# Real-Time Extraction and Analysis of Key Morphological Features in the Electrocardiogram, for Data Compression and Clinical Decision Support

# Ankit J. Gordhandas and Thomas Heldt and George C. Verghese

Computational Physiology and Clinical Inference Group Research Laboratory of Electronics Massachusetts Institute of Technology Cambridge, MA

#### Abstract

Massive amounts of clinical data can now be collected by stand-alone or wearable monitors over extended periods of time. One key challenge is to convert the volumes of raw data into clinically relevant and actionable information, ideally in real-time. This becomes imperative especially in the domain of wearable monitors, where power and memory constraints prevent continuous communication of raw, uncompressed data to a base station for a health care provider. We focus here on algorithmic approaches to extract clinically meaningful information from the electrocardiogram (ECG) in real-time.

We use a curve-length transform to identify, and aggregate from beat to beat, physiologically relevant timing information, such as the onsets and offsets of P-waves, QRS complexes, and T-waves, along with their respective magnitudes. Each heartbeat is thus parametrized in terms of 12 variables. Assuming a nominal heart-rate of 70 beats per minute, and a sampling frequency of 250 Hz, each beat has approximately 215 samples. Reducing each beat to 12 samples thus gives an 18-fold compression.

An exponentially-weighted sliding average of the identified morphological features over the preceding twenty beats is also stored. Whenever any feature deviates significantly from its stored weighted average, the algorithm registers an alarm and also retains the raw ECG data of the 5 beats immediately preceding and following the anomalous occurrence, for a later review by a clinician.

#### Introduction

A long-term ECG (or Holter) recording allows physicians to analyze a patient's cardiac rhythm over extended periods (typically 24 hours) and to quantify the frequency and severity of cardiac conduction problems that may manifest irregularly or only over short durations. Advances in hardware development have led to progressive miniaturization of such wearable ECG monitors (Fensli, Gunnarson, and Gundersen 2005). Similarly, advances in power management allow these devices to collect data for longer periods of time (Park et al. 2006). The reduction in size, however, limits

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the amount of memory available for data storage. Similarly, power constraints prevent continuous wireless transmission of the raw data, even over short distances. To provide clinicians with intermittent updates on patient health, and to mitigate the data storage limitations, it seems imperative that data be reduced on chip by extracting clinically meaningful information from the volumes of data collected.

Here, we present a real-time ECG processing algorithm that "compresses" the raw data by identifying and retaining clinically relevant landmarks of the ECG on a beat-by-beat basis. The retained landmarks are the kinds of variables a clinician uses to interpret the ECG, such as the width and height of the QRS complex or the elevation of the ST-segment. Furthermore, the algorithm keeps a running average of each landmark and triggers an alarm whenever significant changes are detected. When such an event is triggered, the algorithm automatically stores the raw ECG data from five beats preceding to five beats following the anomaly, for the benefit of review by a clinician. While our data compression algorithm is inherently lossy, a cartoon-type ECG beat can be reconstructed that conveyes most of the relevant information on which clinical decisions are based.

#### Methods

## Feature-onset and offset detection

ECG analysis typically starts with beat-onset detection, by locating the QRS complexes. We follow the work by Zong et al. and use the curve-length transform to detect the onset and offset of QRS complexes (Zong, Moody, and Jiang 2003). The method relies on the fact that in most standard projections the ECG curve length corresponding to the QRS complex is generally larger than that of other segments of the ECG.

For a continuous differentiable function x(t), the curve length L at time t over the time interval w is given by

$$L(t) = \int_{t-w}^t ds = \int_{t-w}^t \sqrt{(1 + \frac{dx}{dt'})^2} dt'$$

The discrete-time version of this equation can be written as

$$L[i] = \sum_{k=i-w}^{i} \sqrt{\Delta t^2 + \Delta x_k^2}$$

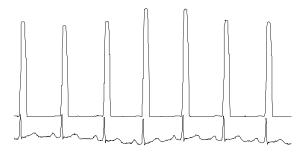


Figure 1: ECG signal (bottom) and its length transform (top).

where  $\Delta x_k = x_k - x_{k-1}$ .

For QRS detection, the window length w was chosen to be 130 ms, which represents an upper limit for the duration of the QRS complex. Figure 1 shows a segment of an ECG signal along with the computed length transform. As is evident, the rising edge of the length transform corresponds to the onset of the QRS complex.

Whenever the length transform crosses a pre-defined (but adaptive) threshold, the time-point of threshold-crossing is noted. The algorithm then searches backward for 100 ms to determine the minimum value,  $LT_{min}$ , of the length transform forward for 150 ms to determine the maximum value,  $LT_{max}$ . Subsequently, the algorithm tracks backward from the point of threshold-crossing until the value of the length transform drops to  $(LT_{min}+\frac{(LT_{max}-LT_{min})}{100})$ . This point is noted as the onset of the QRS complex. The point where the length transform rises to  $(LT_{min}+\frac{(LT_{max}+LT_{min})}{100})$  is noted as the end of the QRS complex (Zong, Moody, and Jiang 2003).

The first fifteen beats of each records are used as a training period to determine the threshold. To account for baseline wandering, the algorithm uses adaptive thresholding. Initially, the threshold value is assigned as 2.5 times the average value of the length transform during the training period. The threshold is then adjusted, based on the maximum value of the length transform of each detected feature (see Zong et. al. for details). Within each QRS complex, we identify the location and magnitude of the R-wave.

The curve-length transform outlined above was modified to aid in feature extraction. The P-wave duration is typically less than 110 ms, and the PR-interval ranges from 110 ms to 200 ms. The algorithm backtracks from  $t_0$ , the location of the R-wave, and computes the length transform over a window w=110 ms from  $t=t_o-200$  ms to  $t_o-90$  ms. The T-wave lasts for 100 ms to 250 ms, and the QT-interval is typically around 400 ms. To identify the onset and end of the T-wave, we compute the length transform over a window w=250 ms from  $t=t_o+320$  ms to  $t=t_o+450$  ms.

Figure 2 shows an ECG segment along with the results of our detection algorithm. The beginnings and the ends of the P-waves, the QRS complexes and the T-waves are respectively marked with an 'x', a '+' sign, and a circle, respectively

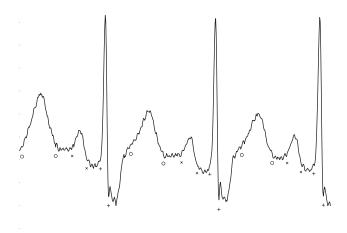


Figure 2: ECG signal with the onsets and ends marked for the P-waves (x), the QRS complexes (+), and the T-waves (o).

tively.

#### **Data reduction**

After detection of the P-waves, QRS complexes, and T-waves, the algorithm calculates the following variables:

- 1. P-wave duration
- 2. Height of P-wave
- 3. PQ height
- 4. PR-interval
- 5. QRS width
- 6. QR height
- 7. RS height
- 8. QT-interval
- 9. ST-segment elevation
- 10. T-wave height
- 11. T-wave duration
- 12. RR interval

These quantities along with the raw signal for each beat, are stored for five beats after which the raw signal is overwritten.

Assuming a nominal heart-rate of 70 beats per minute and a sampling rate of 250 Hz, each beat comprises roughly 216 samples. Reducing each beat to 12 features thus results in an 18-fold compression, though note that the ECG signal so parameterized cannot be reconstructed.

# **Irregularity detection**

An important component of the algorithm is deciding when to raise an alarm. A running exponential average of each feature is maintained using

$$A_x[n] = k \cdot x[n] + (1-k) \cdot A_x[n-1]$$

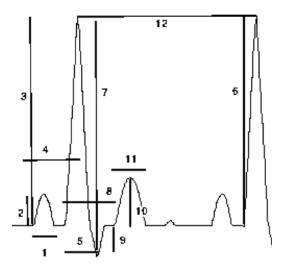


Figure 3: Cartoon of the 12 parameters captured.

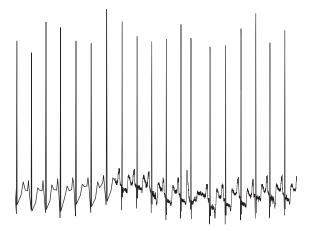


Figure 4: Detection of an abnormal feature as determined by our algorithm. The arrow indicates the abnormality.

where  $A_x$  is the weighted average of the corresponding physiological landmark x. In our application, we set the parameter k to 0.8. The average stored in this manner ensures that recent values are weighted more than past values. The deviation,  $D_x[n]$ , of each feature from its average is computed according to

$$D_x[n] = \frac{|x[n] - A_x[n]|}{A_x[n]}$$

Whenever the deviation crosses the threshold of 0.75, an alarm is raised. In that case, the compression of the ECG signal is stopped and the five beats preceding and following the flagged beat are stored in their raw form. Such an occurrence is illustrated in Figure 4. As such, the compression of the electrocardiogram lags by five beats.

#### Test data

We used the PhysioNet QT-Database to test our algorithm (Goldberger et al. 2000 June 13; Laguna et al. 1997). This

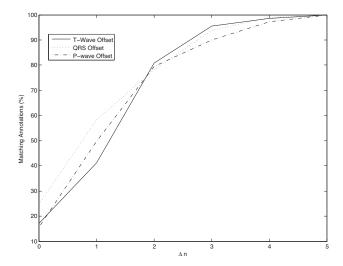


Figure 5: Cumulative distribution of matching annotations as a function of  $\Delta n$ .

database was created by compiling 105 records from different, existing PhysioNet ECG databases. Within each record, 30 to 100 representative beats were annotated by cardiologists, who identified the beginning and end of the P-waves, the beginning and end of QRS-complexes, and the end of the T-waves. All records were recorded at a sampling frequency of 250Hz.

The 15 records in the QT-Database which were derived from the MIT-BIH Arrhythmia Database were used to test the irregularity-detection feature of our algorithm. There were a total of 77 manually annotated occurrences of arrhythmia.

## **Results**

The algorithm described above was prototyped in MATLAB and then tested on a Texas Instruments MSP430 microprocessor. For each record, data was stored on the EEPROM of the microprocessor and then fed to the algorithm sample-by-sample, to simulate a real-time processing environment.

## **Feature detection**

Figure 5 shows the cumulative distribution of matching annotations as a function of  $\Delta n$ , the difference in sample numbers between the manual annotations and those derived by our algorithm.

# **Irregularity detection**

Of the 77 manually annotated arrhythmias, the algorithm detected 76. Alarms were also raised for 3 instances that were not marked as incidences of arrhythmias. The method thus displayed a sensitivity of 98.70% and a specificity of 96.10%.

## **Discussion**

The current trend in wearable ECG monitoring technology point to declining form factors and extended monitoring durations. The reduction in size of such devices is often achieved by sacrificing on-board memory. Additionally, increasing power constraints typically prevent the wireless streaming of ECG data sample-by-sample. Algorithmic approaches are therefore required to turn the acquired physiological data into actionable physiological information. The algorithm presented above complements the current trends in wearable ECG hardware design in that it extracts and tracks clinically important and interpretable landmarks of the ECG waveform, thus only requiring the storage of 12 landmarks as a function of time. By providing an approximate 18-fold compression, it is ensured that memory is not a limiting factor as far as the recording duration is concerned. Furthermore, the wireless communication of such a small set of variables is eminently feasible. However, it might not be necessary to transmit the values of these landmarks every beat but only when significant deviations from past values are detected.

Additionally, the detection of irregularities, raising of alarms, and appropriately halting compression ensures that when close inspection of the raw data is possible when it might be clinically indicated. The sensitivity and specificity of the irregularity-detection algorithm are very promising, though these statistics were obtained only for a relatively small number of arrhythmic events.

#### **Future Work**

The work outlined here is an initial step towards achieving on-chip ECG data reduction while retaining and tracking physiologically important variables over time. While our initial results are very promising, further validation is necessary, especially on data derived from Holter monitors. We also aim to incorporate information from a 3-axis accelerometer, possibly feeding into the determination of thresholds, in order to avoid raising unnecessary alarms during periods of significant activity when signal-to-noise might be low.

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