Markov chain	AUC		AUC (0.750, 95% CI: 0.708–0.809)	PGM (Markov chain) yielded relatively high AUC (0.75)
Chen <i>et al.</i> 2023 (N=677)	To develop and validate a predictive model for postoperative sepsis within seven using ML	SVM, RF, GBM, AdaBoost, MLP	GNB	AUC, SEN, SPE, F1	AUC (0.71–0.73), SEN (0.26–0.65), SPE (0.71–0.94), F1 (0.37–0.58)	AUC (0.724), SEN (0), SPE (1), F1 (0)	PGM (GNB) did not perform well in this study compared to other MLs
Mercurio <i>et al.</i> 2023 (N=35,074)	To identify sepsis risk factors among children presenting to a pediatric emergency department	SVM, LR, CART	NB	SEN, SPE, PPV, AUC, F1	AUC (0.77–0.81), SEN (0.7–0.93), SPE (0.7–0.92), PPV (0.02–0.05), F1 (0.04–0.1)	AUC (0.65), SEN (0.37), SPE (0.94), PPV (0.04), F1 (0.07)	PGM (NB) yielded lower performance compared to other ML methods
Nguyen <i>et al.</i> 2023 (N=3,014)	To explore the utility of PGM in pediatric sepsis in the pediatric intensive care unit		TAN	ACC, SEN, SPE, AUC, PPV, NPV		ACC (0.77–0.97), SEN (0.2–0.48), SPE (0.89–0.99), AUC (0.74–0.89), PPV (0.24–0.53), NPV (0.79–0.98)	PGM (TAN) yielded high SPE, AUC, and NPV but low SEN and PPV
Honore <i>et al.</i> 2023 (N=325)	To investigate the predictive value of ML-assisted analysis of non-invasive, high frequency monitoring data and demographic factors to detect neonatal sepsis		NB	AUC, LR+, LR–		AUC (0.69–0.81), LR+ (1.7–3.5), LR– (0.2–0.5)	PGM (NB) yielded relatively high AUC

PGM, probabilistic graphical model; ML, machine learning; EHR, electronic health records; SVM, support vector machine; AODE, averaged one dependence estimators; K-NN, K-Nearest Neighbor; DT, decision tree; CART, classification and regression tree; RF, random forest; LBR, Lazy Bayesian rules; NB, naïve Bayes; TAN, tree augmented naïve Bayes; SEN, sensitivity; SPE, specificity; AUC, area under the curve; PPV, positive predicted value; NPV, negative predicted value; HMM, hidden Markov model; EER, equal error rate; HRV, heart rate variability; LR, logistic regression; GMM-HMM, Gaussian mixture model-hidden Markov model; Flow-HMM, flow-based hidden Markov model; DFlow-HMM, discriminate flow-based hidden Markov model; ET, extra trees; GBDT, Gradient Boosting Decision Tree; ACC, accuracy; CI, confidence interval.

Table 4 Performance comparison of PGM and other MLs on the same dataset

Publication	Methods used	AUROC	SEN	SPE	NPV	PPV
Mani <i>et al.</i> , 2014	RF	0.57–0.65	0.82–0.94	0.18–0.47	0.28–0.73	0.55–0.70
	SVM	0.61–0.68	0.79–0.88	0.18–0.26	0.27–0.59	0.51–0.69
	KNN	0.54–0.62	0.83–0.86	0.18–0.29	0.30–0.55	0.52–0.70
	CART	0.65–0.77	0.75–0.81	0.18–0.30	0.23–0.51	0.51–0.68
	LR	0.61	0.86–0.87	0.18–0.33	0.35–0.57	0.52–0.72
	LBR	0.58–0.62	0.86–0.85	0.18–0.33	0.36–0.52	0.52–0.72
	AODE	0.53–0.61	0.85–0.88	0.18–0.36	0.38–0.54	0.52–0.73
	NB*	0.64–0.78*	0.83–0.95*	0.18–0.47*	0.31–0.76*	0.55–0.72*
	TAN*	0.53–0.59*	0.84*	0.18–0.32*	0.32–0.52*	0.50–0.72*
Gomez <i>et al.</i> , 2019	Adaboost	0.943	0.944	0.944	0.942	0.945
	Bagged trees	0.88	0.901	0.858	0.896	0.866
	RF	0.84	0.861	0.818	0.853	0.827
	LR	0.787	0.771	0.804	0.777	0.8
	SVM	0.755	0.641	0.868	0.705	0.831
	DT	0.751	0.816	0.687	0.788	0.726
	KNN	0.64	0.565	0.715	0.62	0.667
	NB*	0.666*	0.431*	0.901*	0.61*	0.814*
	Masino <i>et al.</i> , 2019	Adaboost	0.83–0.85	0.8	0.72	0.92
GB		0.8–0.87	0.8	0.74	0.92	0.53
GP		0.75–0.79	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.44
KNN		0.73–0.79	0.8	0.55	0.9	0.39
LR		0.83–0.85	0.8	0.74	0.93	0.52
RF		0.82–0.86	0.8	0.74	0.92	0.53
SVM		0.82–0.86	0.8	0.72	0.92	0.51
NB*		0.81–0.84*	0.8*	0.73*	0.92*	0.52*
Song <i>et al.</i> , 2020		LR	0.86	–	–	0.94–0.96
	DT	0.6–0.84	–	–	0.84–0.95	0.39–0.57
	AdaBoost	0.81–0.83	–	–	0.91–0.94	0.41–0.53
	ET	0.80	–	–	0.81–0.88	0.53–0.68
	Bagging	0.77–0.81	–	–	0.83–0.88	0.45–0.59
	RF	0.81–0.82	–	–	0.83–0.88	0.51–0.66
	GB	0.86–0.87	–	–	0.92–0.94	0.45–0.56
	GNB*	0.81–0.82*	–*	–*	0.95–0.96*	0.28–0.38*

Table 4 (continued)

Table 4 (continued)

Publication	Methods used	AUROC	SEN	SPE	NPV	PPV
Cabrera-Quiros <i>et al.</i> , 2021	LR	0.79	0.78	0.8	–	0.82
	NN	0.7	0.67	0.74	–	0.73
	NB*	0.71*	0.68*	0.74*	–*	0.73*
Mercurio <i>et al.</i> , 2023	RF	0.81	0.93	0.84	–	0.04
	CART	0.77	0.85	0.7	–	0.02
	LR	0.82	0.76	0.88	–	0.04
	SVM	0.81	0.7	0.92	–	0.05
	GNB*	0.65*	0.37*	0.94*	–*	0.04*
Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2023	LR	0.726	0.541	0.786	–	–
	SVM	0.71	0.648	0.706	–	–
	RF	0.731	0.621	0.761	–	–
	GBM	0.716	0.257	0.944	–	–
	AdaBoost	0.723	0.258	0.937	–	–
	MLP	0.718	0.343	0.877	–	–
	GNB*	0.724*	0*	1*	–*	–*

In this table, PGM methods are marked with “*”. Metrics presented in the table (AUROC, SEN, SPE, NPV, PPV) were those reported in the respective studies. We excluded Stanculescu *et al.* (2014), Honore *et al.* (2020), Ying *et al.* (2021), Kausch *et al.* (2021), Nguyen *et al.* (2023), and Honore *et al.* (2023) from this table because they only use single ML model or reported only AUROC. PGM, probabilistic graphical model; ML, machine learning; AUROC, area under the receiver-operating curve; SPE, specificity; SEN, sensitivity; NPV, negative predicted value; PPV, positive predicted value; RF, random forest; SVM, support vector machine; KNN, K-Nearest Neighbour; LR, logistic regression; LBR, Lazy Bayesian rules; AODE, averaged one dependence estimators; NB, naïve Bayes; TAN, tree augmented naïve Bayes; DT, decision tree; GB, Gradient Boosting; GP, Gaussian Process; ET, extra trees; NN, neural network; CART, classification and regression tree.

have been examined in adult sepsis (13,39,40). Finally, while traditional methods like LR and RF continue to be the popular choices in pediatric sepsis, a growing number of studies are incorporating deep learning into diagnostic models of sepsis (15,31,40,41). Despite the remarkable performance compared to traditional models, deep learning still falls short in several areas. To start, a large sample size is required for training. As for its models, they may have been termed ‘black boxes’, raising questions about whether the produced predictions can be trusted. Nevertheless, we cannot deny the growing potential and achievements of deep learning methods. Therefore, it is necessary to obtain additional evidence and validation before drawing any definitive conclusions about this controversial issue (42).

Even though most ML studies seek to improve performance, their biggest drawback perhaps lies in the lack of transparency in reasoning and interpretation.

An “ideal” ML study in medicine must demonstrate trustworthiness, explainability, usability, reliability, transparency, and fairness (43). The literature has shown that although several ML approaches excel in terms of usability, performance, and proof-of-concept, not many are proficient in trustworthiness, transparency or explainability. Unfortunately, it is these areas that are crucial for ML studies to be accepted by the medical community (14). This problem applies not only to the entire field of medicine, but also to pediatric sepsis applications. We propose that future pediatric sepsis ML studies should consider methods that demonstrate not only efficacy and robustness, but also explainability, reliability, and trustworthiness. A further layer of explainability can be achieved by using additional XAI tools, such as SHAP or LIME, to enhance interpretation of the model results. This is a realistic attempt to bridge the gap between theoretical ML frameworks and practical

applications. In this paper, we assess PGM as an approach among the ML methods that can potentially meet these requirements.

PGM in pediatric sepsis

A total of 13 PGM studies were included in our review (nine NB, three HMM, and one TAN) (33,44-55). Comparing these studies with other ML methods, we observed the following points. As anticipated, the utilization of PGM in pediatric sepsis remains low. A low number of PGM studies may lead to the premature perception that PGM is an unreliable tool; however, this may not be the case as it has been shown to be effective in some precedent studies (42,43). In general, the performance of PGM, with NB being the most used model, appeared relatively less efficient compared to other models. NB may not be the most suitable prediction model for complicated medical conditions, such as pediatric sepsis. As its name suggests, the NB model is based on the naïve assumption that all variables are independent of each other (56). While NB is known to produce remarkable results when dealing with data with less associated variables and outcomes, it is not suitable for describing data with complex relationships. Pediatric sepsis is an excellent example of having such data, where the associations between variables such as history and physical examination findings, vital signs, and laboratory markers are highly correlated. As a result, NB performance was relatively inferior, whereas other models showed better results because they were able to describe the data more accurately. We observed the same situation in other diseases (e.g., adult sepsis, cancer, or cardiovascular) that NB performance is inferior to its PGM relative methods, such as Bayesian network (BN), dynamic Bayesian network (DBN) or HMM (38-40,57).

A comparison of the characteristics of PGM and other ML methods is presented in *Table 5*. Among the popular methods that are often used in the literature for PGM, we selected BN, NB, TAN, HMM, DBN, and influence diagram (ID). Other ML methods that we chose from our review include LR, RF, support vector machine (SVM), NN, extreme gradient boosting (XGBoost), and DT. We observed that all methods exhibit different strengths in different areas. For instance, several of the other ML methods shown in *Table 5* are capable of performing both classification and regression, while PGM can only perform classification. The NN and the SVM excel on several criteria; however, they require longer training

time, hardware dependence, and additional aids for visualization and interpretation. Additionally, certain limitations highlighted in some areas can be overcome through alternative solutions and additional assistance, such as pre-data processing, visualization aids, and XAI. For instance, continuous data and time series data can be broken down into categorical and sliding-window data to use with methods that do not natively support them. The main disadvantage of all methods is that they are sensitive to outliers, imbalanced data, and easily prone to overfitting when the model settings are not probably figured. The complexity of the model, the training time, and the interpretability of the results are also subjected to trade-offs. It is likely that highly complex models will require a larger amount of training time and be more challenging to interpret.

In comparison with other ML methods, PGM has certain advantages and is particularly appealing with an interactive graphical representation, a wide range of methods, transparent reasoning, the ability for causal inference and handling missing data (*Table 5*). While there are presentation elements for other MLs (e.g., LR, SVM, NN), these are often confined to two or three dimensions requiring additional visualization aid (saliency maps, activation maximization). PGM, in contrast, is able to present high-dimensional data in the form of a compact and friendlier network, in which variables and their relationships are represented as nodes and edges. This representation allows clinicians to conduct causal inference and prediction tasks simultaneously, allowing them to diagnose as well as investigate the interactions between variables. As a result, this can facilitate the study of sepsis recognition, the calculation of sepsis risk, and the identification of sepsis biomarkers. Additionally, PGM has an extensive body of established methods that can be applied to a wide variety of data types (e.g., text, images, tabular data, and time series data), and can be tailored to meet various requirements (e.g., prediction, inference, and decision making) (18). In this way, PGM is capable of processing clinical images, physician notes, and the creation of monitoring and decision-support tools together with the causal inference ability. *Figure 2* illustrates several PGM methods for sepsis applications, including TAN, NB, Markov models, and ID for assessing sepsis, monitoring the disease's progression, and making clinical decisions. Finally, PGM provides transparency in reasoning, which is one of the most desirable characteristics for medical applications (43). At any point in time, the mechanism by which it produces its predictions can be

Table 5 Characteristic comparison between PGM methods and other ML methods

Characteristics	PGM method						Other ML methods					
	TAN	NB	HMM	ID	BN	DBN	LR	RF	SVM	NN	XGBoost	DT
Data handling												
Handling small data size	*	*	*	*	*	*			*			
Handling big dataset	*	*	*	*	*	*	*			*		
Handling missing data	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*		*	*
Handling imbalance data												
Handling noisy data	*	*	*	*	*	*			*	*		
Handling outliers								*	*		*	*
Usage on continuous data									*	*	*	
Usage on category data	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*				*
Usage on time-series data			*			*			*	*		
Variable selection								*	*	*	*	*
Presentation												
Visualization	*	*	*	*	*	*		*			*	*
Capability												
Classification	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Regression								*	*	*	*	*
Causal inference	*	*	*	*	*	*						
Support decision-making				*				*			*	*
Natural language processing	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	*		*
Image processing	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	*		*
Interpretation												
Explainable method	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*			*	*
Computational requirement												
Require hardware dependency									*	*	*	
Require more training time								*	*	*		
Prone to overfitting	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*

An asterisk “*” indicates that the respective characteristic is available. It is important to note that each method exhibits different strengths in different areas. In this table, the characteristics described are not meant to be exhaustive. Additionally, certain limitations highlighted in some areas can be overcome through alternative solutions. It has been demonstrated that some of the characteristics of data handling, visualization, and explainability can be overcome through the use of additional assistance, such as pre-data processing, visualization aids, and explainable artificial intelligence (XAI). For instance, continuous data and time series data can be broken down into categorical and sliding-window data to use with methods that do not natively support them. PGM, probabilistic graphical model; ML, machine learning; TAN, tree augmented naïve Bayes; NB, naïve Bayes; HMM, hidden Markov model; ID, influence diagram; BN, Bayesian network; DBN, dynamic Bayesian network; LR, logistic regression; RF, random forest; SVM, support vector machine; NN, neural network; XGBoost, extreme gradient boosting; DT, decision tree.

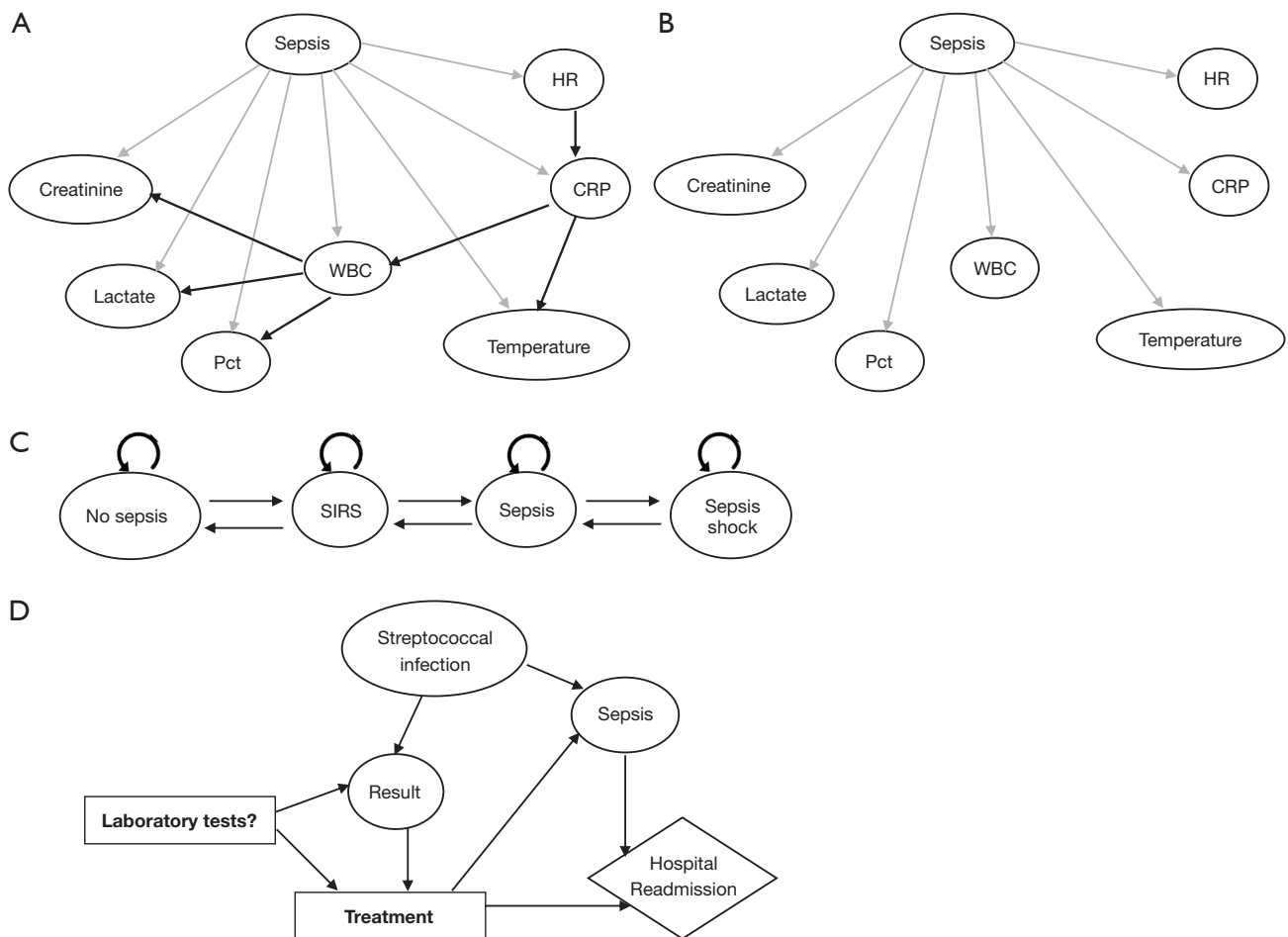


Figure 2 Example of different PGM methods in sepsis application. Different PGM method can be utilized to model sepsis diagnosis problem. For example: (A) tree augmented naïve Bayesian network; (B) naïve Bayes; (C) Markov model; (D) influence diagram. PGM, probabilistic graphical model; CRP, C-reactive protein; HR, heart rate; Pct, procalcitonin; SIRS, systemic inflammatory response syndrome; WBC, white blood cell count.

explained using probability and graph theory; therefore there is no need to apply additional XAI tools. Considering the transparency requirement of the medical application and the future direction for pediatric sepsis research, we recommend that PGM be considered as a potential tool in pediatric sepsis diagnosis application among other ML methods.

While PGMs have many benefits, the following drawbacks should be considered prior to selecting them as the prediction model for sepsis diagnosis. PGM does not support variable selection or regression. Despite the fact that it is capable of handling missing data, it may be necessary to perform pre-data processing in order to remove outliers and convert continuous variables into categorical

variables. Furthermore, PGM faces the same limitations as other ML methods when dealing with imbalance data, which will require additional treatment before the model can be trained. Conventional PGMs also have the disadvantage of requiring expertise to select the variables and define their relationships during the model construction phase. While these models can leverage domain knowledge from experts, they are prone to bias and are difficult to modify. Moreover, it is impractical and time-consuming for experts to construct networks containing many variables, as is typically the case with sepsis diagnosis. Today, PGM structure is primarily extracted directly from data. However, these data-driven models, much like other ML data-driven models, are often data-specific and may suffer from

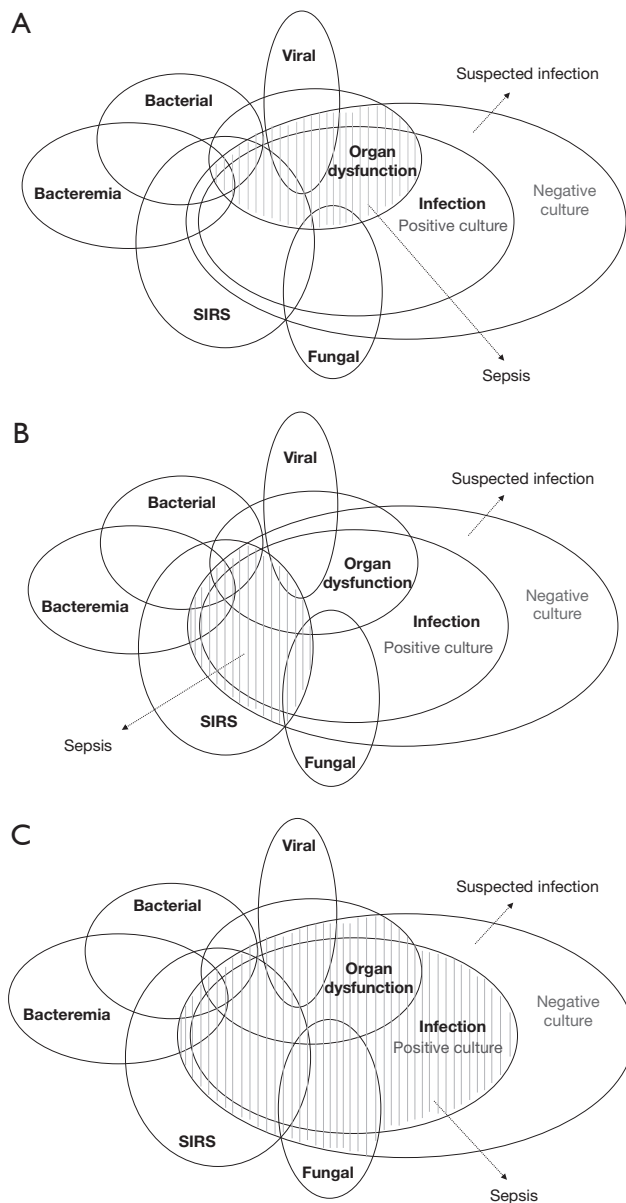


Figure 3 Pediatric sepsis population identified by different definitions. (A) Sepsis-3 in 2016, (B) IPCCS in 2005, and (C) the combined pediatric sepsis distribution of several pediatric sepsis (highlighted area). IPCCS, international pediatric sepsis consensus conference; SIRS, systemic inflammatory response syndrome.

poor generalization to another dataset. Moreover, even though explainability and transparency give PGM more advantages from other methods in ML, these qualities may have contributed to some degradation of its performance as well (58).

Pediatric sepsis definitions used in ML research

Sepsis definition plays a significant role in determining the study cohort and has a direct impact on ML model performance to detect actual cases of sepsis. In this subsection, we evaluate the use of pediatric sepsis definitions in ML studies.

Since the publication of the revised adult sepsis definition in 2016 and the launch of the Surviving Sepsis Campaign in 2020, an increasing number of studies have incorporated dysfunctional organ criteria as a means to detect sepsis in children (59,60). Several reasons may account for the preference for positive cultures in these studies, including the fact that infants exhibit non-specific clinical symptoms of sepsis. Moreover, it is possible that the selection of sepsis definitions in ML-based studies may be constrained by the information contained in the dataset, with the absence of certain variables preventing researchers from considering certain definitions. For instance, Sepsis-3 cannot be used if there is insufficient data to measure the organ dysfunction criteria. More importantly, we observed that most studies utilized only one definition to identify the sepsis cohort, and some failed to provide a rationale as to why a particular definition was chosen (34,50,61).

Table 2 shows the categories of the pediatric sepsis definition we analysed from the ML studies. These categories overlapped with one another, and a patient with sepsis might fall into either of them, as demonstrated by the Sepsis Prevalence, Outcomes, and Therapies (SPROUT) study involving 128 PICUs from 26 countries (Figure 3) (6). This indicates that pediatric sepsis cannot be reliably identified through a single definition and that utilizing more than one definition could increase the likelihood to identify sepsis cases. As for ML models, given that no single definition is capable of identifying sepsis effectively, a model trained on a singular definition may not be sufficiently generalizable. In contrast, a model trained on multiple definitions will be exposed to different characteristics of sepsis, thereby increasing its ability to recognize one later on. We hypothesize that, with a proper structure and set up, ML methods may have the capability to learn the characteristics of these subgroups. However, this approach needs to be tested and validated in future studies.

Recommendation

In view of the PGM’s inherent qualities and potential for clinical use, we recommend that researchers consider

using PGM methods in future studies of pediatric sepsis. Additionally, we recommend that ML studies include more than one definition of sepsis in order to enhance their predictive capabilities. In the event that a dataset does not contain enough information to extract more than one definition, researchers may consider combining several datasets. More granular data should also be collected in future original studies on sepsis to facilitate the extraction of multiple sepsis definitions. Finally, it would be desirable to conduct studies that could compare single definition-learned model with the multiple definitions-learned model in order to validate our hypothesis that combining two or more sepsis definitions will improve performance of ML methods.

Study limitations

There are several limitations to this scoping review. Our review included only articles published in PubMed, Scopus, Web of Science, and CINAHL+. Therefore, it is possible that we have missed some publications in other databases. Moreover, given the pace of ML advancement, our results could be quickly complemented by new studies. For evaluation of ML models, it is recommended to use a number of different metrics, including AUROC, AUPRC, F1-score, G-mean, and more. Ideally, our performance comparison should have been conducted using these metrics. However, not all of the metrics mentioned above were reported in the selected studies. Comparing models in this manner may not represent all aspects of their performance accurately. Finally, we did not assess the quality of the selected studies, which could have provided readers with a broader perspective and evaluation. However, the quality assessment of included studies is not considered mandatory in the PRISMA-ScR guidelines (23).

Conclusions

This scoping review summarizes ML and PGM approaches in pediatric sepsis over the past two decades and discusses how sepsis definitions were applied in these studies. The performance of PGM was relatively inferior to other ML methods. However, with the advantages of explainability and transparency, PGM can be considered as a viable tool for future pediatric sepsis studies and application.

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Footnote

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