1	TITLE PAGE
2 3	Influence of sympathetic activation on myocardial contractility measured
4	with ballistocardiography and seismocardiography during sustained end-
5	expiratory apnea.
6	Ballistocardiography, seismocardiography and sympathetic nerve activity
7	
8	Colin Moura MD1 Anglis Could an MD2 Anglin Honorin MC 2 Honore Babin and MC 2 Lodith
9	Sona Morra, MD ² , Anais Gauney MD ² , Amin Hossen MSC ³ , Jeremy Rabineau MSC ³ , Judin Bacano, PhD ⁵ , Damion Carlier MSc ³ , Biorra Eronacia Microstta, MSc, PhD ³ , Jean Bonoit la Palain de
10	Waroux MD PhD ⁴ Philippe van de Borne MD PhD ¹
11 12 13	Department of Cardiology, Frasmo hospital, Universitá Libro do Bruvellos, Bolgium
14	Department of Cardiology, Erasme nospital, Oniversite Libre de Bruxenes, beigium
15	² Department of Cardiology, Saint-Luc hospital, Université Catholique de Louvain, Belgium
16	³ LPHYS, Université Libre de Bruxelles, Belgium
17	⁴ Department of Cardiology, Sint-Jan, Hospital Bruges, Bruges, Belgium
18	⁵ Research centre in epidemiology, biostatistics and clinical research. School of Public Health. Université libre
19	de Bruxelles (ULB), Brussels, Belgium
20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40	

41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50	NOTE AND NOTEWORTHY Ballistocardiography (BCG) and seismocardiography (SCG) assess vibrations produced by cardiac
51	contraction and blood flow, respectively, through micro-accelerometers and micro-gyroscopes.
52	Kinetic energies (KE), and their temporal integrals (iK) during a single heartbeat are computed
53	from the BCG and SCG waveforms in a linear and a rotational dimension. When compared to
54	normal breathing, during an end-expiratory voluntary apnea, <i>i</i> K increased and was positively
55	related to sympathetic nerve traffic rise assessed by microneurography. Further studies are needed
56	to determine if BCG and SCG can probe sympathetic nerve changes in patients with sleep
57	disturbances.
58	
59	
60 61 62 63 64 65	

66	ABSTRACT
67 68	De demour d
00 60	Background
70	Ballistocardiography (BCC) and saismocardiography (SCC) assess vibrations produced by cardiac
70	contraction and blood flow respectively through micro-accelerometers and micro-gyroscopes
72	BCG and SCG kinetic energies (KF) and their temporal integrals (<i>i</i> K) during a single heartheat are
73	computed in linear and rotational dimensions.
74	
75	Aims
76	
77	To test the hypothesis that <i>i</i> K from BCG and SCG are related to sympathetic activation during
78	maximal voluntary end-expiratory apnea.
79	
80	Methods
81	
82	Multiunit muscle sympathetic nerve traffic (BF, burst frequency; tMSNA, total muscular
83	sympathetic nerve activity) was measured by microneurography during normal breathing and
84	apnea (n=28, healthy men). <i>i</i> K of BCG and SCG were simultaneously recorded in the linear and
85	rotational dimension, along with oxygen saturation (SatO ₂) and systolic-blood pressure (SBP).
86	
87	Results
88	
89	The mean duration of apneas was 25.4 ± 9.4 s. SBP, BF, tMSNA increased during the apnea
90	compared to baseline ($p = 0.01$, $p = 0.002$, $p = 0.001$, respectively), while SatO ₂ decreased ($p = 0.02$).
91	At the end of the apnea compared to normal breathing, changes of <i>i</i> K computed from BCG were
92	related to changes of tMSNA and BF only in the linear dimension ($r = 0.85$, $p < 0.0001$; $r = 0.72$, $p =$
93	0.002, respectively), while changes of linear i K of SCG were related only to changes of tMSNA (r =
94	0.62, p = 0.01).
95 06	Conducione
90 07	Conclusions
<i>91</i> 09	Maximal and avairatory appear increases cardiac kinetic approxy computed from PCC and CCC

98 Maximal end expiratory apnea increases cardiac kinetic energy computed from BCG and SCG, 99 along with sympathetic activity. The novelty of the present investigation is that linear *i*K of BCG is 100 directly and more strongly related to the rise in sympathetic activity than the SCG, mainly at the 101 end of a sustained apnea, likely because the BCG is more affected by the sympathetic and 102 hemodynamic effects of breathing cessation. BCG and SCG may prove useful to assess 103 sympathetic nerve changes in patients with sleep disturbances.

105 INTRODUCTION

106 The heart is one among many effector organs of the autonomic nervous system (ANS) and is 107 innervated by both divisions of the ANS, that is, the sympathetic and parasympathetic fibers, 108 which have antagonistic effects (66). Indeed, activation of the sympathetic division increases heart 109 rate (chronotropic effect), enhances myocardial contractility (inotropic effect), hasten electrical 110 conduction velocity (dromotropic effect) and hastens myocardial relaxation (lusitropic effect) 111 while the opposite happens under parasympathetic stimulation, except for myocardial 112 contractility (14, 23). Blood vessels are innervated exclusively by the sympathetic division, which 113 regulates the diameters of arterioles thus orchestrating continuously blood pressure fluctuations 114 around a homeostatic value (66). The complex interplay between the sympathetic and 115 parasympathetic nervous systems (SNS and PNS, respectively), creates a balance with the final 116 aim to guarantee the homeostasis of cardiovascular system in response to internal and external 117 stressors.

Variations of pH, pO₂, pCO₂, fluctuations in blood pressure modulate the activity of SNS/PNS balance via a complex system of arc reflexes (14, 21, 24). Hypoxemia (24, 29, 45, 46, 55, 69), hypercapnia (24, 39, 55, 69), decreased systemic blood pressure (21) are all powerful triggers of SNS activation in healthy organisms. As an example, chronic exposure to intermittent hypoxia (IH), as in sleep disorders breathing (SDB), is accompanied to a sustained activation of the SNS, with several cardiovascular consequences (41). Voluntary breath holding also raises sympathetic nerve activity (11, 24, 47, 51, 63).

Ballistocardiography (BCG) and seismocardiography (SCG) record the micro vibrations produced rhythmically by the velocities and accelerations of the body's center of mass and cardiac muscle contraction, respectively, with micro-accelerometers and gyroscopes placed on the body surface (16, 18, 22, 52, 58). Modern BCG and SCG can measure linear and rotational velocities and accelerations of blood stream using linear and rotational channels, respectively, and in three cardinal axes using three-axial sensors (*x*: latero-lateral axis; *y*: caudo-cranial axis; *z*: antero-

131	posterior axis) (18, 31). Additionally, from the BCG and SCG waveforms, linear and rotational
132	kinetic energy (K), its temporal integral (iK), maximal power (P _{Max}), maximal displacements
133	(D_{Max}) and maximal velocities (V_{Max}) can be computed for each contractile cycle using specific
134	algorithms based on Newtonian equations (18). A growing number of evidences provide the
135	signals recorded with BCG and SCG as good indicators of myocardial function and dysfunction.
136	Metrics of <i>i</i> K and P _{Max} of BCG and SCG signals are well correlated to stroke volume (SV), cardiac
137	output (CO) (18, 20) and the LVEF (35); the peak of maximum energy obtained from BCG
138	waveforms well represents myocardial contractility expressed as dP/dt_{max} in animal models (6);
139	BCG and SCG signals provide information about myocardial dysfunction after acute coronary
140	syndrome (9, 36) and can assess the clinical status of patients with heart failure (19).
141	Respiration profoundly influences the amplitude of BCG and SCG waveforms (8, 33, 34, 44, 53):
142	the <i>i</i> K computed while deeply inspiring against an external resistance is higher than the one
143	observed while breathing normally (33). Moreover, in healthy individuals, the <i>i</i> K computed with
144	BCG and SCG increases progressively from the beginning to the end of a 10 seconds apnea, and
145	remain increased thereafter (34). As explained above, several factors occurring during an apneic
146	episode can trigger the SNS. The increased cardiac iK occurring during an end expiratory
147	voluntary apnea as observed in our previous investigation (34) may be secondary to SNS
148	activation. This is the hypothesis we wish to test with the present investigation: in healthy
149	individuals, the increased cardiac <i>i</i> K registered during a sustained end-expiratory apnea is related
150	to the activation of SNS directed to muscle blood vessels. In this study, sympathetic nerve traffic
151	was assessed directly by means of the microneurographic technique (muscle sympathetic nerve
152	activity, MSNA).

153 METHODS

154 1.1 Study protocol and study population

155 This observational study was approved by the local Ethic Committee of the Erasme hospital 156 (P201904_097) and complies with the Declaration of Helsinki. Each volunteer was asked to 157 perform regularly a sustained end-expiratory apnea, for as long as tolerated (ranging from a 158 minimum of 13s to a maximum of 49s). Each volunteer performed at least three apneas (average 159 3.8) and only one apnea per volunteer was selected based on the quality of the MSNA neurogram, 160 which was visually inspected with great care by a trained operator. Each apnea was selected 161 prospectively and prior to any iK computation. It is known that identification of bursts in a 162 neurogram is a subjective process, but standards exist to make the procedure less subjective, as 163 extensively explained by White D. and colleagues (67) and to these standards for burst 164 identification authors complied.

- 165 The aim of this maneuver was to induce modification of blood gases concentration to 166 activate the MSNA in order to record BCG and SCG signals simultaneously to the MSNA.
- 167 Twenty-eight healthy young man of 28 ± 3.6 years were enrolled.

168 None had any cardiovascular disease, took medications or drugs. The day before the experimental 169 procedure, the participant was asked not to smoke, nor drink coffee/the. Additionally, subjects 170 had to empty their bladder before the beginning of the session. Only male subjects were enrolled,

171 to avoid possible confounding effects of the menstrual cycle on the measurements.

172 Ten records were excluded from final analysis because of poor MSNA signal quality and 2 out of

- 173 18 remaining records had to be further excluded because of poor BCG and SCG quality signal.
- 174 Sixteen records were retained for final analysis.

175

176 1.2 Experimental procedure

Ballistocardiography, seismocardiography and sympathetic nerve activity

177 The microneurography technique assesses multiunit postganglionic efferent sympathetic 178 activity continuously using a tungsten microelectrode (59, 67). In brief, this requires two tungsten 179 electrodes (200µm of shaft diameter, tapering to an uninsulated tip of 1 to 5µm of diameter, 180 UNA35F2S, FHC Neural MicroTargeting[™]), one of which is inserted in the peroneal nerve 181 proximal to the fibular head of the right leg (active electrode) (67), while the second electrode 182 (reference electrode) is placed in the subcutaneous tissue, 2-3cm away from the nerve₇ as 183 previously described (62-65). These signal were send to an amplifier, signal integrator and filter 184 (Nerve Traffic Analyzer; University of Iowa Bioengineering, Iowa City) (67) connected to the 185 acquisition system PowerLab 16/30 (ADInstrument).

186 One-lead ECG, systemic blood pressure, oxygen saturation (SatO₂), endtidalCO₂, were
187 continuously recorded.

Finger blood pressure was obtained continuously throughout the experimental session by placing a cuff on the second finger of the right hand and through the use of a beat-by-beat hemodynamic monitoring system (Finometer Pro, FMS®, Amsterdam, the Netherlands), allowing a reliable reconstruction of the humeral blood pressure. Reconstruction of systolic, diastolic and mean humeral blood pressure from Finometer® is as a reliable measurement of systemic blood pressure as invasive measurements are, complying with the American Association of Medical Instrumentation (AAMI) requirements, as previously reported (15).

195 A continuous one-lead ECG (ADInstruments) was obtained throughout the whole session.

Oxygen saturation was obtained throughout the session by placing a pulse oximeter on the second
finger of the left hand, while endtidal CO₂ was obtained continuously by nasal cannula
(Capnostream-35-monitor [©], Oridion Medical 272 Ltd, Jerusalem, Israël).

199 Respiratory movements were monitored via a respiratory belt placed around the thoraco-200 abdominal circumference (ADInstruments).

201 Signals were connected, acquired and processed with the data acquisition system PowerLab 16/30

202 and LabChart version 8.0 (ADInstruments).

203 BCG and SCG were acquired by a portable device with two detectors, one of which was a box 204 of dimension 64cm² and weight 104g placed on the manubrium of the sternum below the clavicle 205 over the superior mediastinum where the great vessels emerge from the cardiac muscle. The 206 second detector was a box of dimension 24cm², weight 65g, and was placed in the lumbar lordosis 207 curve, between the second and the third lumbar vertebrae, close to the subject's center of mass. 208 Each detector includes a 3-axis linear accelerometer coupled to two 3-axis gyroscopes. The device 209 is controlled with a tablet connected via Bluetooth and collects a one-lead ECG at 200Hz 210 (ADS1292R, ADInstruments) and the BCG and SCG signals at 50Hz, as previously described (18, 211 33, 34).

212

213 1.3 Data analysis

214 1.3.1 MSNA analysis

215 The identification of the apnea was based on the respiratory signal measured with the 216 respiratory belt: the beginning of the apnea was identified at the end of a maximal expiration, the 217 lungs being at their residual volume, the end of the apnea was identified prior to the restauration 218 of respiration. The duration of the apnea differed between individuals; each of them was required 219 to hold his breath as long as he could (from a minimum of 13 seconds to a maximum of 49 220 seconds). The period of normal respiration prior to the apnea is referred to as "baseline" and lasts 221 on average 50s. The apneic episode was split up in three equal epochs, defined as "1/3 apnea", 222 "2/3 apnea", "3/3 apnea" and subsequently analyzed. In our previous work (34) we 223 quantitatively analyzed the evolution of iK continuously beat-by-beat during a 10s length end-224 expiratory apnea, and found that the iK dropped at the beginning of the apnea compared to 225 normal breathing, and increased progressively towards the end of the apnea to values comparable 226 to those of normal breathing. While cardiac energies can be calculated for each contractile cycle, 227 MSNA does not appear for every heartbeat (48) so that a beat-by-beat analysis was not applicable 228 in the present investigation. Thus, to quantitatively evaluate simultaneous changes of iK and

Ballistocardiography, seismocardiography and sympathetic nerve activity

229 MSNA along the course of apnea authors decided to split the apneic episode in three equal parts, 230 in order to analyze the evolution of *i*K and MSNA all over the apnea. This approach of splitting an 231 apneic episode in more than one component is not new: Shimizu et al. divided the apnea in two 232 parts to compare the sympathetic activity at the beginning and at the end of the apnea (48); Somers 233 VK. et al. had already divided a 20s length apnea in fours equal parts of 5 seconds each to analyse 234 MSNA and BP changes all along the apneic episode (50). Also, with regards to obstructive sleep 235 apnea, it is well known that the sympathetic tone does change profoundly at the end of the apnea 236 compared to the beginning (49) underlying further the concept that the sympathetic activity, as 237 well as other cardiovascular events, profoundly evolve along the course of an apneic episode.

The MSNA signal identification consisted in the visual inspection of the neurogram by a trained operator. First, a low pass digital filter was applied to automatically filter the unwanted noise in the signal. Second, the baseline was normalized to reduce the signal to noise ratio, as previously described (67). Third, the start and the end of each burst were manually identified and all the bursts numbered successively. For this purpose, each burst needed to disclose at least a 3:1 signal to noise ratio (67). Then, the amplitude of each burst was automatically computed with the specific module "Paek Analysis" of LabChart version 8.0 (ADInstrument).

The sympathetic activity was expressed as burst frequency (BF), defined as the number of burst par minute, and as total MSNA activity (tMSNA), computed as burst par minute multiplied by mean burst amplitude, as previously described (60, 63).

Since the apnea duration was highly different between subjects and all less that one minute, the number of bursts identified during each epoch of the apnea was normalized for the duration of each epoch itself.

251

252 1.3.2 BCG and SCG signaling processing

The BCG and SCG records were temporally synchronized with the other physiological parameters described above. A specific Tolbox written in Matlab (Mathwork[®] version 2019b)

255 allowed the visual inspection of the BCG and SCG waveforms, the identification of the apnea and 256 the computation of the *i*K metrics. With this tool, the operator could examine the quality of the 257 record and select a temporal window of individual consecutive beats. The beats sampled in the 258 selected temporal region were identified based on the automatic detection of the peak ECG-R 259 wave. Ensemble Averaging (EA) on all beats over the selected time period was performed and 260 scalar parameters of iK_{Lin} and iK_{Rot} were automatically computed (figure 1). This method of 261 sampling and averaging allows to generate an averaged BCG/SCG signal which best fits the shape 262 of a cardiac cycle. Additionally, the EA allows to partially remove motion artifacts of the signals. 263 P, Q, R, S, T waves on the ECG were automatically identified and used as reference points for the

identification of the electrical cardiac cycle. The sum of PQ, QRS, ST and TP' defined a whole
cardiac cycle (CC).

The *i*K was calculated for both the BCG and SCG signals during the baseline and during the first, the second and the last third of the apnea. From the integration with respect to time of linear accelerations of the BCG and SCG signals, linear velocities can be obtained, and the linear kinetic energy can be computed as follow:

270
$$K_{Lin} = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{m} (v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2) (1)$$

where *m* is the mass of the subject, K_{Lin} is the linear kinetic energy, v_x^2, v_y^2, v_z^2 are components of the linear velocity vector \vec{v} obtained by integrating the accelerations acquired by the accelerometers at both BCG and SCG positions with respect to time. The integration of equation (1) computed for a cardiac cycle (CC) gives the content of energy in the linear dimension (*i*K_{Lin}) for that cardiac cycle:

$$iK_{Lin} = \int_{CC} K_{Lin} \, dt \quad (2)$$

From angular velocities recorded with the BCG and SCG, the rotational kinetic energy can be computed as follow:

278
$$K_{Rot} = \frac{1}{2} \left(I_{xx} \ \omega_x^2 + \ I_{yy} \omega_y^2 + \ I_{zz} \omega_z^2 \right) (3)$$

where K_{Rot} is the rotational kinetic energy, I_{xx} , I_{yy} , I_{zz} are the orthogonal components of the moment of inertia, $\vec{\omega}$ is the angular velocity (with its components ω_x^2 , ω_y^2 , ω_z^2). The integration of equation (3) computed for a cardiac cycle gives the content of energy in the rotational dimension, iK_{Rot} , of a cardiac cycle:

$$iK_{Rot} = \int_{CC} K_{Rot} \, dt \, (4)$$

284 More details about this method can be found in (18, 31, 33, 34).

Several factors can contaminate the BCG and SCG signals, as respiration, involuntary movements, cough... To reduce contamination signals from artifacts, an automatic outlier detection was applied on beats that would generate too large energies. If the *i*K of a heartbeat was higher than 5 times the median of the respective kinetic energy of the 5 previous beats, the *i*K of the concerned heartbeat was considered compromised by an external artefact and classified as abnormal. This was done within a specific state, e.g baseline or apnea.

Respiration might influence the BCG and SCG signals in three different ways: by producing a wandering of the baseline as a result of chest movement, by modifying the amplitude of SCG due to intra-thoracic pressure variation and through the induced RR interval changes during the respiratory cycle. To avoid contamination signal from respiratory movement, a high-pass filter was applied to the signals.

296

297 1.4 Statistical analysis

The symmetry of distributions was assessed by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test. The Wilcoxon sign-rank test was used to evaluate differences in variables between normal respiration and the apnea. Variables were presented as medians and interquartile range [IR] or means and standard deviations (±SD). ANOVA or Kruskal Wallis tests were applied according to data distribution to assess the evolution of variables throughout the three different phases of the apnea. Bonferroni correction was applied to account for multiples comparisons. Ballistocardiography, seismocardiography and sympathetic nerve activity

- 304 Associations of changes of cardiac kinetic energies with changes of MSNA activity were assessed
- 305 using the Spearman's or Pearson's correlation, according to data distribution.
- 306 Analyses were performed using SPSS[®] 22.0 on Windows.
- 307

308 **RESULTS**

- 309 Baseline characteristics and modifications of hemodynamic (HR, BP) and respiratory (SatO₂,
- 310 ETCO₂) parameters during the apnea along with MSNA activity (BF, tMSNA) are reported in table
- 311 1.
- 312

Table 1. Modifications of hemodynamic parameters along with metrics of MSNA activity during the baseline and the apnea.						
Parameter	Baseline	Apnea	p-value			
SBP (mmHg)	115 ± 11	120 ± 12	0.01			
DBP (mmHg)	59 ± 9	61 ± 11	0.1			
MBP (mmHg)	79 ± 10	82 ± 13	0.1			
HR (bpm)	65 ± 7	67 ± 11	0.2			
SatO ₂ (%)	97 ± 2	96 ± 4	0.02			
ETCO2 (mmHg)	40 ± 3	42 ± 5	0.1			
BF (burst/min)	18.9 ± 9.9	28.4 ± 10.6	0.002			
tMSNA (AU/min)	46.7 [28.8; 63.8]	84.0 [59.9; 184.5]	0.001			
SBP, systolic blood pressure (mmHg); DBP, diastolic blood pressure (mmHg); MBP, mean blood pressure (mmHg); PP, pulse pressure (mmHg); HR, heart rate (bpm); SatO ₂ , oxygen saturation (%); ETCO ₂ , end-tidal CO (mmHg) ₂ ; BF, burst frequency (burst/min); tMSNA, total MSNA activity (AU/min). Data are presented as mean ± SD						

or median [P25; P75] according to data distribution.

- 313
- 314 Oxygen saturation decreases during the apnea compared to baseline (p=0.02). SBP increases
- 315 during the apnea compared to baseline (p=0.01). MSNA activity rises from baseline to apnea as
- 316 well (*p*=0.002; *p*=0.001 for BF and tMSNA, respectively).
- 317 In table 2, the apnea has been divided in three equal epochs (1/3 apnea, 2/3 apnea, 3/3 apnea) and
- 318 results are presented according to the phase.

Table 2. Modifications of metrics of MSNA activity, <i>i</i> K of SCG and BCG from baseline to the end of the apnea.						
Parameters	Baseline	1/3 apnea	2/3 apnea	3/3 apnea	p_{ALL}	
BF (burst/min)	18.9 ± 9.9	23.9 ± 21.7	26.2 ±16.2	37.3 ± 18.0	0.02	
tMSNA (AU/min)	46.7 [28.8; 63,8]	57.8 [10.6; 137.9]	76.5 [30.5; 182.3]	128.7 [70.3; 308.5]	0.01	
iK ^{SCG} (μJ.s)	100 [80; 100]	100 [60; 180]	110[70; 190]	110[80; 190]	0.46	
<i>iK^{SCG}(</i> nJ.s)	0.9 [0.5; 1.3]	0.9 [0.5; 1.3]	1.1 [0.6; 1.8]	1.1 [0.4; 1.9]	0.12	
$iK_{Lin}^{\mathrm{BCG}}\left(\mu\mathrm{J.s}\right)$	7.6 [5.5; 12.5]	8.8 [7.0; 1400]	200 [6.7; 1600]	9.3 [6.5; 1500]	0.03	
iK_{Rot}^{BCG} (µJ.s)	2.9 [1.5; 4.5]	3.6 [3.0; 4.7]	3.4 [2.9; 5.3]	3.3 [2.9; 5.2]	0.0005	

BF, burst frequency (burst/min); tMSNA, total MSNA activity (AU/min); iK_{Lin}^{SCG} (µJ.s) and iK_{Rot}^{SCG} (nJ.s), integral of kinetic energy of the SCG in the linear and rotational dimension, respectively; iK_{Lin}^{BCG} (µJ.s) and iK_{Rot}^{BCG} (µJ.s) integral of kinetic energy of the BCG in the linear and rotational dimension, respectively;

Data are presented as mean ± SD or median and [P25; P75] according to data distribution.

321 Sympathetic activity changes progressively throughout the apnea, with a rise of the BF and 322 tMSNA from baseline to the end of the apnea (p=0.02, p=0.01, respectively, table 2). According to 323 multiple comparison analysis, BF increased by 97% from baseline to the last third of apnea, 324 (p=0.003). tMSNA increased by 64% and 176% from baseline to the second and to last third of the 325 apnea (p=0.04, p=0.005, respectively).

326 With regards to the SCG, the *i*K did not change during the apnea, neither in the linear nor in the 327 rotational dimension. With regards to the BCG, the *i*K changed significantly in both dimensions 328 (p=0.03, p=0.0005 for the linear and rotational dimension, respectively). In particular, when considering multiple comparisons, iK_{Lin}^{BCG} increased by 58% from baseline to the second third of the 329 apnea (p=0.02). In the rotational dimension, iK_{Rot}^{BCG} increased by 20% from baseline to the first third 330 331 of the apnea (p=0.02). Figure 2 displays a representative example of modifications of MSNA along 332 with kinetic energy of BCG during a maximal end-expiratory apnea. 333 In table 3, correlations between changes of MSNA parameters and changes of *i*K during the apnea, 334 both expressed in %, are reported. Particularly, the differences between: BSL and 1/3 apnea; BSL

- and 2/3 apnea; BSL and 3/3 apnea have been normalized for the baseline for each variable and
- and expressed in %.

Table 3. C	Correlation analysis of Δi K of	BCG and SCG with ΔBF	and ∆tMSNA for each epo	och of apnea.
N = 16	$\Delta i \mathbf{K}_{Lin} \operatorname{BCG}$	∆ <i>i</i> K _{Rot} BCG	∆ <i>i</i> K _{Lin} SCG	$\Delta i \mathbf{K}_{Rot} \operatorname{SCG}$
		BSL and 1/3 apnea		
Δ tMSNA	r = 0.13, p = 0.65	r = 0.009, p = 0.94	r = -0.02, p = 0.95	r = -0.06, p = 0.83
$\Delta \mathbf{BF}$	r = -0.003, p = 0.97	r = 0.01, p = 0.97	r = -0.13, p = 0.65	r = 0.008, p = 0.98
		BSL and 2/3 apnea		
Δ tMSNA	r = 0.45, p = 0.055	r = 0.09, p = 0.73	r = 0.44, p = 0.09*	r = -0.25, p = 0.34*
$\Delta \mathbf{BF}$	r = 0.52, p = 0.04	r = 0.18, p = 0.52	r = 0.51, p = 0.04*	r = -0.22, p = 0.41*
		BSL and 3/3 apnea		
Δ tMSNA	r = 0.85, p < 0.0001	r = -0.17, p =0.95	r = 0.62, p = 0.01	r = 0.06, p = 0.08
Δ BF	r = 0.72, p = 0.002	r = -0.03, p = 0.93	r = 0.49, p = 0.06	r = 0.14, p = 0.62

Pearson's correlation of $\Delta i K$ (%) of BCG and SCG with Δt MSNA and ΔBF (%). The differences (Δ) between: BSL and the 1/3 of apnea; BSL and the 3/3 of apnea have been normalized for the BSL and are expressed in %. BCG, ballistocardiography; SCG, seismocardiography; BF, burst frequency; $i K_{Lin}$ and $i K_{Rot}$, linear and rotational kinetic energies, respectively; tMSNA, total muscular sympathetic nerve activity. * Spearman correlation.

Ballistocardiography, seismocardiography and sympathetic nerve activity

339	When considering the difference of tMSNA and BF between BSL and the first third of apnea, no
340	correlations were found with the corresponding difference of <i>i</i> K. When the difference between BSL
341	and the second third of apnea is considered for each variable, $\Delta i K_{Lin}$ of BCG and SCG are mildly
342	related to the ΔBF (0.51 < r < 0.52, both <i>p</i> =0.04). When the difference between BSL and the last third
343	of apnea is considered for each variable, strong correlations were found between $\Delta i K_{Lin}$ of BCG
344	and Δ tMSNA and Δ BF (r = 0.85, <i>p</i> <0.0001; r = 0.72, <i>p</i> = 0.002, respectively) and between $\Delta i K_{Lin}$ of
345	SCG and Δ tMSNA (r = 0.62, <i>p</i> = 0.01).
346	Results of correlations between <i>i</i> K metrics and MSNA parameters for the last third of the apnea are

347 reported in figure 3. In this figure, the point with the highest tMSNA value is not an outlier and

348 corresponds to a subject which presented a striking rise in MSNA during the apnea (figure 2).

Ballistocardiography, seismocardiography and sympathetic nerve activity

Ballistocardiography, seismocardiography and sympathetic nerve activity

351 **DISCUSSION**

352

353 We report for the first time the direct evidence of a positive relation between changes of 354 cardiac kinetic energy, computed from BCG and SCG signals, and changes of sympathetic activity 355 assessed by direct intra neural recordings of sympathetic nerve traffic, during a maximal voluntary 356 end-expiratory apnea, especially at the end of the apnea compared to normal breathing. Indeed, 357 while at the beginning of the apnea changes of sympathetic activity, expressed in %, were not 358 related to any of the changes of iK parameters, expressed in % as well, at the end of the apnea 359 changes of sympathetic activity were strongly related to changes of *i*K parameters, particularly the 360 *i*K of BCG in the linear dimension. These results lead authors to believe that there is a link between 361 the increased sympathetic activity and the cardiac kinetic energy, in particular when activation of 362 SNS is stronger, as it is the case at the end of a sustained apnea. Additionally, the linear cardiac 363 kinetic energy, rather than the rotational one, computed from the BCG seems to better correlate 364 with sympathetic activity. Based on this finding, authors speculate that the linear kinetic energy, 365 rather than the rotational one, may provide information on the myocardial contractility status in 366 this restricted context of SNS overactivity.

We have previously highlighted the potential of BCG and SCG in providing reliable information on cardiac function (18, 35): metrics of *i*K can follow changes in cardiac contractility under dobutamine stimulation and are related to SV and CO (18).

Because of the close connection between the respiratory and cardiovascular systems, metrics of *i*K secured from BCG and SCG waveforms profoundly change in relation to specific respiratory events (33, 34). As previously demonstrated (34), the kinetic energy produced by cardiac contraction during inspiration is higher than the one during expiration and, during a 10 seconds length end-expiratory apnea, is higher compared to normal breathing and it increases progressively from the beginning to the end of the apnea.

Results from the present investigation confirm those of the previous ones and add the novelty that
the modifications of the cardiac kinetic energy observed during the apnea may be related to the
MSNA activity.

379 The diving reflex, or response, is a set of physiological adaptations in response to 380 immersion and triggered by breath holding (13, 28), which primary role is to relocate oxygenated 381 blood to hypoxic sensitive tissues, heart and brain first (1, 12). The physiological patterns involved 382 in the diving response are bradycardia, increased secretion of adrenal catecholamines and 383 peripheral and visceral capillary bed vasoconstriction, the latter is the primary event occurring 384 during the diving response (11) as a result of increased sympathetic outflow to the periphery (12). 385 Even if the diving response can be triggered solely by respiratory arrest (12, 24), hypoxia (24, 27, 386 29, 46, 63, 69) and hypercapnia (24, 39, 55, 69) are additional potent stimuli to further booster the 387 sympathetic outflow. Consequences of sympathetic overactivity during the diving response are 388 increased vascular resistance (17, 27), increased blood pressure (17, 27) and reflex bradycardia (1, 389 56). However, in the present investigation we, as other predecessors (4, 10, 17, 40, 60) did not 390 observe any bradycardia.

Breath holding profoundly changes not only peripheral vascular function but influence also
cardiac functions and morphology (5, 10, 43). During prolonged end-expiratory apnea, increased
left ventricular end-diastolic and end-systolic volume (LVEDV, LVESV, respectively) (5, 10, 43),
along with a rise of SV (10, 43) and CO (5, 43) and relocation of blood flow into the ascending aorta
(10), occur.

Acknowledged that the *i*K of BCG and SCG is an indirect measure of SV and CO (18) the increased *i*K, observed mainly during the end of the apnea, may reflect the positive cardiac inotropism and the increased of SV, CO along with the relocation of blood flow into the ascending aorta, even if not directly measured, as a consequence of increased sympathetic outputs and cardiovascular adaptations occurring during the diving response. The association between changes of *i*K and changes of MSNA parameters is more evident at the end of the apnea compared

402 to normal breathing and sympathetic activity seems to be stronger related to the kinetic energy of 403 BCG rather than the one of SCG, likely due to the better estimation of SV and CO with the BCG 404 than with the SCG, as previously demonstrated (18). Indeed, the BCG signal is generated by the 405 recoil forces generated by cardiac contraction and blood flow ejection acting on the vasculature of 406 the main vessels at each heartbeat (54). Since the SV is the amount of blood ejected into the 407 vasculature at each cardiac contraction, and the CO is the SV per unit of time, the metrics secured 408 from BCG are better related to SV and CO than the SCG as previously reported (18). Another 409 possible explanation of this discrepancy between the BCG and SCG is that, since the resultant SCG 410 signal is generated by several physiologic phenomena including not only cardiac contraction, but 411 also heart valves closure and opening, blood turbulence, momentum changes (57), the sum of 412 these phenomena other than cardiac contraction only, may be responsible for the weaker 413 correlation with the MSNA activity observed.

414 A number of home sleep apnea testing (HAST) are nowadays available to meet the 415 increasing demand of sleep apnea disordered monitoring (26, 42). HAST have been developed for 416 years and they include a large spectrum of devices, as oxygen saturation, heart rate, oral/nasal 417 outflow, respiratory effort, body position detectors (32) and also contactless technologies for 418 detection of respiration, body movements, heart beats (38, 42). Cardiovascular parameters as blood 419 pressure and stroke volume can be monitored during sleep continuously through finger 420 photoplethysmography, but the pressure applied to the finger is not comfortable for the patients, 421 thus hampering the compliance to the device (42). The novelty of the modern BCG and SCG 422 described in this paper is that they can quantitatively estimate the « strength » or « weakness »of 423 the cardiac muscle, expressed in term of kinetic energy, during an apneic episode, thus adding 424 complementary values to the already existing technology for sleep disturbances 425 diagnosis/monitoring. This technology is non intrusive, can be remotely controlled and measures 426 of iK can be computed automatically. With this information before us, modern BCG and SCG 427 should be seen not as competitors to the already exiting devices for home sleep monitoring, but

428 complementary to them, for this technology has the potential to provide new insights on the429 cardiovascular system.

Our new observation that there is a link between BCG/SCG metrics and intraneural
changes in sympathetic activity during apneas suggests that this technology may prove useful for
the diagnosis or the follow-up of respiratory-related sleep disturbances in further studies.

However, before this can be tested, there are still important technical challenges ahead. To name a
few, the artefacts generated by body movements on the BCG and SCG signals may prove
challenging. Displacement of the BCG and SCG recorders during sleep is another possible pitfall.
Last, the management of the sustained data flow generated by an overnight BCG and SCG
recording might represent another hurdle.

438

439 Limitations

440 The sample size was small and counted only 28 volunteers of which 10 had to be ruled out 441 because of technical difficulties in locating the peroneal nerve during the experimental procedure. 442 The microneurography is a demanding technique, where the active needle inserted in the 443 implanted nerve is freely floating into the subdermal tissues, making an eventual stabilization 444 impossible (59, 67). The loss of the neurogram after nerve identification was thus frequent, 445 explaining the high rate of lost neurograms (35%). The small sample size may hamper the 446 correlation analysis between iK and MSNA parameters and the subsequent interpretation of 447 results.

448

Another limitation to note is the interpretation of the neurogram, which is a subjective procedure. To choose the apnea to be analyzed and to make the interpretation of the neurogram less subjective, we closely followed the standards described in (67): a steady baseline without fluctuations; bursts clearly visible above the baseline noise; a steady baseline noise amplitude all over the selected region. 454

455 Another important limitation to consider is the duration of the apnea and the subsequent 456 MSNA analysis and interpretation. Indeed, as explained in (37), the reliability of MSNA depends 457 on the durations of the selected time window and loss of reliability is observed for epochs below 458 15 seconds length. In the present investigation, while the baseline mean duration is of 50 seconds, 459 the apnea duration widely varies, for it was submitted to the subject capability of breath holding. 460 Imposing a 45 seconds length apnea, in order to have threes equal epochs of 15s length, to non-461 trained volunteers was not feasible and probably not ethically correct. For these reasons we asked 462 the participant to perform a sustained end-expiratory apnea at the best of his capacities. 463 Additionally, even if for epochs below 15s MSNA may lose validity and reliability, it should be 464 noted that in the real clinical setting, the duration of an apneic episode varies much in the same 465 subject with important cardiovascular consequences (2, 68). This means that in the real clinical 466 setting, apneic episodes as short as 15s or shorter should be consider as they may have 467 cardiovascular consequences. Additionally, MSNA analysis have already been performed on 468 apnea episodes shorter than 15 seconds (49, 50).

469

Analysis of spectral components of MSNA has not been performed in the present investigation. Indeed, to perform a spectral analysis, long and steady state periods are required, which was not the case in this study, as each part of the apnea lasted few seconds. Additionally, during the apnea, the high frequency (HF) component is lost at some extent, making the LF/HF analysis more trivial to analyze (60). The relationship between kinetic energy and spectral components of MSNA is a topic of great interest and should be the object of another study under different experimental conditions.

We did not measure directly arterial gases pressures, pO_2 and pCO_2 , so we could not directly evoke hypoxia and/or hypercapnia as trigger factors for sympathetic tone activation. However, SatO₂ is widely used as surrogate for arterial oxygen saturation (3, 25) and it reliably estimates arterial saturation for values above 75% (7).

482

483 We did not perform echocardiography to measure cardiac parameters as well as cardiac 484 chambers volume, SV, and CO. These parameters have been indirectly invoked to explain changes 485 in *i*K based on previous findings (18). In mitigation however, to achieve an acceptable 486 echocardiographic window, the subjects would have been asked to move from a dorsal 487 recumbence to a semi lateral supine position. Such a displacement has a very high likelihood to 488 displace the microneurographic electrode. Last, the pressure of the echocardiographic probe on the 489 thoracic wall would have jeopardized the BCG and SCG signals. These technical limitations 490 explain that echocardiographic parameters were not foreseen in the study design.

491

492 The present investigation is a pilot study including exclusively healthy man to test the 493 hypothesis on whether increased cardiac kinetic energy as computed from the BCG and SCG 494 signals might be linked to sympathetic tone activation during an end-expiratory apnea. Further 495 studies are needed to confirm the causal-effect relationship between variations of cardiac kinetic 496 energy and the autonomic nervous system in different setups. For example, it should be 497 investigated the relationship between sympathetic activity and cardiac kinetic energies in a context 498 of chronic heart failure, where the autonomic system is profoundly impaired with a shift to 499 sympathetic over activity (30, 61); disruption of the autonomic balance is observed also in 500 obstructive sleep apnea syndrome, with an increased sympathetic activity (49) and it would be 501 interesting to analyze the relationship between cardiac kinetic energies and sympathetic activity in 502 these conditions.

504 Conclusions

505 During a maximal voluntary end-expiratory apnea, the iK computed from the BCG and SCG 506 signals increased compared to normal respiration. The novelty of the present investigation is that 507 the increased cardiac kinetic energy is linked to the overactivity of sympathetic nervous system, 508 especially at the end of a sustained end-expiratory apnea, likely reflecting the rise of SV and CO 509 and the positive cardiac inotropism secondary to the increased sympathetic outputs occurring 510 during the diving response.

511

512

PERSPECTIVES AND SIGNIFICANCE

513 Modern multi-dimensional ballistocardiography and seismocardiography can provide new 514 insights to the cardiovascular system through the window of micro-accelerations, by computing 515 the kinetic energy produced by the cardiac muscle during a contractile cycle. This renewed 516 technology may complement the existing ones for the evaluation of cardiovascular system, by 517 providing information on the contractility status of the cardiac muscle beat-by-beat. In this light, 518 while it is well acknowledged that during an apneic episode the sympathetic activity rises with a 519 shift of the autonomic balance towards the sympathetic arm, less is now about changes of cardiac 520 contractility during the apnea. This technology revealed that along with the surge of sympathetic 521 activity, also the cardiac kinetic energy rises during prolonged breath holding and that this surge 522 is linked to the sympathetic overactivity. These findings may be extended to several 523 cardiovascular diseases characterized by an imbalance of the autonomic system, as chronic heart 524 failure and obstructive sleep apnea, in order to study the relationship between cardiac kinetic 525 energies and sympathetic activity in these conditions.

526

527 Authors contributions

528 A.G. J-B.P.W. and P.V.D.B. conceived the idea and the design of the study. S.M. and A.G. 529 carried out the whole experimental procedure, from the recruitment of volunteers to 530 conducting the experimental session. S.M. had full access to all data in the present investigation

- 531 and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis. Ju.R.
- performed statistical analysis. A.H. provided the technical support for the correct extrapolation of all the metrics from SCG and BCG. S.M. drafted the manuscript. A.G., A.H., J.R., D.G.,
- 534 P.F.M., and P.V.D.B. revised the manuscript critically for important intellectual content. All the
- authors proofread and made corrections to this manuscript.
- 536

537 Acknowledgements

538 The authors would like to acknowledge the contribution of the volunteers and staff members of 539 the Cardiology Department of the Erasme-Hospital. Authors thank the "Fonds Erasme" 540 foundation and the "Fonds National pour la Recherche Scientifique (FNRS)" for the financial 541 support of the present investigation.

542

543 Sources of Fundings

544 This work was supported by the "Fonds Erasme pour le Recherche Médicale" (S.M.); by "le fond 545 Biowin, The health cluster of Wallonia" (A.G. J-B.P.W.); by the "FNRS, Fonds National pour la

- 546 Recherche Scientifique", Fédération Wallonie Bruxelles, Belgium (S.M., J.R.), by a grant from the
- 547 European Space Agency and the Belgian Federal Scientific Policy Office (PRODEX PEA
- 548 4000110826) (A.H., P.F.M).
- 549

550 **Conflict of interests**

551 P-F. Migeotte, D. Gorlier and A. Hossein declare having direct ownership of shares in Healthcare

552 Company.

553 **REFERENCES**

554 Alboni P, Alboni M, and Gianfranchi L. Diving bradycardia: a mechanism of defence against 1. 555 hypoxic damage. J Cardiovasc Med (Hagerstown) 12: 422-427, 2011. 556 Alex R, Manchikatla S, Machiraju K, Altuwaijri E, Watenpaugh DE, Zhang R, and 2. 557 Behbehani K. Effect of apnea duration on apnea induced variations in cerebral blood flow velocity 558 and arterial blood pressure. Conf Proc IEEE Eng Med Biol Soc 2014: 270-273, 2014. 559 Ascha M, Bhattacharyya A, Ramos JA, and Tonelli AR. Pulse Oximetry and Arterial Oxygen 3. 560 Saturation during Cardiopulmonary Exercise Testing. Med Sci Sports Exerc 50: 1992-1997, 2018. 561 Badra LJ, Cooke WH, Hoag JB, Crossman AA, Kuusela TA, Tahvanainen KU, and Eckberg 4. 562 **DL**. Respiratory modulation of human autonomic rhythms. Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol 280: 563 H2674-2688, 2001. 564 5. Batinic T, Utz W, Breskovic T, Jordan J, Schulz-Menger J, Jankovic S, Dujic Z, and Tank J. 565 Cardiac magnetic resonance imaging during pulmonary hyperinflation in apnea divers. Med Sci 566 Sports Exerc 43: 2095-2101, 2011. 567 Calvo M BJ, Le Rolle V, Lemonnier M, Yasuda S, Oosterlinck W, Hernandez A. . Evaluation 6. 568 of Three-Dimensional Accelerometers for the Study of Left Ventricular Contractility. In: Computing 569 in Cardiology Conference (CinC). Maastricht, Netherlands: IEEE, 2018.

- 570 7. **Chapman KR, Liu FL, Watson RM, and Rebuck AS**. Range of accuracy of two wavelength 571 oximetry. *Chest* 89: 540-542, 1986.
- 5728.De Lalla V, Jr., and Brown HR, Jr. Respiratory variation of the ballistocardiogram. Am J Med5739: 728-733, 1950.
- 574 9. Desruelles J MJ, Debacker G. Seminar on Ballistocardiography. Practical Value of the
 575 Ballistocardiogram in Myocardial Infarction. *Am J Cardiol* 3: 236-241, 1959.
- 576 10. Eichhorn L, Doerner J, Luetkens JA, Lunkenheimer JM, Dolscheid-Pommerich RC,
- 577 Erdfelder F, Fimmers R, Nadal J, Stoffel-Wagner B, Schild HH, Hoeft A, Zur B, and Naehle CP.
- 578 Cardiovascular magnetic resonance assessment of acute cardiovascular effects of voluntary
 579 apnoea in elite divers. *J Cardiovasc Magn Reson* 20: 40, 2018.
- Fagius J, and Sundlof G. The diving response in man: effects on sympathetic activity in
 muscle and skin nerve fascicles. *J Physiol* 377: 429-443, 1986.
- Foster GE, and Sheel AW. The human diving response, its function, and its control. Scand J
 Med Sci Sports 15: 3-12, 2005.
- 584 13. Gooden BA. Mechanism of the human diving response. *Integr Physiol Behav Sci* 29: 6-16,
 585 1994.
- 586 14. Gordan R, Gwathmey JK, and Xie LH. Autonomic and endocrine control of cardiovascular
 587 function. *World J Cardiol* 7: 204-214, 2015.
- 588 15. Guelen I, Westerhof BE, Van Der Sar GL, Van Montfrans GA, Kiemeneij F, Wesseling KH,
- and Bos WJ. Finometer, finger pressure measurements with the possibility to reconstruct brachial
 pressure. *Blood Press Monit* 8: 27-30, 2003.
- 591 16. Gurev V, Tavakolian K, Constantino J, Kaminska B, Blaber AP, and Trayanova NA.
- 592 Mechanisms Underlying Isovolumic Contraction and Ejection Peaks in Seismocardiogram 593 Morphology. *J Med Biol Eng* 32: 103-110, 2012.
- 594 17. Heusser K, Dzamonja G, Tank J, Palada I, Valic Z, Bakovic D, Obad A, Ivancev V, Breskovic
- 595 **T, Diedrich A, Joyner MJ, Luft FC, Jordan J, and Dujic Z**. Cardiovascular regulation during apnea in

696 elite divers. *Hypertension* 53: 719-724, 2009.

- 597 18. Hossein A, Mirica DC, Rabineau J, Rio JID, Morra S, Gorlier D, Nonclercq A, Borne PV, and
- 598 **Migeotte PF**. Accurate Detection of Dobutamine-induced Haemodynamic Changes by Kino-

599 Cardiography: A Randomised Double-Blind Placebo-Controlled Validation Study. Sci Rep 9: 10479. 600 2019. 601 19. Inan OT, Baran Pouyan M, Javaid AQ, Dowling S, Etemadi M, Dorier A, Heller JA, Bicen 602 AO, Roy S, De Marco T, and Klein L. Novel Wearable Seismocardiography and Machine Learning 603 Algorithms Can Assess Clinical Status of Heart Failure Patients. *Circ Heart Fail* 11: e004313, 2018. 604 Inan OT, Migeotte PF, Park KS, Etemadi M, Tavakolian K, Casanella R, Zanetti J, Tank J, 20. 605 Funtova I, Prisk GK, and Di Rienzo M. Ballistocardiography and seismocardiography: a review of 606 recent advances. IEEE J Biomed Health Inform 19: 1414-1427, 2015. 607 21. Izzo JL, Jr., and Taylor AA. The sympathetic nervous system and baroreflexes in 608 hypertension and hypotension. *Curr Hypertens Rep* 1: 254-263, 1999. 609 22. Jafari Tadi M, Lehtonen E, Saraste A, Tuominen J, Koskinen J, Teras M, Airaksinen J, 610 Pankaala M, and Koivisto T. Gyrocardiography: A New Non-invasive Monitoring Method for the 611 Assessment of Cardiac Mechanics and the Estimation of Hemodynamic Variables. Sci Rep 7: 6823, 612 2017. 613 23. Johnson CD, Roe S, and Tansey EA. Investigating autonomic control of the cardiovascular 614 system: a battery of simple tests. Adv Physiol Educ 37: 401-404, 2013. 615 24. Jouett NP, Watenpaugh DE, Dunlap ME, and Smith ML. Interactive effects of hypoxia, 616 hypercapnia and lung volume on sympathetic nerve activity in humans. *Exp Physiol* 100: 1018-617 1029, 2015. 618 25. Kackmarek RK SJ, Heuer AJ. . Analysis and Monitoring of GAs Exchange. In: Egan's 619 Fundamental of Respiratory Care, edited by Mosby2012, p. 398. 620 26. Kapur VK, Auckley DH, Chowdhuri S, Kuhlmann DC, Mehra R, Ramar K, and Harrod CG. 621 Clinical Practice Guideline for Diagnostic Testing for Adult Obstructive Sleep Apnea: An American 622 Academy of Sleep Medicine Clinical Practice Guideline. J Clin Sleep Med 13: 479-504, 2017. 623 27. Leuenberger UA, Hardy JC, Herr MD, Gray KS, and Sinoway LI. Hypoxia augments apnea-624 induced peripheral vasoconstriction in humans. J Appl Physiol (1985) 90: 1516-1522, 2001. 625 28. Lindholm P, and Lundgren CE. The physiology and pathophysiology of human breath-hold 626 diving. J Appl Physiol (1985) 106: 284-292, 2009. 627 Lusina SJ, Kennedy PM, Inglis JT, McKenzie DC, Ayas NT, and Sheel AW. Long-term 29. 628 intermittent hypoxia increases sympathetic activity and chemosensitivity during acute hypoxia in 629 humans. J Physiol 575: 961-970, 2006. 630 Mark AL. Sympathetic dysregulation in heart failure: mechanisms and therapy. *Clin Cardiol* 30. 631 18: 13-8, 1995. 632 31. Migeotte PF, Mucci V., Delière Q., Lejeune L., van de Borne P. Multi-dimensional 633 Kinetocardiography a New Approach for Wearable Cardiac Monitoring Through Body Acceleration 634 Recordings. XIV Mediterranean Conference on Medical and Biological Engineering and Computing 635 1125-1130, 2016. 636 32. Miller JN, Schulz P, Pozehl B, Fiedler D, Fial A, and Berger AM. Methodological strategies 637 in using home sleep apnea testing in research and practice. *Sleep Breath* 22: 569-577, 2018. 638 33. Morra S, Hossein A, Gorlier D, Rabineau J, Chaumont M, Migeotte PF, and van de Borne 639 P. Ballistocardiography and Seismocardiography detect hemodynamic changes during simulated 640 obstructive apnea. Physiol Meas 2020. 641 34. Morra S, Hossein A, Gorlier D, Rabineau J, Chaumont M, Migeotte PF, and van de Borne 642 P. Modification of the mechanical cardiac performance during end-expiratory voluntary apnea 643 recorded with ballistocardiography and seismocardiography. *Physiol Meas* 40: 105005, 2019. 644 35. Morra S. and Hossein A. RJ, Gorlier D., Racape J., Migeotte PF., van de Borne P. Left 645 ventricle mechanical function assessed by ballistocardiography and seismocardiography in a

646 context of enhanced inotropism in healthy subjects: a comparison with standard and 2D STI 647 echocardiography. . Submitted for publication 2020. 648 Moser M, Pordy L, Chesky K, Taymor RC, and Master AM. The ballistocardiogram in 36. 649 myocardial infarction: a study of one hundred cases. *Circulation* 6: 402-407, 1952. 650 37. Notay K, Seed JD, Incognito AV, Doherty CJ, Nardone M, Burns MJ, and Millar PJ. Validity 651 and reliability of measuring resting muscle sympathetic nerve activity using short sampling 652 durations in healthy humans. J Appl Physiol (1985) 121: 1065-1073, 2016. 653 38. O'Hare E, Flanagan D, Penzel T, Garcia C, Frohberg D, and Heneghan C. A comparison of 654 radio-frequency biomotion sensors and actigraphy versus polysomnography for the assessment of 655 sleep in normal subjects. Sleep Breath 19: 91-98, 2015. 656 Oikawa S, Hirakawa H, Kusakabe T, Nakashima Y, and Hayashida Y. Autonomic 39. 657 cardiovascular responses to hypercapnia in conscious rats: the roles of the chemo- and 658 baroreceptors. Auton Neurosci 117: 105-114, 2005. 659 Palada I, Bakovic D, Valic Z, Obad A, Ivancev V, Eterovic D, Shoemaker JK, and Dujic Z. 40. 660 Restoration of hemodynamics in apnea struggle phase in association with involuntary breathing 661 movements. Respir Physiol Neurobiol 161: 174-181, 2008. 662 41. Parish JM, and Somers VK. Obstructive sleep apnea and cardiovascular disease. Mayo Clin 663 Proc 79: 1036-1046, 2004. 664 42. Penzel T, Schobel C, and Fietze I. New technology to assess sleep apnea: wearables, 665 smartphones, and accessories. F1000Res 7: 413, 2018. 666 Pingitore A, Gemignani A, Menicucci D, Di Bella G, De Marchi D, Passera M, Bedini R, 43. 667 Ghelarducci B, and L'Abbate A. Cardiovascular response to acute hypoxemia induced by 668 prolonged breath holding in air. Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol 294: H449-455, 2008. 669 Polo O, Tafti M, Hamalainen M, Vaahtoranta K, and Alihanka J. Respiratory variation of 44. 670 the ballistocardiogram during increased respiratory load and voluntary central apnoea. Eur Respir J 671 5: 257-262, 1992. 672 45. Prabhakar NR, and Kumar GK. Mechanisms of sympathetic activation and blood pressure 673 elevation by intermittent hypoxia. Respir Physiol Neurobiol 174: 156-161, 2010. 674 46. Saito M, Mano T, Iwase S, Koga K, Abe H, and Yamazaki Y. Responses in muscle 675 sympathetic activity to acute hypoxia in humans. J Appl Physiol (1985) 65: 1548-1552, 1988. 676 47. Seitz MJ, Brown R, and Macefield VG. Inhibition of augmented muscle vasoconstrictor 677 drive following asphyxic apnoea in awake human subjects is not affected by relief of chemical drive. Exp Physiol 98: 405-414, 2013. 678 679 48. Shimizu T, Takahashi Y, Kogawa S, Takahashi K, Kanbayashi T, Saito Y, and Hishikawa Y. 680 Muscle sympathetic nerve activity during apneic episodes in patients with obstructive sleep apnea 681 syndrome. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 93: 345-352, 1994. 682 Somers VK, Dyken ME, Clary MP, and Abboud FM. Sympathetic neural mechanisms in 49. 683 obstructive sleep apnea. J Clin Invest 96: 1897-1904, 1995. 684 Somers VK, Dyken ME, and Skinner JL. Autonomic and hemodynamic responses and 50. 685 interactions during the Mueller maneuver in humans. J Auton Nerv Syst 44: 253-259, 1993. 686 51. Somers VK, Mark AL, Zavala DC, and Abboud FM. Contrasting effects of hypoxia and 687 hypercapnia on ventilation and sympathetic activity in humans. J Appl Physiol (1985) 67: 2101-688 2106, 1989. 689 52. Starr I. The relation of the ballistocardiogram to cardiac function. Am J Cardiol 2: 737-747, 690 1958. 691 Starr I, and Friedland CK. On the Cause of the Respiratory Variation of the 53.

692 Ballistocardiogram, with a Note on Sinus Arrhythmia. *J Clin Invest* 25: 53-64, 1946.

693 54. Starr I. NA. Ballistocardiography in Cardiovascular Research. Physical aspects of the 694 circulation in health and disease. 1967. 695 Steinback CD, Salzer D, Medeiros PJ, Kowalchuk J, and Shoemaker JK. Hypercapnic vs. 55. 696 hypoxic control of cardiovascular, cardiovagal, and sympathetic function. Am J Physiol Regul Integr 697 Comp Physiol 296: R402-410, 2009. 698 Stromme SB, Kerem D, and Elsner R. Diving bradycardia during rest and exercise and its 56. 699 relation to physical fitness. J Appl Physiol 28: 614-621, 1970. 700 57. Taebi A SB, Bomar AJ, Sandler RH, Mansy HA. Recent Advance in Seismocardiography. 701 Vibration 2: 64-86, 2019. 702 58. Tavakolian K, Portacio G, Tamddondoust NR, Jahns G, Ngai B, Dumont GA, and Blaber AP. 703 Myocardial contractility: a seismocardiography approach. Conf Proc IEEE Eng Med Biol Soc 2012: 704 3801-3804, 2012. 705 59. Vallbo AB. Microneurography: how it started and how it works. J Neurophysiol 120: 1415-706 1427, 2018. 707 60. Van De Borne P, Montano N, Narkiewicz K, Degaute JP, Malliani A, Pagani M, and Somers 708 VK. Importance of ventilation in modulating interaction between sympathetic drive and 709 cardiovascular variability. Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol 280: H722-729, 2001. 710 61. van de Borne P, Montano N, Pagani M, Oren R, and Somers VK. Absence of low-frequency 711 variability of sympathetic nerve activity in severe heart failure. *Circulation* 95: 1449-1454, 1997. 712 62. van De Borne P, Neubauer J, Rahnama M, Jansens JL, Montano N, Porta A, Somers VK, 713 and Degaute JP. Differential characteristics of neural circulatory control: early versus late after 714 cardiac transplantation. Circulation 104: 1809-1813, 2001. 715 van de Borne P, Oren R, Anderson EA, Mark AL, and Somers VK. Tonic chemoreflex 63. 716 activation does not contribute to elevated muscle sympathetic nerve activity in heart failure. 717 *Circulation* 94: 1325-1328, 1996. 718 64. van de Borne P, Rahnama M, Mezzetti S, Montano N, Porta A, Degaute JP, and Somers 719 VK. Contrasting effects of phentolamine and nitroprusside on neural and cardiovascular variability. 720 Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol 281: H559-565, 2001. 721 Velez-Roa S, Ciarka A, Najem B, Vachiery JL, Naeije R, and van de Borne P. Increased 65. 722 sympathetic nerve activity in pulmonary artery hypertension. *Circulation* 110: 1308-1312, 2004. 723 Wehrwein EA, Orer HS, and Barman SM. Overview of the Anatomy, Physiology, and 66. 724 Pharmacology of the Autonomic Nervous System. Compr Physiol 6: 1239-1278, 2016. 725 White DW, Shoemaker JK, and Raven PB. Methods and considerations for the analysis and 67. 726 standardization of assessing muscle sympathetic nerve activity in humans. Auton Neurosci 193: 12-727 21, 2015. 728 68. Wu H, Zhan X, Zhao M, and Wei Y. Mean apnea-hypopnea duration (but not apnea-729 hypopnea index) is associated with worse hypertension in patients with obstructive sleep apnea. 730 Medicine (Baltimore) 95: e5493, 2016. 731 Xie A, Skatrud JB, Puleo DS, and Morgan BJ. Exposure to hypoxia produces long-lasting 69.

- r32 sympathetic activation in humans. *J Appl Physiol (1985)* 91: 1555-1562, 2001.
- 733



Figure 1. Tolbox written in Matlab (Mathwork® version 2019b) for the manual identification of BCG and SCG signals (panel A) and automatic computation of *K* (panel B). Panel A: manual selection of the temporal window of consecutive beats. The beats sampled in the selected temporal region were identified based on the automatic identification of the peak ECG-R wave. From top to bottom: ECG; KE of SCG in the linear dimension; KE of SCG in the rotational dimension; KE of BCG in the linear dimension; KE of SCG in the rotational dimension. Panel B: ensemble averaging (EA) of *K* of the selected consecutive beats over the selected temporal window. From top to bottom: EA of ECG; EA of *K* of SCG in the linear dimension; EA of *K* of SCG in the rotational dimension; EA of *K* of BCG in the linear dimension; EA of *K* of SCG in the rotational dimension; EA of *K* of BCG in the rotational dimension.

KE, kinetic energy; *K*, integral of kinetic energy; EA, ensemble averaging; BCG, ballistocardiography; SCG sesimocardiography.





At the beginning of the apnea, there is a suppression of the sympathetic nerve activity without discernable bursts along with mild cardiac kinetic energy recorded with the BCG both in the linear and the rotational dimension. HR accelerates compared to normal respiration and systolic blood pressure slightly falls. Towards the end of the apnea, a marked rise in the sympathetic nerve activity is observed, characterized by an increase of BF and tMSNA and this is accompanied by a marked increase of linear and rotational kinetic energy. HR slows and systolic blood pressure rises compared to the beginning of the apnea.

MSNA, muscle sympathetic nerve activity; BP, blood pressure; HR, heart rate; KLin, kinetic energy in the linear dimension; KRot, integral of kinetic energy in the rotational dimension; BF, burst frequency (burst/min); tMSNA, total muscle sympathetic nerve activity; BCG, ballistocardiography.



Figure 3. Correlation between Δi K (%) of BCG and SCG and Δt MSNA (%). Δ is the difference between BSL and the last third of the apnea. A) Correlation of Δi KLin of BCG and Δt MSNA activity ; B) Correlation of Δi KLin of SCG and Δt MSNA activity ; C) Δi KLin of BCG and ΔBF ; D) Δi KLin of SCG and ΔBF .

The point with the highest tMSNA value is not an outlier and corresponds to a subject which presented a striking rise in MSNA during the apnea. It has been calculated a BF of 48.3 burst/min and a mean burst amplitude of 6.74 AU during the last third of the apnea (tMSNA=325.5 AU/min), compared to the BSL, where the BF was of 6.8 burst/min and the mean burst amplitude of 2.1 AU (tMSNA=14.9 AU/min). MSNA activity, along with cardiac kinetic energy, for this subject is shown in figure 2.

BCG, ballistocardiography; BF, burst frequency; *K*Lin, linear kinetic energy; tMSNA, total muscular sympathetic nerve activity.

Table 1. Modifications of hemodynamic parameters along with metrics of MSNA activity during the baseline and the apnea.						
Parameter	Baseline	Apnea	p-value			
SBP (mmHg)	115 ± 11	120 ± 12	0.01			
DBP (mmHg)	59 ± 9	61 ± 11	0.1			
MBP (mmHg)	79 ± 10	82 ± 13	0.1			
HR (bpm)	65 ± 7	67 ± 11	0.2			
SatO ₂ (%)	97 ± 2	96 ± 4	0.02			
ETCO ₂ (mmHg)	40 ± 3	42 ± 5	0.1			
BF (burst/min)	18.9 ± 9.9	28.4 ± 10.6	0.002			
tMSNA (AU/min)	46.7 [28.8; 63.8]	84.0 [59.9; 184.5]	0.001			
SBP, systolic blood pressure (mmHg); DBP, diastolic blood pressure (mmHg); MBP, mean blood pressure (mmHg); PP, pulse pressure (mmHg); HR, heart rate (bpm); SatO ₂ , oxygen saturation (%); ETCO ₂ , end-tidal CO (mmHg) ₂ ; BF, burst frequency (burst/min); tMSNA, total MSNA activity (AU/min). Data are presented as mean ± SD or median [P25; P75] according to data distribution.						

Table 2. Modifications of metrics of MSNA activity, <i>i</i> K of SCG and BCG from baseline to the end of the apnea.						
Parameters	Baseline	1/3 apnea	2/3 apnea	3/3 apnea	PALL	
BF (burst/min)	18.9 ± 9.9	23.9 ± 21.7	26.2 ±16.2	37.3 ± 18.0	0.02	
tMSNA (AU/min)	46.7 [28.8; 63,8]	57.8 [10.6; 137.9]	76.5 [30.5; 182.3]	128.7 [70.3; 308.5]	0.01	
iK ^{SCG} (μJ.s)	100 [80; 100]	100 [60; 180]	110[70; 190]	110[80; 190]	0.46	
iK ^{SCG} (nJ.s)	0.9 [0.5; 1.3]	0.9 [0.5; 1.3]	1.1 [0.6; 1.8]	1.1 [0.4; 1.9]	0.12	
iK ^{BCG} (μJ.s)	7.6 [5.5; 12.5]	8.8 [7.0; 1400]	200 [6.7; 1600]	9.3 [6.5; 1500]	0.03	
iK ^{BCG} (μJ.s)	2.9 [1.5; 4.5]	3.6 [3.0; 4.7]	3.4 [2.9; 5.3]	3.3 [2.9; 5.2]	0.0005	

BF, burst frequency (burst/min); tMSNA, total MSNA activity (AU/min);

 iK_{Lin}^{SCG} (µJ.s) and iK_{Rot}^{SCG} (nJ.s), integral of kinetic energy of the SCG in the linear and rotational dimension, respectively; iK_{Lin}^{BCG} (µJ.s) and iK_{Rot}^{BCG} (µJ.s) integral of kinetic energy of the BCG in the linear and rotational dimension, respectively;

Data are presented as mean \pm SD or median and [P25; P75] according to data distribution.

Downloaded from journals.physiology.org/journal/ajpregu at Cornell Univ (132.174.252.179) on September 7, 2020.

Table 3. Correlation analysis of Δi K of BCG and SCG with Δ BF and Δ tMSNA for each epoch of apnea.						
N = 16	∆ <i>i</i> K _{Lin} BCG	∆ <i>i</i> K _{Rot} BCG	∆ <i>i</i> K _{Lin} SCG	∆ <i>i</i> K _{Rot} SCG		
		BSL and 1/3 apnea				
Δ tMSNA	r = 0.13, p = 0.65	r = 0.009, p = 0.94	r = -0.02, p = 0.95	r = -0.06, p = 0.83		
$\Delta \mathbf{BF}$	r = -0.003, p = 0.97	r = 0.01, p = 0.97	r = -0.13, p = 0.65	r = 0.008, p = 0.98		
		BSL and 2/3 apnea				
Δ tMSNA	r = 0.45, p = 0.055	r = 0.09, p = 0.73	r = 0.44, p = 0.09*	r = -0.25, p = 0.34*		
Δ BF	r = 0.52, p = 0.04	r = 0.18, p = 0.52	r = 0.51, p = 0.04*	r = -0.22, p = 0.41*		
BSL and 3/3 apnea						
Δ tMSNA	r = 0.85, p < 0.0001	r = -0.17, p =0.95	r = 0.62, p = 0.01	r = 0.06, p = 0.08		
Δ BF	r = 0.72, p = 0.002	r = -0.03, p = 0.93	r = 0.49, p = 0.06	r = 0.14, p = 0.62		
Pearson's correlation of $\Delta i K$ (%) of BCG and SCG with Δt MSNA and ΔBF (%). The differences (Δ) between: BSL and the 1/3 of apnea; BSL and the 2/3 of apnea; BSL and the 3/3 of apnea have been normalized for the BSL and are expressed in %. BCG, ballistocardiography; SCG, seismocardiography; BF, burst frequency; iK_{Lin} and iK_{Rot} , linear and rotational kinetic energies, respectively; tMSNA, total muscular sympathetic nerve activity. * Spearman correlation.						