





# A robust approach for a real-time accurate screening of ST segment anomalies

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**Keywords:** ST Anomalies, Temporal Window, Decision Support System, Machine Learning

**Abstract:** Nowadays, Computerized Decision Support Systems (CDSS) play an important role in medical support and preventative care. In those scenarios, the monitoring of biomedical data, such as the ECG signal, is fundamental. The ECG signal may reveal a variety of abnormalities or pathological conditions. Some examples are Ischemia and Myocardial Infarction (MI), with a significant impact on the world's population. Both these conditions can be diagnosed by observing changes in specific sections of the ECG, such as the ST segment and/or T-wave of heartbeats. Much effort was devoted by the scientific community to aim at automatically identifying ST anomalies. The main drawback of such approaches is often a trade-off between the accuracy in the classification, the robustness to noise, and the real-time responsiveness. In this work, we present RAST, a robust approach for a **Real-time Accurate** screening of **ST** segment anomalies. RAST takes as input a sequence of 10 successive heartbeats extracted from an ECG recording and provides as output the classification of the ST segment trend. We evaluated two versions of RAST, namely RAST-BINARY, and RAST-TERNARY: the first capable of distinguishing only between an ST anomaly and Normal Sinus Rhythm and the second able to distinguishing between ST elevation, ST depression, and normal rhythm. Moreover, we conducted an extensive study by experiment also (i) the validation within the intra- and inter-patient strategies and (ii) the ideal number of successive heartbeats in which to observe an anomalous episode of change in the ST segment. As a result, both RAST-BINARY and RAST-TERNARY can achieve an F1 score of 0.94 with a window of 4 heartbeats in the inter-patient validation. For the intra-patient validation, both versions achieve an F1 score of 0.73 using a longer observation window.


## 1 INTRODUCTION


Decision Support Systems (DSS) have been established as tools for applying guidelines and support medical decisions in the industrialized world. Such systems can be defined as "any intervention that provides physicians with clinical knowledge and patient-specific information to enhance patient care decisions" (Berner, 2007). Many works, focused on the review of the scientific literature, have found that Computerized Decision Support Systems (CDSS) improve preventative care, clinical performance and in-


fluence clinical decision making (Balas et al., 1996; Kawamoto et al., 2005). This is the case where such systems are used in a computerized system for medical support. Indeed, when used in this context, CDSS considerably improve decision quality (Sintchenko et al., 2004).


ECG is an important signal to investigate since it is both noninvasive and suggestive of a variety of abnormalities. Ischemia and Myocardial Infarction (MI) are two of the most severe of these abnormalities.

According to recent research (Khan et al., 2020), ischemic heart disease affects roughly 126 million people worldwide therefore around 1.72 percent of the world's population. On the other hand, by considering only the United States, roughly 1.5 million instances of myocardial infarction occur each year, with a yearly incidence rate of around 600 cases per

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100,000 persons<sup>1</sup>. Changes in the ST segment (and/or T-wave) of ECG heartbeats are indicative of both of these abnormalities (Hadjem et al., 2016).

Therefore it would be extremely important to have accurate and rapid automatic ECG analysis tools in order to detect these events and thus allow the medical team to manage them in a timely manner. Considering that digital clinical data are now well-established and available in large amounts, this procedure would also avoid the burden on the medical staff of having to manually analyze the various electrocardiographic recordings.

Harun-Ar-Rashid et al. (2020) proposed a method to identify five categories of ST segment using the correlation algorithm. Their approach embedded the following steps (i) ECG filter and detrend (ii) R and S waves identification (iii) detection of ST segment start and endpoint (iv) comparison between this signal with supervised data (v) classification of the ST segment based on the correlation value. This approach allowed to reach an overall accuracy of 92,1 % but, as stated by the same authors, it presented some limitations, such as the strict dependency on the ECG pre-processing and annotation stages (for R and S waves with low amplitudes, it is too complicated the identification of the ST segment) and the computational cost (for long term ECG signal this method took time to elaborate).

In this paper, we present RAST (a robust approach for a **Real-time Accurate** screening of **ST** segment anomalies), an approach for the real-time identification of ST anomalies. RAST does not provide much information on the specific ST-change, but—in its most accurate version—it provides only the distinction between an ST change and a Normal rhythm. In this case, RAST outperforms state of the art. Specifically, the baseline work proposed by Harun-Ar-Rashid et al. (2020) was kept as reference due to its recent release and high accuracy.

RAST has been an experiment on a well-consolidated dataset in the scientific community, namely the Physionet European ST-T Database<sup>2</sup> (Goldberger et al., 2000).

RAST is part of the DSS embedded in *ATTICUS* (Laudato et al., 2021), an innovative system aimed at improving healthcare services thanks to the adoption of a wearable device (De Vito et al., 2021) which is in charge of acquiring several vital signals, such as ECG,

respiration waves, body temperature, and dynamics) and a strong Artificial Intelligence oriented software solution (Balestrieri et al., 2019).

With respect to this state of the art method, RAST shows the following advantages:

- it is independent of ECG annotation algorithms, which are not very robust to noise due to the detection of waves characterized by very low electrical amplitudes (Lake and Moorman, 2011; Sun and Thakor, 2015; Tateno and Glass, 2000)
- it has higher computational efficiency
- it is (near) real-time
- it provides better global accuracy

As a disadvantage, RAST provides less refinement in the classification because we propose a binary or ternary classification while the baseline work is able to distinguish ST changes in 5 classes.

For this reason, we believe that RAST is more for use in high-precision rapid screening applications, and then leave the work to algorithms with more refined classifications or directly to specialized medical staff.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows: Section 2 describes the background and related works on the ECG anomalies due to ST change and a brief review of the scientific literature dedicated to the automatic detection of ST change episodes. Section 3 provides details on the proposed approach, and Section 4 describes the details of the design of the study, in particular for the experimental procedure adopted. Section 5 reports on the results obtained by RAST and Section 6 contains a discussion on the limitations of this study. Finally, Section 7 concludes the paper.

## 2 BACKGROUND AND RELATED WORKS

In this section, first is reported a background on the ST anomalies in terms of clinical features and incidence of the connected pathologies. The second subsection is focused on the state-of-the-art works dedicated to the automatic analysis of ST anomalies, with a particular focus on the chosen baseline.

### 2.1 ST anomalies

The oxygen requirement in the heart muscle varies depending on the state of the body. The deviation of the ST segment in the ECG is caused by an imbalance between oxygen demand and supply. Myocardial ischemia is a cardiac function problem caused by

<sup>1</sup>MEDSCAPE "What is the incidence of myocardial infarction (MI, heart attack) in the US?" accessed on 8-sep-2021 <https://www.medscape.com/answers/155919-15093/what-is-the-incidence-of-myocardial-infarction-mi-heart-attack-in-the-us>

<sup>2</sup><https://physionet.org/content/edb/1.0.0/>

a lack of oxygen delivery to the heart muscle. Silent ischemia is a type of transitory ischemia that occurs without causing any symptoms, such as an unpleasant feeling in the breast. If this imbalance frequently occurs over time without appropriate therapy, the damaged heart tissue dies and the damage becomes permanent, resulting in cardiac infarction (Jeong and Yu, 2006).

Hyperacute or Inverted T-wave are typical signs of ischemia, which is usually the initial stage. The next step is MI—which is marked by ST segment elevation Figure 1 C—which is usually iso-electric in healthy people. ST segment depression (Figure 1 B) can also be a symptom of a MI (Hadjem et al., 2016).

## 2.2 Automatic detection of ST anomalies

Monitoring the endpoint of the S wave to the start point of the T wave identifies myocardial ischemia. This section of the ECG signal is known as the ST segment.

The scientific literature has done many efforts to contribute the research dedicated to the automatic detection of ST changes.

One of the first papers that took into account the automatic analysis of ST change is the one proposed by Maglaveras et al. (1998). The final aim of this work was to develop an automatic approach—based on an adaptive Backpropagation Neural Network—for real-time ischemia episodes detection. Their results showed that the average ischemia episode detection sensitivity was 88.62 % while the ischemia duration sensitivity is 72.22 %. The method employed in this study was different from prior algorithms in that it did not rely on the J-point—which could be difficult to identify—and instead relied on information from the whole ST pattern. By averaging the ST segments of the first 10 beats, the average template offered an initial assessment of each patient’s physiological ST depression (or elevation). For the same patient, indeed, the authors stated that this estimate did not appear to alter significantly over time.

Xiao et al. (2018) proposed a study in which introduced an image-based method combined with a deep learning technique for the detection of ischemic ST change from an ECG. A CNN model was trained using a transfer learning technique and evaluated on independent sessions in the Long Term ST database<sup>3</sup> utilizing 24-hour ambulatory ECG recording sessions. The suggested CNN model was able to identify testing images in real-time with an AUC of

89.6 %. At the 10-second sample level, their model achieved an average sensitivity of 84.4 % at selected optimum cutoff levels.

Wang et al. (2018) developed a beat-by-beat classification method based on multiple feature extraction. The ST section was found first. The ST segment’s morphological and Poincaré characteristics were then retrieved and merged with the global feature. Finally, the ST segment change was classified as normal, high, or depressed using random forest. The algorithm was tested on the European ST-T Database, with average sensitivity of 85.2 %, 86.9 %, and 88.8 % for normal, depressed, and high ST segments, respectively. The results demonstrate that the proposed method was effective in identifying ST segment elevation and depression automatically, revealing additional information about the ischemia condition.

From the above review, we opted for adopting the preprocessing stage as the one proposed in Maglaveras et al. (1998), which will be further detailed in Section 3.

Harun-Ar-Rashid et al. (2020) automatically identified ST segments and classified those into five classes. The authors, according to a set of rules they designed, opted for using five classes (Concave, Convex, Elevation, Depression, Normal) instead of the three ones provided by Physionet (Elevation, Depression, Normal) within the annotations of the dataset<sup>4</sup>.

The work proposed in this paper embedded initial denoising preprocessing based on the application of the Savitzky-Golay Smoothing filter and then the ECG signal’s detrend to get rid of linear and non-linear trends.

After completing the above steps, to identify an ST segment, this method embedded two stages of ECG annotations:

1. a method to detect R waves;
2. depending on the outcome of the previous R peak detector, the next steps depended on the full annotation of an ECG segment to have available S and T waves and J point.

Finally, this approach used cross correlation based on supervised data: indeed, for each ST segment, the cross correlation with a supervised ST segment was performed to measure the similarity between the identified ST segment and the category of ST change.

The authors experimented their approach on two datasets: (i) the Physionet European ST-T change database where they obtained 95,58 %, 95,92 %, 97,86 %, 95,18 % and 96,36 % and (ii) the Physionet MIT-BIH ST change database where they achieved

<sup>3</sup><https://physionet.org/content/ltstadb/1.0.0/>

<sup>4</sup><https://physionet.org/content/edb/1.0.0/annotations.shtml>

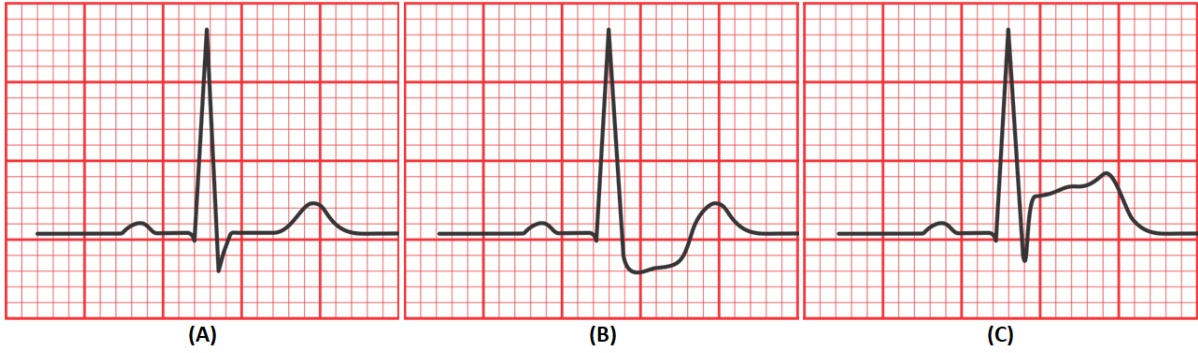


Figure 1: (A) Normal heartbeat, (B) ST segment depression, (C) ST segment elevation

98,77 %, 97,47 %, 90,35 %, 85,03 %, 69,42 % respectively for the five categories of ST shapes Concave, Convex, Up slope, Down slope and Horizontal.

In the discussion of their paper, the authors stated that there are some threats to validity and limitations. For example, they confirmed that the approach was too dependent on the outcome of the preprocessing stage. Indeed, without proper ECG preprocessing, ST segments could not be correctly identified. One of the biggest problem with their method is that the annotation of R and S waves is often complicated due to their typical low amplitude (Lake and Moorman, 2011; Sun and Thakor, 2015; Tateno and Glass, 2000). Finally, the authors commented on the computational performance of their method by reporting that for long-term ECG signals, the approach took time to evaluate.

However, the overall accuracy obtained was 92,1 %. This value will be kept as a reference for the comparison of RAST with respect to one of the most accurate and recent work from state-of-the-art.

### 3 RAST- a robust approach for a Real-time Accurate screening of ST segment anomalies

The complete workflow of RAST is depicted in Figure 2.

As the first step, the approach needs a digital ECG pattern composed of 10 successive heartbeats. To do so RAST buffers and evaluates the ECG until 10 R waves are detected—this latter condition is validated through the Pan-Tompkins method (Pan and Tompkins, 1985), and it is necessary to define a pattern of 10 heartbeats. Once acquired such an ECG segment, a multi-domain algorithm generates the features vector for the final classification stage.

### 3.1 Preprocessing

A first stage of preprocessing is applied to the ECG signal as described in the method proposed by (Pan and Tompkins, 1985). This procedure for the R waves detection needs to apply two successive filters—low-pass and high-pass—in order to get rid of the baseline wander and select the frequency band where the R peaks are contained. Then, a derivated filter has to be applied to the signal. The remaining steps are not strictly related to the ECG filtering but are dedicated to improving the R peak detection (*e.g.*, squaring and dynamic thresholding).

A second stage of preprocessing is expected in RAST once the ECG pattern of 10 successive heartbeats is successfully acquired. In this case, the signal is submitted to a detrend operation.

### 3.2 Generation of the features vector

The features vector is generated through the evaluation of multi-domain features calculated from the ECG pattern of 10 heartbeat signals. Specifically, for each pattern, the following features are evaluated:

- Energy of Maximal Overlap Discrete Wavelet Transform (EMO-DWT) (Ghaemi et al., 2019).
- Autoregressive Model (AR) coefficients of order 4 (Zhao and Zhang, 2005).
- Multifractal Wavelet (MFW) leader estimates of the log-cumulants of the scaling exponents (Leonarduzzi et al., 2010).
- Fast Fourier Transform (FFT).

These features have demonstrated their information power in other scientific works (Rosa et al., 2021a,b).

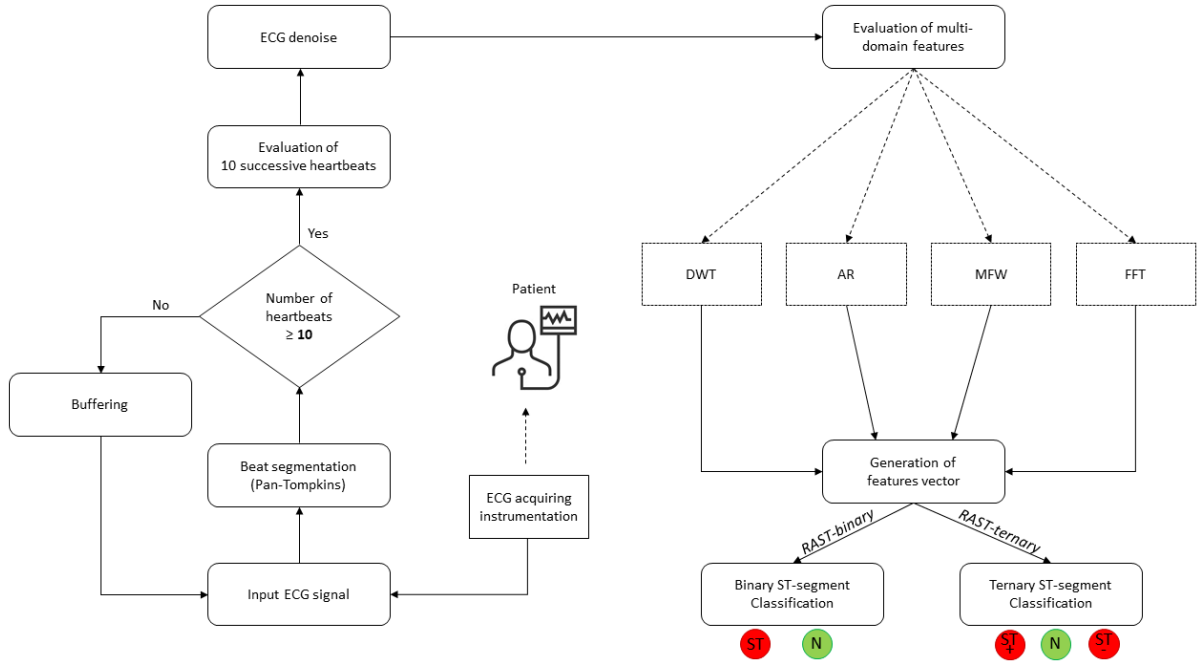


Figure 2: The complete workflow of RAST

### 3.3 Classification stage

The classification stage is the final step of RAST. This is composed of an ML algorithm in charge of providing information on the category for each pattern of heartbeats.

To conduct exhaustive experimentation, we propose in this study a more high-level classification experiment where we studied the performance of RAST in distinguishing between Normal and ST anomaly (RAST-BINARY in Figure 2) and a more refined classification experiment where we evaluated RAST in the capability of identification between Normal, ST Elevation and Depression anomalies (RAST-TERNARY in Figure 2).

This way of studying the performances of RAST led to the version of the tool: RAST-binary and RAST-ternary depending on the number of outputs. With this choice, we aimed at measuring the performance of the tool in two different scenarios: (i) when used in applications of rapid screening, such as when only a rapid and accurate detection is requested and (ii) when the medical constraints request information also on the category of the ST segment.

More details will be reported in Section 4, focused on the design of the study.

## 4 DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The goal of this paper is to study the performances of a real-time screening algorithm for ST anomalies detection. To do so, we implemented RAST, a tool designed to be robust to noise because it is independent of any ECG annotator algorithm except for the R waves—that are the most prominent clinical features of an ECG and the least susceptible to various kinds of noise (Huang et al., 2010).

This study is steered by the following research question:

*RQ<sub>1</sub>: To what extent does the accuracy of a binary or ternary detector of ST-segment anomalies vary?*

*RQ<sub>2</sub>: Can a real-time and noise-robust approach outperform the accuracy of a state-of-the-art method?*

With the first research question, we aim at investigating the capability of a Machine Learning model in identifying ST segment in a binary problem (ST anomaly vs Normal Rhythm) and in a more specific problem (ST segment depression and elevation and Normal Rhythm). With the second research question, we aim at studying the overall accuracy of the above methods and compare it with the updated state of the art of reference. Therefore, as a baseline approach, we chose one of the most recent and accurate methods from the scientific literature of reference, the

work proposed by Harun-Ar-Rashid et al. (2020).

## 4.1 Context of the study

The European ST-T Database is designed for use in evaluating methods for ST and T-wave change analysis. This resource contains 90 annotated ambulatory ECG recordings from 79 individuals. The participants included 70 males ranging in age from 30 to 84, and 8 women ranging in age from 55 to 71. (For one subject, information is absent.)

With lengths ranging from 30 seconds to several minutes, the database contains 367 occurrences of ST segment change and 401 episodes of T-wave change.

Each two-hour record comprises two signals sampled at 250 samples per second with 12-bit resolution across a notional 20-millivolt input range.

Two cardiologists annotated each record beat by beat, looking for changes in ST segment and T-wave shape, rhythm, and signal quality. The ST annotations in this database mark transient ST changes superimposed on any fixed elevation or depression.

We did not use the MIT-BIH ST Change DB<sup>5</sup> because the annotation files contain only beat labels; they do not include ST change annotations, as in the European ST-T Database.

## 4.2 Experimental Procedure

To conduct an exhaustive study, we experimented with a large set of parameters within several validation schemes. This way to conduct the study is in the perspective of research that aims at observing the classification performances under many points of view. More details are provided in the next subsections.

### 4.2.1 Tuning of the parameters

We opted for studying the performances of RAST as different parameters vary, such as:

- **the TWHO (Temporal Window for the Heart-beat Observation):** the literature work (Maglaveras et al., 1998) proposed an observation of 10 successive heartbeats. We opted to evaluate the performances of RAST for the observation windows in the set [4, 6, 8, 10, 16, 32, 64] where each value corresponds to the number of heartbeats to be evaluated. We opted for the typical length in terms of powers of 2 [4, 8, 16, 32, 64] with two more lengths of 6 and 10 heartbeats in order to assess, with more efficacy, the best length close to the one proposed in the literature.

<sup>5</sup><https://physionet.org/content/stdb/1.0.0/>

- **the SAMPLING technique:** we opted to keep this choice as a parameter, in the sense that we measured the performances of RAST with and without the application of the SMOTE (Chawla et al., 2002) technique for the balancing of the dataset.

- **the ALGORITHM:** in order to assess the most fitting Machine Learning algorithm for RAST, we experimented several classification models.

The tuning of these parameters was performed on the whole dataset.

This phase of tuning of the parameters was undertaken to look for the best configuration of RAST. Considered that the experimentation was undertaken for only one dataset, to avoid any data overfitting, we experimented with each tuning phase under two robust validation schemes: 80-20 random-split and L1SO.

### 4.2.2 Validation Schemes

To avoid any data overfitting and to offer a complete overview of the results, two validation schemes were adopted for the assessment of the RAST's performances. In detail, the tool was experimented through the:

- **80-20 random-split validation:** in this scenario, the dataset is decomposed in 80 % and 20 % of the instances for the training and testing set, respectively. With this kind of data separation, the cardiac data related to a subject can be found both in the training and testing dataset. To avoid any favorable data division and, therefore, to decrease the randomness of the results, we repeated the experiment 1000 times. This validation scheme can be interpreted as the scenario in which RAST has to provide an outcome on a patient and its model may have observed in the past data of the same patient.
- **L1SO (Leave 1 Subject Out):** this procedure implies that one person is left out of the training set at a time, resulting in the training set containing no data of the person being tested (the classifier was not tuned with the test data of that person). This is possible because each data segment has an anonymous label that corresponds to an individual. Thus, this validation scheme can be interpreted as the scenario in which RAST has to provide an outcome on a patient and its model has never been trained on the data of that patient.

### 4.3 Screening experiments

To answer RQ1, we studied the performances of RAST under two different screening experiments:

- RAST-BINARY: in this case, the classification performances of RAST have been studied only depending on its capabilities in distinguishing between an ECG segment Normal and with ST anomaly.
- RAST-TERNARY: with this configuration, RAST provides three outcomes Therefore, it is studied for the identification of Normal, ST Depression, and ST Elevation.

RAST-BINARY is an algorithm more suitable when used in rapid and accurate screening applications because it is capable only of distinguishing between a generic ST anomaly and a Normal ECG. On the other hand, RAST-TERNARY could be used in applications of detection (and not simple screening) because it is capable of providing additional information on the ST anomaly, as in the case of depression or elevation.

The authors of the paper chosen as baseline (Harun-Ar-Rashid et al., 2020) for the comparison of RAST opted for defining two more classes of ST segment categories (*i.e.*, Convex and Concave), according to a set of rules they designed. We opted to work with the only annotations provided by the Physionet cardiologists. Therefore, the comparisons between RAST and the baseline can be mostly made in terms of overall accuracy.

## 5 ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

The results of RAST are reported according to the screening experiment. For the sake of space limitation, we report here only part of the results. The full report can be found at the following replication package<sup>6</sup>.

We used the typical classification metrics to assess the capability of the several configurations of RAST in the detection of ST anomalies. These metrics are:

- $Accuracy = \frac{TP+TN}{TP+TN+FP+FN}$
- $Specificity = \frac{TN}{TN+FP}$
- $Precision = \frac{TP}{TP+FP}$
- $Recall = \frac{TP}{TP+FN}$
- $F1\ Score = \frac{2TP}{2TP+FP+FN}$

<sup>6</sup><https://github.com/grosal/healthinf2022-st-anomalies-replication-package>

Table 1: The performances of RAST-BINARY in terms of the main classification metrics for the experiment with L1SO among all the heartbeat windows.

Window	Acc	Spec	Prec	Recall	F1 Score
4 beats	76,31	33,09	84,57	76,31	72,79
6 beats	75,98	32,88	84,63	75,98	72,47
8 beats	76,37	<b>33,33</b>	85,48	76,37	<b>72,78</b>
10 beats	75,11	31,57	84,66	75,11	71,09
16 beats	<b>76,49</b>	24,94	86,21	<b>76,49</b>	70,17
32 beats	76,11	23,57	<b>86,70</b>	76,11	69,73
64 beats	75,00	30,28	83,52	75,00	70,83

Table 2: The performances of RAST-BINARY in terms of the main classification metrics for the experiment with 80-20 validation scheme among all the heartbeat windows.

Window	Acc	Spec	Prec	Recall	F1 Score
4 beats	<b>92,93</b>	<b>81,20</b>	<b>92,89</b>	<b>92,93</b>	<b>92,69</b>
6 beats	92,76	80,60	92,73	92,76	92,49
8 beats	92,76	80,68	92,72	92,76	92,49
10 beats	92,60	80,08	92,58	92,60	92,31
16 beats	92,38	79,42	92,35	92,38	92,07
32 beats	91,70	77,50	91,67	91,70	91,32
64 beats	90,97	75,35	90,96	90,97	90,50

### 5.1 Selecting the most fitting ML algorithm

The performances of the algorithms under validation are depicted in Figure 3 for RAST-BINARY. This figure is only illustrative because it was obtained with a specific configuration of parameters. However, the Random Forest model was found to be the most accurate model among all the parameters tuning and validation schemes and for both RAST-BINARY and RAST-TERNARY.

### 5.2 RAST-BINARY

The results of RAST-BINARY within the L1SO are depicted in Table 1 and Figure 4. The best accuracy found was 76,49 % obtained with a pattern of 16 successive heartbeats.

On the other hand, RAST-BINARY when submitted to a 80-20 random-split validation scheme shows the performances reported in Table 2 and Figure 5. The best accuracy found was 92,93 % obtained with a pattern of 4, 6, 8 or 10 successive heartbeats (with slightly more precision for 6 heartbeats).

Finally, the results of RAST-BINARY with the dataset balanced according to SMOTE and within the 80-20 random-split validation scheme are reported in Table 3 and Figure 6. In this case, the best accuracy was 93,61 % obtained with a window of 4 heartbeats.

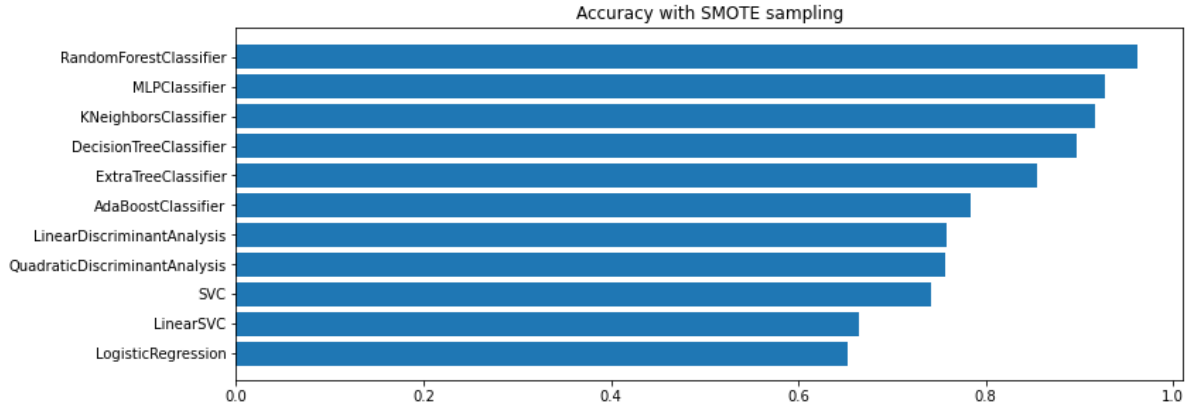


Figure 3: A demonstrative iteration for all the evaluated Machine Learning algorithms with the configuration of 10 heartbeat window length and 80-20 validation scheme for RAST-BINARY.

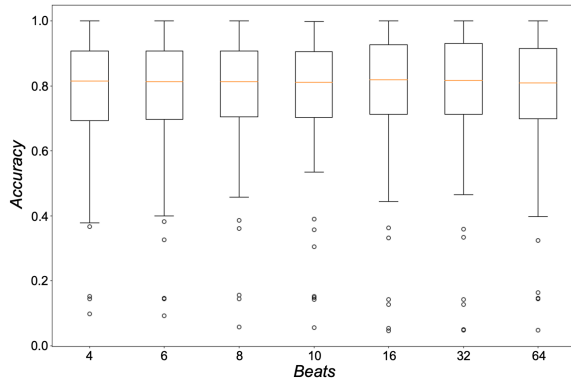


Figure 4: Boxplot of the accuracies obtained within the LISO validation scheme for RAST-BINARY.

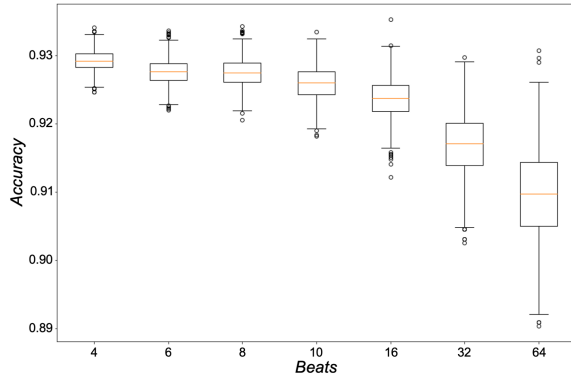


Figure 5: Boxplot of the accuracies obtained within the 80-20 random-split validation scheme for RAST-BINARY.

### 5.3 RAST-TERNARY

The results of RAST-TERNARY within the LISO are depicted in Table 4 and Figure 7. The best accuracy found was 77,35 % obtained with a pattern of 4, 6 or 8 successive heartbeats (with slightly more precision with 8 heartbeats).

Table 3: The performances of RAST-BINARY in terms of the main classification metrics for the experiment with 80-20 random-split validation scheme and SMOTE among all the heartbeat windows.

Window	Acc	Spec	Prec	Recall	F1 Score
4 beats	<b>93,61</b>	<b>88,62</b>	<b>93,61</b>	<b>93,61</b>	<b>93,61</b>
6 beats	93,46	88,33	93,47	93,46	93,46
8 beats	92,73	88,60	92,88	92,73	92,79
10 beats	93,36	88,13	93,37	93,36	93,37
16 beats	93,13	87,79	93,14	93,13	93,14
32 beats	92,63	86,71	92,63	92,63	92,62
64 beats	92,21	85,63	92,19	92,21	92,19

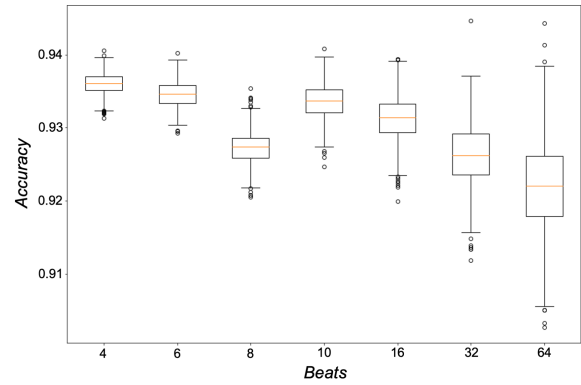


Figure 6: Boxplot of the accuracies obtained within the 80-20 random-split validation scheme for RAST-BINARY with the application of the SMOTE technique.

On the other hand, RAST-TERNARY when submitted to an 80-20 random-split validation scheme shows the performances reported in Table 5 and Figure 8. The best accuracy found was 92,76 % obtained with a pattern of 4, 6 successive heartbeats (with slightly more precision for 4 heartbeats).

Finally, the results of RAST-TERNARY with the dataset balanced according to SMOTE, and within the



Table 4: The performances of RAST-TERNARY in terms of the main classification metrics for the experiment with LISO among all the heartbeat windows.

Window	Acc	Spec	Prec	Recall	F1 Score
4 beats	77,04	<b>31,79</b>	85,33	77,04	72,58
6 beats	76,70	30,82	84,90	76,70	71,90
8 beats	<b>77,35</b>	31,40	86,05	<b>77,35</b>	<b>72,83</b>
10 beats	76,24	29,69	<b>86,40</b>	76,24	70,95
16 beats	75,78	28,33	86,36	75,78	70,15
32 beats	76,28	27,49	86,33	76,28	70,75
64 beats	75,74	27,94	86,40	75,74	69,98

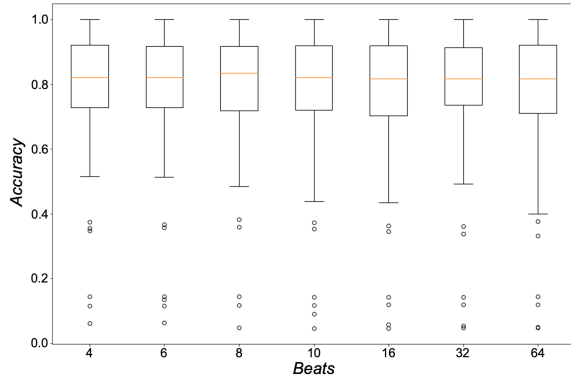


Figure 7: Boxplot of the accuracies obtained within the LISO validation scheme for RAST-TERNARY.

80-20 random-split validation scheme are reported in Table 6 and Figure 9. In this case, the best accuracy was 93,52 % obtained with a window of 4 heartbeats.

## 5.4 Discussion

One of the most noteworthy result from the experiments depicted in the subsections 5.2 and 5.3 is that for the LISO-CV the best results are mostly spread among the window lengths of 8 and 16 heartbeats (see Tables 1 and 4) while for the 80-20 Random Split validation the best results obtained are obtained when involving in RAST an observation window of only 4

Table 5: The performances of RAST-TERNARY in terms of the main classification metrics for the experiment with 80-20 random-split validation scheme among all the heartbeat windows.

Window	Acc	Spec	Prec	Recall	F1 Score
4 beats	<b>92,76</b>	<b>80,44</b>	<b>92,77</b>	<b>92,76</b>	<b>92,44</b>
6 beats	92,57	79,74	92,60	92,57	92,22
8 beats	92,45	79,43	92,47	92,45	92,09
10 beats	92,32	78,91	92,37	92,31	91,93
16 beats	92,06	78,04	92,11	92,06	91,63
32 beats	91,51	76,57	91,57	91,51	91,01
64 beats	90,61	73,66	90,73	90,61	89,97

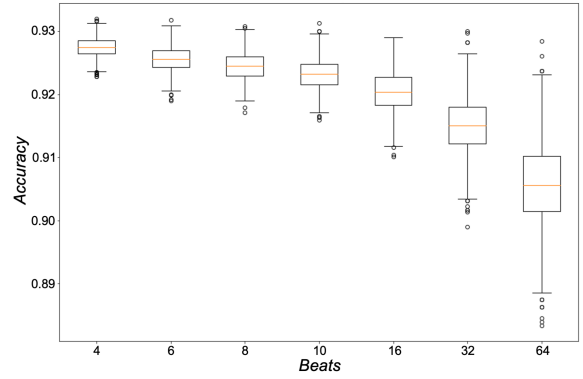


Figure 8: Boxplot of the accuracies obtained within the 80-20 random-split validation scheme for RAST-TERNARY.

Table 6: The performances of RAST-TERNARY in terms of the main classification metrics for the experiment with 80-20 random-split validation scheme and SMOTE among all the heartbeat windows.

Window	Acc	Spec	Prec	Recall	F1 Score
4 beats	<b>93,52</b>	<b>90,03</b>	<b>93,60</b>	<b>93,52</b>	<b>93,54</b>
6 beats	93,38	89,77	93,46	93,38	93,40
8 beats	92,47	90,00	92,74	92,47	92,56
10 beats	93,29	89,47	93,35	93,29	93,30
16 beats	92,99	89,02	93,07	92,99	93,01
32 beats	92,60	88,16	92,67	92,61	92,62
64 beats	92,26	86,54	92,26	92,26	92,22

heartbeats. This could be translated in an online scenario of the detector in the following usage: when a new patient has to be monitored, a longer observation window is needed to best detect ST related anomalies. On the other hand, when the data of a patient is already available, RAST will need an observation window of only 4 heartbeats.

In Figure 7 are highlighted the performances of the best experiment in RAST (*i.e.*, RAST-TERNARY with a window of 4 heartbeats, with 80-20

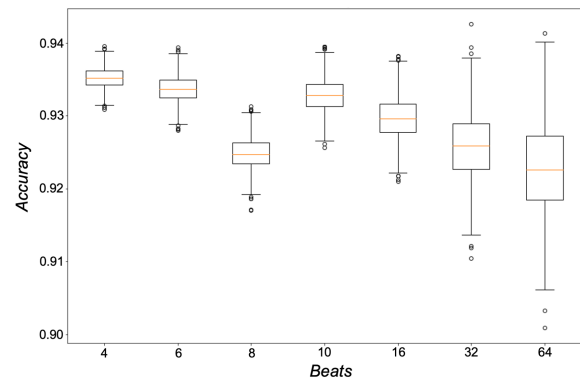


Figure 9: Boxplot of the accuracies obtained within the 80-20 random-split validation scheme for RAST-TERNARY with the application of the SMOTE technique.

Table 7: The performances of the best experiment in RAST, *i.e.*, RAST-TERNARY, detailed by class and expressed in percentage with respect to the main classification metrics.

Class	Acc	Spec	Prec	Recall	F1 Score
NSR	93,56	87,74	96,24	95,33	95,78
ST+	98,38	98,75	85,37	93,61	89,30
ST-	95,09	97,06	84,71	84,84	84,77

Table 8: Comparison between RAST and the baseline work (Harun-Ar-Rashid et al., 2020) in terms of overall accuracy.

Method	Binary	Ternary
RAST	<b>93,61</b>	<b>93,52</b>
(Harun-Ar-Rashid et al., 2020)	92,10	92,10
Delta	<b>+1,51</b>	<b>+1,42</b>

random-split validation scheme and SMOTE) detailed by class and expressed in percentage with respect to the main classification metrics. The metrics are averaged among the 1000 iterations. We consider this experiment as the best because the accuracy for RAST-BINARY and RAST-TERNARY are not significantly different for the same configuration of 4 heartbeats, SMOTE and 80-20 scheme).

As shown in Figure 8, in terms of overall accuracy, our tool outperforms the baseline method by approximately 1,51 % and 1,4 % (respectively for RAST-BINARY and RAST-TERNARY) providing higher noise robustness, lower computational cost and higher prediction responsiveness. All this makes it a robust and highly accurate tool for both screening and detection of ST segment diseases.

To provide a complete report of the results, we measured the times of processing for the generation of the final features vector. With the longest window considered, *i.e.*, the 64 heartbeats window, we measured the generation of the final features vector in 0,09 s while with the smallest window, with only 4 heartbeats, we measured the same processing in 0,012 s. For this purpose, we used a laptop running Windows 10 with a Ryzen 7 5800x CPU and 32Gb of Ram. These measures of time are to be intended only for the features vector generation. To these amounts, the time for the prediction needs to be added. In RAST, the time for the prediction is not significant, considering that the most fitting model (Random Forest) was assessed in the literature as a classifier with a very small computational cost at test time (Solé et al., 2014).

In addition, thanks to the large experimentation conducted, it was possible to achieve another result. Indeed, it was observed that for the LISO-CV, a longer observation window was needed. In contrast, with a random split, the observation window is reduced to 4 beats to provide a highly accurate binary

or ternary prediction of ST abnormalities. This could be because within the LISO-CV the training model does not have personal patient data on which to make the ST segment prediction, while the 80-20 random-split validation represents a scenario where subjective data are always available for the training of the model. Therefore, the outcome can be that if a patient has never been assisted, the observation window to identify ST anomalies must last longer, while if the model has had the chance to use personal data for the training of the model, the observation can be reduced to only 4 successive heartbeats. This result is compliant with another work in the literature (Rosa et al., 2021b).

## 6 THREATS TO VALIDITY

A limitation might be the fact that we worked on only one dataset, when it would have been more useful to test the tuning of all design parameters on one dataset and validate it on a completely different dataset of patients. Unfortunately, because of the way our approach is done, we could only work on European ST-T Database. To mitigate this limitation, we opted to introduce robust validation schemes.

## 7 CONCLUSIONS

In this work RAST was presented, a tool dedicated to the screening of ST anomalies. With respect to other state-of-the-art methods, RAST is focused on the binary (ST and Normal) and ternary (ST+, ST- and Normal) identification of ST segment anomalies. Indeed, other tools opted for the identification of more ST segment categories of anomaly. At the same time, RAST is mostly focused on the triggering of the danger without providing too many details on its nature. Therefore, RAST is more intended to be involved in rapid and accurate screening applications where the diagnosis is continued by a specialized medical staff.

This method was exhaustively experimented on the European ST-T Database and showed many improvements: (i) a better overall accuracy (+2 % with respect to the chosen baseline) for both versions of RAST (ii) a more efficient computational cost considering that in the baseline work Maglaveras et al. (1998) declared a high computational cost for their presented method.

As a part of our future agenda, we aim at evaluating the performances of RAST with different Deep Learning-based classifiers. Moreover, we want to experiment the approach on larger and heterogeneous datasets, but also in clinical contexts via controlled

experiments. In these cases, it will be useful to evaluate the importance and the impact of demographics factors, such as age and weight, as features.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors have been supported by the project PON 2014-2020—ARS01\_00860 “ATTICUS: Ambient-intelligent Tele-monitoring and Telemetry for Incepting and Catering over hUman Sustainability” funded by the Ministry of Education, University and Research—RNA/COR 576347.

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