## Regularized Least Squares Applied to Heartbeat Classification using Transform-based and RR Intervals Features

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An algorithm for arrhythmia classification is presented with emphasis on the discrimination between normal

and premature ventricular contraction (PVC) conditions. We derived new features from the transformed ECG signal resulting from the linear predictive analysis of the ECG heartbeats and from the LPC filter impulse response matrix. These features in conjunction with the residual error energy and RR-intervals are fed into the Regularized Least Squares Classifier (RLSC) with radial basis kernel. The proposed features show an acceptable separation capability between the two classes. Two scenarios are investigated using selected records taken from the MIT-Arrhythmia database namely, intra-patient and inter-patient classification. The achieved results are 98.18 sensitivity and 99.02 specificity in average for the first scenario (intra-patient) and 95.18 sensitivity and 96.92 specificity in average for the second scenario (inter-

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## **1** INTRODUCTION

patient).

Abstract:

Electrocardiogram (ECG) is a crucial diagnostic tool for monitoring cardiac activities. Abnormalities in both electrical generation and conduction at different levels in the heart are reflected on the ECG as deviations from the normal heart rhythm. The term Arrhythmia is used to refer to these deviations. In spite of many research efforts devoted to automatic arrhythmia monitoring, none of the developed methods are completely satisfactory. The challenge is due to the variations in the morphology of ECG heartbeats which exhibit the same type of arrhythmias within and across patients. Moreover, in many cases heartbeats with different types of arrhythmias have similar morphology and frequency content (Osowski and Linh, 2001). These intra-class variations and inter-class similarities make it difficult to extract discriminative features from the time series of the heartbeats. To overcome this problem many authors have proposed Patient-Adapting Heartbeat Classifiers whereby a manual labelling of heartbeats from all new patients is needed and the classifier is adapted accordingly (De Chazal and Reilly,2006., Hu et al.,1997, Lagerholm et al., 2000). Though these approaches considerably improve the classifier performances,

they do not seem practical, especially in developing countries, due to the cost of acquiring trained physicists who are able to label the data for each new patient. The ultimate aim in this research area is the development of a classifier that performs well on the unseen data without "assistance" from physicists. This study investigates the use of a Regularised Least Squares Classifier for the classification of normal (N) and abnormal premature ventricular contraction (PVC) conditions.

Unlike normal beats which originate from the sinoatrial (SA) node, PVC beats originate from the ventricles and are characterised by the absence of the P wave and a large QRS complex as illustrated in Figure 1. Their presence in an ECG record becomes clinically significant only if their frequency of occurrence exceeds six beats per minutes. Examples of these complex PVCs include, bigeminy (every other beat is a PVC), multifocal (varied shapes and forms of the PVCs) and coupling (two PVCs occur back to back). These complex PVCs could degenerate into serious ventricular arrhythmias such as ventricular tachycardia (Sigg et al., 2005). Therefore, many lives could be saved if these beats are detected early-on and accurately. To achieve good classification results, the set of input features as well as the classifier are crucial.

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Figure 1: Premature ventricular contractions with different shapes.

Autoregressive (AR) modeling has been adopted for ECG compression and monitoring (Ge et al.,2002., Ham and Han, 1996., Lin and Chang, 1989). The ECG signal can be reconstructed using the residual error and the linear prediction coefficients (LPC) using the synthesis filter. Though the representation and the use of the LPC filter coefficients as features have been well studied and understood, the extraction of relevant features from the residual error should receive much more emphasis as suggested by (Lin and Chang, 1989).

In this paper, a new set of features extracted from the impulse response matrix of the LPC filter and the transformed ECG signal is proposed. Using this approach, each ECG period is orthogonally transformed into a new domain where only few coefficients contain most of the signal information. The extracted features are fed into the classifier in conjunction with some commonly used features including the residual error energy and RR intervals (Ge et al., 2002., De Chazal et al., 2004., Lannoy et al., 2011). The performances of the proposed algorithm are evaluated on clinical ECG data selected from the MIT-BIH arrhythmia database. The database is the most frequently used database for arrhythmia classification.

The paper is organised as follows, ECG filtering is presented in section 2.1, while Autoregressive modeling of the ECG signal is discussed in section 2.2. Feature extraction is examined in section 2.3, Regularised least squares classifier is presented in section 2.4. Results and a discussion of the performances of the proposed algorithm are given in section 3 and section 4 holds the conclusions.

## 2 METHODS

#### 2.1 ECG Filtering

The raw ECG signal is usually contaminated with different types of noise (eg., Baseline wander, power line interference, and high-frequency noise). ECG filtering is aimed at improving the signal to noise ratio (SNR) by removing the noise (Clifford et al.,2006.).

In order to remove the power line interference, a second order notch-filter centred on  $f_0 = 60$  Hz with a bandwidth  $\Delta F = 3$ Hz is first applied to the ECG signal. The transfer function of the filter is given by:

$$H_{notch} = \frac{b_0(z^2 - 2\cos(\omega_0)z^{-1} + z^{-2})}{1 - 2r\cos(\omega_0)z^{-1} + r^2z^{-2}},$$
(1)

where  $b_0 = \frac{|1-2r\cos(\omega_0)+r^2|}{2|1-2r\cos(\omega_0)|};$ 

$$\omega_0 = \frac{2\pi f_0}{f_s}; r = 1 - \frac{\Delta F\pi}{f_s}; f_s = 360 Hz.$$

The parameter r controls the spectral width and depth of the filter.

Afterwards, the baseline wander is removed from the ECG signal by cascading two median filters of lengths 108 ( $0.3f_s$ ) and 216 ( $0.6f_s$ ) samples, respectively. The first filter is aimed at removing the QRS complexes and the P-waves from the ECG, while the second filters the T waves. The output of the second filter is subtracted from the original ECG signal to obtain a corrected baseline ECG. Finally, the high frequency noise is filtered by biorthogonal wavelet, where the first approximation is kept as filtered ECG.A step by step demonstration of ECG filtering is given Figure 2.

#### 2.2 Autoregressive Modeling of ECG

AR modeling consists of estimating the value of the current sample as a linear combination of P past samples, that is,

$$\hat{y}(n) = -\sum_{i=1}^{p} a_i y(n-i)$$
 , (2)

where  $\hat{y}(n)$  is the predicted signal,  $a_i$  are the LPCs, y(n-i) is the *i*-th previous sample of the ECG signal and P is the model order.

The prediction coefficients may be found by minimizing the sum-of-squared error (SSE) between the actual sample and the predicted one with respect to the LPC coefficients as given bellow:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial a_i} \sum_n e^2(n) = \frac{\partial}{\partial a_i} \left[ \sum_n (y(n) + \sum_{i=1}^p a_i y(n-i))^2 \right] = 0 \qquad (3)$$

The autocorrelation method is computationally more efficient and the filter is guaranteed to be stable (Makhoul, 1975). The original signal can be reconstructed using the residual error and the LPCs using the synthesis filter, that is,



Figure 2: ECG Filtering, a-Raw ECG taken from record 208,b-Notch filtered ECG ,c-baseline wander removal using 2 median filters, d- *bior3.3* wavelet first approximation ECG.

where h(n) is the synthesis filter impulse response and N is the size of the ECG period.

A fourth-order LPC analysis is performed on each ECG heartbeat belonging to one of the two classes

considered in this study (Ge *et al*,2002). We consider that each heartbeat starts from the midpoint between the R-peak of the given heartbeat and the R-peak of the previous heartbeat and ends on the midpoint between the R-peak of the current heartbeat and the R-peak of the following heartbeat. We use the heartbeat fiducial point times provided with the MIT-BIH arrhythmia database to locate the R-peaks (Mark and Moody, 1997).

#### 2.3 ECG Features

As mentioned in Section 1, the set of features plays a vital role in achieving good classification results. To this end, each ECG heartbeat is transformed into a feature vector. In this section, we use some features that have been successfully used in previous studies for ECG monitoring and we propose new set of features to explore more information from the ECG data.

## 2.3.1 RR-Interval Features

The RR-interval is the interval between two consecutive R-peaks. Two RR-intervals are measured, namely the RR-interval between the actual heartbeat and the preceding heartbeat (Pre-RR interval) and the RR-interval between the actual heartbeat and the subsequent heartbeat (Post-RR interval) as shown in Figure 3.



Figure 3: Pre-RR and Post-RR intervals.

#### 2.3.2 Residual Error Energy

Residual error energy  $(E_{re})$  is a time-domain measurement that characterises the performance of the prediction, it is defined as:

$$\boldsymbol{E_{re}} = \boldsymbol{e}\boldsymbol{e}^T \tag{5}$$

#### **2.3.3 Transformation based Features**

An interesting framework for an accurate representation of the excitation signal applied to speech signal was initiated by (Atal, 1989), and this was later investigated and further developed by our group for ECG compression in (Baali, Salami, Akmeliawati and Aibinu, 2011) and for ECG period normalization in (Baali, Akmeliawati, Salami, Aibinu and Gani, 2011). The representation in question is subsequently described and adopted for features extraction.

Equation (4) can be expressed in matrix as:

$$Y = He, (6)$$

where Y is  $N \times 1$  column vector in which its entries represented by the ECG samples and e is an  $N \times 1$ column vector of the residual error. H is the  $N \times N$ impulse response matrix of the synthesis filter (also called LPC filter), its entries are completely determined by the linear prediction coefficients, H is a lower triangular and Toeplitz matrix.

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & \vdots & 0 \\ h(1) & 1 & \ddots & \vdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ h(N-1) h(N-2) & \vdots & \ddots & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$
(7)

Applying the singular values decomposition (SVD) to *H* gives:

$$Y = UDV^T e , \qquad (8)$$

where U and V are orthogonal  $N \times N$  matrices, and D is a real valued  $N \times N$  diagonal matrix of the singular values of H.

The SVD domain representations of **Y** and **e** are given by  $\theta$  and  $\zeta$  respectively, where  $\theta = U^T Y$ and  $\zeta = V^T e$ . Therefore:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{D}\boldsymbol{\zeta} \tag{9}$$

From (9) each component of the residual signal (e) is projected onto the right singular vectors of the matrix H and then weighted by the corresponding singular value. Since the singular values are always arranged in a descending order, one can expect that the transformed ECG signal ( $\theta$ ) is decaying as seen in Figure 4.



Figure 4: Normal sinus beat and transformed ECG.

From this transformation two features may be introduced:

1- The ratio between the number of elements containing 90% of the total energy of the transformed ECG ( $\theta$ ) and the length of the ECG heartbeat (i.e., Energy Based Ratio (EBR) .The energy of the ECG waveform and the transformed ECG is the same since the mapping  $U^T Y$  is isometric.

2- The largest singular value of the impulse response matrix.

For instance, Figure 5 represents a two-dimensional feature space of normal (red '+') and PVC (black 'o') beats randomly taken from three different patients with identification numbers 116, 208 and 210. The first feature corresponds to the first principle component of the impulse response matrix H, while the second represents the EBR. The cluster plot shows that the newly introduced features have a good discrimination capability between the normal (NOR) and PVC beats.



Figure 5: Two-dimensional feature vectors of normal (red '+') and PVC beats (black 'o').

#### 2.4 Feature Normalization

A linear method is used to normalize the features to zero mean and unit variance, such that:

$$\hat{x}_i = \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma}, \qquad i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$
 (10)

where  $\hat{x}_i$  is the normalised value,  $\bar{x}$  and  $\sigma$  are respectively the mean value and standard deviation.

#### 2.5 RLS Classifier

The use of Regularized least squares (RLS) is considered in this paper, where the aim is to build a function (i.e., a learning model) using a set of training points that accurately predicts the class to which the test points belong (i.e., unseen examples).

The RLS is a special case of the Tikhonov regularization problem which is mathematically stated as (Rifkin, 2002).

$$\min_{f \in H} \frac{1}{\ell} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} V(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \lambda \|f\|_{\mathrm{K}}^2, \qquad (11)$$

where V is the loss function,  $\lambda$  is the regularization parameter ( $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^+$ ).  $||f||_{\mathrm{K}}^2$  is the norm of f measured in a Reproducing Hilbert space defined by the kernel K. The square loss function is given by :

$$V(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) = (y_i - f(\mathbf{x}_i))^2, \qquad (12)$$

where  $\mathbf{x}_i$  denotes the *d*-dim feature vector of the *i*th training point and  $y_i \in \{-1,+1\}$  gives the binary outcome, for  $i = 1, ..., \ell$  (with  $\ell$  is the number of training points).

The Representer Theorem (Rifkin, 2002) states that for some  $\mathbf{x}_i$  the solution  $f^*$  of (11) has the form:

$$f^*(\mathbf{x}_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} c_i \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_i) \quad c_i \in \mathbb{R}$$
(13) whe

There is a wide range of possible kernel functions that might be used, however, in this paper the linear kernel is chosen, that is,

$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_i \tag{14}$$

The kernel function measures the similarity between two feature vectors. The selection of the linear kernel is justified by the fact that it allows a lower computational complexity compared to other kernels (Rifkin and Lippert, 2007).

The norm of f is given by :

$$\|f\|_{\mathbf{K}}^{2} = \boldsymbol{c}^{T} \mathbf{K} \boldsymbol{c}. \qquad \boldsymbol{c} \in \mathbb{R}^{\ell}, \boldsymbol{K} \in \mathbb{R}^{\ell \times \ell}, \qquad (15)$$

where K is the square positive semidefinite training kernel matrix with elements :

$$\mathbf{K}(i,j) = \mathrm{K}(\mathbf{x}_i,\mathbf{x}_j), \text{ for } : i = 1, \dots, \ell \text{ and } j = 1, \dots, \ell$$

By using (12), (13) and (15), the Tikhonov regularization problem can be rewritten as:

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{c}\in\mathbb{R}^{\ell}} \frac{1}{2\ell} (\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{K}\boldsymbol{c})^{T} (\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{K}\boldsymbol{c}) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \boldsymbol{c}^{T} \boldsymbol{K}\boldsymbol{c} , \qquad (16)$$
$$\boldsymbol{y}\in\mathbb{R}^{\ell} \text{ with coordinates } \boldsymbol{y}_{i}.$$

The problem is brought forward to find the  $\ell$ -dim weight vector c where the minimization of (16) with respect to c has the closed form solution:

$$\boldsymbol{c} = (\mathbf{K} + \lambda \ell \mathbf{I})^{-1} \boldsymbol{y}$$

$$\in \mathbb{R}^{\ell \times \ell} \text{ is the identity matrix.}$$
(17)

Once the weight vector c is found, the determination of class membership of a test point  $\mathbf{x}_t$  is possible. Thus,

$$f^*(\mathbf{x}_t) = \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} c_j \mathsf{K}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_j).$$
(18)

In binary classification, the label (or class) of  $\mathbf{x}_t$  is determined by the sign of  $f^*(\mathbf{x}_t)$ .

# 2.5.1 Tuning the Regularization Parameter $\lambda$

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The weight vector c is a function of the regularization parameter  $\lambda$ . Rifkin and Lippert, (2007) proposed an elegant way of tuning  $\lambda$  by rewriting (17) using the eigendecomposition of the kernel matrix. Let  $\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{Q}^{T}$  and  $= \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{Q}^{T}$ , then,

$$\Box = \mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{\Lambda} + \lambda \ell \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{Q}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{Y}, \qquad (19)$$

where  $\mathbf{\Lambda} = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_\ell)$ . Writing  $\mathbf{c}$  in the form given by (18) allows one to vary  $\lambda$  between the minimum and maximum eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{K}$ efficiently. Note that the matrix  $(\mathbf{\Lambda} + \lambda \ell \mathbf{I})$  is diagonal, hence;  $(\mathbf{\Lambda} + \lambda \mathbf{I})_{ii}^{-1} = \frac{1}{(\mathbf{\Lambda} + \lambda)\mu_i}$ .

#### **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The performance of the proposed algorithm is evaluated on clinical ECG data selected from the MIT-BIH arrhythmia database. The database is the most frequently used database for arrhythmia classification. It contains 48 half hour recordings of two-channel ambulatory ECG filtered from 0.1 to 100 Hz then sampled at 360 Hz (Mark and Moody, 1997). The data set used in this study is collected from six patients with large number of PVCs namely, records with identification numbers 116, 208, 210, 228 and 233. The selected data set consists of 12245 normal beats and 2882 PVCs.

Each of the extracted heartbeats is transformed into a five-dimensional feature vector (Residual error energy, the largest singular value of H, EBR and 2 RR-intervals).

Two metrics are used to assess the performance of the proposed algorithm, namely Sensitivity (Se) and specificity (Sp). Sensitivity is the fraction of PVCs that are correctly classified, and is given by:

$$Se = TP / (TP + FN)$$

Specificity is the fraction of normal beats that are correctly classified, and is given by:

### Sp = TN/(TN + FP)

TP, FP, FN and TN stand for true positives, false positives, false negatives and true negatives, respectively.

Two different tests are carried out:

#### First Scenario:

The whole data set is randomly split into two nonoverlapped parts: a training set and a test set. The training set is used to tune the regularization and the kernel parameters while the test set is held-out for validation. This approach is referred to as "intrapatient" classification since the training set contains samples from all patients.

We increase the number of training points taken from each class from initially 250 to 500 then to 750. We run each experiment 5 times. The average values of specificity (Av Sp) and sensitivity (Av Se) are shown in Table.1. E AND TECHN

Table 1 : Intra-patient classification performances.

Number of Training points per class	Number of Test points	Av.Se	Av.Sp
250	14627	97.67	098.77
500	14127	97.69	99.14
750	13627	98.18	99.02

#### **Second Scenario:**

In this scenario, the training points are randomly extracted from records 116, 208 and 210 and then tested on the unseen data which are composed from records 221,228 and 233. This approach is referred to as "inter-patient" classification. Similar to the first scenario, each experiment is run 5 times. Table 2 summarises the results.

Table 2 : Inter-patient classification performances.

Number of Training points per class	Number of Test points	Av. Se	Av.Sp
250	7743	92.54	92.69
500	7743	93.79	92.52
750	7743	95.18	96.92

In the first scenario we notice that the increase of the number of training points does not considerably improve the performances of the classifier (When the number of training points was increased by 150%, the improvement of performances was less that 1% in both metrics ). The best results achieved were 98.18 sensitivity and 99.02 specificity.

On the other hand, the second scenario has

demonstrated the stability of the proposed features where only a slight decrease (less than 3%) in performances was recorded when compared to the first scenario. In addition, we notice that unlike the first scenario, the increase of the training points improves the performances by around 3% in both metrics.

In order to assess the merit of the proposed classification scheme, Table 3 depicts the overall classification performance of the proposed RLSC along with some benchmark methods. Bortolan, Jekova and Christov (2005) investigated four classification techniques namely, neural networks K-nearest-neighbour (KNN), (NN). linear discriminant (LD) and Fuzzy logic using 26 morphology features and patient adapting (PA) strategy. The best results were achieved by NN classifier. Mai1 and Khalil (2011), on the other hand, adopted PA strategy to discriminate between normal and PVC conditions where Cardioid loop coordinates were extracted from the ECG heartbeats and serve as input to the NN classifier. Meanwhile, Shyu, Wu, and Hu (2004) implemented a Fuzzy-Neural networks (FNN) classifier with features extracted from wavelet decomposition of the ECG signal and by adopting inter-patient scenario.

The achieved results were very encouraging as the performances obtained were comparable to many state-of-the-art inter-patients algorithms.

Table 3: Comparison of the proposed RLSC with

benchmark methods. Classification Training Se Sp strategy strategy NN [19] 95.8 98.3 PA NN [20] PA 97.34 98.62 FNN [21] 99.86 Inter-patient 99.79 98.7 KNN [19] 91.3 PA DA[19] PA 97.0 94.4 PA 92.8 98.4

Inter-patient

Intra-patient

95.18

98.18

96.92

99.02

#### **CONCLUSIONS** 4

Fuzzy logic [19]

RLSQ (proposed)

RLSQ (proposed)

The main contribution of this paper is thedevelopment of stable features for Arrhythmia classification. The performances of the proposed features are appreciated when implemented with RLS classifier and validated on selected records from the MIT-Arrhythmia database. When the linear prediction coefficients are used with the aforementioned features, the classifier achieved lower performance results. For instance, the average

specificity and sensitivity were respectively, 98.43 and 97.28 in the first scenario. Further work should focus on the extraction of more features from the residual signal.

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