

# ECG signal classification with liner laws

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Wigner FK

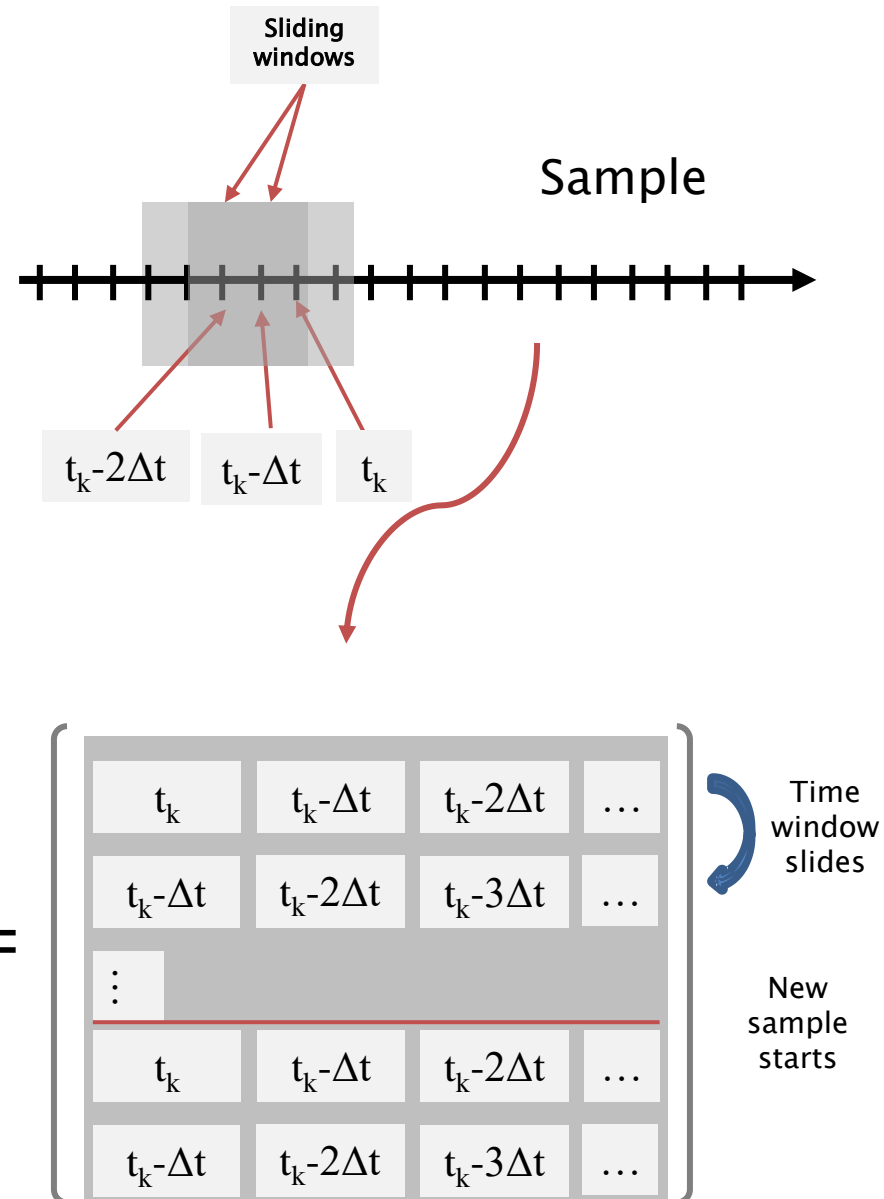
Péter Kovács

ELTE

# Linear laws for time series

# Time series representation

- The signal samples are represented as time series  $\rightarrow y(t)$
- **Time embedding:** The samples are divided into shorter sub samples using a sliding window with maximum overlap
- The “sub samples” are organized into a **learning set matrix**.
- For multiple samples of shorter time series we create the learning set matrix individually and later join them into a large matrix by adding more rows under each other.
- Order of the elements does not matter in this matrix.



$$Y_{ki} = Y_i^k = y(t_k - i\Delta t)$$

$$Y_{ki} =$$

# Definition of linear laws

Consider a mapping which brings all the sub samples into 0:

$$\mathcal{F} : \mathbb{V}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad \mathcal{F} \left( Y^{(k)} \right) = 0, \quad \forall k$$

**Linear laws:** fix the form of the mapping and consider only linear relations:

$$\mathcal{F}(Y^k) = \sum_{i=0}^n Y_{ki} w_i \equiv (Yw)_k = 0, \quad \forall k \quad \text{Linear law}$$

- **Laws:** represent a relation which is true for the whole learning set
- Analogy to physical **conservation laws**: they describe a quantity which is “conserved” for the whole learning set (here it remains 0)

$$\begin{bmatrix} t_k & t_{k-\Delta t} & t_{k-2\Delta t} & \dots \\ t_{k-\Delta t} & t_{k-2\Delta t} & t_{k-3\Delta t} & \dots \\ \vdots & & & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_0 \\ w_1 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

# Determining linear laws

Starting from the definition:

$$(Yw)_k = 0 \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \|Yw\| = 0$$

In quadratic norm:

$$\|Yw\|^2 = \frac{1}{K} (Yw)^T (Yw) = w^T C w = 0 \quad C = \frac{1}{K} Y^T Y$$

To avoid the trivial  $w=0$  solution we need to require  $|w|=1$ . This leads to a constrained minimalization problem:

$$\chi^2(\lambda) = w^T C w - \lambda w^T w = \min.$$

The solution to this is the eigenvalue equation:

$$Cw^{(\lambda)} = \lambda w^{(\lambda)}$$

The  $n+1$  components of the eigenvectors are the linear laws.

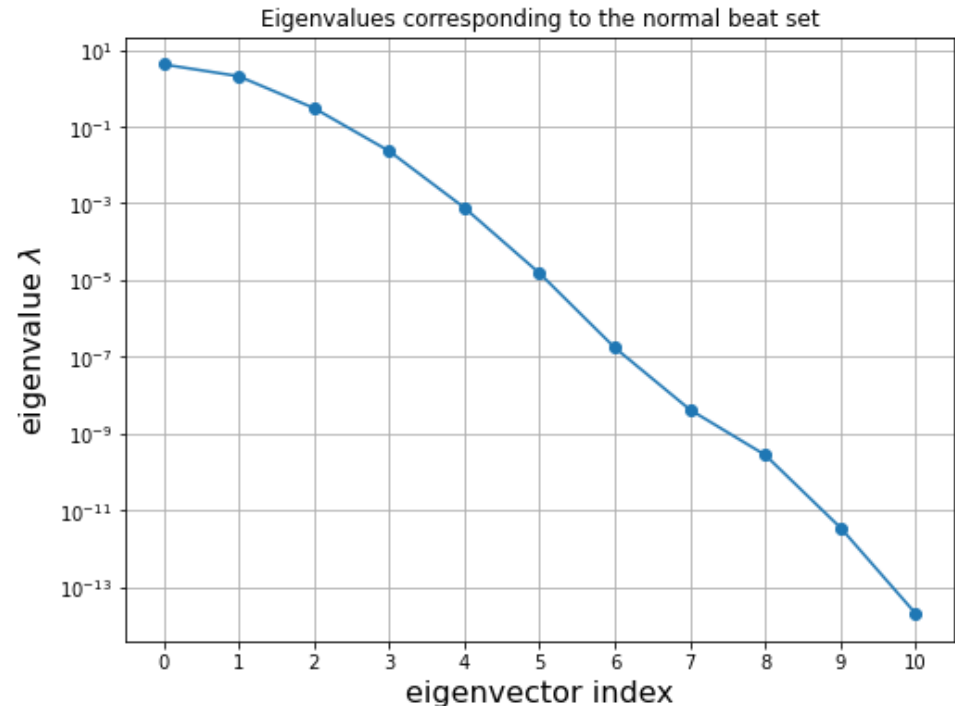
**Finding linear laws is an eigenvalue problem**

# Calculating the linear laws for the ECG signals

- Solving the eigenvalue equation corresponding to the learning set yields linear laws

$$Cw^{(\lambda)} = \lambda w^{(\lambda)}$$

- This yields as many linear laws as many independent eigenvectors.
- Which one of the solutions should be chosen?



# Selecting the best solution

The linear laws are true at a given precision. In practice instead of zero they map the learning samples to small numbers:

$$\mathcal{F}(Y^k) = \sum_{i=0}^n Y_{ki} w_i \equiv \xi_k$$



Substituting this into the quadratic norm form we get:

$$\|Yw\|^2 = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=0}^K \xi_k^2 = \langle \xi^2 \rangle$$

So instead of zero as norm we get the variance of the error on the sample. This norm can also be expressed using the eigenvalues:

$$\|Yw\|^2 = \frac{1}{K} (Yw)^T (Yw) = w^T C w \quad \leftarrow Cw^{(\lambda)} = \lambda w^{(\lambda)}$$

The variance is  
the eigenvalue.


$$\|Yw\|^2 = \lambda w^T w = \boxed{\lambda = \langle \xi^2 \rangle}$$

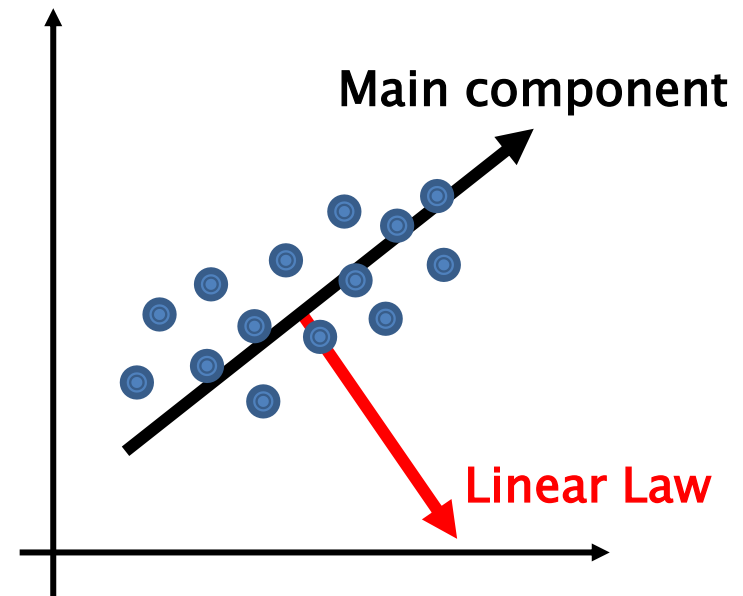
**The best linear law is the eigenvector corresponding to the smallest eigenvalue, because this one has the highest precision on average.**

# Intuition behind linear laws

- **PCA:** The PCA method select the direction in which the data changes the most.



- **Linear laws:** Select the direction in which the data appears to be constant.
- The linear law is a **direction** in the multidimensional space.
- This direction is “as **orthogonal as possible**” to the data in a sense that it is the normal vector of the hyperplane in which the data can be found. (considering precision)
- This also means that the linear laws are generated for sets that are collecting things which are considered similar for the problem. They correspond to classes.



**Linear laws ~ Anti-PCA**

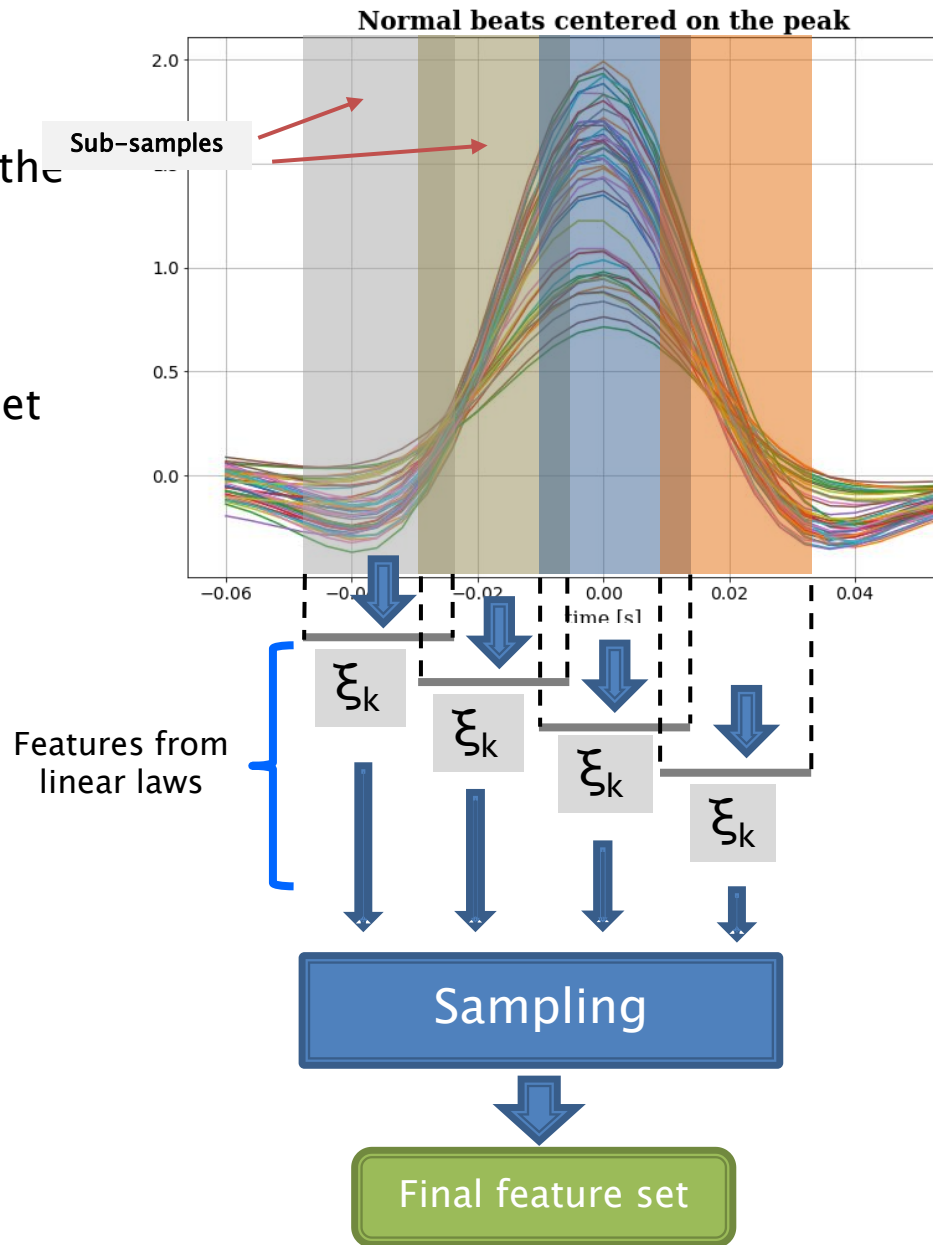


# Generating Linear features (LLT)

- The sample is **time embedded** with a window length equal to the length of the linear law
- A new  $Y_{ki}$  matrix is created
- The linear laws corresponding to the classes in the classification problem set are applied on the  $Y$  matrix.
- The results are downsampled then concatenated
- **Feature vector**: features generated by each linear law.

$$\mathcal{F}(Y^k) = \sum_{i=0}^n Y_{ki} w_i \equiv \xi_k$$

sample  $\nearrow$  Linear law  $\nearrow$  Features



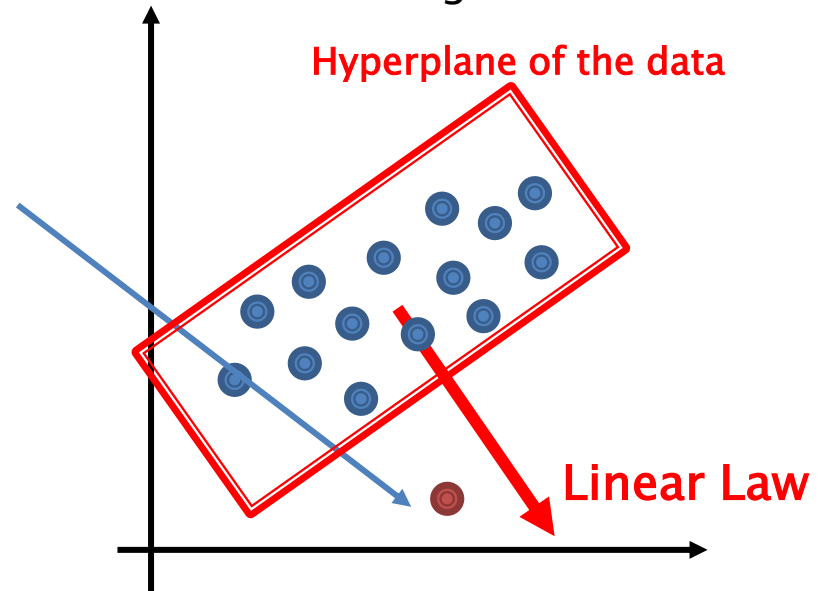
# Intuition behind LLT

1. The features measure how “similar” a sub-sample to the learning set.
  - **Intuition:** scalar product measures how “large” is a vector in a given direction.
  - Direction = linear law, which represents the learning set
  - **Feature = sample • linear law, we expect zero if sample is from LL class**
2. LLT is like choosing a **coordinate system** which fit the problem better
  - Spherical problem  $\rightarrow$  spherical coordinates  
On the surface of the sphere  $r = \text{const}$  for everything  $\sim$  linear law  
variables are eliminated the problem become simpler
  - By finding the linear law we have a vector which is orthogonal to the hypersurface of the data

**Different sample:** outside of the hyperplane characterized by Linear law



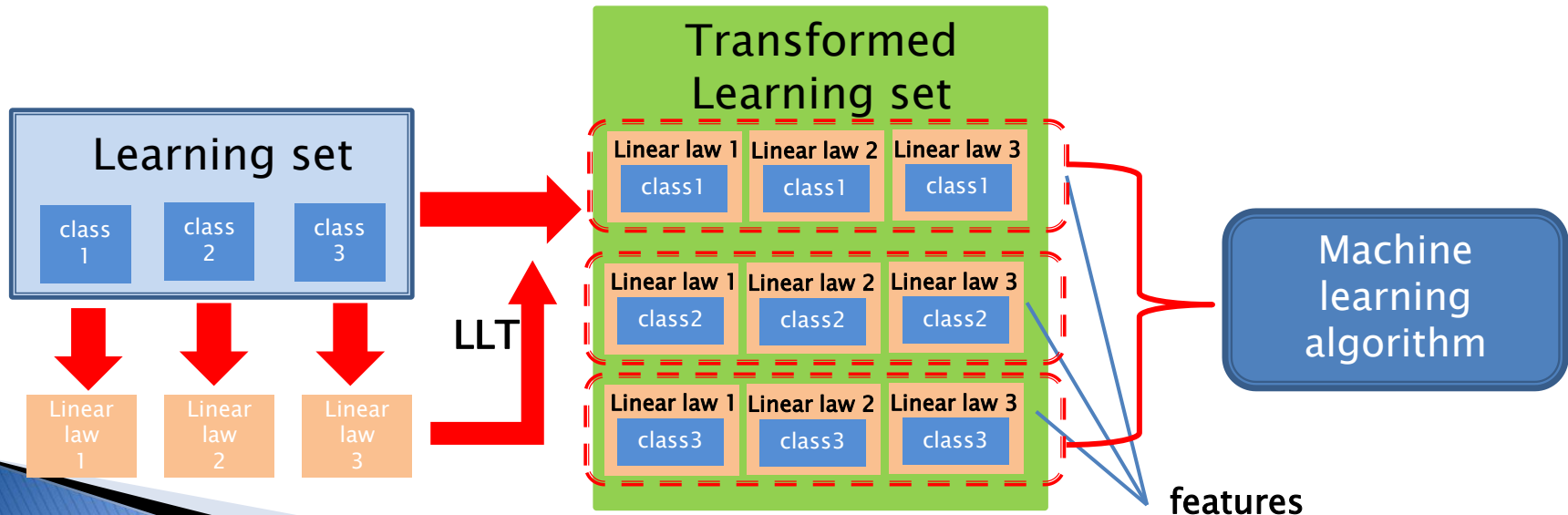
**Features have large value**



# Classification with LLT

LLT aids classification by providing a quantity which is **constant over a given class**

- **Linear laws represent the classes** which they are derived from in an operator form.
- When applied on data Linear laws generate features, which are small for similar data and large for different ones.
- The generated features are **similarity measures** for each class:  
Applying linear laws derived from classes to a sample yields features which measure how similar the sample to the defining class of each linear law.
- Linear laws are “voting” how similar the sample to each class.
- **Votes = features**



# Application of LLT for ECG signal classification

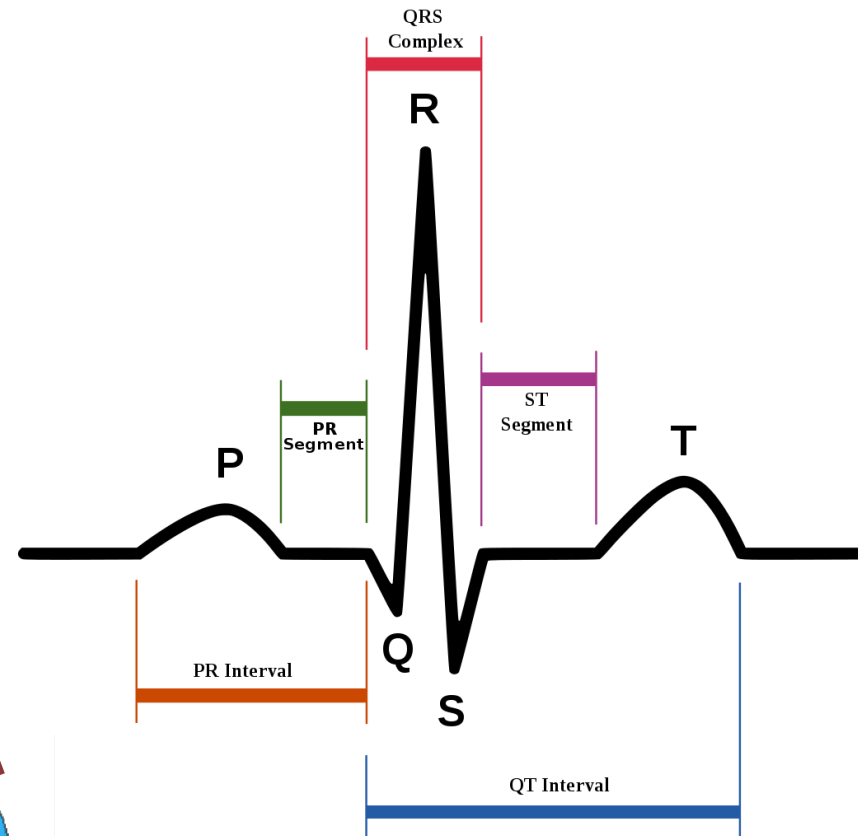
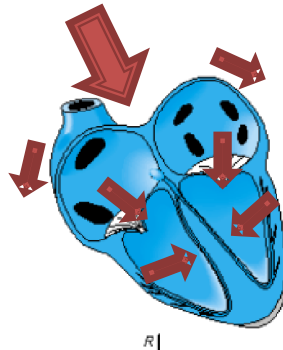
# Anatomy of ECG signals

ECG: average (net) polarization of the hearth as function of time.

One cycle:

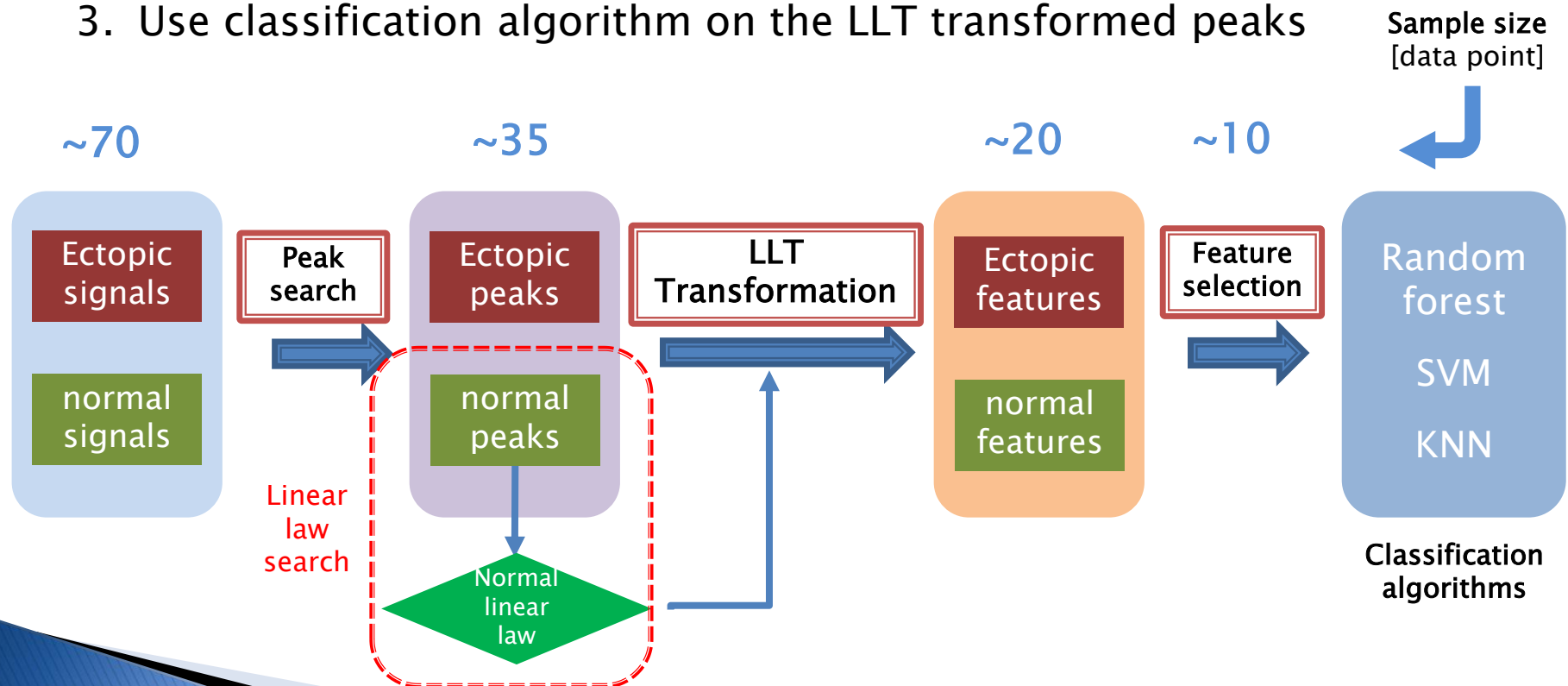
1. Atrial depolarization  $\rightarrow$  P
2. Septal depolarization  $\rightarrow$  Q
3. Left ventricle is behind in time, so the left and right can not cancel each other properly  $\rightarrow$  R, S
4. Repolarization of the ventricles  $\rightarrow$  T

The polarization wave



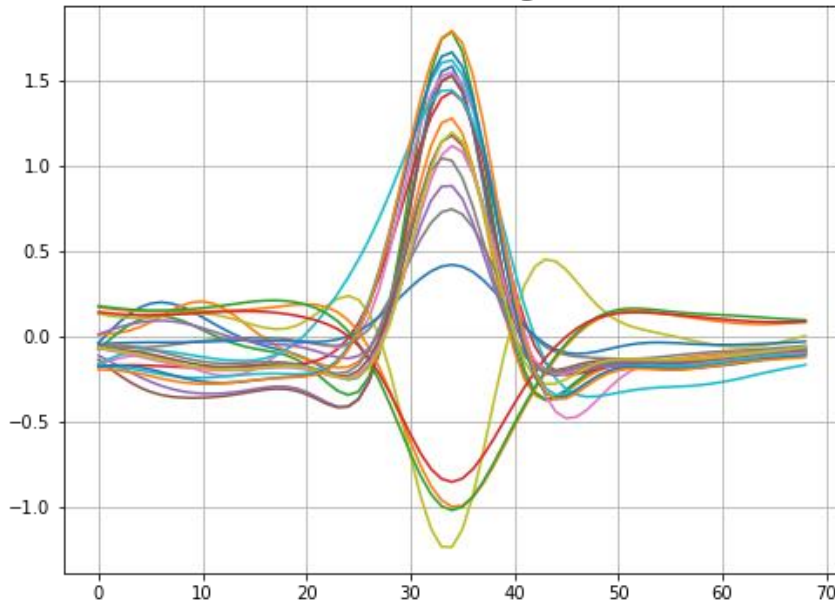
# Categorization strategy

1. Focus on the QRS complex in healthy signals – cut the peaks
2. Use the Linear law for healthy QRS complexes for LLT for both ectopic and normal peaks.
  - This is different than it was explained above. It works because we have only 2 classes
3. Use classification algorithm on the LLT transformed peaks

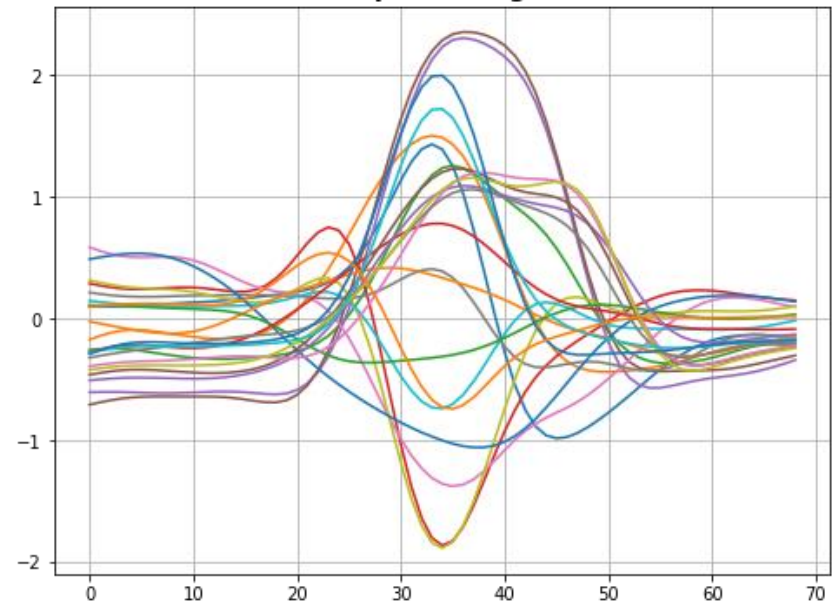


# Look at the data

Normal ECG signal



Ectopic ECG signal



Balanced dataset of around 8000 signals

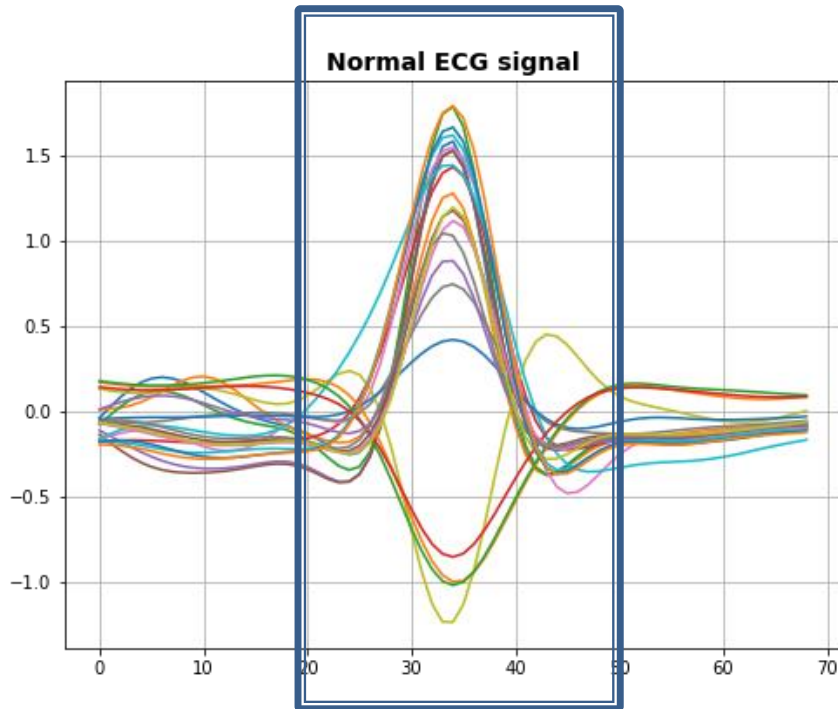
- 30% is used for training
- **70% is used for testing !**

YES, really !

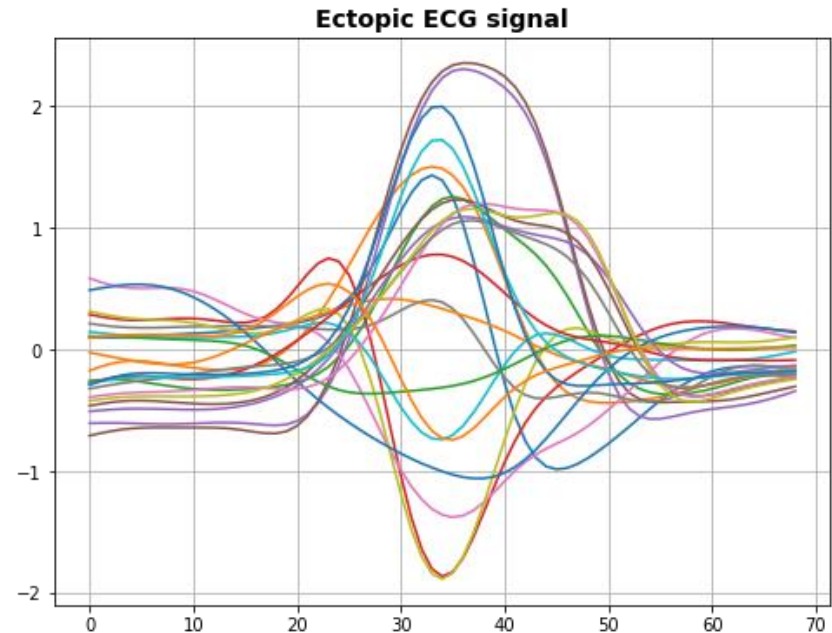
Database was provided by Péter Kovács  
<https://numanal.inf.elte.hu/~kovi/>



# Look at the data



- 34 point long window were used to cut the peaks
- Meta parameter: fitted on healthy signals
- Peaks are standardized:
  - Mean = 0
  - Max = 1



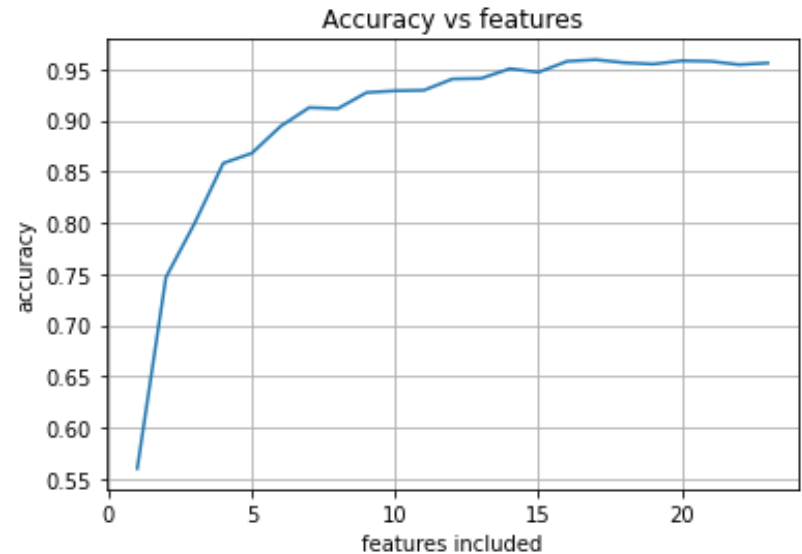
- Because of the irregularity of the signals there are **artifacts** at the peak search
  - No peak found  $\rightarrow$  instant rejection
  - Multiple peaks found in one sample
- **Take the more strict route:** check performance only on samples where there are peaks and consider multiple peak samples too



# Random forest

LLT results in 24 features which is used to fit a random forest

- Number of estimators = 30
- Max depth = 15
- **accuracy: 95.4%** avg  
(normal: 95.2%, ectopic: 95.6 %)
- Including the 10 most important features results in 93% accuracy



To increase accuracy further we need more features (larger forest does not work)

- Use **linear law for ectopic** set and use that to transform the full dataset again and create pairs:
- [Normal LLT(sample), ectopic LLT(sample)] => 48 features
- **Accuracy 96.4 %**  
(normal: 95.3%, ectopic: 97.5 %)

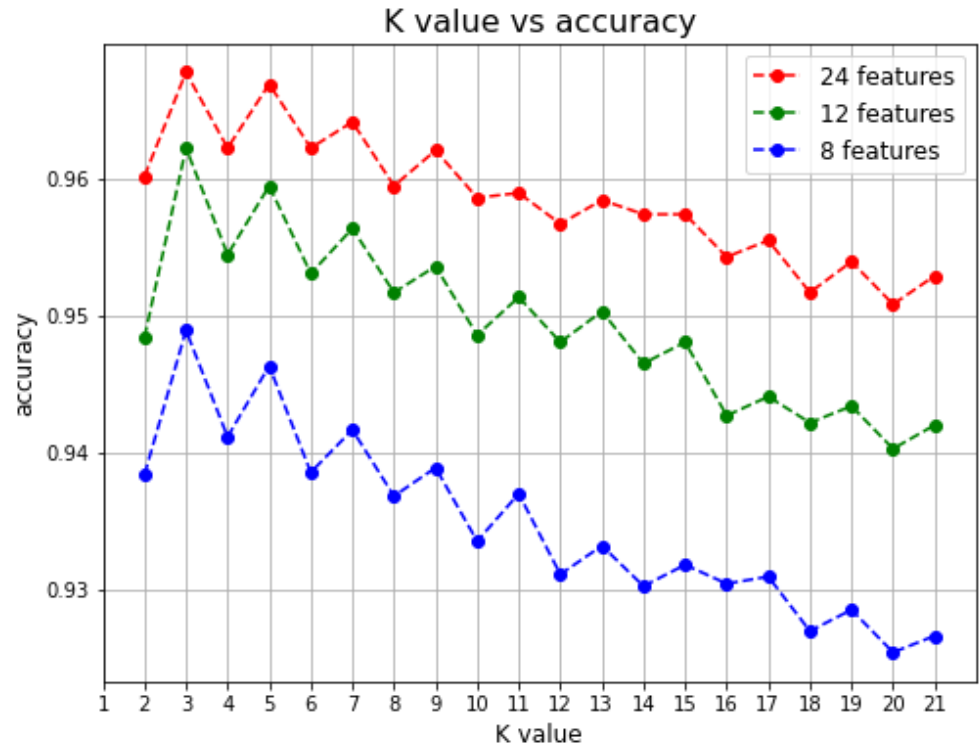
# Other Classifiers

## K nearest neighbours

- Smaller Ks are more stable
- **accuracy: 95–96.7%** avg  
(normal: 98%, ectopic: 95.4 %)
- The features can be downsampled to get similarly good results

## Support Vector Machine

- Nonlinear Kernel was used
- **accuracy: 94%** avg  
(normal: 94.4%, ectopic: 93.8 %)



**Thank you!**

# Auxiliary slides

# Recursions and linear laws

If a linear law is found  $w_i$  are all determined. The law means:

$$\mathcal{F}(Y^k) = \sum_{i=0}^n Y_{ki} w_i \equiv (Yw)_k = 0, \quad \xrightarrow[\text{For a given } k]{\text{red arrow}} \quad \sum_{i=0}^n y(t_k - i\Delta t) w_i = 0$$

This can be rewritten as a recursion:

$$y(t_k) = -\frac{1}{w_0} \sum_{i=1}^n y(t_k - i\Delta t) w_i \quad \xrightarrow[t_k = k \Delta t]{\text{red arrow}} \quad y_k = -\frac{1}{w_0} \sum_{i=1}^n y_{k-i} w_i = \sum_{i=1}^n y_{k-i} \hat{w}_i$$

Since this relation is true for all  $k$  this  $n$ -length recursion can generate the dataset.

- If data reconstruction is the purpose sampling becomes important because the recursion is not exact, the linear law is true at a given precision
- Searching for linear laws is equivalent to finding recursive representations of data