

# Spectral and Time Domain Parameters for The Classification of Atrial Fibrillation

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**Abstract:** Atrial fibrillation (AF) is the most common type of arrhythmia. This work presents a pattern analysis approach to automatically classify electrocardiographic (ECG) records as normal sinus rhythm or AF. Both spectral and time domain features were extracted and their discrimination capability was assessed individually and in combination. Spectral features were based on the wavelet decomposition of the signal and time parameters translated heart rate characteristics. The performance of three classifiers was evaluated: k-nearest neighbour (kNN), artificial neural network (ANN) and support vector machine (SVM). The MIT-BIH arrhythmia database was used for validation. The best results were obtained when a combination of spectral and time domain features was used. An overall accuracy of 99.08 % was achieved with the SVM classifier.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

An electrocardiogram (ECG) is a recording of the heart's electrical activity. This recording can be obtained in a non-invasive manner by placing electrodes on the surface of the chest. The basic components of the ECG waveform are depicted in Figure 1. The RR interval, time period between consecutive R waves, is used to compute the heart rate. Its regularity / irregularity is one of the first steps when analysing an ECG strip.

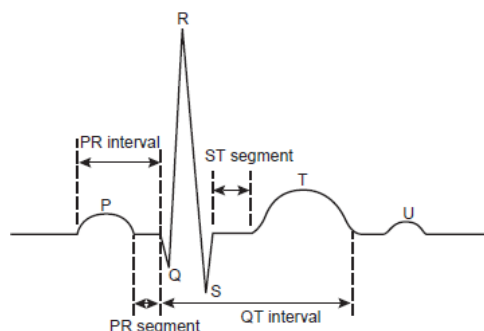


Figure 1: Basic components of the ECG waveform (Huff, 2006).

Besides the standard 12-lead ECG, widely used in clinical practice, a number of other cardiac monitoring tools have been developed in the last few decades. Portable ECG devices that allow the diagnosis of arrhythmias (disturbances in rate, rhythm, or conduction) include Holter monitors, mobile cardiac outpatient telemetry systems, event recorders and patch monitors. An enormous amount of data can be collected by such devices and it is therefore essential to develop algorithms that aid in the analysis of the records.

The problem of automatic detection of arrhythmic events from ECG records has been largely addressed. Many authors have focused on the classification of beat types and, to a lesser extent, rhythm classification has also been attempted. The types of beats / rhythms included and the methodologies adopted vary widely. A truthful comparison of the results is rather difficult since databases used for validation are not always publically available.

In this paper we present an algorithm that distinguishes between normal sinus rhythm and the most common arrhythmia, atrial fibrillation (AF). Regarding the type of features, our focus is on spectral and time-domain parameters. Individual and combined assessment of these types of features are carried out. The performance of three different

classifiers is compared and the MIT-BIH arrhythmia database is used to validate the algorithm.

The remaining of this paper is organized as follows. In section 2 a brief review of the state-of-the-art concerning automatic beat / rhythm classification from ECG records is offered. Extracted features, validation process and classifiers used are detailed in section 3. In section 4 the results obtained are presented and discussed. Finally, section 5 contains the conclusions.

## 2 STATE-OF-THE-ART

In the last few decades a considerable effort was dedicated to develop methods for automatic analysis of ECG records. A large number of algorithms were developed to differentiate between different types of beats. The problem of detection and classification of arrhythmic rhythms was also addressed. All these studies vary widely in terms of features extracted from the ECGs and classification scheme.

Temporal and morphological information were often combined to classify different beat types. (Chazal et al., 2004) used RR interval features, heartbeat interval features and ECG morphology features to distinguish between 5 beat types. Linear discriminants were used for classification with an overall accuracy of 84.5 %. Ectopic and normal beats were considered in (Iliev et al., 2007) where the features consisted of a QRS pattern matrix and the deviation of RR interval from the mean RR interval. Sensitivity and specificity values of, respectively, 99.81 % and 98.87 % were reported. (Silipo and Marchesi, 1998) used an artificial neural network structured as an autoassociator with inputs based on beat morphology and RR interval features. Recognition rates of 99 %, 96 % and 75 % were obtained respectively for normal beats, ventricular ectopic beats and supraventricular ectopic beats.

To distinguish between normal sinus rhythm and AF ECG records, many authors have focused solely on features related with the heart rate. (Moody and Mark, 1983) and later (Artis et al., 1991) developed algorithms based on RR interval analysis. The first approach used Markov process models whilst the second achieved better results with an artificial neural network (sensitivity and specificity values of, respectively, 92.86 % and 92.34 % were reached).

(Tateno and Glass, 2001) constructed standard density histograms of RR and  $\Delta$ RR intervals (difference between two successive RR intervals). The performance of the coefficient of variation test and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was compared. When using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test based on the  $\Delta$ RR intervals, a sensitivity of 94.4 % and a

specificity of 97.2 % were achieved with the MIT-BIH atrial fibrillation database. More recently, the density histogram of  $\Delta$ RR intervals was used to construct the  $\Delta$ RR interval distribution difference curve (Huang et al., 2011). That is, the difference between the distribution of RR intervals before and after the current RR interval. The authors proceeded to detect and determine the boundaries of AF events. Using the same database, sensitivity and specificity values of 96.1% and 98.1%, respectively, were obtained.

In (Park et al., 2009) the dynamics of inter-beats intervals were analysed using a Poincaré plot. The number of clusters in the plot, the mean stepping increment of inter-beat intervals and the dispersion of the points around a diagonal line were used, in combination with a support vector machine classifier. The authors reported specificity and sensitivity values of, respectively, 92.9 % and 91.4 %.

(Dash et al., 2009) used three statistical measures to deal with the variability, randomness and complexity of the heart beat intervals sequence. The root mean square of successive RR differences, the Turning Points Ratio and Shannon entropy were employed to detect onset of AF and non-AF. Sensitivity and specificity values above 90 % were achieved both with the MIT-BIH atrial fibrillation and arrhythmia databases.

(Langley et al., 2012) showed the effectiveness of detecting AF in short duration beat interval recordings. Three algorithms were evaluated: coefficient of variation, mean successive difference and coefficient of sample entropy. The latter achieved a sensitivity of 95.2 % and a specificity of 93.4 %, with 10 seconds recordings.

(Yang et al., 1994) used not only RR-based features, but also other observations and measures from 12-lead ECGs, and studied the performance of deterministic logic and artificial neural networks classifiers. The best results were obtained with the artificial neural network for which sensitivity and specificity reached values of 92.0 % and 92.3 % respectively. In (Kaiser et al., 2010) a decision tree classifier was used with features extracted from the RR interval tachogram. The authors reported a sensitivity of 99.1 % and a specificity of 88.3 %.

Frequency analysis methods were also used in the feature extraction process. The more traditional Fourier transform was naturally explored (Clayton et al., 1994) but more attention has been paid to wavelet transform which allows a multi-scale decomposition and overcomes some drawbacks in terms of frequency resolution. Energy parameters derived from the wavelet transform were used both in (Khadra et al., 1997) and (Al-Fahoum and Howitt, 1999) to distinguish between 4 rhythm types

recurring respectively to a set of rules and a neural network. The latter study achieved a better performance with an overall accuracy of 97.5 %. A beat by beat classification was attempted in (Güler, 2005) using a combined neural network model and statistical features from the wavelet decomposition. Four beat types were considered and an overall classification rate of 96.94 % was reached. (Kara and Okandan, 2007) computed the power spectral density of each wavelet scale and average values over sub-bands were fed to an artificial neural network to distinguish between normal sinus rhythm and AF records. An accuracy of 100 % was achieved on a small, private, database. (Martis et al., 2012) compared the performance of support vector machines, neural network and Gaussian mixture model in the distinction of normal and 12 different beat types. Features were obtained after a feature selection method was applied to the wavelet coefficients. The support vector machine performed better with an accuracy of 95.60 %.

Feature sets containing both wavelet-based features and heart rate information have also been used for beat classification with promising results (Inan et al., 2006; Prasad and Sahambi, 2003; Shen et al., 2012; Ye et al., 2012). The types of beats included in the analysis varied but all these studies include in their feature sets wavelet coefficients and RR-related information. Neural networks and support vector machines were the preferred classifiers.

The different tasks addressed by the cited studies, in terms of beats or rhythms included in the analysis, hamper a truthful comparison of the algorithm's performance. Furthermore, although the MIT-BIH arrhythmia database is commonly used for validation, some authors opt for using databases that are not publically available.

In this paper 60 seconds ECG records are considered. We attempt to distinguish between rhythm types independently of the occurrence of a particular beat (e.g. a normal sinus rhythm segment may contain a premature ventricular contraction). The MIT-BIH arrhythmia database is used for validation.

### 3 METHODOLOGY

The methodology proposed in this paper is schematized in Figure 2, encompassing the following steps: feature extraction, feature normalization, classifier training and testing. In the following subsections we will detail these steps.

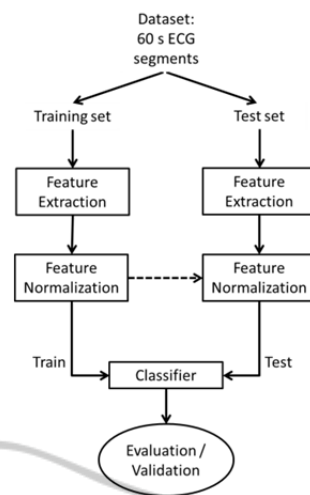


Figure 2: Automatic signal analysis methodology.

#### 3.1 Feature Extraction

Two types of features were explored in this analysis: spectral parameters, derived from the wavelet decomposition of the ECG signals; and time domain parameters, translating heart rate characteristics.

##### 3.1.1 Spectral parameters

Spectral parameters were extracted following the scheme shown in Figure 3. The power spectral density (PSD) of the wavelet decomposition of the signals was computed and two different feature sets were constructed.



Figure 3: Feature extraction process of the spectral parameters.

Signals were decomposed until the sixth level using the quadratic spline wavelet, depicted in Figure 4. Details of this wavelet function and the coefficients of the corresponding finite impulse response filters are given in (Mallat and Zhong, 1992). Figure 5 shows a 10 s extract of the decomposition of a normal sinus rhythm ECG. The decomposition was achieved with the redundant discrete wavelet transform (RDWT), or *algorithme à trous* (Fowler, 2005).

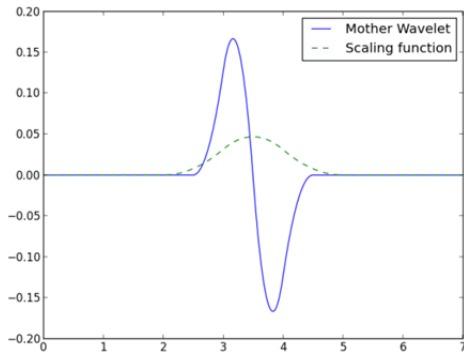


Figure 4: Mother wavelet and scaling function of the quadratic spline wavelet.

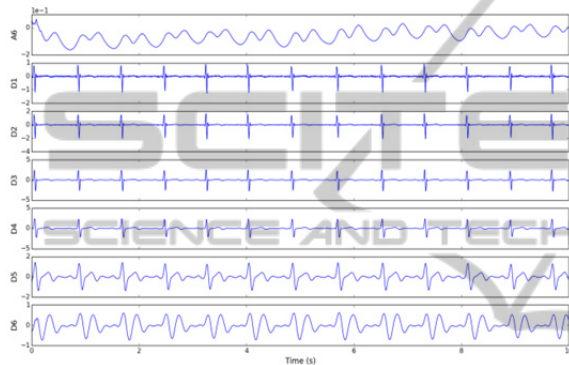


Figure 5: Approximation (A6) and detail (D1 to D6) coefficients of the wavelet decomposition of a 10 s normal sinus rhythm ECG.

For each one of the 7 signals, corresponding to the coefficients of 6 detail and one approximation signals, the PSD was computed. Welch’s method, relying upon the concept of modified periodograms, was adopted (Welch, 1967). Segments of 256 samples with 50 % overlap were used and a Hanning window was employed. Figure 6 depicts the PSD of the signals shown previously.

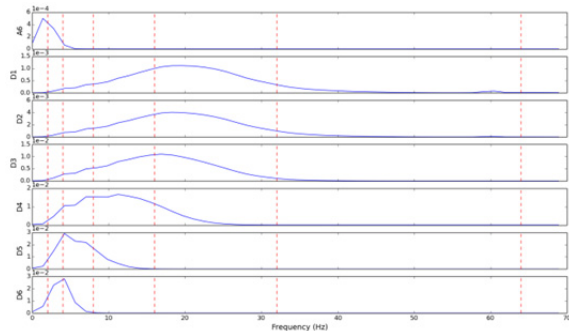


Figure 6: PSD of each one of the approximation (A6) and detail (D1 to D6) wavelet coefficients. Dotted red lines delimitate the sub-bands of feature set A.

Two feature sets of wavelet-based features were extracted:

- For each one of the 7 PSD signals, the average value of the PSD over predefined sub-bands was computed. The 6 sub-bands considered were: [0, 2]; [2, 4]; [4, 8]; [8, 16]; [16, 32]; and [32, 64] Hz. These sub-bands are depicted in Figure 6. This feature set, henceforth referred to as feature set A, contains therefore 42 features (6 values for each one of the 7 signals). The same features are referred by Kara *et al.* (2007).
- For each one of the 7 PSD signals, the integral over the range [0, 55] Hz was calculated. This computation was performed using the trapezoidal rule. A total of 7 features are in this way selected to represent each pattern. This feature set shall be referred to as feature set B.

### 3.1.2 Time parameters

To complement the information given by the spectral features, two time domain parameters were selected: average RR interval and standard deviation of RR intervals. These ought to be particularly interesting in the distinction of AF and normal rhythm due to the inherent irregularity of AF. Feature set C contains these two parameters.

## 3.2 Feature Normalization

An important step in classification tasks is feature normalization. This can highly influence the classifier’s performance. Once the dataset was divided into training and test sets, features from the training set were normalized and the same transformation was then applied to the test set. Two normalization schemes were considered: feature scaling to the range [0, 1] and feature standardization. These operations are detailed in Equations (1) and (2).

$$x_{\text{scaled}} = \frac{x - \min x}{\max x - \min x} \quad (1)$$

$$x_{\text{standardized}} = \frac{x - \mu(x)}{\sigma(x)} \quad (2)$$

## 3.3 Classifiers

The performance of three supervised learning classifiers was assessed: k-nearest neighbour (kNN), multilayer perceptron (MLP) and support vector machine (SVM). The kNN classifier simply assigns to a new pattern the label of the majority of the k closest neighbours. The Euclidian distance was used as a measure of similarity between patterns, and all features were weighted equally.



MLPs are the most common type of artificial neural networks (ANNs). The network first goes through a learning stage when labelled patterns are presented to it and weights between neurons are adjusted according to the desired output. Further details about MLPs, the backpropagation training algorithm and acceleration techniques can be found in (Beale and Fiesler, 1997). Here, a single hidden layer was used and the most suitable number of neurons in this layer was found for each classification task. The activation function used in this analysis was the logic sigmoid and a momentum term of 0.1 was used to accelerate the training phase.

In the last few years SVMs have become increasingly popular on the nonlinear classification of patterns. By using the so-called kernel trick, data is mapped into a higher dimension where it can be linearly separated (Fletcher, 2009). The radial basis function kernel, given by equation 3 and dependent on the kernel parameter  $\gamma$ , was used in this analysis. The penalty parameter  $C$ , which controls the trade-off between smoothness of the decision boundary and misclassifications, takes also a user-defined value. These parameters were experimentally tuned for best performance.

$$k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = e^{-(\gamma \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|^2)} \quad (3)$$

### 3.4 Validation setup

Cross-validation was implemented to test the algorithm. A stratified 4-fold cross-validation was used: for each one of the 4 possible combinations, 3 folds were used as training data and the fourth served as test. This process was repeated for 50 runs, and for each run a balanced dataset was generated by randomly sampling on the existing data.

To evaluate the classifier's performance a couple of accuracy measures, besides the error rate, were computed. Using the usual notation for true positives, true negatives, false positives and false negatives (that is TP, TN, FP and FN) we can define the precision (or positive predictive value) and the recall (or sensitivity) as shown in equations (4) and (5). The  $F_1$  score, also known as F-score or F-measure, is the harmonic mean of precision and sensitivity and can be obtained by equation (6).

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \quad (4)$$

$$\text{Recall} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \quad (5)$$

$$F_1 = \frac{2TP}{2TP + FP + FN} \quad (6)$$

## 4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 4.1 Database Characterization

The algorithm was tested using records from the MIT-BIH arrhythmia database (Moody and Mark, 2001). A total of 48 two-channel Holter records are available, each approximately 30 minutes long. The upper signal is usually a modified limb lead II (MLII) but occasionally a modified lead V5. The lower signal is most often a modified lead V1 (occasionally V2 or V5, and in one instance V4). All signals were digitized at a sample rate of 360 Hz. The database includes different sets of annotations verified by more than one cardiologist. All beats are identified and labelled according to their type (i.e. normal beat, premature ventricular contraction...). Annotations that mark the beginning of a rhythm type are also available.

For this analysis only MLII records were used (records number 102 and 104 were therefore excluded). In order to perform rhythm classification each record was split into multiple segments according to rhythm annotations. Additional cuts were made in a non-overlapping manner to obtain segments of predefined length (60 s). A total of 911 normal sinus rhythm and 98 atrial fibrillation segments were obtained in this manner. For the features based on the location of the R peaks, the position annotations present on the database were used. This assures that the performance of the algorithm is not affected by possible mistakes on the detection of the peaks.

### 4.2 Experimental Results

The experimental results obtained with the different feature sets and with combinations of features sets are presented next. For each experiment, multiple tests were performed in order to choose the most suitable classifiers' parameters and only the best results are reported. For the ANN this consisted of varying the number of neurons in the hidden layer. For the kNN we varied the number of neighbours considered for classification,  $k$ . Regarding the SVM, the penalty parameter,  $C$ , and the kernel parameter,  $\gamma$ , were varied in a logarithmic scale, respectively between  $[10^{-2}, 10^8]$  and  $[10^{-5}, 10^3]$ . Chosen parameters were the ones that ensured a smaller test error.

For both the kNN and the ANN classifiers the two types of normalization schemes were attempted. Feature standardization was applied for the SVM classifier.

**4.2.1 Experimental results based on RR features**

A first attempt was made to distinguish between normal sinus rhythm and AF ECG segments relying only on heart rate related features (feature set C). The classifiers’ parameters that led to the best performance are summarized in Table 1. For the ANN the best result corresponded to standardized features with 10 neurons in the hidden layer. For the kNN classifier the best performance was achieved when features were standardized and three neighbours were considered. Concerning the SVM classifier, values of 1 and 10 respectively for the penalty,  $C$ , and kernel,  $\gamma$ , parameters led to a more successful classification.

The results obtained for the three classifiers are summarized in Table 2, showing mean values and standard deviations. We highlighted in bold the highest values of precision, recall and F-score for each class and the minimum test error achieved.

Overall, the SVM classifier was the one that performed better, achieving a test error of  $4.53 \pm 1.50$  %. ANN and kNN classifiers have a similar performance in terms of test error. For the ANN it is

interesting to note that precision and recall values respectively for normal and AF rhythms are considerably high (approximately 99 %).

**4.2.2 Experimental results based on spectral features**

**Average PSD values**

The results obtained using as features only the average PSD over the 6 sub-bands (feature set A) are shown in Table 3. The classifiers’ parameters that led to these results are given in Table 1.

The best results were obtained with the SVM classifier.

**Large range power features**

The best results obtained when using as features the integral of the PSD of the wavelet decomposition (feature set B) are presented in Table 4. Table 1 summarizes the corresponding classifiers’ parameters.

It is clear that the SVM classifier offered the best results whilst the performance of the ANN was considerably worst.

Table 1: Best classifiers' parameters for each classification task.

Feature set	Classifier	Normalization	Parameters
A	ANN	Scaling	55 Hidden Neurons
	kNN	Standardization	$k = 1$
	SVM	Standardization	$C = 10^3 ; \gamma = 10^{-2}$
B	ANN	Standardization	15 Hidden Neurons
	kNN		$k = 1$
	SVM		$C = 10^2 ; \gamma = 1$
C	ANN	Standardization	10 Hidden Neurons
	kNN		$k = 3$
	SVM		$C = 1 ; \gamma = 10$
A + C	ANN	Scaling	35 Hidden Neurons
	kNN	Scaling	$k = 1$
	SVM	Standardization	$C = 10^8 ; \gamma = 10^{-2}$
B + C	ANN	Standardization	14 Hidden Neurons
	kNN		$k = 1$
	SVM		$C = 10 ; \gamma = 1$

Table 2: Results obtained with feature set C.

Classifier	Rhythm	Precision (%)	Recall (%)	F-score (%)	Test error (%)
ANN	Normal	<b><math>98.66 \pm 1.00</math></b>	$90.31 \pm 1.86$	$94.21 \pm 1.22$	$5.49 \pm 1.15$
	Atrial Fibrillation	$91.27 \pm 1.62$	<b><math>98.72 \pm 0.98</math></b>	$94.78 \pm 1.08$	
kNN	Normal	$97.93 \pm 1.34$	$91.4 \pm 2.61$	$94.44 \pm 1.77$	$5.31 \pm 1.65$
	Atrial Fibrillation	$92.19 \pm 2.22$	$97.98 \pm 1.34$	$94.90 \pm 1.55$	
SVM	Normal	$96.79 \pm 1.41$	<b><math>94.23 \pm 2.20</math></b>	<b><math>95.39 \pm 1.55</math></b>	<b><math>4.53 \pm 1.50</math></b>
	Atrial Fibrillation	<b><math>94.56 \pm 2.01</math></b>	$96.71 \pm 1.50$	<b><math>95.53 \pm 1.47</math></b>	

Table 3: Results obtained with feature set A.

Classifier	Rhythm	Precision (%)	Recall (%)	F-score (%)	Test error (%)
ANN	Normal	96.90 ± 1.83	86.36 ± 3.08	91.06 ± 1.83	8.29 ± 1.57
	Atrial Fibrillation	88.18 ± 2.28	97.07 ± 1.84	92.24 ± 1.41	
kNN	Normal	<b>96.92 ± 1.11</b>	91.27 ± 3.08	93.87 ± 1.88	5.87 ± 1.72
	Atrial Fibrillation	92.04 ± 2.62	<b>96.99 ± 1.15</b>	94.35 ± 1.60	
SVM	Normal	95.56 ± 1.62	<b>93.77 ± 2.00</b>	<b>94.54 ± 1.46</b>	<b>5.39 ± 1.44</b>
	Atrial Fibrillation	<b>94.10 ± 1.85</b>	95.45 ± 1.70	<b>94.66 ± 1.44</b>	

Table 4: Results obtained with feature set B.

Classifier	Rhythm	Precision (%)	Recall (%)	F-score (%)	Test error (%)
ANN	Normal	95.24 ± 2.30	86.16 ± 3.60	90.18 ± 2.49	9.21 ± 2.23
	Atrial Fibrillation	87.83 ± 2.84	95.41 ± 2.33	91.26 ± 2.06	
kNN	Normal	96.73 ± 1.31	89.70 ± 3.38	92.91 ± 2.01	6.73 ± 1.80
	Atrial Fibrillation	90.75 ± 2.80	<b>96.84 ± 1.31</b>	93.56 ± 1.63	
SVM	Normal	<b>96.74 ± 1.46</b>	<b>91.13 ± 2.67</b>	<b>93.70 ± 1.76</b>	<b>6.04 ± 1.64</b>
	Atrial Fibrillation	<b>91.93 ± 2.31</b>	96.78 ± 1.49	<b>94.17 ± 1.55</b>	

Table 5: Results obtained with feature sets A + C.

Classifier	Rhythm	Precision (%)	Recall (%)	F-score (%)	Test error (%)
ANN	Normal	<b>99.17 ± 0.95</b>	94.55 ± 2.57	96.73 ± 1.58	3.13 ± 1.46
	Atrial Fibrillation	94.98 ± 2.22	<b>99.19 ± 0.93</b>	96.98 ± 1.37	
kNN	Normal	98.29 ± 0.72	94.35 ± 2.48	96.19 ± 1.38	3.67 ± 1.27
	Atrial Fibrillation	94.77 ± 2.17	98.31 ± 0.72	96.44 ± 1.19	
SVM	Normal	98.23 ± 1.23	<b>96.69 ± 2.05</b>	<b>97.39 ± 1.40</b>	<b>2.55 ± 1.33</b>
	Atrial Fibrillation	<b>96.89 ± 1.80</b>	98.20 ± 1.25	<b>97.49 ± 1.28</b>	

Table 6: Results obtained with feature sets B + C.

Classifier	Rhythm	Precision (%)	Recall (%)	F-score (%)	Test error (%)
ANN	Normal	<b>99.36 ± 0.58</b>	94.67 ± 2.30	96.89 ± 1.26	2.98 ± 1.16
	Atrial Fibrillation	95.11 ± 1.98	<b>99.37 ± 0.57</b>	97.14 ± 1.08	
kNN	Normal	99.06 ± 0.60	95.75 ± 2.10	97.31 ± 1.17	2.60 ± 1.10
	Atrial Fibrillation	96.07 ± 1.85	99.04 ± 0.67	97.48 ± 1.04	
SVM	Normal	98.64 ± 0.83	<b>99.59 ± 0.64</b>	<b>99.10 ± 0.64</b>	<b>0.92 ± 0.66</b>
	Atrial Fibrillation	<b>99.61 ± 0.62</b>	98.57 ± 0.92	<b>99.06 ± 0.68</b>	

One can refer to Figure 7 to compare the results of the three sets of features. Considering the wavelet-based feature sets, we can note that the performance of all classifiers declined when using the large range power features. This can possibly be explained by some loss of information due to the reduction of the feature set from 42 to 7 features. However it is worth mentioning that this reduction considerably diminishes the training time. Among all feature sets, the time domain features allow a better differentiation between normal sinus rhythm and AF segments. In the next section an attempt to improve classifiers' performance by combining different types of features is explored.

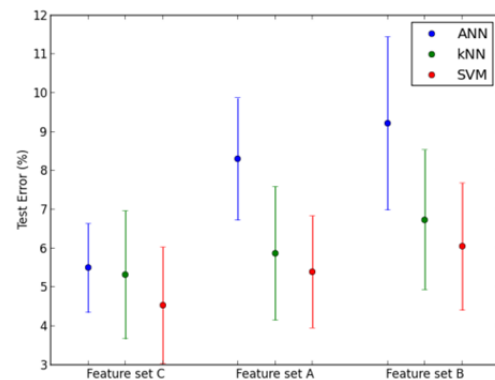


Figure 7: Means and standard deviations of the test errors for feature sets C, A and B.

### 4.2.3 Experimental results based on combination of features

#### Average PSD values + time parameters

Average values over sub-bands were combined with average RR and standard deviation of RR intervals to construct a new feature set (feature set A + C). The best results obtained and the corresponding classifiers' parameters are summarized respectively in Table 5 and Table 1.

The SVM classifier was the one that achieved the best performance reaching a test error of  $2.55 \pm 1.33$  %. Contrary to what happened when using solely RR or wavelet based features, the ANN performed better than the kNN classifier.

#### Large range power features + time parameters

A feature set containing 9 features was constructed by combining integral values of the PSD with RR-based features (feature set B + C). The results obtained for the three classifiers are presented in Table 6. Table 1 shows the corresponding classifiers' parameters.

The accuracy of the SVM classifier reached a value higher than 99 %. The performance of the kNN surpassed the one of the ANN.

By comparing the results obtained here with the ones obtained previously, we can conclude that the combination of wavelet and RR-based features is beneficial for all three classifiers. Furthermore, the feature set constructed with integral values of the PSD of the wavelet decomposition, average RR and standard deviation of RR intervals offers the most promising results. This is made clear in Figure 8.

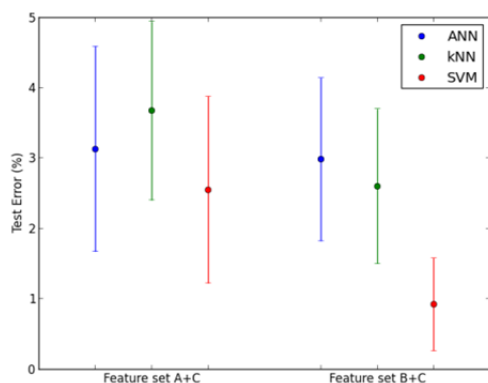


Figure 8: Means and standard deviations of the test errors for feature sets A + C and B + C.

In all cases studied the SVM classifier outperformed the results of the other two classifiers. Despite its more complex formulation and its ability to model nonlinear data, the ANN classifier was

often surpassed by the much simpler kNN classifier. Moreover we noted that the training time required by the ANN largely exceeded that of kNN and SVM.

## 5 CONCLUSIONS

This paper addressed the problem of classification of 60 seconds one-lead ECG segments as AF or normal sinus rhythm. The PSD of the wavelet decomposition of the signal at all scales was computed and two sets of features were extracted. An additional feature set containing average RR and standard deviation of RR intervals was considered. We compared the performance of three supervised learning classifiers on this classification task, using benchmarked data from the MIT-BIH arrhythmia database.

A first analysis of the feature sets considered individually demonstrated the superior discrimination capability of heart rate related features when compared to wavelet-based features. This was true for all three classifiers. Better performances could be obtained when combining the two types of features. An accuracy of 99.08 % was achieved with the SVM classifier whilst kNN and ANN could not reach such a good performance (accuracies of 97.40 and 97.02 % respectively).

Interesting tests could be performed to try to improve classifiers' performance. Here we used the quadratic spline wavelet and decompose the signal until the sixth level. A more systematic procedure could have been undertaken to choose the most suitable wavelet function. It should be mentioned that a few tests were performed with Daubechies 10 wavelets but the results were poorer. The decomposition level may also be varied. Another interesting test would be to assess the accuracy of the classifiers with segments of different lengths.

In this paper we restricted our analysis to the distinction of AF and normal sinus rhythm ECG records. Although AF is the most common arrhythmia one could argue that it would be more realistic to include other types of rhythms in this classification task. Ongoing work addresses this issue by including additional arrhythmias.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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