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The completeness, accuracy and impact on alerts, of wearable vital signs monitoring in hospitalised patients

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Research Article

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Abstract

Background

Use of wearable vital signs sensors to monitor hospitalised patients is growing but uncertainty exists about completeness of data capture and accuracy of measurements. Implications for track and trigger systems are unclear.

Methods

In this observational study, adult inpatients with Covid-19 wore four wearable sensors recording heart rate/respiratory rate (HR/RR), oxygen saturation (SpO₂), axillary temperature and blood pressure (BP). Wearable vitals were paired with traditional vitals recorded concurrently. The accuracy of the wearable vitals was assessed using traditional vitals as the reference. National early warning (NEWS2) scores were calculated using wearable and traditional vitals.

Results

48 patients were monitored for 204 days with the sensors. Median sensor wear was 3.9(IQR:1.7-5.9), 3.9(IQR:1.6-5.9) and 3.8(IQR:0.9-5.9) days for HR/RR, temperature and SpO₂ respectively. The BP cuff was worn for median 1.9(IQR:0.9-3.8) days in 33 patients. Length of hospital stay was 8(IQR:6-13) days. Completeness of data capture was 84% for HR/RR, 98% for temperature, 72% for SpO₂ and 36% for BP.

There were 1632 HR, 1613 RR, 1411 temperature, 1294 SpO₂ and 51 BP wearable-traditional measurement pairs. 59.7% of HR pairs were within ±5bpm, 38.5% of RR pairs within ±3breaths/min, 24.4% of temperature pairs within ±0.3°C, 32.9% of SpO₂ pairs within ±2% and 39.0% of BP pairs within ±10mmHg. Agreement between wearable and traditional RRs was poor at high RRs.

613 NEWS2 scores were calculated using wearable-traditional HR, RR, temperature and SpO₂ pairs. The median NEWS2_{traditional} was 1(IQR:1-2) and the median NEWS2_{wearable} was 4(IQR:3-6). Using traditional NEWS2 alerts as a reference, 86% (225/262) of wearable NEWS2 5+ alerts and 89% (82/92) of wearable NEWS2 7+ alerts were false positives.

Conclusions

Agreement between vital signs recorded by wearable sensors and concurrent traditional vitals is poor. Data from wearable sensors should not be used in existing track and trigger systems.

Background

Wearable vital signs sensors (WVSSs) are wireless, non-invasive devices worn by patients which permit near-continuous recording of heart rate (HR), respiratory rate (RR), oxygen saturations (SpO₂) and blood pressure (BP). In low resource settings and healthcare economies struggling with staff shortages, such sensors could automate repetitive manual vital signs measurements thereby freeing time to care. The near-continuous recording theoretically allows no deterioration to go unnoticed and permits advanced analytics to predict and detect important patient centred outcomes and potentially to personalise care. Patients and their relatives may feel a sense of security in knowing that they are always monitored. With these benefits in mind, there has been a growing interest¹ in the use of WVSSs to monitor patients in hospital but there remains uncertainty about the accuracy of the vital signs they record^{2, 3}. The evidence that they have a positive impact on outcomes for hospitalised patients is not established⁴.

Numerous studies have assessed the accuracy of vitals recorded by WVSSs but many have focussed on short timescales or have compared WVSSs to critical care standards of monitoring, sometimes in optimised environments³. A true picture of their performance requires assessment in hospital wards which are subject to the challenges and limitations of such environments.

Most hospitals use some form of track and trigger system to detect and respond to the deteriorating patient⁵. Yet clinical staff do not always follow track and trigger protocols⁶ and WVSSs which could automate early warning score (EWS) completion could be valuable. However, studies which assess the impact of incorporating vital signs data from WVSSs into such systems are uncommon⁷. Instead, many authors have suggested developing new approaches to the deteriorating patient which can accommodate data from WVSSs. These have included incorporating an additional alerting step to prompt manual calculation of an EWS⁸, adjusting EWS systems to reflect wearable data^{9, 10} or the development of novel deterioration indices utilising wearable data¹¹. A benefit of the EWS system is its simplicity and widespread adoption. New approaches add complexity. It is therefore prudent to assess what would happen if vital signs from WVSSs were simply used in existing EWS systems.

In this context, we conducted the COSMIC-19 (continuous signs monitoring in Covid-19) study which evaluated a suite of WVSSs in hospitalised patients with Covid-19 in a real-world, ward environment. Our aim was to determine the completeness and accuracy of the data recorded by the WVSSs in comparison to traditional ward vital signs. We also sought to assess how National Early Warning Score 2 (NEWS2) scores¹² would differ if calculated using vitals obtained by WVSSs instead of concurrent traditional vitals measurements.

Methods

The COSMIC-19 study was registered with clinicaltrials.gov (registration: NCT04581031). It was approved by Yorkshire and the Humber – Bradford Leeds Research Ethics Committee, UK (reference 20/YH/0156). It was funded by the Innovate Manchester Advanced Therapy Centre Hub, Innovate UK, (project ID: 6239) with additional support from the Christie Hospital Charitable Fund.

Symptomatic, adult inpatients (16 years or older) with suspected or confirmed Covid-19, who were suitable for escalation to critical care and receiving supplemental oxygen when screened were eligible for enrolment. Patients were recruited within 72 hours of hospital admission. We excluded patients unable to give informed consent, who were anticipated to die within 24 hours or those with a contraindication to wearing the WVSSs. Patients were recruited at Manchester Royal Infirmary, an academic, tertiary, metropolitan hospital in the UK with over 150,000 emergency department presentations annually.

Wearable vital signs sensors

We investigated four WVSSs which measured heart rate/respiratory rate (HR/RR), oxygen saturation (SpO₂), axillary temperature and systolic blood pressure (SBP). The four sensors were purchased from Isansys Ltd¹³ and were used as part of the Isansys Patient Status Engine (PSE), a digital platform for vital signs capture and reporting which is a regulated medical device. Isansys Ltd had no input in the design or conduct of the research. The wearables are summarised in Table 1.

Participants wore the four WVSSs for up to 20 days or until they lost capacity to consent to continue or were discharged, whichever was earlier. They were free to discontinue any sensor at any time. Participants received usual care during monitoring with the WVSSs, including traditional vital signs measurements by ward staff. This included temperature

measurements using a tympanic thermometer. The clinical team and participants were blinded to the WVSS measurements.

The research team monitored the participants for WVSS disconnection via a remote dashboard. Each participant's data was reviewed at least once every 24 hours. In the event of a disconnection, the researchers visited the participant to aid with wearable re-application or removal if they chose to discontinue a sensor. The research team maintained a log of all occasions when participants removed the sensors and their reasons for doing so.

Data capture

We recruited a convenience sample of 30–60 participants, informed by the number of WVSSs available for the research. No formal sample size calculations were performed.

An electronic case report form (eCRF, DataTrial Ltd, Newcastle, UK) was used to capture demographics, diagnostic information, sensor application/removal and outcomes. Traditional vital signs were downloaded from the hospital electronic track and trigger system (Patientrack, Alcidion Ltd, Aus). Traditional vitals were filtered to exclude non-physiological values. Wearable vital signs were captured via the Isansys PSE. Error codes were removed from the wearable data but no vital signs measurements were excluded.

Data analysis

The completeness of vital sign capture was reported as the percentage of time for which a vital sign was recorded by a WVSS as a proportion of the total time for which the sensor was worn. The number of participants who removed each sensor prematurely and their reasons for doing was summarised. A Kaplan Meier analysis was conducted where the event of interest was a temporary gap in wearable sensor data of varying durations. Participants were censored if they permanently removed the WVSS for any reason.

For each WVSS, the accuracy of the vital signs was assessed using traditional vital signs as a reference standard. For each traditional measurement, a corresponding wearable vital signs measurement was determined by taking the median of all wearable measurements within the preceding five minutes (for HR, RR, temperature and SpO₂) or 15 minutes (for SBP). These timescales and the approach were chosen to align with existing published work^{7, 14–19}. A Bland Altman analysis²⁰ was performed to determine the bias and 95% limits of agreement (LoA) for each vital. The repeated nature of measurements was accounted for using the methods described by Zou et al.²¹ In keeping with previous literature³, we defined ± 5bpm, ±3breaths/min, ± 2%, ± 0.3°C and ± 10mmHg a priori as clinically acceptable agreement between HR, RR, SpO₂, temperature and SBP respectively.

To assess how monitoring patients with WVSS would impact clinical alerts, a partial National Early Warning Score¹² (NEWS2) was calculated using wearable sensor measurements and compared to the NEWS2 calculated from traditional vitals. Both calculations did not include level of consciousness and air/oxygen scores. We assumed all participants were on SpO₂ scale 1. A modified Clarke Error Grid analysis²² was also performed for each individual NEWS2 component. This quantifies how differences between corresponding wearable and traditional measurements would impact the NEWS2 component. Finally, to compare trends between successive wearable and traditional measurements, 4Q plots²³ were created for each vital sign.

All analysis was conducted using R (version 3.6)²⁴. Continuous variables were assessed for normality and are presented as mean (standard deviation) or median [interquartile range]. Categorical variables are presented as the population size and the percentage (of available data) for each class.

Table 1

a summary of the wearable health monitor devices deployed in this study. BLE - Bluetooth low energy, BP = blood pressure, ECG = electrocardiogram, HR = heart rate, HRV = heart rate variability, pleth = plethysmography, PSE = patient status engine, RR = respiratory rate, SpO₂ = haemoglobin oxygen saturation.

Feature	Wearable Vital Signs Sensor					
	HR/RR	Temperature	SpO ₂ Nonin3150	BP		
	Isansys Lifetouch Sensor ¹³	lsansys Lifetemp Sensor ¹³	WristOx ²⁵	A&D TM2441 BP Monitor ²⁶		
Form Factor	A small patch attached via standard ECG electrodes	A small adhesive patch	Wrist-worn module, pulse oximetry finger probe	Cuff with attached servo unit.		
CE marked medical device	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes		
Wear Location	Precordium	Axilla	Wrist and fingertip	Arm		
Frequency of vital sign measurement	Every minute	Every minute	Every minute	Hourly (6am- 10pm), every two hours (10pm-6am)		
Battery Life	72 hours.	5 days.	48 hours. 2x AAA batteries.	2x AA batteries.		
Single Use?	Yes	Yes	No	No		
Data Synchronisation	BLE to Samsung Galaxy Tablet. Subsequent data upload via WiFi/cellular from tablet to remote server (Isansys LifeGuard Server)					
Software Used	Isansys PSE software.					
Metrics recorded	Accelerometer (activity and posture), ECG (single lead), HR, HRV, RR.	Temperature (skin - axilla)	HR (pleth) SpO ₂ (finger)	Non-invasive BP		

Results

Study participants

Figure 1 summarises screening and recruitment. 179 eligible patients were identified and 48 took part. Most (43/48) were recruited between July 2020 and March 2021, during the first and second UK waves of the coronavirus pandemic. Five were recruited between July 2021 and February 2022, during the delta and omicron waves in the UK²⁷. In 47 participants, SARS-CoV-2 infection was confirmed on nasopharyngeal swab (lateral flow or polymerase chain reaction), one participant had symptoms consistent with Covid-19 and high clinical suspicion of infection but without a positive screening result.

Table 2 summarises the demographics and clinical characteristics of study participants, stratified according to whether they were admitted to critical care. 32/48 (66.7%) were male and 32/48 (66.7%) were from non-Caucasian ethnicities.

	Overall	Not admitted to ICU	Admitted to ICU	
	N=48	n=37	n=11	
Male sex	32 (66.7)	25 (67.6)	7 (63.6)	
Age	51.0 [40, 58]	51 [36, 60]	48 [42, 56]	
Ethnicity				
Arabic	3 (6.2)	1 (2.7)	2 (18.2)	
Indian/Pakistani	20 (41.7)	12 (32.4)	8 (72.7)	
Black	8 (16.7)	8 (21.6)	0 (0.0)	
Mixed	1 (2.1)	1 (2.7)	0 (0.0)	
Caucasian	16 (33.3)	15 (40.5)	1 (9.1)	
BMI kg/m ² N=43	29.7 [27.0, 34.7]	30.2 [26.7, 34.0]	29.1 [28.2, 37.3]	
Type 2 diabetes mellitus	12 (25.0)	8 (21.6)	4 (36.4)	
Hypertension	12 (25.0)	8 (21.6)	4 (36.4)	
Ischaemic heart disease	2 (4.2)	2 (5.4)	0 (0.0)	
CKD (stage 2+)	4 (8.3)	2 (5.4)	2 (18.2)	
Heart failure (NYHA 3+)	1 (2.1)	1 (2.7)	0 (0.0)	
COPD	3 (6.2)	2 (5.4)	1 (9.1)	
Asthma	13 (27.1)	9 (24.3)	4 (36.4)	
Smoking status				
Current smoker	4 (8.3)	2 (5.4)	2 (18.2)	
Ex-smoker	9 (18.8)	7 (18.9)	2 (18.2)	
Never smoked	32 (66.7)	25 (67.6)	7 (63.6)	
Unknown	3 (6.2)	3 (8.1)	0 (0.0)	
Rockwood frailty score				
1	15 (31.2)	11 (29.7)	4 (36.4)	
2	17 (35.4)	15 (40.5)	2 (18.2)	
3	14 (29.2)	10 (27.0)	4 (36.4)	
4	2 (4.2)	1 (2.7)	1 (9.1)	

Table 2: demographics and clinical characteristics of patients recruited into the study. BMI = body mass index, CKD = chronic kidney disease classification, COPD = chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, ICU = intensive care unit, NYHA = New York Heart Association classification.

Completeness of data capture from wearable sensors

The median time from admission to wearable sensor application was 27 (IQR:22–46) hours. The median length of hospital stay for each participant was 8 (IQR:6–13) days. The total number of patient-days of sensor wear was 202, 200, 204 and 82 days for the HR/RR, temperature, SpO_2 and BP WVSSs respectively (Table 3). This represented a median duration of wear of approximately 4 days per participant for the HR/RR, temperature and SpO_2 sensors. The duration of wear for the BP cuff was median 1.9 days per participant. This was due to connectivity difficulties and because many participants either declined the sensor or requested early removal. The duration of wearable application was similar when calculated from the data recorded by each wearable or from the sensor log maintained by the research team (appendix 1).

Table 3 duration of wear (first to last valid wearable vital signs measurement), completeness of data capture and reasons for wearable removal. The blood pressure cuff was not applied to 15 participants at their request. BP = non-invasive blood pressure, SpO₂ = oxygen saturations.

	Wearable Sensor (N = 48)			
	HR/RR	Temperature	SpO ₂	BP
	(LifeTouch)	(LifeTemp)	(Nonin PulseOx)	(A&D TM2441)
Duration of sensor wear (days/participant)	3.9	3.9	3.8	1.9
	[1.7, 5.9]	[1.6, 5.9]	[0.9, 5.9]	[0.9-3.8]
Overall completeness (%) of wearable sensor data	81.2	92.1	68.6	38.4
Completeness (%) per participant	83.8	97.7	72.3	35.8
	[64.1, 95.7]	[79.7, 99.8]	[61.7, 87.2]	[16.3, 47.6]
Reason for device removal				
Discharge from hospital	25 (52.1)	23 (47.9)	24 (50.0)	9 (18.8)
Critical care, loss of capacity	4 (8.3)	4 (8.3)	3 (6.3)	-
Participant request	19 (39.6)	21 (43.8)	21 (43.8)	22 (45.8)
Never applied	-	-	-	15 (31.3)
Other	-	-	-	2 (4.2)

Figure 2 summarises the results of the Kaplan Meier analysis of gaps of varying duration in wearable sensor data. The analysis was limited for SBP due to the intermittent nature of measurements (maximum frequency of wearable recordings: 1–2 hourly). The median survival time without data loss and the percentage of patients without data loss in 24 hours are summarised in appendix 2.

Accuracy of wearable sensor measurements

After creating pairs of wearable and traditional vital signs measurements (within the 5/15min epochs, see methods), there were 1633, 1614, 1412, 1294 and 59 pairs of HR, RR, temperature, SpO_2 and SBP measurements respectively. 59.7% HR pairs were within ± 5bpm, 38.5% of RR pairs were within ± 3breaths/min, 24.4% of temperature pairs were within ± 0.3°C, 32.9% of SpO_2 pairs were within ± 2% and 39.0% of SBP pairs were within ± 10mmHg. The correlation coefficients for each vital sign are displayed in Table 4 (see appendix 3 for scatterplots).

Figure 3 displays the Bland Altman plots for HR, RR, temperature and SpO₂ stratified according to whether the participant was on a ward or in critical care. The corresponding plot for SBP is available in appendix 4. There was constant variation between wearable and traditional vital signs measurements across the measurement range for HR and SpO₂. RR measurements showed a systematic difference at high mean RRs in critical care, with traditional RR measurements being higher than wearable measurements. A sensitivity analysis (appendix 5) identified that this difference was due to data from five participants who had higher traditional RR measurements than other participants. Temperature measurements also showed a systematic difference at low mean temperatures with traditional measurements being higher than wearable measurements. There were insufficient SBP measurement pairs to comment on the variation in measurements. Table 4 displays the bias and limits of agreement for each vital sign. Not all participants wore all sensors and only participants with at least two measurement pairs are included in this analysis.

Table 4

Bland Altman metrics for each wearable vital sign measurement compared to traditional vital signs measurements as the reference standard. Bias = wearable - traditional (95% confidence interval), LoA = 95% limits of agreement (95% confidence interval). HR = heart rate, RR = respiratory rate, SBP = systolic blood pressure, SpO₂ = oxygen saturations, Temp = temperature. *any participants with only a single measurement pair for the vital sign concerned are excluded to enable calculation of the 95% confidence intervals.

	Vital sign				
	HR (bpm)	RR (/min)	Temp (°C)	SpO ₂ (%)	SBP (mmHg)
Participants*	46	46	47	43	10
Measurement pairs	1632	1613	1411	1294	51
Pairs/participant	24 [9,39]	24 [9,39]	26 [10,42]	24 [9,32]	5 [3,5]
Correlation coefficient (Pearson	0.77	0.19	0.33	0.51	0.24
')	(0.75 to 0.79)	(0.15 to 0.24)	(0.28 to 0.38)	(0.47 to 0.55)	(-0.02 to 0.47)
Bias	-0.2	-1.8	-1.0	-2.8	-0.7
	(0.3 to -0.7)	(-1.4 to -2.2)	(-1.0 to -1.1)	(-2.6 to -2.9)	(6.9 to -8.3)
Upper LoA	21.3	14.2	1.7	3.5	37.6
	(23.3 to 19.6)	(17.0 to 12.0)	(2.1 to 1.4)	(4.1 to 2.9)	(55.5 to 27.9)
Lower LoA	-21.6	-17.8	-3.8	-9.0	-39.0
	(-19.9 to -23.7)	(-15.6 to -20.6)	(-3.5 to -4.2)	(-8.5 to -9.6)	(-29.2 to -56.8)

Impact of wearable vital signs measurements on alerts

Amongst the pairs of traditional and wearable vital signs measurements, there were only 31 instances when HR, RR, temperature, SpO₂ and SBP were simultaneously available to calculate a partial NEWS2 (see methods). Appendix 6 summarises the differences in partial NEWS2 scores calculated from these five vital signs and the impact on the rate of NEWS2 5 + or 7 + alerts by each method. This small number of NEWS2 scores reflects that many participants did not wear the BP cuff or chose to remove it early.

In contrast, there were 613 instances when HR, RR, temperature and SpO_2 were simultaneously available to calculate a partial NEWS2. The median NEWS2 by traditional methods was 1 [IQR: 1–2] and by wearable methods was 4 [IQR: 3–6]. Table 5summarises the number of times when a NEWS2 5 + or 7 + alert would have been generated by each method. At

our institution, NEWS2 5 + would typically alert the ward based medical team, whilst 7 + would typically generate a critical care response.

Table 5: confusion matrix for NEWS2 scores calculated from 4 vital signs (heart rate, respiratory rate, temperature and SpO_2) using paired traditional and wearable vital signs. A positive NEWS2 score is considered a score of 5+ or 7+ respectively. *On 11 occasions, vitals from wearable sensors identified a 5+ NEWS2 event at the same time as traditional measurements but also identified a 5+ NEWS2 event in the preceding 12 hours which was not detected by traditional measurements. We considered this to represent early detection of deterioration and therefore a true positive. ^{\$}Similarly, there were 5 instances of early detection of a 7+ NEWS2 event. NEWS2 = national early warning score 2.

		NEWS2 5+ (4 vitals, traditional)		NEWS2 7+ (4 vitals, traditional)	
		Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
NEWS2 5+	Positive	26+11*	225		
(4 vitals, wearable)	Negative	6	345		
NEWS2 7+ (4 vitals, wearable)	Positive			5 + 5 ^{\$}	82
	Negative			2	519

Appendix 7 displays the differences in NEWS2 component scores for each pair of vital signs measurements. The corresponding modified Clarke Error Grids for each vital sign are displayed in appendix 8. The greatest agreement in NEWS2 component scores was observed for HR (85.1%). For all other NEWS2 component scores agreement was less than 50%.

Appendix 9 displays the 4Q plots which assess the correlation in differences between successive vital sign measurements by traditional and wearable techniques. There was a moderate correlation between HR measurements recorded on the ward (r = 0.39) and in critical care (r = 0.40), between SpO₂ measurements recorded in critical care (r = 0.35) and between SBP measurements recorded on the ward (r = 0.45). In all other cases there was little or no correlation.

Discussion

In this observational study of WVSSs in hospitalised patients with Covid-19 we monitored HR, RR, temperature and SpO₂ in 48 individuals for a median duration of 3.8–3.9 days. Non-invasive, intermittent, automated BP measurement was poorly tolerated and suffered technical challenges such that the median duration of monitoring was 1.9 days in 33 out of 48 participants.

Our findings align with previous research suggesting that wearable patch/wrist-based vital signs sensors can achieve comprehensive data capture in an inpatient setting with modest (once daily) intervention to maintain the devices. Studies in which WVSSs have been validated against traditional vitals, in ward-based settings and for prolonged periods (> 48 hours) are uncommon but offer real world evidence about WVSS performance. Completeness of data capture by wearable sensors in such studies ranges from 76–96% for patch-based, chest HR/RR sensors^{28, 29} and from 50–68% for wrist worn pulse oximeters^{30, 31}. Our results are similar, and the variation between studies may be attributed to different patient populations and different levels of experience amongst patients, researchers and clinical teams in using and maintaining the sensors. Isolation measures due to Covid-19, may have also limited opportunities for sensor

maintenance. Even the lowest rate of data capture in our study (SpO₂, 68.6%) equates to continuous vitals for 16 out of every 24 hours, far exceeding what could be captured by traditional methods.

Our survival analysis found that there would be no gaps in the data of over 4 hours duration for 87.9%, 81.5% and 97.5% of patients using the HR/RR, SpO₂ and temperature sensors in the first 24 hours respectively. As four hours is often the interval between nurse measured vital signs³² it suggests that the time nursing staff would need to spend troubleshooting/reapplying such devices would be acceptable. In high-risk surgical populations in the Netherlands, Breteler and colleagues^{18, 19} found even greater durability of data capture with wearable sensors. Our results extend this finding to a UK setting with medical inpatients who are subject to isolation restrictions.

In contrast to the chest and axillary patch sensors we acknowledge that the data capture of BP measurements in our study was poor. For cuff-based, BP sensors, data capture rates of 44–63% have been recorded^{30, 33} and our rates were lower than this due to technical difficulties and patient discomfort. This limits the conclusions which we can draw about the A&D TM2441 device as a useful wearable monitor but perhaps stresses the importance of considering if such devices are truly acceptable to patients as an automated, wearable technique. Inflation of a BP cuff can be uncomfortable, and it may be more tolerable when recorded by a nurse.

We observed wide limits of agreement between traditional and wearable vital signs such that differences in only 59.7% of HR, 38.5% of RR, 32.9% of SpO₂, 24.4% of temperature and 39.0% of SBP pairs were within pre-defined clinically acceptable limits which was lower than previous studies^{34–36}. However, our findings agree with existing bias/LoA estimates where HR^{15, 16}, RR¹⁶ and temperature^{16, 37} measurements have been validated in similar circumstances and where the repeated nature of measurements in the same patient is accounted for. It is difficult to comment on the validity of SBP measurements given the paucity of measurements in our study. In keeping with previous work³, we found that the patch-based, chest sensor tended to underestimate high RRs in critically ill patients who were transferred to the ICU. The patch-based, axillary temperature sensor also frequently recorded lower temperatures than a traditional tympanic thermometer.

The reasons for imperfect agreement between wearable vitals and nurse recorded vitals are myriad. It is well recognised³⁸ that vital signs recorded by healthcare professionals are impacted by poor measurement technique, value bias in recording and a Hawthorne effect during measurement³⁹. Arguably therefore, WVSSs may offer a truer reflection of a patient's ongoing, non-observed physiological state. However, systematic errors in wearable vital signs measurements may also play an important role. In our study, the temperature differences we observed may be because estimates of core temperature recorded by an axillary skin sensor are different to estimates recorded by tympanic thermometers used at our institution. Similarly, RRs determined by a wearable sensor based on an algorithm utilising chest impedance and R-R variation may have been subject to systematic error in Covid-19 patients in whom a relative bradyarrhythmia has been observed⁴⁰ (potential for error due to Nyqist sampling limit) and potentially lower than expected chest wall excursion (potential for error due to smaller variation in chest impedance). Acknowledging these inherent differences, some authors have suggested that WVSS should not be compared to nurse recorded "spot" vitals¹⁹. We disagree, because the comparison serves to illustrate the impact that using WVSSs could have on existing patient deterioration alerting mechanisms in hospitals.

In our study, NEWS2 scores derived from HR, RR, temperature and SpO_2 measurements were typically higher when calculated from WVSSs than traditional vitals. Differences in RR, SpO_2 and temperature NEWS2 component scores were responsible for most of this difference (appendix 7). Compared to NEWS2 scores generated by traditional vitals, 85.9% (225/262) of NEWS2 5 + and 89.1% (82/92) of NEWS2 7 + from the WVSSs were false positives. False negatives were rare, 1.7% (6/351) and 0.4% (2/521) for NEWS2 5 + and 7 + respectively. In keeping with our results, Weenk and

colleagues found that two WVSS systems studied on surgical and medical wards⁷ both returned higher modified early warning scores (MEWS) than traditional nurse recorded vital signs.

Our findings suggest that vital signs obtained from WVSSs should not be used to directly replace traditional vital signs in track and trigger systems that utilise NEWS2. Compared to NEWS2 scores derived from concurrently recorded traditional vitals the majority of wearable NEWS2 alerts would be false alarms. We also highlight that more work may be needed to confirm the validity of wearable vital signs measurements in settings of illness (very high RR), where a patient's physiology may be quite different from healthy volunteers.

We propose that a different approach is needed to adopt WVSSs into care pathways for the deteriorating patient. This could include scheduled reviews of wearable sensor trends by healthcare providers⁴¹ as opposed to automated alerts, re-development of EWS thresholds for specific use with wearable sensor data^{9, 10} or development of novel, broadly applicable deterioration indices using the granular data which wearable sensors provide or some of the additional metrics which they record. Examples include the presence or absence of micro-events⁴² within the continuous data, trend information⁴³ and heart rate variability⁴⁴.

This work was a real-world clinical evaluation of WVSSs in a challenging clinical setting. The duration of monitoring is similar to the longest periods of monitoring in previous wearable studies. As monitoring was continued into the ICU for some patients, we were also able to assess sensor performance in critically ill patients with more extreme physiology. Furthermore, we studied the clinical implications of adopting wearable sensors both in terms of maintenance requirements to prevent large gaps in data and the implications of using the wearable data in NEWS2 calculations.

We acknowledge several limitations. Firstly, we studied a population with Covid-19 in which there was a preponderance of Black and Asian participants and a high rate of admission to critical care.⁴⁵ This may limit the generalisability of our findings to wider populations of inpatients. Our ward staff were blinded to wearable sensor data and not involved in sensor maintenance. Taken together with the fact that we studied a group at high risk of deterioration, with significant isolation and infection control demands, this may mean that future, deployment of wearable sensors in broader inpatient groups could achieve better data capture.

Secondly, we note that some of our participants did not wear the devices for a long time, especially the blood pressure cuff. Further qualitative work is needed to understand the acceptability of wearable devices to differing patient groups as this may aid their optimal deployment. Finally, the precise time that traditional vital signs measurements were taken was not recorded, reflecting that there may be a delay between measurements and recording in the electronic patient record by our nursing staff. Whilst this could impact our validation results, the guidance at our institution is that recording of vital signs should be performed promptly, making it reasonable to assume that measurements were made in the preceding 5 minutes.

Conclusion

Wearable vital signs sensors have potential to improve the care of patients in hospital but the best way to deploy them in existing healthcare systems remains unclear. In this study, 48 inpatients with Covid-19 wore four wearable sensors for a median of almost four days. The BP cuff was poorly tolerated and suffered technical difficulties. Completeness of data capture from the other three sensors was in keeping with previous work and a survival analysis found no gaps in data collection of over 4 hours in over 80% of patients in the first 24 hours. Compared to nurse recorded vital signs, the validity of data capture by the wearable sensors was poor. Less than 60% of HR measurements, 40% of RR and SpO₂ measurements and 25% of temperature measurements fell within pre-defined clinically acceptable limits. There were systematic differences in measurements at high RRs and low temperatures. As a result, NEWS2 alerts from wearable

sensor data were frequently false positives when compared to NEWS2 alerts from traditional vitals. As it stands, vital signs from wearable sensors cannot directly replace traditional vital signs measurements in existing track and trigger systems.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The COSMIC-19 study was registered with clinicaltrials.gov (registration: NCT04581031, registered 4th May 2020). It was approved by Yorkshire and the Humber – Bradford Leeds Research Ethics Committee, UK (reference 20/YH/0156). All participants gave written consent to participate.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Availability of data and materials

The COSMIC-19 dataset is available on request subject to appropriate information governance and data sharing agreements.

Competing interests

Prof Thistlethwaite declares that she is the director of the Innovate Manchester Advanced Therapy Centre Hub, Innovate UK, which provided funding for this work. All other authors have no competing interests to declare.

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Authors contributions

- Anthony Wilson conceptualisation, data curation, formal analysis, investigation, methodology, project administration, resources, software, validation, visualisation, writing original draft, writing review & editing
- Alexander Parker data curation, writing review & editing
- Gareth Kitchen conceptualisation, methodology, project administration, writing review & editing
- Andrew Martin conceptualisation
- Lukas Hughes-Noehrer writing review & editing
- Mahesh Nirmalan supervision, writing review & editing
- Niels Peek methodology, supervision, writing review & editing
- Glen Martin supervision, writing review & editing
- Fiona Thistlethwaite conceptualisation, funding acquisition, project administration, resources, supervision, writing

 review & editing

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Authors' information

Not applicable

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Figures

647 patients screened at Manchester Royal Infirmary



Figure 1

screening and recruitment to the study



Kaplan Meier analysis of gaps of varying duration in wearable sensor data. HR/RR = heart rate/respiratory rate, $SpO_2 =$ oxygen saturation, SBP = systolic blood pressure, Temp = temperature.



Figure 3

Bland Altman plots corrected for repeated measures. HR = heart rate, RR = respiratory rate, SpO2 = oxygen saturations, Temp = temperature

Supplementary Files

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SDCWilsonValidationofWearableSensorsBMC.pdf