

A novel method of diagnosing premature ventricular contraction based on sparse auto-encoder and softmax regression

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Abstract. Premature ventricular contraction (PVC) is one of the most serious arrhythmias. Without early diagnosis and proper treatment, PVC can result in significant complications. In this paper, a novel feature extraction method based on a sparse auto-encoder (SAE) and softmax regression (SR) classifier was used to differentiate PVCs from other common Non-PVC rhythms, including normal sinus (N), left bundle branch block (LBBB), right bundle branch block (RBBB), atrial premature contraction (APC), and paced beat (PB) rhythms. The proposed method was analyzed using 40 ECG records obtained from the MIT-BIH Arrhythmia Database. The proposed method exhibited an overall accuracy of 99.4%, with a PVC recognition sensitivity and positive predictability of 97.9% and 91.8%, respectively.

Keywords: PVC diagnosis, sparse auto-encoder, softmax regression, feature extraction

1. Introduction

The electrocardiogram (ECG), a bio-electric signal that records the electrical activities of the heart, is a noninvasive tool used to diagnose heart diseases [1]. Cardiac arrhythmia, defined as an irregular heartbeat, is a common cardiovascular disease [2]. In general, arrhythmias are recognized and classified based on ECG readings. Some common arrhythmias include left bundle branch block (LBBB), right bundle branch block (RBBB), premature ventricular contraction (PVC), atrial premature contraction (APC), and paced beat (PB). PVC, one of the most serious arrhythmias, is caused by the emission of a premature impulse from an ectopic pacemaker. PVCs are primarily characterized by ECG readings with broad, premature QRS complexes and no P waves. Recurrent PVCs can result in more serious complications, including angina, syncope, or heart failure [3]. Due to the uncertainty and randomness of PVCs, ECG readings must be dynamically observed over extended periods of time in order to accurately diagnose this type of arrhythmia. In addition, because of the large amounts of ECG data resulting from the rapid development of wearable devices, accurately and efficiently differentiating PVCs from other arrhythmias is difficult.

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In recent years, many studies concerning the classification of arrhythmias have been conducted [4-12]. In one study, J. Wang developed a novel ECG arrhythmia classification method based on feature reduction by combining a principal component analysis (PCA) with a linear discriminant analysis (LDA). In addition, a probabilistic neural network (PNN) was used as a classifier to distinguish among eight different types of arrhythmias types [10]. In another study, M. Javadi extracted the morphological and time data from ECGs by combining mixture of experts (ME) and negatively correlated learning (NCL) in order to differentiate different types of arrhythmias [11]. L. Giovangrandi classified the ECG beats obtained from a large set of data using wavelet transforms and the timing information of a neural network classifier [12]. In [13], a PVC detection method based on a Discrete Wavelet Transform (DWT) was proposed. In the study, the wavelet coefficients of the ECG data were used as the feature vector, and a Support Vector Machine (SVM) was used as the classifier. In another study, a novel Bayesian classification system based on Gaussian process classifiers (GPC) was proposed for PVC detection [14]. The combination of GPC and an S-transform is advantageous compared to an SVM classifier in that the parameters of its kernel are automatically selected according to the Bayesian estimation procedure based on Laplace approximation. In [15], a novel PVC diagnostic method based on the chaotic features of ECGs was proposed. The results indicated that, using Lyapunov exponents, PVCs could be easily classified and differentiated from normal ECG beats and other arrhythmias. Peng Li developed a low complexity data-adaptive PVC recognition approach that exhibited good robustness against noise, generalization capabilities, and a PVC recognition accuracy of 98.2%, indicating that it could be effectively used for real-time applications [16]. Using these algorithms, the features of ECGs were manually extracted based on time domain information, such as ECG morphology [6, 7, 11, 12], and transform domain information [4, 5, 9, 12-14], such as the wavelet transforms or statistical parameters [10, 15, 16]. These processes require artificial experience or specialized knowledge and increase computational complexity.

In recent years, deep learning has been successfully applied to various processes, such as dimensionality reduction, object recognition, and natural language processing [17]. In this paper, in order to extract more discriminational features from large amounts of ECG data using a neural network model and reduce the computational costs of diagnosing PVC, an automatic off-line PVC diagnostic method based on a deep learning model was proposed. The proposed method, a sparse auto-encoder (SAE) and softmax regression (SR) classifier, was capable of efficiently differentiating between PVC and Non-PVC beats.

In Section 2, the feature extraction method based on the proposed sparse auto-encoder (SAE) and the softmax regression (SR) classifier is described in detail. The experimental results and discussion are presented in Section 3. The conclusions of this paper are presented in Section 4.

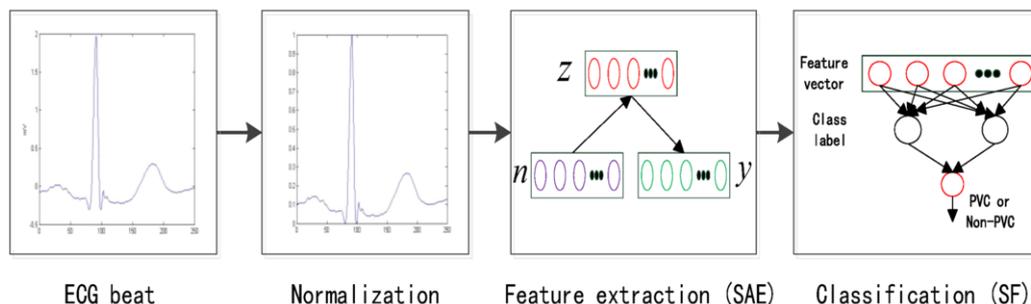


Fig. 1. Flow chart of the proposed method.

2. Methods

In this paper, high-dimensional ECG beat data was normalized as the input vector of a sparse auto-encoder (SAE). Next, SAE was used to extract the low-dimensional feature vector. A softmax regression (SR) was then used as a pattern classifier to differentiate between the PVC and Non-PVC beats via an extracted feature vector. A flow chart of the proposed method is shown in Figure 1.

2.1. Feature extraction using the sparse auto-encoder

An auto-encoder (AE) is a specialized neural network comprised of three layers, including a visible layer, hidden layer, and reconstruction layer. Auto-encoders are unsupervised learning algorithms that attempt to reconstruct visible layer data in the reconstruction layer [18]. In a sparse auto-encoder (SAE), a modified AE, the training method is constrained in order to give the hidden layer a sparseness property [19].

In this paper, the input vector of the SAE, which was defined as $x \in \mathfrak{R}^v$, was used to denote one v -dimensional ECG beat. The sigmoid function $f(a) = 1/(1 + \exp(-a))$ was selected as the activation function of the SAE. Since the range of $f(\bullet)$ is (0,1), the ECG beat (x) was normalized to $n \in \mathfrak{R}^v$, with a range of (0,1). The maximum and minimum amplitude values (x_{\max} and x_{\min} , respectively) of each ECG beat were used to normalize x as

$$n_i = \frac{x_i - x_{\min}}{x_{\max} - x_{\min}} \tag{1}$$

where $i = 1, 2, \dots, v$.

As illustrated in Figure 2, the SAE feature extraction process is comprised of two steps, in which (1) the encoder maps the normalized ECG beat ($n \in \mathfrak{R}^v$) to activate the hidden layer ($z \in \mathfrak{R}^h$), and (2) the decoder maps the activation ($z \in \mathfrak{R}^h$) back to a reconstruction ($y \in \mathfrak{R}^v$). These two steps can be expressed as

$$z = f(W_e n + b_e) \tag{2}$$

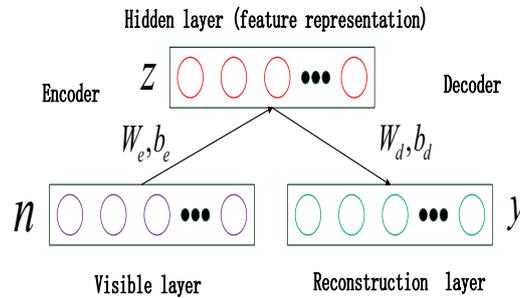


Fig. 2. Feature extraction with the sparse auto-encoder.

$$y = f(W_d z + b_d) \quad (3)$$

where $W_e \in \mathfrak{R}^{h \times v}$ and $W_d \in \mathfrak{R}^{v \times h}$ are the weight matrices, and $b_e \in \mathfrak{R}^h$ and $b_d \in \mathfrak{R}^v$ are the bias vectors. The purpose of SAE training is to adapt the parameter set $\{W_e, W_d, b_e, b_d\}$ using back-propagation in order to minimize the cost function ($c(n, y)$), as shown by

$$\underset{W_e, W_d, b_e, b_d}{\operatorname{argmin}} [c(n, y)] \quad (4)$$

where $c(n, y)$ represents the “error” between the visible and reconstruction layer, which can be defined in a variety of ways. If the reconstruction layer data is capable of optimally reconstructing a normalized ECG beat, the activation of the hidden layer (denoted in red in Figure 2) can be regarded as an extracted feature representation of that normalized ECG beat. In this way, one v -dimensional ECG beat (x) can be transformed into an h -dimensional feature vector (z) and, thereby, the neutral network model can be used to extract the hidden discriminational features of that ECG beat.

The cost function $c(n, y)$ of the SAE can be defined as

$$c(n, y) = \frac{1}{2q} \sum_{i=1}^q \|n^{(i)} - y^{(i)}\|_2^2 + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^h \operatorname{KL}(\rho \| \hat{\rho}_i) \quad (5)$$

where the first term is an average sum-of-squares error term with q training samples of ECG beats, the second term is a sparse penalty term with h neurons in the hidden layer, and α controls the weight of the sparse penalty term. The Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence between two Bernoulli random variables in the sparse penalty term can be expressed as

$$\operatorname{KL}(\rho \| \hat{\rho}_i) = \rho \log \frac{\rho}{\hat{\rho}_i} + (1 - \rho) \log \frac{1 - \rho}{1 - \hat{\rho}_i} \quad (6)$$

where $\hat{\rho}_i = \frac{1}{q} \sum_{j=1}^q z_i(n^{(j)})$ is the average activation of unit i in the hidden layer, and ρ is a sparsity target that must be selected.

2.2. Classification using the softmax regression model

The softmax regression (SR) model, which is extensively used during the supervised learning steps of deep neural networks, is a supervised learning algorithm. After extracting a feature vector, represented as the activation of the hidden layer in the SAE using ECG beats, the softmax regression (SR) model is used as a pattern classifier to differentiate between PVC and Non-PVC beats.

The SR model used in this paper is illustrated in Figure 3. In the model, (z, l) is an SR training sample, in which $z \in \mathfrak{R}^h$ represents the extracted feature vector of an ECG beat, $l \in \{1, 2\}$ represents

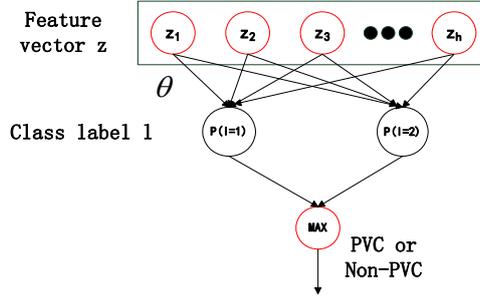


Fig. 3. Classification with the softmax regression model.

the class label, and the PVC and Non-PVC beats are denoted as ‘1’ and ‘2’, respectively. The hypothesis probability vector ($r_\theta(z)$) of the softmax regression model used in this paper can be expressed as

$$r_\theta(z) = \begin{bmatrix} p(l=1) \\ p(l=2) \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^2 e^{\theta_i^T z}} \begin{bmatrix} e^{\theta_1^T z} \\ e^{\theta_2^T z} \end{bmatrix} \quad (7)$$

where $\theta = [\theta_1^T \ \theta_2^T]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times h}$ is the weight matrix, and $p(l=1), p(l=2)$ estimate the probability that a tested ECG beat is a PVC and Non-PVC, respectively. The class label with a higher probability is output as the classification result. In addition, $\sum_{i=1}^k e^{\theta_i^T z}$ normalizes the distribution. The cost function of the softmax regression model can be defined as

$$J(\theta) = -\frac{1}{q} \left[\sum_{i=1}^q \sum_{j=1}^2 1\{l=j\} \log \frac{e^{\theta_j^T z}}{\sum_{m=1}^2 e^{\theta_m^T z}} \right] \quad (8)$$

where $1\{\cdot\}$ is the indicator function, such that $1\{\text{a true statement}\} = 1$ and $1\{\text{a false statement}\} = 0$, and the model parameter θ was trained to minimize the cost function ($J(\theta)$).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. ECG beat sampling

The ECG beats used in this paper were acquired from the MIT-BIH arrhythmia database, which is widely used as a standard database. In order to ensure the integrity of the data, 250 sampling points

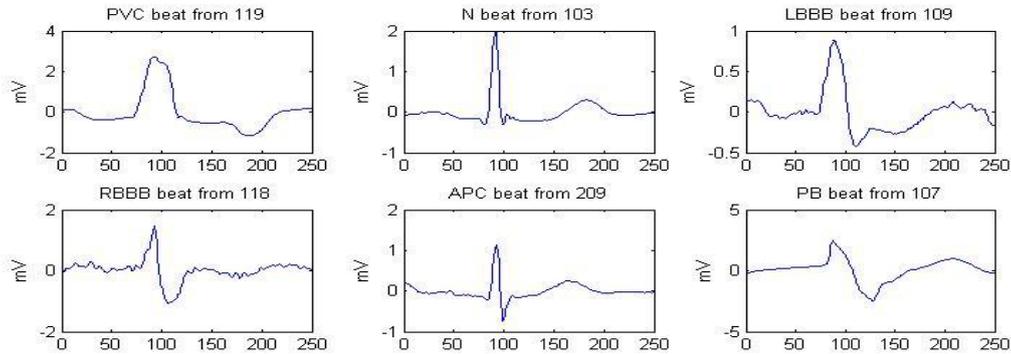


Fig. 4. ECG beat waveforms.

were selected as single ECG beat samples. Of the samples, 89 were obtained from the left of the R peaks, and 160 were obtained from the right of the R peaks. The R peaks were obtained from the annotation files of the MIT-BIH arrhythmia database. For convenience, Non-PVC arrhythmias were defined as the arrhythmias including N, LBBB, RBBB, APC, and PB. The waveforms of the PVC and Non-PVC beats are displayed in Figure 4. The diagnostic performance of the proposed method was analyzed and tested using 80740 beats obtained from 40 ECG records from the MIT-BIH arrhythmia database. Of these randomly extracted beats, 4260 (obtained from files 106, 116, 119, 200, 201, 203, 210, 221, 223, and 233) were PVC beats, and 76480 (obtained from files 100, 101, 102, 103, 106, 107, 108, 109, 111, 112, 113, 114, 115, 116, 118, 119, 121, 123, 124, 200, 201, 202, 203, 205, 207, 208, 209, 210, 212, 214, 215, 217, 219, 220, 221, 222, 223, 231, 232, and 233) were Non-PVC beats. Half of the beat data was used as the training set, and the other half was used as the testing set. The ECG beat selection method used in this study is shown in Table 1.

Table 1
ECG beats analyzed in this paper

Type	File	Training set	Testing set	
PVC	106	250	250	
	116	50	50	
	119	220	220	
	200	400	400	
	201	90	90	
	203	220	220	
	210	90	90	
	221	190	190	
	223	220	220	
	233	400	400	
Non-PVC	N	100	1100	1100
		101	800	800
		103	1000	1000
		106	700	700
		108	850	850
		112	1200	1200
		113	850	850
		114	900	900
		115	950	950

		116	1100	1100
		119	700	700
		121	900	900
		123	750	750
		200	800	800
		201	800	800
		202	1000	1000
		203	1200	1200
		205	1250	1250
		208	750	750
		209	1300	1300
		210	1200	1200
		215	1500	1500
		219	1000	1000
		220	950	950
		221	1000	1000
		222	1000	1000
		223	1000	1000
		233	1000	1000
	LBBB	109	1200	1200
		111	1000	1000
		207	700	700
		214	1000	1000
	RBBB	118	1000	1000
		124	700	700
		212	900	900
		231	600	600
	APC	209	190	190
		222	100	100
		232	600	600
	PB	102	1000	1000
		107	1000	1000
		217	700	700
Total			40370	40370

Table 2

Performance measurements

Measurements		
Total	PVC beats	Non-PVC beats
$OA = \frac{Nn + Vv}{Nn + Nv + Vn + Vv} \times 100$	$Se = \frac{Vv}{Vn + Vv} \times 100$	$Se = \frac{Nn}{Nn + Nv} \times 100$
	$+ P = \frac{Vv}{Nv + Vv} \times 100$	$+ P = \frac{Nn}{Nn + Vn} \times 100$

Note: OA: Overall accuracy (%), Se: Sensitivity (%), +P: Positive predictability (%), Nn (TN): Non-PVC beats recognized as Non-PVC beats (true negatives), Nv (FP): Non-PVC beats recognized as PVC beats (false positives), Vn (FN): PVC beats recognized as Non-PVC beats (false negatives), Vv (TP): PVC beats recognized as PVC beats (true positives).

3.2. Performance evaluation

A 250-20-250 sparse auto-encoder (SAE) was established in order to extract the 20-dimensional feature vector, which was defined as the activation of the hidden layer from the ECG beats in this

paper. The sparsity target and weight of the sparse penalty term in Eq. (5) were defined as $\rho = 0.2$ and $\alpha = 3$, respectively, based on the results of numerous experiments.

The performance of the proposed method was evaluated using the statistical parameters shown in Table 2.

Table 3
Diagnostic results

File	Beats		Measurements				
	PVC	Non-PVC	OA	PVC		Non-PVC	
				Se	+P	Se	+P
100	0	1100	100	-----	-----	100	100
101	0	800	100	-----	-----	100	100
102	0	1000	99.4	-----	0	99.4	100
103	0	1000	99.7	-----	0	99.7	100
106	250	700	98.5	96.4	97.9	99.3	98.7
107	0	1000	99.2	-----	0	99.2	100
108	0	850	99.3	-----	0	99.3	100
109	0	1200	98.9	-----	0	98.9	100
111	0	1000	99.7	-----	0	99.7	100
112	0	1200	99.8	-----	0	99.8	100
113	0	850	99.4	-----	0	99.4	100
114	0	900	100	-----	-----	100	100
115	0	950	99.4	-----	0	99.4	100
116	50	1100	99.3	94.0	90.3	99.5	99.7
118	0	1000	99.3	-----	0	99.3	100
119	220	700	99.0	97.7	98.1	99.4	99.2
121	0	900	100	-----	-----	100	100
123	0	750	99.6	-----	0	99.6	100
124	0	700	99.1	-----	0	99.1	100
200	400	800	98.9	98.2	98.4	99.2	99.1
201	90	800	98.8	94.4	94.4	99.3	99.3
202	0	1000	100	-----	-----	100	100
203	220	1200	99.2	95.9	99.0	99.8	99.2
205	0	1250	99.6	-----	0	99.6	100
207	0	700	98.4	-----	0	98.4	100
208	0	750	100	-----	-----	100	100
209	0	1490	99.6	-----	0	99.6	100
210	90	1200	99.5	93.3	100	100	99.5
212	0	900	99.0	-----	0	99.0	100
214	0	1000	98.8	-----	0	98.8	100
215	0	1500	99.4	-----	0	99.4	100
217	0	700	99.1	-----	0	99.1	100
219	0	1000	100	-----	-----	100	100
220	0	950	100	-----	-----	100	100
221	190	1000	99.5	97.3	100	100	99.5
222	0	1100	99.2	-----	0	99.2	100
223	220	1000	99.5	100	97.7	99.5	100
231	0	600	98.8	-----	0	98.8	100
232	0	600	99.0	-----	0	99.0	100
233	400	1000	99.1	98.5	98.5	99.4	99.4
Total	2130	38240	99.4	97.9	91.8	99.5	99.8

Table 4
Diagnostic results

Methods	Measures				
	OA	PVC		Non-PVC	
		Se	+P	Se	+P
Manu [9]	99.3	97.8	99.5	-----	-----
Javadi [11]	96.0	92.3	-----	98.0	-----
Laurent [12]	95.2	82.6	93.4	-----	-----
Bazi [14]	96.7	97.3	96.6	-----	-----
Li [16]	98.2	93.1	81.4	98.5	99.5
Proposed method	99.4	97.9	91.8	99.5	99.8

Table 3 displays the experimental results. The proposed method exhibited an overall accuracy of 99.4%, with a PVC recognition sensitivity and positive predictability of 97.9% and 91.8%, respectively. In addition, the overall accuracy, PVC recognition sensitivity, and positive predictability of the proposed method were greater than 98.4%, 93.3%, and 90.3%, respectively, for all forty ECG readings. Thus, the proposed method was capable accurately detecting PVC beats.

In order to validate the proposed method, the results were compared to those of other methods. The results of the comparison are shown in Table 4. The overall accuracy, Non-PVC recognition sensitivity, Non-PVC positive predictability, and PVC recognition sensitivity of the proposed method were significantly higher than those of the other methods. However, the proposed method exhibited poorer PVC positive predictability than the other methods. This could be because the PVC beats were only extracted from files 106, 116, 119, 200, 201, 203, 210, 221, 223, and 233. These ten files had higher rates of ventricular premature beats. Since no PVC beats were extracted from the remaining file, the PVC positive predictability of the remaining files was equal to 0 or did not exist, decreasing the overall PVC positive predictability. If only these files were included, a PVC positive predictability of 98.2% could be achieved.

4. Conclusions

In this paper, a novel feature extraction method based on a sparse auto-encoder (SAE) and softmax regression (SR) classifier was proposed for the diagnosis of PVC. In the proposed method, a neural network model, sparse auto-encoder (SAE), was used to extract the discriminational features in large amounts of ECG data without the need for manual feature vector design or selection, reducing the computational costs and improving the accuracy of PVC diagnostic tasks. PVCs were easily differentiated from common Non-PVC beats using the extracted feature through the softmax regression (SR) classifier. A total of 80740 beats obtained from 40 ECG records from the MIT-BIH arrhythmia database were used to validate the method. The experimental results indicated that the proposed method exhibited an overall accuracy of 99.4% and a PVC recognition sensitivity of 97.9%. In the future, the influence of the sparse auto-encoder (SAE) model parameters on the classification results will be studied, and deep neural network stacking multi-layer auto-encoders will be constructed in order to develop automatic diagnostic tools for other types of arrhythmias.

Acknowledgments

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