

# Machine learning-based non-invasive prediction of atrial fibrillation driver location and ablation outcome using the 12-lead ECG

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## Supplementary Material

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Table 1: List of extracted features.

1. $\overline{\mathcal{H}}_0$	2. $\sigma_{\mathcal{H}_0}^2$	3. $\overline{\mathcal{H}}_1$	4. $\sigma_{\mathcal{H}_1}^2$	5. $\overline{\mathcal{H}}_2$	6. $\sigma_{\mathcal{H}_2}^2$	7. $\mathcal{D}_{VCG}$
8. $\mathcal{E}_{VCG}^{DL}$	9. $\mathcal{R}_{VCG}^R$	10. $\mathcal{L}_{VCG}$	11. $\mathcal{T}_{VCG}$	12. $\mathcal{E}_{VCG}^{VL}$	13-14. $\mathcal{D}_{srRQA_d}$	15-16. $\mathcal{E}_{srRQA_d}^{DL}$
17-18. $\mathcal{R}_{srRQA_d}^R$	19-20. $\mathcal{L}_{srRQA_d}$	21-22. $\mathcal{T}_{srRQA_d}$	23-24. $\mathcal{E}_{srRQA_d}^{VL}$	25-28. $\mathcal{R}_{idRQA_PCI}^R$	29-32. $\mathcal{D}_{idRQA_PCI}$	33-36. $\mathcal{L}_{idRQA_PCI}$
37-40. $\mathcal{T}_{idRQA_PCI}$	41-44. $\mathcal{E}_{idRQA_PCI}^{VL}$	45-48. $\mathcal{E}_{idRQA_PCI}^{DL}$	49-60. $\overline{\lambda}_i$	61-72. $\sigma_{\lambda_i}$	73. $\overline{\lambda}_{PC}$	74. $\sigma_{\lambda_{PC}}$
75-86. $\overline{R}_i$	87-98. $\sigma_{R_i}$	99. $\overline{R}_{PC}$	100. $\sigma_{R_{PC}}$	101. $\overline{OI}$	102. $\sigma_{OI}$	103. $\overline{SE}$

## 1. Feature extraction methods

### 1.1. Hjort descriptors

The Hjort descriptors are closely related to the spectral moments. The first descriptor,  $\mathcal{H}_0$ , called activity, is defined by the total signal power. The second descriptor,  $\mathcal{H}_1$ , called mobility, reflects the dominant frequency of the signal under analysis. The third descriptor,  $\mathcal{H}_2$ , is used to define a measure related to half of the bandwidth of the signal and is termed complexity [1]. These descriptors were evaluated for each ECG lead. The mean values and the variances of these parameters over all 12 leads were calculated and used as features (feat. 1-6 in Table 1).

### 1.2. Recurrence quantification analysis on vectocardiogram

The vectocardiogram (VCG) was calculated from the 12-lead ECG using the Dower's inverse transformation, and the 3-D VCG vector loops were used as state space plots for a further recurrence quantification analysis (RQA) [2]. RQA allowed to analyse the topological structure of multidimensional dynamical systems, giving access to a signal's intermittency, regularity, and predictability [3]. A detailed explanation of the RQA and the respective extractable parameters can be found in the work of Marwan et al., [3]. The extracted parameters were: determinism ( $\mathcal{D}_{VCG}$ ), entropy of the diagonal lines ( $\mathcal{E}_{VCG}^{DL}$ ), recurrence rate ( $\mathcal{R}_{VCG}^R$ ), laminarity ( $\mathcal{L}_{VCG}$ ), trapping time ( $\mathcal{T}_{VCG}$ ), and entropy of the vertical lines ( $\mathcal{E}_{VCG}^{VL}$ ), (feat. 7-12 in Table 1).

### 1.3. spatial reduced RQA

From the 12-lead ECGs, the first four principal components (PCs) were extracted (representing more than 99% of the total variability). The first three PCs,

25 and the first four PCs, were used as dimensions ( $d$ ) of a state space in which a  
 26 spatial reduced RQA ( $srRQA_3$  and  $srRQA_4$ ) was applied, respectively [4]. The  
 27 extracted parameters were: determinism ( $\mathcal{D}_{srRQA_d}$ ), entropy of the diagonal lines  
 28 ( $\mathcal{E}_{srRQA_d}^{DL}$ ), recurrence rate ( $\mathcal{R}_{srRQA_d}^R$ ), laminarity ( $\mathcal{L}_{srRQA_d}$ ), trapping time ( $\mathcal{T}_{srRQA_d}$ ),  
 29 and entropy of the vertical lines ( $\mathcal{E}_{srRQA_d}^{VL}$ ), (feat. 13-24 in Table 1).

#### 30 1.4. individual component RQA

31 An individual component RQA (icRQA) was also applied on each of the first  
 32 four PCs calculated from the 12-lead ECGs [4]. The extracted parameters were:  
 33 determinism ( $\mathcal{D}_{icRQA_{PCi}}$ ), entropy of the diagonal lines ( $\mathcal{E}_{icRQA_{PCi}}^{DL}$ ), recurrence rate  
 34 ( $\mathcal{R}_{icRQA_{PCi}}^R$ ), laminarity ( $\mathcal{L}_{icRQA_{PCi}}$ ), trapping time ( $\mathcal{T}_{icRQA_{PCi}}$ ), and entropy of the ver-  
 35 tical lines ( $\mathcal{E}_{icRQA_{PCi}}^{VL}$ ), with  $i$  being the number of PC, (feat. 25-48 in Table 1).

#### 36 1.5. Ratio PCA eigenvalues

37 The 12-lead ECGs were divided in 3 segments of the same length (i.e., 1 s con-  
 38 sidering the total length of each ECG of 3 s). For each segment  $j$ , the eigenvalues  
 39 ( $\lambda_{i,j}$ ) corresponding to the spatial principal component analysis (PCA) compo-  
 40 nents over the 12 leads were extracted. From the  $\lambda_{i,j}$ , also the ratio was calculated:

$$R_{i,j} = \frac{\lambda_{i,j}}{\sum_{k \neq i} \lambda_{k,j}}, \quad (1)$$

41 with  $k$  being the number of PC.

42 The features extracted were: the mean  $\lambda$  values and the respective standard de-  
 43 viations for each PC over all segments ( $\bar{\lambda}_i$  and  $\sigma_{\lambda_i}$ ); from  $\bar{\lambda}_i$ , the mean over the  
 44 12 PCs and the respective standard deviation ( $\bar{\lambda}_{PC}$  and  $\sigma_{\lambda_{PC}}$ ); the mean R val-  
 45 ues and the respective standard deviations for each PC over all segments ( $\bar{R}_i$  and  
 46  $\sigma_{R_i}$ ); from  $\bar{R}_i$ , the mean over the 12 PCs and the respective standard deviation

47  $(\overline{R}_{PC}$  and  $\sigma_{R_{PC}}$ ), (feat. 49-100 in Table 1). The idea behind the  $R_{i,j}$  parameter and  
48 the extracted features was to increase the differences between the eigenvalues to  
49 achieve a better discrimination due to the variability shown by the PCs over time  
50 and between them.

#### 51 *1.6. Organization index*

52 The organization index (OI) was used as a measure of atrial fibrillation spatio-  
53 temporal organization, and it was computed as follows. The spectrum of each  
54 12-lead ECGs was calculated. The areas under the five largest peaks of each  
55 spectrum were computed using a 1 Hz frequency interval centred on each peak.  
56 The OI was then defined as the ratio of the area under these five peaks to the total  
57 spectrum area [5] for each lead. The feature extracted were: the mean OI and  
58 the respective standard deviation over the leads ( $\overline{OI}$  and  $\sigma_{OI}$ ), (feat. 101-102 in  
59 Table 1).

#### 60 *1.7. Spectral entropy*

61 The spectral entropy (SE) of a signal is a measure of its spectral power dis-  
62 tribution. The concept is based on the Shannon entropy, or information entropy,  
63 in information theory. The SE treats the signal's normalized power distribution  
64 in the frequency domain as a probability distribution, and calculates the Shannon  
65 entropy of it. The Shannon entropy in this context is the spectral entropy of the  
66 signal [6]. The SE was calculated for each of the 12-leads with the MATLAB *pen-*  
67 *tropy* function and consecutively averaged along and between leads. The feature  
68 extracted was the mean SE over the leads ( $\overline{SE}$ ), (feat. 103 in Table 1).

69 **2. Clinical 12-lead ECG**

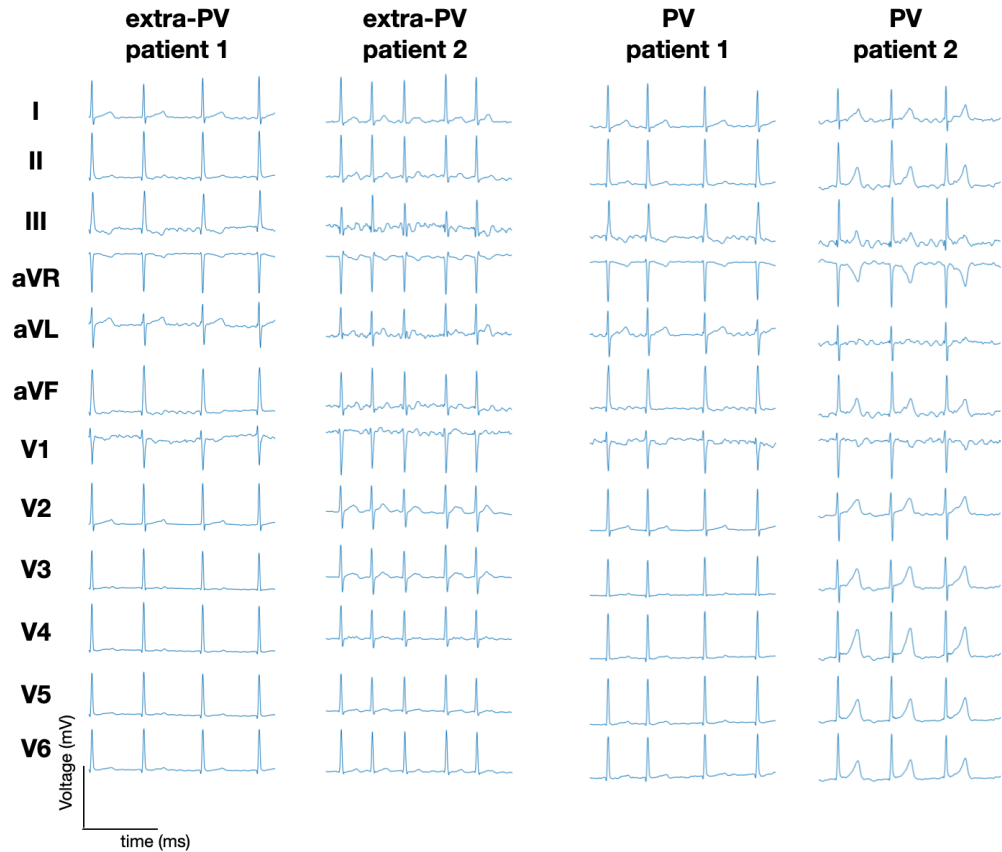


Figure 1: Examples of 12-lead ECGs from four representative clinical patients for the 2 classes (extra-PV class, left; PV class, right).

70 **3. Alternative machine learning algorithm approaches**

71 In this work, we focused on the implementation of a decision tree classifier for  
72 binary classification (AF drivers located at the PVs vs. extra-PV drivers) due to  
73 its simplicity and explainability. However, several machine learning approaches  
74 have been trained and tested (i.e., linear discriminant analysis - LDA, and radial

75 basis neural network - rbNN). The implementation and optimization of the clas-  
76 sifiers followed the same procedure as described in the main text of this work for  
77 the decision tree (Section 2.5).

78 The binary LDA classifier achieved a G-Mean of  $76.4 \pm 12.8\%$  on the in silico  
79 test set with a sensitivity of  $88.3 \pm 3.7\%$ , a specificity of  $66.1 \pm 17.1\%$  on the sim-  
80 ulated dataset (PV considered as the positive class). On the first unseen clinical  
81 dataset, the classifier achieved 71.7% G-Mean with a sensitivity of 69.6%, a speci-  
82 ficity of 73.9%, and PPV of 72.7%. On the second clinical dataset the classifier  
83 achieved 68.4% G-Mean with a sensitivity of 69.6%, a specificity of 65.2%, and  
84 PPV of 66.6%.

85 The binary rbNN classifier achieved a G-Mean of  $86.8 \pm 10.1\%$  on the in sil-  
86 ico test set with a sensitivity of  $96.2 \pm 4.5\%$ , a specificity of  $78.4 \pm 16.3\%$  on the  
87 simulated dataset (PV considered as the positive class). On the first unseen clin-  
88 ical dataset, the classifier achieved 78.1% G-Mean with a sensitivity of 69.6%, a  
89 specificity of 86.9%, and PPV of 84.2%. On the second clinical dataset the clas-  
90 sifier achieved 69.6% G-Mean with a sensitivity of 69.6%, a specificity of 69.6%,  
91 and PPV of 69.6%.

#### 92 **4. Feature importance analysis**

93 Shapley calculation was implemented to analyze a posteriori the importance  
94 of the 11 features selected for the binary PV vs. extra-PV classification once the  
95 model has been trained. In Fig. 2 we can see the Shapley values (the contribution  
96 that each feature gives to the classification). We can observe that the features gave  
97 all a positive contribution to the classification apart from two features that gave a  
98 slightly negative contribution (it was expected, being all good features). However,

99 the negative features have not been removed from the feature set since the removal  
 100 of such features a posteriori could have brought to overfitting on the model.

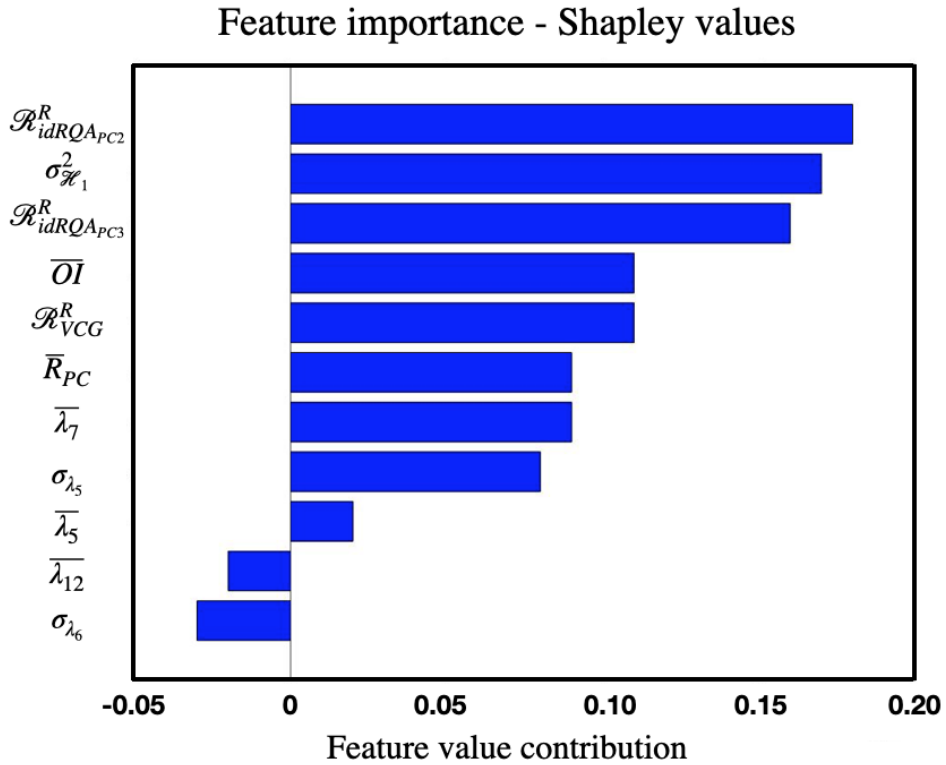


Figure 2: Shapley feature importance calculation on the 11 features selected for the binary classification PV vs. extra-PV AF drivers location.

101 **5. Multivariate regression analysis**

102 Multivariate regression analysis performed between the variables LVEF, LAD,  
 103 renal dysfunction, sex, age, and our classifier (Table 2).

Table 2: Multivariate regression analysis.

	Regression coefficient B	Standard error	Wald	df	Significance	Hazard ratio
Age	-0.069	0.055	1.575	1	0.210	0.934
Sex	0.557	1.114	0.251	1	0.617	1.746
LAD	-0.090	0.106	0.720	1	0.396	0.914
LVEF	-3.104	7.444	0.174	1	0.677	0.045
Renal dysfunction	1.982	1.216	2.655	1	0.103	7.256
Classifier	2.468	1.252	3.887	1	0.049	11.795
Constant	7.929	8.415	0.888	1	0.346	2777.043

104 **6. Consistency analysis**

105 A consistency analysis was implemented by running the classifier on a new  
 106 ECG set composed of the same 46 patients but different ECG segments than those  
 107 used in the clinical dataset showed in the main manuscript. In Table 3, the confu-  
 108 sion matrix obtained on the "consistency" ECG set.

Table 3: Confusion matrix of the clinical set of different ECG segments extracted from the same 46 patients for a consistency analysis for PV vs. extra-PV AF driver location classification.

		True class	
		PV	extra-PV
Predicted class	PV	16	6
	extra-PV	7	17



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