
Self-Supervised Contrastive Learning for Electrocardiograms to Detect Left Ventricular Systolic Dysfunction

Mitsuhiko Nakamoto
The University of Tokyo
mitsuhiko0820@g.ecc.u-tokyo.ac.jp

Satoshi Kodera
The University of Tokyo
koderas-int@h.u-tokyo.ac.jp

Hirotochi Takeuchi
The University of Tokyo
takeuchi-hirotochi742@g.ecc.u-tokyo.ac.jp

Shinnosuke Sawano
The University of Tokyo
sawanos-int@h.u-tokyo.ac.jp

Susumu Katsushika
The University of Tokyo
katsushikas-int@h.u-tokyo.ac.jp

Issei Komuro
The University of Tokyo
komuro-3im@h.u-tokyo.ac.jp

Abstract

Self-supervised learning has been demonstrated to be a powerful way to use unlabeled data in computer vision tasks. In this study, we propose a self-supervised pretraining approach to improve the performance of deep learning models that detect left ventricular systolic dysfunction from 12-lead electrocardiography data. We first pretrain an encoder that can extract rich features from unlabeled electrocardiography data using self-supervised contrastive learning, and then fine-tune the model on the downstream dataset using the pretrained encoder. In experiments, our proposed approach achieved higher performance than the supervised baseline method, using only 28% of the labels used by the baseline method.

1 Introduction

Self-supervised learning has been demonstrated to be a powerful way to use unlabeled data in computer vision tasks [1, 2, 3]. In particular, contrastive learning approaches, such as MoCo [4, 5] and SimCLR [6], have achieved high performance on ImageNet [7] using only a small number of labels. By using these methods, we can first pretrain an encoder that can extract rich features from unlabeled data, and then fine-tune the encoder on a small labeled downstream dataset.

Self-supervised learning is an ideal method for medical fields because collecting high-quality labels for medical data is usually extremely difficult. Effective use of self-supervised learning may achieve high diagnostic accuracy even with small labeled datasets. In this study, we aimed to apply self-supervised contrastive learning to the analysis of electrocardiograms (ECGs), which are among the most basic types of medical images.

The deep learning approach to analyzing ECGs has been widely studied in recent years, enabling highly accurate detection of cardiac diseases [8, 9, 10, 11], which were previously difficult to diagnose from ECGs. However, these approaches require large amounts of labeled electrocardiography data, which are difficult to collect at a single institution. To solve this problem, several methods that apply self-supervised pretraining to ECGs have been proposed [12, 13, 14, 15]. However, no study has ever applied self-supervised pretraining to improve a model for diagnosing left ventricular (LV) systolic

dysfunction. LV systolic dysfunction is a common disease that may lead to an increased risk of sudden death, therefore, early detection is important. In clinical practice, LV systolic dysfunction is currently diagnosed using echocardiography and is difficult to diagnose from ECGs.

In this paper, we show that self-supervised contrastive learning can be used to improve the performance of deep learning models that detect LV systolic dysfunction from 12-lead electrocardiography data. We propose several data transformation techniques and an architecture based on a two-dimensional (2D) convolutional neural network (CNN) as an encoder for pretraining using a contrastive learning algorithm. The pretrained encoder is then used to train on a downstream dataset to detect LV systolic dysfunction. Experimental results show that our proposed approach achieved higher performance than the supervised baseline method, using only 28% of the labels used by the baseline method. Finally, we also use Grad-CAM [16] visualization to discover which part of an ECG is the focus of the pretrained encoder.

2 Method

Dataset: We used a dataset of 37,103 ECGs collected at the University of Tokyo Hospital. LV systolic dysfunction was assessed by echocardiography and defined as an ejection fraction of less than 40%. Patients who had LV systolic dysfunction were labeled as positive, and the rest were labeled as negative. Table 1 shows the details of the dataset. The dataset was divided into five splits: *train1*, *valid1*, *train2*, *valid2*, and *test*. It is worth noting that, to avoid data leakage, all ECGs from one patient were assigned to the same split. The *train1* and *valid1* splits were used for self-supervised pretraining, in which the labels were not used. The *train2*, *valid2*, and *test* splits were used for the downstream task, in which a CNN model was trained to detect LV systolic dysfunction by supervised learning. Due to the imbalance of the labels, all positive samples were used in the downstream dataset, which means only the negative samples were used for self-supervised pretraining.

Self-Supervised Pretraining: The first step of our approach was to pretrain an efficient encoder by self-supervised contrastive learning, using the *train1* and *valid1* splits. In this study, we used the MoCo [4, 5] algorithm. In the MoCo algorithm, data transformation methods should be used, and the main idea is that feature vectors generated from the same sample should be close to each other, and those generated from different samples should be far apart. More details of MoCo are showed in Appendix A. Inspired by previous works [12, 13], we used five transformation methods: *Gaussian noise*, *Gaussian smoothing*, *random erasing*, *resizing*, and *baseline shifting*. Figure 1 shows examples of each method. While training, several transformation methods were randomly selected to apply to the ECG data, and the transformed data were then input into the encoder.

Model Architecture: In most previous studies, a ResNet-based [17] architecture was used for the encoder. However, in this study, we used a CNN architecture, as shown in Appendix B. The reason is that a previous study showed that this architecture can achieve high performance in detecting LV systolic dysfunction [11]. The encoder consists of six temporal convolution blocks, one spatial convolution block, and one fully connected layer. The encoder takes a 12×5000 ECG matrix as input, and finally outputs a 128-dimensional feature vector. In the self-supervised pretraining, ECGs (after normalization and transformation were applied) were input to the encoder to perform contrastive learning, using MoCo. In the downstream task, two fully connected layers and a sigmoid layer were added to the encoder to detect LV systolic dysfunction. The binary cross-entropy loss was minimized.

Table 1: Details of the dataset used in this study.

	Split	Negative	Positive	Total	(Unique Patients)	Labels Used
Pretraining	train1	20693	0	20693	(11324)	no
	valid1	5303	0	5303	(2864)	no
Downstream	train2	5406	2427	7833	(3347)	yes
	valid2	1108	514	1622	(685)	yes
	test	1092	560	1652	(699)	yes
Total		33602	3501	37103	(18919)	

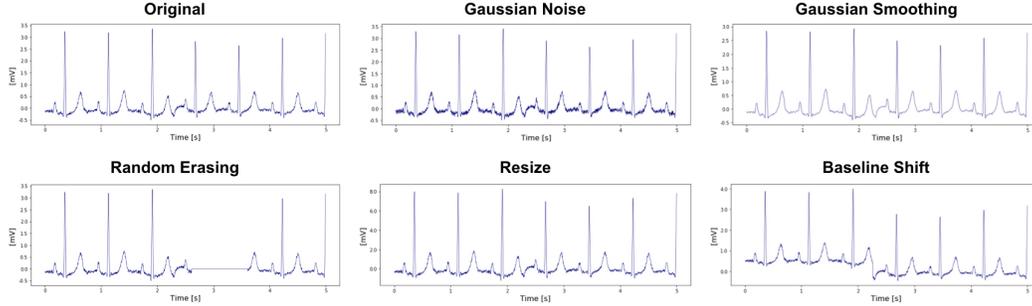


Figure 1: Single-lead examples of each transformation method used to train the MoCo encoder.

Experiments and Baselines: We conducted three experiments: our proposed approach, *baseline (unpretrained)*, and *baseline (full labels)*. Our proposed approach first trained an encoder using self-supervised contrastive learning on the pretraining dataset (*train1* and *valid1*), and then fine-tuned the model on the downstream dataset (*train2* and *valid2*) using the pretrained encoder. *Baseline (unpretrained)* omitted the self-supervised pretraining step. It directly trained a model on the downstream dataset using supervised learning, with the model weight initialized randomly. *Baseline (full labels)* also directly performed supervised learning. However, in contrast with the *baseline (unpretrained)*, it used all labels in the dataset, including the labels of the *train1* and *valid1* splits. The *train1* and *train2* splits were concatenated as the training dataset, and the *valid1* and *valid2* splits were concatenated as the validation dataset. Table 3 in Appendix C shows the correspondence of the data splits used in each experiment. In all three experiments, the Adam optimizer was used. Initial learning rates of $1e-4$, $3e-5$, and $1e-5$ were tested in each experiment; the model weights with the lowest validation loss were saved, and later used for evaluation on the test set.

3 Results and Discussion

The area under the curve (AUC) of each model, evaluated on the *test* split, is shown in Table 2. Our proposed approach achieved an AUC of 0.9245 and it outperformed both the *baseline (unpretrained)* and *baseline (full labels)*, of which the AUC values were 0.9208 and 0.9236, respectively. The fact that our proposed approach performs better than the *baseline (unpretrained)* indicates that self-supervised pretraining enables the encoder to learn effective feature representations, which are useful for detecting LV systolic dysfunction. Moreover, our proposed approach achieved higher performance than the *baseline (full labels)*. The *baseline (full labels)* used all labels in the dataset; the total number of labels used in the *train1* and *train2* splits is 28,526. In contrast, our proposed approach used only 7,833 labels in the *train2* split. In summary, our proposed approach achieved higher performance than the *baseline (full labels)* using only 28% of the labels.

To understand the features learned by the self-supervised pretraining, we used Grad-CAM [16] to visualize the area of focus of the pretrained encoder in the ECG, as shown in Figure 2. The figure shows that, in the negative sample, the encoder focuses on the QRS complex. In contrast, in the positive sample, the encoder focuses on the ST segment, in particular, in leads I, aVL, V5, and V6.

Although our approach enables us to develop a deep learning model to detect LV systolic dysfunction in a label-efficient way, because of the limited number of data in the test dataset, it is hard to show statistically significant differences between our approach and the baselines. Future work should evaluate our approach on a larger dataset. Moreover, an exciting direction for future work is to explore the best model architecture and data transformation methods for self-supervised contrastive learning for electrocardiography data.

Table 2: AUC of each model evaluated on the test dataset.

	Baseline (unpretrained)	Baseline (full labels)	Proposed
AUC	0.9208	0.9236	0.9245

- [9] Joon-myung Kwon, Kyung-Hee Kim, Zeynettin Akkus, Ki-Hyun Jeon, Jinsik Park, and Byung-Hee Oh. Artificial intelligence for detecting mitral regurgitation using electrocardiography. *Journal of electrocardiology*, 59:151–157, 2020.
- [10] Joon-Myoung Kwon, Soo Youn Lee, Ki-Hyun Jeon, Yeha Lee, Kyung-Hee Kim, Jinsik Park, Byung-Hee Oh, and Myong-Mook Lee. Deep learning–based algorithm for detecting aortic stenosis using electrocardiography. *Journal of the American Heart Association*, 9(7):e014717, 2020.
- [11] Zachi I Attia, Suraj Kapa, Francisco Lopez-Jimenez, Paul M McKie, Dorothy J Ladewig, Gaurav Satam, Patricia A Pellikka, Maurice Enriquez-Sarano, Peter A Noseworthy, Thomas M Munger, et al. Screening for cardiac contractile dysfunction using an artificial intelligence–enabled electrocardiogram. *Nature medicine*, 25(1):70–74, 2019.
- [12] Han Liu, Zhenbo Zhao, and Qiang She. Self-supervised ECG pre-training. *Biomedical Signal Processing and Control*, 70:103010, 2021.
- [13] Temesgen Mehari and Nils Strodthoff. Self-supervised representation learning from 12-lead ECG data. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2103.12676*, 2021.
- [14] Pritam Sarkar and Ali Etemad. Self-supervised ECG Representation Learning for Emotion Recognition. *IEEE Transactions on Affective Computing*, pages 1–1, 2020.
- [15] Dani Kiyasseh, Tingting Zhu, and David A Clifton. CLOCS: Contrastive Learning of Cardiac Signals Across Space, Time, and Patients. In *Proceedings of the 38th International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 139 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pages 5606–5615. PMLR, 2021.
- [16] Ramprasaath R. Selvaraju, Michael Cogswell, Abhishek Das, Ramakrishna Vedantam, Devi Parikh, and Dhruv Batra. Grad-Cam: Visual Explanations from Deep Networks via Gradient-Based Localization. In *2017 IEEE International Conference on Computer Vision (ICCV)*, pages 618–626, 2017.
- [17] Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. Deep Residual Learning for Image Recognition. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, 2016.

Appendix

A Framework of the MoCo Algorithm

In the MoCo algorithm, data transformation methods should be used to generate positive and negative sample pairs. The query ECG and key ECG are respectively transformed and then input to the encoder. The feature vectors of each ECG are used to calculate the contrastive loss. By minimizing the contrastive loss, the feature vectors generated from the same sample will become close to each other, and those generated from different samples will be far apart.

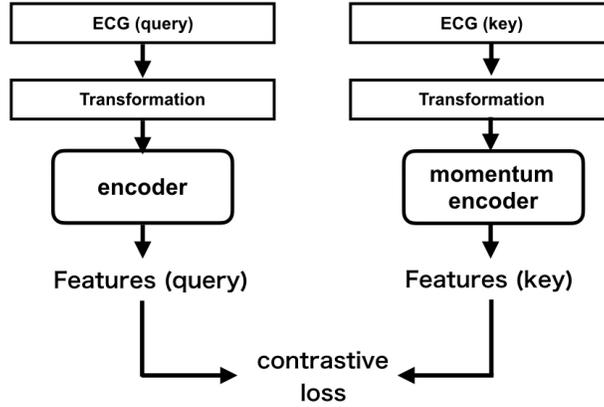


Figure 3: Framework of the MoCo algorithm.

B Model Architecture of the MoCo Encoder

The encoder consists of six temporal convolution blocks, one spatial convolution block, and one fully connected layer. As proposed in the previous work [11], the temporal convolution blocks were designed to learn features within each lead. Each block has a 2D convolutional layer with filters in the shape of $1 \times K$ to perform convolution in the time direction of each lead. The spatial convolution block has a 2D convolutional layer with filters in the shape of 12×1 to perform convolution in the channel direction.

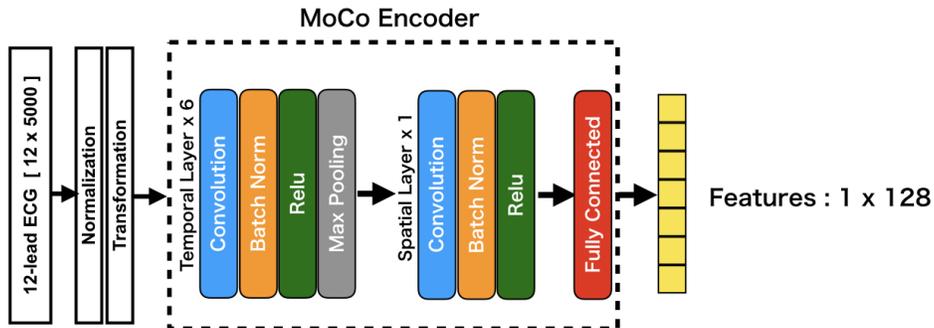


Figure 4: Model architecture of the MoCo encoder.

C Data Splits Used in Each Experiment

Table 3: Data splits used in the proposed method and the baselines. The bracketed number indicates the number of labels used.

	Pretrain		Downstream		Evaluation
	Training	Validation	Training	Validation	
Proposed	train1 (0)	valid1 (0)	train2 (7833)	valid2 (1622)	test2 (1652)
Baseline (unpretrained)	-	-	train2 (7833)	valid2 (1622)	test2 (1652)
Baseline (full labels)	-	-	train1+train2 (28526)	valid1+valid2 (6952)	test2 (1652)