

## **Automated detection of atrial fibrillation using long short-term memory network with RR interval signals**

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# Automated Detection Of Atrial Fibrillation Using Long Short-Term Memory Network With RR Interval Signals

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## Abstract

Atrial Fibrillation (AF), either permanent or intermittent (paroxysmal AF), increases the risk of cardioembolic stroke. Accurate diagnosis of AF is obligatory for initiation of effective treatment to prevent stroke. Long term cardiac monitoring improves the likelihood of diagnosing paroxysmal AF. We used a deep learning system to detect AF beats in Heart Rate (HR) signals. The data was partitioned with a sliding window of 100 beats. The resulting signal blocks were directly fed into a deep Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) with Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM). The system was validated and tested with data from the MIT-BIH Atrial Fibrillation Database. It achieved 98.51% accuracy with 10-fold cross-validation (20 subjects) and 99.77% with blindfold validation (3 subjects). The proposed system structure is straight forward, because there is no need for information reduction through feature extraction. All the complexity resides in the deep learning system, which gets the entire information from a signal block. This setup leads to the robust performance for unknown data, as measured with the blind fold validation. The proposed Computer-Aided Diagnosis (CAD) system can be used for long-term monitoring of the human heart. To the best of our knowledge, the proposed system is the first to incorporate deep learning for AF beat detection.

*Keywords:* Deep learning, Recurrent Neural Network, Heart Rate, Atrial Fibrillation

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## 1. Introduction

Atrial Fibrillation (AF) is the most common sustained cardiac rhythm disorder in adults [1]. The disease affects around 0.4% of the adult population and it gets more prevalent with age. Less than 1% of the population under the age of 60 is affected, and over 6% of those over the age of 80 years are affected [2]. It is predicted that the incidence of AF increases, because of the aging population. The disease is associated with inefficiencies in blood flow dynamics which substantially increase the risk of stroke and systemic thromboembolism, resulting in high mortality and morbidity [3, 4]. Some patients with AF are asymptomatic, but others have accompanying symptoms, such as fainting, palpitations, chest pain, fatigue, and heart failure, which seriously diminish the quality of life for the patients [5]. The link between AF and increased stroke risk was established in the Framingham study, which revealed that nonrheumatic AF is an independent stroke risk predictor among 5,070 participants [6]. AF is characterized

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by highly variable ventricular beat intervals [7]. The distribution of RR intervals during AF differs from the distribution during normal sinus rhythm [8]. In clinical practice, these beat-to-beat variations are detected manually [9]. The sensitivity of this method is above 90% and its specificity is above 70% [10]. Antithrombotic prophylaxis can then be used to reduce the stroke risk from AF [11]. However, a prerequisite for antithrombotic medication is an accurate diagnosis. Unfortunately, antithrombotic medication is associated with bleeding risk and the manual method is neither sensitive nor specific enough to meet the demand for diagnosis, and medication initiation. Furthermore, intra- and inter-observer variability diminish the reliability of manual diagnosis. Automation can potentially improve the sensitivity and specificity [12].

In some patients, the episodes of AF occur paroxysmally, with normal sinus rhythm in between. The timing of occurrence of paroxysmal AF is unpredictable. Both permanent and paroxysmal AF can predispose to increased stroke risk [13]. The challenge for Computer-Aided Diagnosis (CAD) is twofold: How to diagnose AF accurately as well as to detect these AF periods reliably with non-invasive methods that can be used at any time even outside the hospital [14]. Electrical phenomena of the heart muscle is measured by placing passive electrodes on the skin. The electrical activity of the heart activates phasic heart muscle contraction that in turn gives rise to rhythmic cardiac pulse. Electrocardiography is a noninvasive method for measuring that electrical activity [15, 16, 17]. Electrocardiogram (ECG) measurements can be performed at a single seating, or be recorded over an extended period of time, for instance over 24 hours (Holter monitoring). Unfortunately, it has been shown that after catheter ablation procedure for AF, the rate of recurrence of AF episodes is underestimated, and the success rate of catheter ablation is highly overestimated, when determined from 24-h Holter ECG recordings [18]. This issue can be addressed by considerably extending the monitoring period so that the likelihood of detecting AF episodes increases. However, existing techniques for continuous long-term monitoring reduce the patients' quality of life through inconvenient data acquisition methods. The inconvenience can lead to a premature termination of the data acquisition, which adversely affects diagnostic quality [19]. For example, state of the art Holter systems use multiple electrodes, which must be placed by trained technologists. In contrast, beat to beat intervals, which establishes the Heart Rate (HR), once stripped of the morphological component of the ECG signal, can be measured with a single sensor that may be placed by the patient himself. AF detection algorithms are effective for short duration beat interval recordings, offering the prospect of simple and rapid diagnostic tests based on beat intervals alone [20]. CAD systems are mandatory for long-term monitoring, because manual data interpretation of the huge amount data readout is impracticable [21]. For computer based systems, detecting AF periods solely based on HR signals is difficult, because the data is noisy, and the capability of traditional machine learning algorithms is limited [22]. State of the art CAD systems tackle these problems with information reduction through feature extraction, ensuring that the machine learning algorithm is not overwhelmed. The resulting systems under-perform for unknown data and large datasets [23].

We aim to reduce workload of the clinicians and to enable long-term monitoring by providing a robust diagnosis support system for AF. The proposed system structure is minimalist: there is just data partitioning and automated decision support with a deep learning system. That implies the space for design errors is also minimal. Furthermore, the decision-making system gets all the information within the selected data block. There is no information reduction through feature extraction. Consequently, the proposed system is robust and accurate. The AF detection system scored 98.51% accuracy with 10-fold cross-validation. A 99.77% blind fold accuracy indicates a good robustness. These performance figures make us confident that the system will perform well for unknown data in a practical environment, such as AF long-term monitoring. Our work opens up a viable path to extend the monitoring period for diagnosis, treatment monitoring and drug efficacy tests. Furthermore, the results justify our choice to use deep learning for AF detection.

Table 1: Bidirectional Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) architecture

Layer	Type	Output shape	Number of parameters
1	Input	100, 1	0
2a	LSTM (forward)	100, 400	161600
2b	LSTM (backward)	100, 400	161600
3	Global 1D max pooling	400	0
4	Fully connected Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU)	50	20050
5	Dropout	50	0
6	Fully connected (Sigmoid)	1	51

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. The next section introduces the materials and methods with a specific focus on the deep learning system. Section 3 states the AF detection results for well-known data. The subsequent discussion section relates our findings to results from other researchers based on the same data. We also state limitations and further work in this section. The conclusion section completes the paper by summarizing the approach and highlighting the main point of the discussion.

## 2. Materials and methods

This section introduces the data and the processing methods that were used to design the AF detection system. The discussion starts by describing the data and the pre-processing methods. The pre-processed data is directly fed into a deep learning system. As such, that system holds all the computational complexity. Hence, this section focuses on the deep learning algorithm and the design decisions which led to the proposed CAD system.

### 2.1. Data used

The experiments were conducted based on data from the MIT-BIH Atrial Fibrillation Database [24, 25]. This database includes 23 long-term ECG Holter recordings from different subjects. Each dataset has a duration of 10 hours containing two ECG signals sampled at 250 Hz with AF annotation. These recordings contain also beat annotations and rhythm annotations performed manually by expert clinicians. Furthermore, the R peaks are labelled and the RR interval sequence was extracted based on these labels. The RR interval sequences have been split into overlapping sequences of 100 beats<sup>2</sup> for each HR trace. A beat sequence is labelled as AF if it contains one or more beats that were classified as showing signs of atrial fibrillation, all other sequences are labelled as normal.

Data from 20 patients has been used for training and 10-fold cross-validation of the model, with the data from the remaining 3 patients completely withheld for use in a blind-fold validation stage after training and validation of the model and tuning of the model hyper-parameters. This step ensures that the proposed method generalises not only to unseen data, but to unseen patients as well.

### 2.2. Bidirectional Long-Short Term Memory Networks

Deep learning algorithms try to develop the model by using all available information from the input [23]. Extracting this information yields the implicit knowledge which underpins the robust decision making process. Hence, the deep learning approach is more practicable than conventional machine learning, such as Support Vector Machine (SVM) [26].

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<sup>2</sup>99 beats overlap

Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) models have gained increasing popularity in recent years, because they overcome one of the key limitations of using standard machine learning algorithms – the assumption that inputs and outputs to a model are independent of each other [27]. In many problems, such as natural language processing, this assumption is false – for example, to classify sentiment within a sentence it is important to be able to put the individual words of the sentence into context.

RNNs do this by allowing the network to retain and utilise state information (i.e. information about what has happened in previous time steps / inputs). This provides RNNs with a “memory” which captures information about all elements of the input. However, Bengio et al. showed that, whilst standard RNNs can theoretically handle input dependencies over long-intervals, in practice training such networks with gradient descent becomes more inefficient when the temporal span of the input sequence dependencies increases [28]. This results in RNNs becoming difficult to train successfully.

LSTM architecture improves upon standard RNN models by incorporating a gating mechanism which improves the handling of time step information from long-interval input sequences [29]. That mechanism controls the amount of information, from previous time steps, that contributes to the current output. The LSTM gating mechanism implements three layers: 1) input-, 2) forget- and 3) output-layer. The training algorithm determines which information is remembered and indeed which information is forgotten [30]. Much of the current success of RNNs has been achieved using LSTM architecture based models [31, 32].

Schuster and Paliwal proposed the use of bidirectional RNNs for problems where the entire input sequence is available [33]. Bidirectional RNNs utilise past and future data from an input sequence to train both a forward state RNN (operating in the positive time dimension –  $t_0, t_1, \dots, t_n$ ) and a backward state RNN (operating in the negative time dimension –  $t_n, t_{n-1}, \dots, t_0$ ). This allows the network to make more accurate predictions due to the increased context provided. In recent years, bidirectional LSTM models have shown great promise in fields such as speech recognition, with Graves and Schmidhuber showing that such bidirectional networks can be significantly more effective than unidirectional LSTM architectures [34].

### *2.3. Proposed system architecture*

The details of the proposed bidirectional LSTM model are shown in both Table 1 and Figure 1. The number of LSTM cells in each of the forward and backward layers was set to twice the input sequence length (empirically this has been shown to perform well on a range of natural language and time series classification tasks studied by the authors), with two fully connected layers used as the top model to produce the final classification. Global max pooling in one dimension was used between the bidirectional LSTM layers and the fully connected layers to compress the features of the output sequences produced by the bidirectional LSTM layers.

Effectively the bidirectional LSTM layers act to learn and extract the features from the input HR data sequences, before passing these features to the fully connected top model for classification as to whether signs of AF are present or not. The model proposed in this paper was implemented using Keras and Tensorflow [35, 36, 37].

### *2.4. Model training*

Xavier initialisation [38] was used to initialise all the weights of the model, and gradient descent backpropagation, using the Adam optimiser [39], was used to update the weights. The initial learning rate of the Adam optimiser was set to 1e-3 and the binary cross-entropy function was used to evaluate the loss of the network. A minibatch size of 1024 input sequences was used during this training process – providing a good trade-off between available Graphics Processing Unit (GPU) memory and speed of training.

Recurrent dropout [40] was applied (with a probability of 0.1) during training to both the inputs and hidden states of the LSTM cells and standard dropout [41] was applied between the

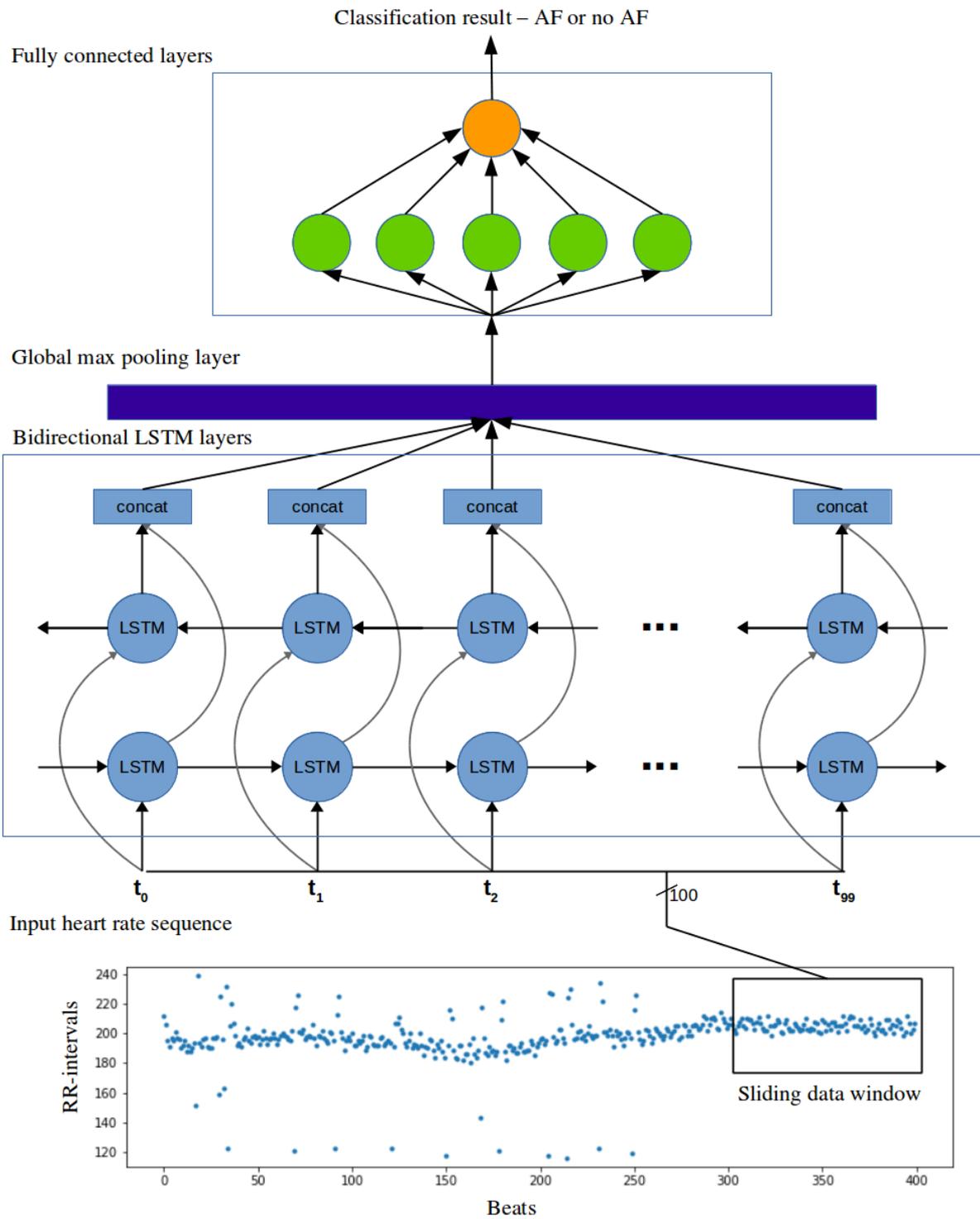


Figure 1: The bidirectional LSTM architecture used for AF classification

fully connected layers (again, with a probability of 0.1) to reduce overfitting of the model and improve model generalisation. Furthermore, the training performance of the proposed model was evaluated using the binary cross-entropy function as this provides a better understanding of the model performance across a range of operating conditions (as opposed to the classification accuracy which only describes the performance of a model at a single point). The binary cross-entropy function compares two probability distributions (that of the true distribution and the predicted distribution) to provide more information about the nature of the search landscape.

A stratified 10-fold cross-validation strategy was used to evaluate the model performance and to tune both the model architecture and the hyperparameters (although minimal tuning was used to obtain the results shown in in the next section). Stratified cross-validation was necessary to ensure that each fold was representative of the balance of the full data set. Results from this stratified 10-fold cross-validation are shown in Section 3.1.

### 3. Results

This section introduces the 10-fold cross-validation results for training and testing as well as the blind-fold validation results. The bi-directional LSTM model, proposed in this paper, was trained using an nVidia Quadro M5000 GPU with 8GB of GDDR5 graphics RAM. The average time needed to train a single epoch of this model was approximately 215 s. Initial experiments showed that the model converges after between 60 – 80 epochs of training, so 80 epochs were used in this study to ensure full convergence of the model and limit opportunities for overfitting.

#### 3.1. 10-fold cross-validation results

Figures 2 and 3 show the training and validation set performance against the number of epochs<sup>3</sup>. These figures show the mean of the performance for each of the 10-folds as a solid line, and the standard deviation of the performance as the shaded region. As can be seen from these figures, whilst the performance on the training set is slightly better than that of the validation set, the model has converged to a stable value with none of the typical signs of overfitting such as the training performance continuing to improve, whilst validation performance stagnates (and even worsens).

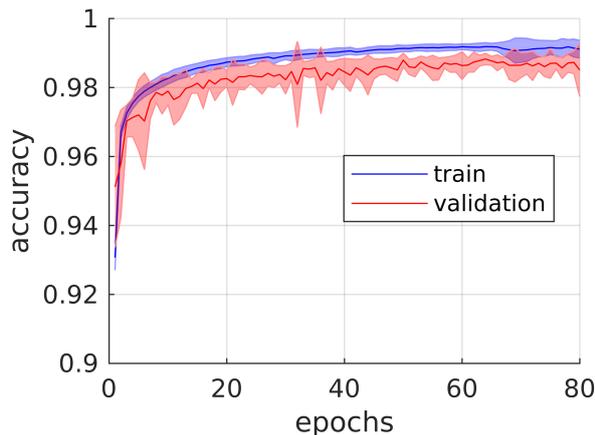


Figure 2: Training and validation accuracy over epochs. The solid line is the mean of the 10 folds and the shaded area indicates the variance.

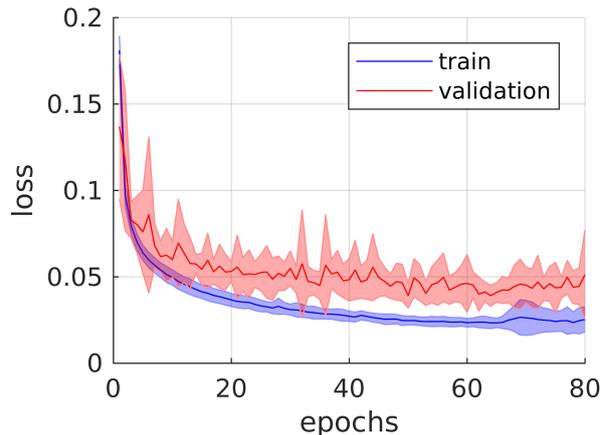


Figure 3: Training and testing loss function over the epochs. The solid line is the mean and the shaded area indicates the variance.

<sup>3</sup>One epoch is a single pass through all the training data, followed by evaluation of the model on the validation data.

Table 2: Overall cross validation performance of the proposed bi-directional LSTM classifier

TP	TN	FP	FN	Accuracy	Sensitivity	Specificity	Area Under Curve (AUC)
430,615	523,241	7,040	7,407	98.51%	98.32%	98.67%	0.9986

Table 3: Overall blind fold validation performance of the proposed bi-directional LSTM classifier

TP	TN	FP	FN	Accuracy	Sensitivity	Specificity	AUC
91,888	65,699	255	116	99.77%	99.87%	99.61%	1 <sup>4</sup>

The confusion plot for the stratified 10-fold cross-validation process is shown in Figure 4 and the Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve is shown in Figure 5. In these plots, the results from applying the model to the validation set in all 10 folds of the cross-validation process were aggregated and then used to create the confusion plot and the ROC curve. Table 2 shows the overall performance of the cross-validation process.

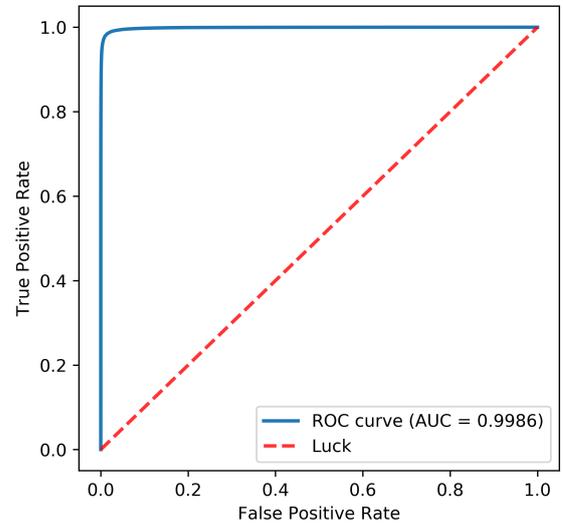
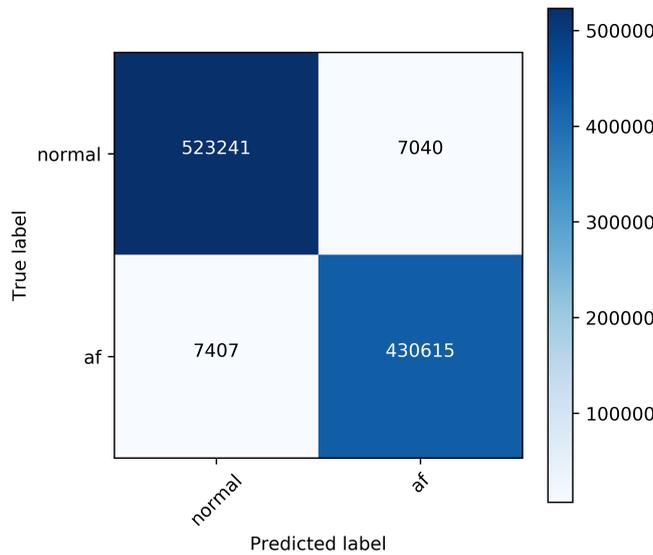


Figure 4: Confusion plot from the stratified 10-fold cross-validation process

Figure 5: ROC curve from the stratified 10-fold cross-validation process

It can be seen from the results in Figures 4 and 5 and Table 2, that the proposed bi-directional LSTM classifier achieves an overall classification accuracy of 98.51% with stratified 10-fold cross-validation - classifying 98.67% of normal HR sequences correctly and 98.32% of HR sequences showing signs of atrial fibrillation correctly.

### 3.2. Blind-fold validation results

Following this stratified 10-fold cross-validation process, further evaluation of the proposed model was undertaken using blindfold validation of AF and normal HR sequences from 3 completely held out patients, as described in Section 2.1. Results from this completely held out test set are shown in Figures 6 and 7, and summarised in Table 3.

It can be seen from the results in Figures 6 and 7 and Table 3, that the proposed bi-directional LSTM classifier achieves an overall classification accuracy of 99.77% on the test set of completely unseen patients - classifying 99.61% of normal HR sequences correctly and 99.87% of HR sequences showing signs of atrial fibrillation correctly.

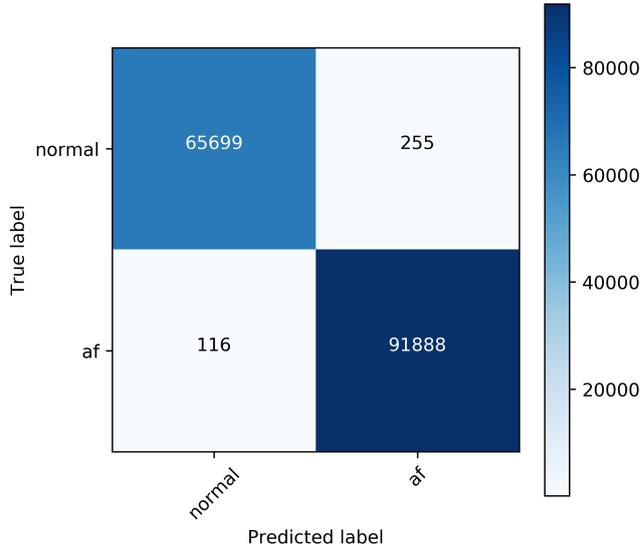


Figure 6: Confusion plot from the 3 completely withheld patients

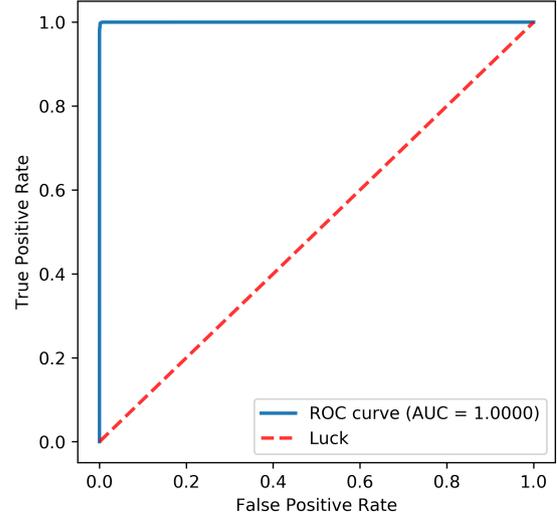


Figure 7: ROC curve from the 3 completely withheld patients

#### 4. Discussion

Data is always a concern for learning systems. Indeed, the proposed automated detection system for AF is no exception. We have used the physionet MIT-BIH AF database, because this enables competition and cooperation. Competition comes from the fact that the database is well known and classification results are available from other research projects, see Table 4. Cooperation is possible, because the data is freely available and our processing methods were stated in Section 2. However, the data is balanced for sinus rhythm and AF. That implies that it is heavily weighted with AF patients compared to a real patient population. That is a problem, especially for AF screening. For screening applications, we expect that our performance figures are biased toward high sensitivity and false positives for lower prevalence of the abnormality.

Table 4 shows a selection of scientific studies which are based on heart rate from the physionet MIT-BIH AF database [21]. All these studies have achieved good validation results with a conventional processing structure of feature extraction followed by machine learning. The processing structure we propose does not need feature extraction, all the information available in the training data set is passed on to the deep learning system. Hence, it can extract the implicit knowledge which enables it to make good decisions even for unknown data.

Looking beyond the narrow area of AF detection with Deep Learning (DL) applied to HR, we found only one similar work. Chen et al. who used deep learning to detect Congestive Heart Failure (CHF) beats with an accuracy of 72.41% [42]. Their system incorporated the Sparse-Auto-Encoder (SAE) algorithm which increases the robustness of the model. Apart from HR, there are other physiological signals that can be used to diagnose Cardiovascular Diseases (CVDs). Deep learning was used successfully to analyze a wide range of these physiological signals [23]. Sannino De Pietro achieved an accuracy of 99.09% for AF detection with tensorflow deep learning on the ECG signals in the Physionet AF database [43]. Zihlmann et al. have used a convolutional RNN for ECG classification [44]. Their system achieved an accuracy of 80.5%. Deep Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) was used extensively for ECG analysis [45, 46, 47, 48, 49]. Deep Artificial Neural Network (ANN) have been used for multiple health care applications [50, 51, 52].

Table 4: Selected work on the automated detection of AF beats using RR interval signals from the MIT-BIH Atrial Fibrillation database.

Author	Data pre-processing	Feature extraction method	Analysis method	Results
Artis et al., 1991 [53]	100 beat window 99 beats overlap	Threshold based intervals	ANN	92.86% sensitivity and 92.34% positive predictive accuracy
Tateno and Glass, 2001 [54]	50 consecutive AF beats, no overlap	$\Delta$ RR is defined as being the difference between two successive RR intervals.	Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and CV test	Sensitivity 94.4%, Specificity 97.2% both with Kolmogorov-Smimov statistics.
Logan and Healey, 2005 [55]	600 consecutive beats, no overlap	$\Delta$ RR and RR interval histogram	Kolmogorov-Smirnov test	sensitivity = 96% and specificity = 89%.
Ghodrati et al., 2008 [56]	30 beat window no overlap reported	Normalized absolute deviation and normalized absolute difference	Threshold	sensitivity of 89%
Ghodrati and Marinello, 2008 [57]	30 beat window no overlap reported	Probability density function	Threshold evaluated with ROC	sensitivity of 92%
Babaeizadeh et al., 2009 [58]	Beat to beat analysis	RR interval	Hidden Markov model	92% sensitivity and 97% positive predictive value
Yaghouby et al., 2010 [59]	64 beat window, overlap not reported	Statistical and geometrical features plus feature dimension reduction	Genetic algorithm	99.11% Accuracy
Lian et al., 2011 [60]	128 beat window	$\Delta$ RR	Threshold on statistical values	95.9% sensitivity and 95.4% positive predictive value
Huang et al., 2011 [61]	bins of 50 beats	$\Delta$ RR and RR interval histogram	Kolmogorov-Smirnov test	specificity = 96.1%.
Yaghouby et al., 2012 [5]	30 beat window no overlap reported	Six morphological features	Gaussian mixture model	sensitivity of 98.09%, specificity=91.66%
Rincón et al., 2012 [62]	600 beat window no overlap reported	Hybrid RR interval and ECG features	Fuzzy classifier	sensitivity of 96%, specificity=93%

Zhou et al., 2014 [63]	Median filter	Shannon entropy	Threshold with ROC	evaluated	sensitivity 96.72%, specificity 95.07%, accuracy 96.05%
Petrėnas et al., 2015 [64]	8 beat sliding window	Median filter and thresholding for data labeling	Threshold		sensitivity of 97.1%, specificity of 98.3%
Henzel et al., 2017 [65]	beat by beat evaluation. Windows of varying length are used to extract the statistical features.	4 statistical features and the beat itself	Generalized Linear Model	evaluated with ROC	accuracy 93%, sensitivity of 90%, specificity 95%
<b>Proposed system</b>	<b>100 beat window 99 beats overlap</b>	<b>None</b>	<b>Recurrent neural network</b>		<b>Cross validation: accuracy 98.51%, Sensitivity 98.32%, Specificity 98.67%, Positive predictive accuracy 98.39%. Blind fold validation: accuracy 99.77%, Sensitivity 99.87%, Specificity 99.61%, Positive predictive accuracy 99.72%.</b>

#### 4.1. Limitations

A limitation of our study comes from the fact that we have used data blocks with 100 RR intervals. These short segments might not capture all the nonlinear properties of the signal adequately and therefore the deep learning system does not get all the information. However, the choice of a 100 beat window was made with regard to a practical real-time diagnosis system. This 100 beat window would allow for minimal latency in any automated alert of AF detection via heart rate monitoring. Another shortcoming is the limited number of subjects. More data from a larger subject range would lead to the extraction of more implicit knowledge. In turn that might result in a model that is even more robust. A problem we encountered was the fact that it takes design time to train the model. During the design phase, training speed is major limitation, because it prevented us to explore all possible network parameters. Even massively parallel<sup>5</sup> GPU processors could not speed up the processing sufficiently.

Another limitation of our study comes from instrumentation. We have used RR intervals that were extracted from ECG signals. However, to realize the advantages of HR the signal has to be measured directly, i.e. not being extracted from ECG. Appropriate instrumentation has to ensure that these measurements reflect the RR intervals in the same way as if they were extracted from ECG. In future, we plan to investigate the impact of the heart rate sensor.

#### 4.2. Future work

The future work is centered on the long-term monitoring of the human heart [66]. Internet of Things (IoT) technology is needed to facilitate data transfer and disseminate control messages [67]. Apart from the technology aspects, there is also much scope to acquire more depth and breadth through academic research. More depth is achieved by detecting different AF types and predict the onset of AF. Having cost effective long-term monitoring systems allows us to extend the breath of research by investigating a range of different heart diseases, such as CHF [68]. Apart from addressing these medical engineering aspects, further work is planned to conduct a full ablation study to investigate the importance of individual architectural and algorithmic components of the proposed model (such as the number of LSTM cells, optimisers, learning rates, and fully connected classification layer sizes).

### 5. Conclusion

Our approach to AF detection in HR signals is straight forward: we partition the data with a sliding window and feed the resulting blocks into a deep learning system. There is no need for information reduction through feature extraction. During the training phase, the learning algorithm can extract all the available information to create the implicit knowledge which underpins the subsequent decision-making processes. As a consequence, the proposed decision support system delivers accurate and robust results. To be specific, the system achieved an accuracy of 98.51% with 10-fold cross-validation. The 99.77% blind fold accuracy indicates a good robustness. These results are similar to performance measures that were reported for ECG based CAD systems. However, HR measurements are more convenient for the patient and they can be carried out for longer.

Having an accurate and robust AF detection system using RR intervals is a prerequisite for long-term monitoring. The goal for such long-term monitoring is to produce more data which holds more information about the patient health. Deep learning can help us to make sense of that data and thereby reduce the workload of clinicians. Furthermore, such computer aided diagnosis reduces the risk of inter- and intra-observer variability. Computer based systems do not suffer from fatigue and the results are reproducible. Furthermore, the learning algorithm

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<sup>5</sup>The term ‘massively parallel’ refers to the use of a large number of processors

model can be updated, such that the decision support system improves over time. These systems have the potential to benefit patients by delivering an accurate diagnosis as well as unintrusive and uninterrupted treatment monitoring. We hope that this work is the first in a series of scientific studies on deep learning for AF detection.

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**Competing interests:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

**Statements of ethical approval:** All the data for this study comes from the well known MIT-BIH Atrial Fibrillation Database. The authors did not undertake measurements that involved human or animal participants.

## Acronyms

<b>AF</b>	Atrial Fibrillation
<b>ANN</b>	Artificial Neural Network
<b>AUC</b>	Area Under Curve
<b>CAD</b>	Computer-Aided Diagnosis
<b>CHF</b>	Congestive Heart Failure
<b>CNN</b>	Convolutional Neural Network
<b>CVD</b>	Cardiovascular Disease
<b>DL</b>	Deep Learning
<b>ECG</b>	Electrocardiogram
<b>GPU</b>	Graphics Processing Unit
<b>HR</b>	Heart Rate
<b>IoT</b>	Internet of Things
<b>LSTM</b>	Long Short-Term Memory
<b>ReLU</b>	Rectified Linear Unit
<b>RNN</b>	Recurrent Neural Network
<b>ROC</b>	Receiver Operating Characteristic
<b>SAE</b>	Sparse-Auto-Encoder
<b>SVM</b>	Support Vector Machine

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