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Nocturnal R-R Intervals Dips Index Predicts Cardiovascular Mortality and Morbidity in the Wisconsin Sleep Cohort study

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Nocturnal R-R Intervals Dips Index Predicts Cardiovascular Mortality and Morbidity in the Wisconsin Sleep Cohort study

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The acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data: Sankari, Badr, Finn, Maresh,

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Obtained funding: Sankari and Peppard.

Study supervision: Sankari and Peppard.

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ABSTRACT

Rationale: Sleep-disordered breathing (SDB) is strongly linked to adverse cardiovascular outcomes (CVD). Whether heart rate changes measured by nocturnal R-R interval dips (RRDI) adversely affect the CVD outcomes is unknown.

Objectives: To test whether nocturnal RRDI predicts CVD incidence and mortality in the Wisconsin Sleep Cohort study (WSCS), independent of the known effects of SDB on beat-to-beat variability.

Methods: The study analyzed electrocardiograph obtained from polysomnography study to assess the nocturnal total RRDI (the number of RRI dips divided by the total recording time) and sleep RRDI (the number of RRI dips divided by total sleep time). A composite CVD risk as a function of total and sleep RRDI were estimated by Cox proportional hazards in the WSCS.

Results: The sample consisted of 569 participants from the WSCS with no prior CVD at baseline were followed up for up to 15 years. Nocturnal total RRDI (10-unit change) was associated with composite CVD event(s) (HR, 1.24 per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.10-1.39], P <0.001). After adjusting for demographic factors (age 58±8 years old; 53% male; and BMI 31±7 kg/m²), and apnea-hypopnea index, individuals with highest total nocturnal RRDI category (≥28 vs <15 dips/h) had a significant hazard ratio for increased incidence of CVD and mortality of 7.4 [95% CI, 1.97-27.7], P = 0.003). Sleep RRDI was significantly

associated with new-onset CVD event(s) (HR, 1.21 per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.09-1.35], P < 0.001) which remained significant after adjusting for demographic factors, AHI 4%, hypoxemia and other comorbidties.

Conclusion: Increased nocturnal RRDI predicts cardiovascular mortality and morbidity, independent of the known effects of SDB on beat-to-beat variability. The frequency of RRDI is higher in men than in women, and is significantly associated with new-onset CVD event(s) in men but not in women.

Keywords: Heart rate, R-R interval, sleep-disordered breathing, cardiovascular disease.

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; CVD, cardiovascular disease; ECG, electrocardiograph; HR, heart rate; PSG, polysomnography; RRI, R-R interval; RRDI, RRI dips index; SDB, Sleep-disordered breathing; SHHS, Sleep Heart Health Study; WSCS, Wisconsin Sleep Cohort Study.

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Article summary

Strengths and limitations of this study:

This study has the following strengths and limitations:

- 1- It used a new method of detecting heart rate accelerations on the incidence of cardiovascular diseases (such as heart attack, heart failure, or need for cardiac procedures) and cardiovascular-related mortality.
- 2- Using secondary analysis of a database of a prospective community cohort from the Wisconsin Sleep Cohort (WSCS), we found that heart rate accelerations predicts cardiovascular mortality and incidence of cardiovascular diseases.
- 3- These results suggest that assessing the nocturnal ECG for heart accelerations may assist in predicting cardiovascular disease early on.
- 4- The study was focused on individuals who had no prior preexisting cardiac disease and not on medications that affect heart rate such as Beta blocker; therefore, it may not be applicable to patients with current heart disease.
- 5- This study lack racial diversity as 95% was reported as a white race.Therefore, the results may not be generalizable to other races.

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Introduction

Sleep-disordered breathing (SDB) is a disorder characterized by the occurrence of recurrent episodes of apnea and hypopnea, resulting in a cascade of physiological responses including hypoxemia, hypercapnia, intrathoracic pressure swings due to the inspiratory effort, activation of the sympathetic nervous system, and arousal from sleep ¹. In clinical practice, SDB is defined by the measurement of apnea-hypopnea index (AHI), as the average number of respiratory events divided by the total sleep time. Although AHI is easy to use. this measure discounts other physiological consequences of the respiratory events that may be important, including associated hypoxemia and arousals from sleep, as well as the cardiac autonomic disturbances throughout the night². Indeed, recent evidence showed that sub-type of excessively sleepy patients with moderate to severe SDB have significantly increased the risk for prevalent and incident cardiovascular events indicating the central role of sleep disruption in increased CVD risk³. In addition, a recent study found that varying hypopnea definitions in the general population can affect the risk stratification of cardiovascular disease in patients with SDB⁴.

While recent reports included measurements of sleep fragmentation and respiratory event duration as a surrogate of arousal threshold,⁵ it did not include direct measurements of sympathetic activity and heart rate changes related to these events and its physiological stressors. Nocturnal heart rate variability, not day-time, is a heritable phenotype ⁶ independent of covariates, suggesting that

genetic factors play an important role in controlling these cardiovascular risk factors⁷. Therefore, R-R interval, a time domain measure of heart rate variability, may reflect a physiological trait that predicts the risk of adverse cardiovascular outcomes, otherwise missed by SDB severity classification using traditional AHI and desaturation crietria⁸. However, the long-term effect of heart rate changes during sleep on the cardiovascular outcome and mortality is unknown.

The objectives of this study were to examine whether R-R interval (RRI) or heart rate accelerations can serve as predictors of cardiovascular disease in the Wisconsin Sleep Cohort study (WSCS), a prospective community cohort. We hypothesized that increased nocturnal RRI dip index (RRDI) would be associated with increased cardiovascular disease (CVD) or mortality independent of the known effects of SDB on beat-to-beat variability. Results of this study have been previously reported in the form of an abstract.⁹

Methods

<u>Participants:</u> We studied individuals from the WSCS. The protocols of the WSCS were approved by the Health Sciences Institutional Review Board of the University of Wisconsin-Madison. All participants provided written informed consent. Sampling and data collection protocols of the WSCS have been described previously ¹⁰.

<u>Cohort Description</u>: The WSCS comprises 1546 adult employees of state agencies, ages 30-60 years old at the Cohort's inception, which underwent

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attended in-laboratory overnight polysomnography (PSG) and provided healthrelated questionnaires approximately every four years. Data presented here were collected from August of 2000 through August 2016 (the period when digital PSG recording systems were in use by the WSCS). The most recent available PSG study was used for analysis. WSCS participants were eligible to be included in the study if they had full PSG with adequate ECG recording, not treated for SDB, had no prior CVD event and did not use beta blockers or chronotropic drugs (Table 3S; supplement) on the night of the sleep study or at any other point during follow-up.

Patient and Public Involvement: This study was a secondary analysis for preexisting data from an established cohort of the Wisconsin study. Therefore, participants were not involved in the design, recruitment, or conduct of this study.

<u>Predictor:</u> The main predictor variable is the hourly rate of R-R interval (RRI) changes assessed over an entire night's sleep period. The recorded ECG signals were retrieved from PSG to measure the RRI, which are time intervals between successive pairs of QRS complexes, by using software for the detection of R waves in LabChart 7 with heart rate variability Module (AD Instruments, Colorado Springs, CO) (Fig.1). In this program, ECG signal was examined and retrieved to a MatLab R2017a program (MathWorks, Natick, MA) developed and validated by our group to obtain RRI signal for the entire night (Fig. 2)^{2, 11}. The RRI dips, defined by a decreased RRI compared to the average RRI for the corresponding

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1-minute segment as a baseline, were collected. Given that 90% dips threshold correlated previously with most respiratory events (apneic and non-apneic respiratory events, defined below)², total RRI dip index (RRDI) was defined by the number of RRI dips below the 90% baseline divided by the total PSG recording time in hours (from light on to light out), regardless of wake or sleep stages. Sleep RRDI for non-REM and REM stages combined were defined by the number of RRI dips below the 90% baseline divided by the total sleep time in hours (for both REM and non-REM sleep stages). Subsequently, sleep RRDI was calculated for specific sleep stages for REM and non-REM, respectively. In subgroup analysis, the gender differences in total and sleep RRDI were compared between men and women.

The person performing the analysis was blinded to the participant's demographic information. The RRDI values were examined as a continuous variable and as a categorical variable divided into tertiles [lower 25% (low), middle 50% (medium), and upper 25% (high)].

<u>Outcome:</u> Incident CVD events were death related to CVD, self-reported physician-diagnosed heart attack, heart failure, or a CVD procedure (angioplasty, stent, pacemaker, bypass, or defibrillation). Information on CVD events, including the date of the event, was obtained on the overnight health questionnaire. Death certificates and cause of mortality in the cohort were obtained by matching social security numbers with two data sources: The National Death Index (NDI) and the Wisconsin State Bureau of Health Information and Policy, Vial Records Section. All included participants in this study were able to complete the follow-up

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information. The censored analysis was used, and the data is censored at the last visit. If multiple events were reported over the course of follow-up, the first reported event was used in this analysis.

Covariates: Participants underwent a baseline overnight 18-channel PSG (Grass model 78; Quincy, MA) at the University of Wisconsin-Madison Clinical Research Unit using a standard protocol ¹². The PSG recorded sleep state using electroencephalography, electrooculography, and electromyography; and breathing, using respiratory inductance plethysmography (Respitrace; Ambulatory Monitoring, Ardsley, NY), nasal and oral airflow (ProTec thermocouples; Hendersonville, TN) and oxyhemoglobin saturation, using pulse oximetry (Ohmeda Biox 3740, Englewood, CO). Each 30-second epoch of the polysomnographic recordings was scored for sleep stage, and apnea and hypopnea events by trained technicians and reviewed using standard criteria¹². Apnea was defined as cessation of nasal and oral airflow for ≥10 seconds and hypopnea as a discernible reduction in breathing (sum of the chest and abdominal excursions) with a decrease in oxyhemoglobin saturation of $\geq 4\%$. The apnea-hypopnea index was calculated as the mean number of apnea and hypopnea events per hour of sleep.

Statistical analysis:

Cox proportional hazards regression was used to estimate adjusted hazard ratios and 95% CIs for the association between RRDI and subsequent risk of an incident CVD event ¹⁴. Because of the strong dependence of CVD risk on age, Cox-regression models were based on age as the time scale, (the age when RRDI was measured and age at the event) allowing for left truncation (late entry) ¹⁵. In addition to adjusting for age using this methodology, models were adjusted for BMI and gender. Models were subsequently adjusted for AHI 4% (as continuous and categorical variables [AHI<5, 5-15, or >15 events/hour]). Subsequently, the model was adjusted for other factors: diabetes, hypertension, stroke, smoking, average HR, % TST < 90%, Kaplan-Meier techniques were used to compare survival across RRDI categories¹⁶.

Results

Baseline characteristics:

Table 1 presents the baseline characteristics of the eligible participants. A total of 1440 sleep studies were examined for inclusion in this study as depicted in Figure 3. The final sample included 569 participants (one sleep study per participant) after excluding those on CPAP treatment, individuals who had a prior history of cardiovascular disease, use of beta blocker the night of the study or in other visits during the study, lack of follow up or if they had events before PSG. RRDI (at 90% threshold) significantly correlated with the following sleep parameters: AHI 4%, periodic legs movements index (PLMI) and respiratory EEG arousals (P<0.001) (Table 2).

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CVD incidence – association with total RRDI:

Using Cox Proportional Hazards Model, continuous total RRDI (with 90% threshold for RRI dips) was significantly associated with new-onset CVD event(s) (HR, 1.24 per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.10-1.39], P < 0.001) which remained significant after adjustment for age, BMI and gender (model 1) and the addition of AHI 4% (model 2) (as depicted in Table 3). Lower thresholds (80%, 70%, and 60%) of RRDI correlated with total RRDI 90% but were less sensitive in predicting CVD (less than 5 individuals attained RRDI >20 dips/h). The association between total RRDI at 90% threshold and the incidence of new-onset CVD remained significant after the adjustment for AHI 4% (P < 0.001). Total RRDI category 3 (>28.4/h vs <15.1 dips/h) was associated with increased CVD hazards risk of 6.1 (95% CI, 1.7-27.7, P = 0.005) and remained significant after adjustment for AHI 4% (P = 0.003).

Figure 4 illustrates the changes in CVD incidence and hazard ratios for total RRDI less than 15.1 dips per hour (as reference), RRDI 15.1-28.4 dips per hour (second tertile) and for the third group (tertile) of individuals with RRDI equal or more than 28.4 dips per hour. Kaplan-Meier survival curves (Fig.5) illustrate decreased CVD event-free survival with increasing RRDI category from RRDI less than 15.1 to RRDI equal or more than 28.4 dips per hour. Continuous total RRDI 90% remained significant (HR, 1.22 (per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.08, 1.37], P = 0.001) after additionally adjusted for diabetes, hypertension,

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CVD incidence – association with sleep RRDI:

Using Cox Proportional Hazards Model, continuous sleep RRDI 90% was significantly associated with new-onset CVD event(s) (HR, 1.21 per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.09-1.35], P < 0.001) which remained significant after the model adjusted for age, BMI and gender (model 1) and the addition of AHI 4% (model 2) (as depicted in Table 4). RRDI category 3 (≥23.5/h vs. <9.0/h) was associated with increased CVD hazards risk of 3.39 (95% CI, 1.06-</p> 10.85, P = 0.04) and remained significant after adjustment for demographics and AHI 4% (P = 0.037). The relationship between sleep RRDI categories and CVD events were predominantly in non-REM sleep as depicted in Table 5. Continuous RRDI 90% during REM sleep was significant (HR, 1.19 per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.07-1.32], P = 0.001) and remained significant after the model adjusted for age, BMI and gender (model 1) and the addition of AHI 4% (model 2) (as depicted in Table 6). However, sleep RRDI category 3 $(\geq 24/h \text{ vs. } < 9.0/h)$ was only mildly significant in the unadjusted model with hazards risk of new CVD events of 2.92 (p=0.05). Continuous sleep RRDI 90% remained significant (HR, 1.19 per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.06-1.33], P = 0.003) after additionally adjusted for diabetes, hypertension, stroke,

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smoking, average heart rate, and % total sleep time with oxygen saturation less than 90% (as depicted in Table 2S; supplement).

Cardiovascular events were detected in twenty-five participants (4%), of the sample, over a follow-up interval of 15 years with mean age 59 years old (range 41- 80). Cardiovascular events consisted of heart failure, heart attack, CVD Procedure (before any events), or CVD Death (Table 7). No difference between mean age at the start for those who had CVD vs not (P=0.58).

Gender effect on the association of CVD incidence with total and sleep RRDI:

Table 8 presents the baseline characteristics of men and women participants and associated total and sleep RRDI. While BMI was higher in women (32.0 \pm 7.0 *vs*. 30.0 \pm 5.0 kg/m², p=0.0001), men had higher AHI, total RRDI and sleep RRDI than women (P<0.01). Using Cox Proportional Hazards adjusted Model (for age, body mass index, and AHI 4%), continuous total RRDI 90% was significantly associated with new-onset CVD event(s) in men (HR, 1.22 per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.06, 1.40], P<0.001) but not in women (as depicted in Table 8). Likewise, continuous sleep RRDI 90% was significantly associated with new-onset CVD event(s) in men (HR, 1.19 per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.06], p<0.05) but not in women. Using total RRDI threshold of 20 dips per hour or more was associated with increased CVD hazards risk of 4.34 in men only (95% CI, 1.32, 14.34, P = 0.016).

Discussion

Our study prospectively examined the relationship of nocturnal beat-to-beat RR interval changes, i.e. brief accelerations in the heart rate, with long-term cardiovascular outcomes. The study revealed several important and novel findings. First, increased frequency of heart rate accelerations (RRDI) during sleep study was associated with the development of cardiac events or mortality in a prospective large community-based cohort of individuals over a follow-up interval of 15 years, who had no known heart disease at the time of their sleep study. Second, the relationship between total RRDI and incidence of CVD remained significant after adjusting for demographics, SDB severity using AHI 4%, hypoxemia, and other comorbidities. Third, the frequency of total RRDI was higher in men than in women and associated with CVD predominantly in men.

To our knowledge, this is the first community-based cohort that has shown an association between adverse cardiovascular outcomes and heart rate changes during sleep. Specifically, we found that the association between RRDI and incidence of new CVD events was independent of AHI (with a 4% desaturation threshold for hypopnea scoring) and hypoxia. Prior studies assessed the relationship between AHI using different thresholds and adverse cardiovascular consequences. For example, in the Sleep Heart Health Study (SHHS), Punjabi, et al. (2008) found an association of cardiovascular morbidity with SDB characterized by breathing events defined as having \geq 4% de-saturations, but not by SDB characterized by de-saturations of <4%¹⁷. More recently, it has been

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found that the desaturation hypoxic burden related to respiratory events, measured by the integration of the severity of the desaturation and its length, predicted CVD mortality¹⁸. Another study that examined heart rate variability during sleep found that SDB patients had shorter RRI and increased sympathetic burst frequency (49±4 bursts/min) compared with control subjects ¹⁹. The authors speculated that abnormalities in heart rate and blood pressure variability might be implicated in the subsequent development of cardiovascular disease in patients with SDB. The present study confirmed this association between the frequency of heart rate accelerations (RRDI) and adverse cardiovascular consequence in a prospective large cohort of individuals who had no known heart disease at the time of their sleep study.

The mechanism of increased incidence of CVD and association with RRDI can be explained by an increased sympathetic tone and autonomic arousals. First, sleep disturbances like SDB, periodic limb movements, insufficient sleep are all associated with an increased risk of CVD. These sleep disorders are commonly associated with impaired autonomic nervous system leading to increased sympathetic tone²⁰. Furthermore, sleep fragmentation due to autonomic or respiratory arousals from sleep increases the cardiac sympathetic tone activity resulting in a sudden elevation in vascular tone and heart rate generating a rise in arterial blood pressure ^{20, 21}. The increased sympathetic tone in patients with heart disease has been proposed as an intermediate outcome linking heart rate variability with increased mortality ²². Resting heart rate also has been linked to CVD in patients with SDB and COPD ^{19, 23, 24}. Second, the augmented shear Page 17 of 47

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forces due to intermittent episodes of tachycardia secondary to respiratory events and the resultant mechanical shear forces may lead to endothelial dysfunction ²⁵. This possibility is physiologically plausible particularly in male patients,²⁶ who may have significant endothelial dysfunction secondary to activation of several inflammatory pathways. Such pathophysiologic changes in untreated SDB patients have been linked to nocturnal angina, myocyte necrosis leading to cardiomyopathy, and cardiac remodeling ²⁷⁻²⁹. Our findings corroborate these pathological changes particularly in the coronary vessels making the vast majority of CVD events either related to CAD (48%) or myocardial infarction (36%), predominantly in men. On the other hand, medications such as Betablockers attenuate the increase in heart rate related to respiratory events during sleep in patients with hypertension and untreated SDB ³⁰. This modulation of cardiac responses in patients with SDB provides a mechanism by which Betablockers may decrease the risk of sudden cardiac death, particularly in patients with CVD ³¹. Finally, hypoxic events can affect the autonomic cardiac response and generate significant RRI dips events ³². Hypoxemia and RRI dips may represent different features of SDB-related stress, both of which may contribute to CVD morbidity and mortality through independent pathways. Our findings suggest a need to further identify the intermediate mechanisms that link RRI dips events to long-term outcomes.

This study has several strengths including its prospective design with longitudinal follow-up of participants, community-based including a diverse group of ages and morbidities from both genders, and the use of the gold-standard laboratory-based

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polysomnography for assessment of SDB. This study assessed the role of heart rate changes, a heritable and physiological phenotype, on CVD outcome. These findings can allow clinicians to identify early on high-risk patients and implement an intervention to prevent cardiovascular disease and premature death. In addition, our study used a novel method of automatic detection of heart rate accelerations that can be translated into an executable program or a plug-in for sleep scoring software and can be used in any sleep study across the world. The study has some limitations. First, we used the self-reported diagnosis of CVD (including dates of diagnosis). However, there is evidence that self-reported CVD is very reliable and accurate as noted in the AusDiab cohort. Barr et al. reported more than 99% of self-reported CVD events were correctly verified in the patients' medical records; only 0.2% of those denying any CVD event being recorded as having had an event on the medical record ³³. Second, we lack racial diversity in our study as 95% was reported as a white race. Therefore, the results may not be generalizable to other races. Third, the incidence of CVD in this population is relatively smaller than what was observed in other high cardiovascular risk population. This is might be due to the inclusion of only those who have no prior history of CVD. Finally, the study excluded participants who had preexisting cardiac disease history (history of any CVD event as listed in table 7), were on CPAP treatment or were on beta-blocker and/or other chronotropic medications, which alter the cardiac autonomic responses, particularly heart rate bursts following respiratory events. Therefore, this study could not include all WSCS participants and may not be applicable to individuals

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with heart disease or if taking Beta-blocker or chronotropic medications. Likewise, this study may not be applicable to individuals with arrhythmia, frequent ectopic beats and in case of cardiac pacemakers.

Clinical Perspectives:

The association between heart rate changes and the cardiovascular outcome may have significant clinical implications. First, the association between increased incidence of cardiovascular events and the RRI dips index suggest that early detection of heart rate fluctuations during sleep could identify those who are at increased risk of future CVD events and inform primary preventions strategies. Second, several behavioral factors³⁴ and medical conditions, such as SDB³⁵ and COPD²⁴, are associated with changes in resting heart rate, which increase the risk of cardiovascular diseases. Third, the attenuation of heart rate accelerations by Beta-blockers during sleep as recently shown in patients with SDB,³⁰ indicate that Beta-blockers may play an important role in preventing CVD. However, large prospective clinical studies are needed to confirm this finding.

In summary, this study demonstrates that after adjusting for age, BMI, sex, AHI, and other comorbidities, people with high RRI dips index during sleep study are at increased risk for incident CVD events. These results suggest that assessing the ECG of high-risk patients for RRDI during sleep may assist in predicting cardiovascular disease early on. Further research is needed to understand the

pathophysiology of heart rate bursts during sleep and whether the RRI dips provide markers of subclinical cardiac disease or whether their occurrence represents pathophysiological responses to respiratory events that increase the risk of cardiovascular morbidity.

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Characteristics	Value
n	569
Age in years, mean (sd) range	58 (8) 39-79
Body Mass Index in kg/m ² , mean (sd)	31 (7) 18-66
range	
Years to Event/Censor, mean (sd) range	8 (4) 0.1-15
Males, n (%)	300 (53)
Apnea-Hypopnea Index, n (%)	
< 5	253 (44)
5-15	168 (30)
> 15	148 (26)
Diabetes, n (%)	32 (6)
Hypertension, n (%)	191 (34)
Stroke, n (%)	11 (2)
Antihypertensive Medication Use	133 (24)
(excluding Beta Blockers or any	2/
chronotropic medication), n (%)	
Smoking, n (%)	
Current	63 (11)
Past	213 (37)
Never	293 (52)
White Race, n (%)	538 (97)

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30 31 32 33 34 35	
36 37 38 39	
40 41 42 43 44	
45 46 47 48 49	
50 51 52 53 54	
55 56 57 58 59	
60	

Number of Alcoholic drinks per week,	4 (5) 0-32
mean (sd) range	
Total Sleep time, minutes, Mean (sd)	368 (61) 30-514
range	
Percent Stage 1 Sleep,	10.6 (6.5)
mean (sd)	
Percent Stage 2 Sleep,	65.0 (9.3)
mean (sd)	
Percent Stage 3,4 Sleep, mean (sd)	7.8 (8.0)
Percent REM Sleep,	16.6 (6.4)
mean (sd)	
Mean SaO2, mean (sd)	95.4 (1.8)
Mean Desaturation, mean (sd)	4.5 (1.5)
Percentage of Total Sleep Time below	2.7 (11.2)
90% Saturation, mean (sd)	2

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	Correlation Coefficients	P value
AHI 4%	0.18	<.0001
PLMI	0.19	<.0001
Respiratory arousal index	0.24	<.0001
Leg movement arousal	0.23	<.0001
index		
Spontaneous arousal	-0.09	0.127
index		

 Table 2: Pearson Correlation for RRDI (at 90% threshold):

Abbreviations: AHI 4%= apnea-hypopnea index based on hypopnea associated with 4 % desaturation; PLMI=periodic legs movement index; RRDI= R-R interval dips index.

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Table 3: The adjusted time to event Cox Proportional Hazards Models for total

 RRDI predicting the incidence of CVD event.

Hazard Ratio (95% CI) CVD **Events** p-value Unadjusted **Fully Adjusted** Ν Minimally Model Model** Adjusted (%) Model* Continuous 24/569 1.24 (1.10, 1.22 (1.08, 1.38) 1.23 (1.11, 1.38) RRDI (10 -1.39) unit 0.0007 (4) 0.0018 increment) 0.0003 RRDI Category Tertile 1 3/187 REF REF REF (< 15.1)(2)2.66 (0.68, 2.72 (0.70, Tertile 2 7/194 3.16 (0.81, 10.34)10.59) 12.40) (15.1 - < 28.4)(4) 0.1586 0.1481 0.099 Tertile 3 14/188 6.11 (1.72, 5.87 (1.60, 7.40 (1.97, 21.72) 21.46) 27.73) (≥ 28.4) (7)0.0052 0.0075 0.003 0.0024 0.0045 0.0017 p-trend

* Adjusted for age, sex, and body mass index.

** Adjusted for age, sex, body mass index, and apnea-hypopnea index

Table 4: The adjusted time to event Cox Proportional Hazards Models for sleepRRDI predicting the incidence of CVD event.

	CVD	Hazard Ratio (95% CI)		
	Events	p-value		
	N (%)	Unadjusted Model	Minimally Adjusted Model*	Fully Adjusted Model**
Continuous RRDI (10-	24/569	1.21 (1.09, 1.35)	1.29 (1.06, 1.33)	1.20 (1.07, 1.34)
unit increment)	(4)	0.0006	0.0037	0.0015
RRDI Category		Č,		
Tertile 1	4/187	REF	REF	REF
(< 9.0)	(2)	8		
Tertile 2	9/194	2.61 (0.79, 8.57) 🌽	2.46 (0.75, 8.11)	2.66 (0.80, 8.77)
(9.0- < 23.5)	(5)	0.1144	0.1383	0.1092
Tertile 3	11/188	3.39 (1.06, 10.84)	2.94 (0.91, 9.56)	3.61 (1.08, 12.10)
(≥ 23.5)	(6)	0.0398	0.0729	0.0373
p-trend		0.0392	0.0768	0.0365

* Adjusted for age, sex, and body mass index.

** Adjusted for age, sex, body mass index, and apnea-hypopnea index

Table 5: The adjusted time to event Cox Proportional Hazards Models for NREMRRDI predicting the incidence of CVD event.

	CVD	Hazard Ratio (95% CI)		
	Events	p-value		
	N (%)	Unadjusted Model	Minimally Adjusted Model*	Fully Adjusted Model**
Continuous	24/569	1.19 (1.08, 1.33)	1.17 (1.05, 1.31)	1.18 (1.07, 1.32)
RRDI (10- unit increment)	(4)	0.0009	0.0044	0.0019
RRDI				
Category				
Tertile 1	4/187	REF 🚫	REF	REF
(< 8.5)	(2)	1		
Tertile 2	9/194	2.69 (0.82, 8.86)	2.69 (0.82, 8.82)	2.85 (0.87, 9.36)
(8.5-< 22.6)	(5)	0.1040	0.1023	0.0849
Tertile 3	11/188	3.40 (1.06,	3.11 (0.96,	3.92 (1.18,
(≥ 22.6)	(6)	10.94) 0.0389	10.06) 0.0577	13.09) 0.0263
p-trend		0.0390	0.0612	0.0249

* Adjusted for age, sex, and body mass index.

** Adjusted for age, sex, body mass index, and apnea-hypopnea index

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Table 6: The adjusted time to event Cox Proportional Hazards Models for REM
RRDI predicting the incidence of CVD event.

	CVD	Hazard Ratio (95% CI)		
	Events	p-value		
	N (%)	Unadjusted Model	Minimally Adjusted Model*	Fully Adjusted Model**
Continuous RRDI (10-unit increment)	24/569 (4)	1.19 (1.07, 1.32)	1.17 (1.05, 1.31)	1.19 (1.07, 1.33)
		0.0013	0.0056	0.0016
RRDI Category	C			
Tertile 1	5/187	REF	REF	REF
(< 9.0)	(3)			
Tertile 2	7/194	1.34 (0.42, 4.24)	1.19 (0.37, 3.78)	1.24 (0.39, 4.00)
(9.0- < 24.0)	(4)	0.6222	0.7732	0.7171
Tertile 3	12/188	2.92 (1.00, 8.55)	2.42 (0.80, 7.29)	2.69 (0.88, 8.19)
(≥ 24.0)	(6)	0.0508	0.1173	0.0825
p-trend		0.0393	0.0936	0.0657

* Adjusted for age, sex, and body mass index.

** Adjusted for age, sex, body mass index, and apnea-hypopnea index

 Table 7: A summary of CVD events types.

	CVD events types (n=24)
First Event Type*	N (%)
Myocardial Infarction	9 (36)
Heart Failure	4 (17)
Pacemaker	2 (8)
CAD/Intervention	12 (48)
Bypass Surgery	1 (4)
CVD Death	5 (20)

*Individuals could have multiple type events (for example myocardial infarction and stent and coronary artery disease). If multiple events were reported over the course of follow-up, the first reported event was used in this analysis.

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Table 8: Adjusted time to event Cox Proportional Hazards Models for RRDIPredicting Incidence of CVD Event Stratified by Gender for Continuous RRDI andacross Categories of Participants with RRDI more than 20 dips per hour.

	Males (n=300)	Females (n=269)	P-value
Age, mean (SD)	58 (8)	58 (8)	0.52
Body Mass Index, kg/m ² , mean (SD)	30 (5)	32 (7)	0.0001
AHI, mean (SD)	13 (16)	10 (12)	0.0045
RRDI(SLEEP), mean (SD)	26 (24)	18 (21)	< 0.0001
RRDI (ALL), mean (SD)	30 (23)	22 (20)	<0.0001
RRDI (SLEEP) >20, n (%)	143 (48)	78 (29)	< 0.0001
RRDI (ALL) >20, n (%)	179 (60)	105 (39)	<0.0001
	Adjusted Model* (95% CI) p-value	Adjusted Model * (95% Cl) p-value	
Continuous RRDI (SLEEP) (10-unit increment)	1.19 (1.04, 1.36) 0.011	1.22 (0.96, 1.54) 0.109	
RRDI Category	0		
<20	REF	REF	
>20	1.85 (0.67, 5.07) 0.234	1.29 (0.22, 7.47) 0.779	
	Adjusted Model* (95% Cl) p-value	Adjusted Model * (95% Cl) p-value	
Continuous RRDI (ALL) (10-unit increment)	1.22 (1.06, 1.40) 0.006	1.25 (0.97, 1.67) 0.086	
RRDI Category			
<20	REF	REF	
>20	4.34 (1.32, 14.34) 0.016	2.03 (0.38, 10.77) 0.407	

Abbreviations: AHI 4%, apnea-hypopnea index with hypopnea scored if associated with at least 4 % denaturation (events/hour); HR, hazard ratio; RRDI, R-R interval dips index (dips/hour). * Model Adjusted for age, body mass index, and AHI 4% categories.

Figure Legends

Figure 1: (A) A representative polygraph from one subject in the Wisconsin Sleep Cohort Study (WSCS) that illustrate changes in respective heart rate and computed R-R-intervals (RRI) tracing during sleep. (B) A magnified segment of ECG illustrating RRI following respiratory event (apnea). The RRI tracing was retro-graphed from the exported signal that calculates RRI from raw ECG recordings. Abbreviations: EEG= electroencephalogram; EMG= electromyogram; ECG=electrocardiogram; RRI=R-R interval. Open arrows indicate oxygen desaturation following apnea and closed arrows indicate RRI dip following apnea.

Figure 2: A representative computed data of RRI and oxygen saturation (S_aO_2) from one individual during sleep. The red dots represent the RRI dips throughout the duration of the PSG recording (approximately 8 hours). The RRI dips index (RRDI) at 90% threshold for this participant was 54.5 dips /hour, the average heart rate was 61.1 BPM, and the ODI (3%) was 2.3 de-saturations/hour (from the original PSG recording). The RRI tracing was retro-graphed from the exported signal that calculates RRI and S_aO_2 from raw ECG and pulse oxymetry recordings, respectively. Abbreviations: ECG, electrocardiogram; ODI, oxygen desaturation index; RRI, R-R intervals; S_aO_2 , oxygen saturation.

Figure 3: The Wisconsin Sleep Cohort Study (WSCS) sample. ECG= electrocardiography; PSG= polysomnography; CPAP= continuous positive airway pressure.

Figure 4: Incidence of composite CVD and hazard ratios across different total RRDI severity: Category 1 as a reference (RRDI < 15.1), category 2 (RRDI 15.1-
<28.4), and category 3 (RRDI \ge 40) (n = 569). CVD=cardiovascular disease;
RRDI=R-R interval dips index. (*) versus unadjusted RRDI <15.1 dips per hour,
P<0.01 ; (**) versus adjusted RRDI <15.1 dips per hour, P<0.01.

Figure 5: Kaplan-Meier estimates of the likelihood of survival according to RRDI severity: Category 1 as a reference (RRDI < 15.1), category 2 (RRDI 15.1- < 28.4), and category 3 (RRDI ≥ 28.4) (n = 569); log-rank test for differences in survival by RRDI category; Survival was lower for category 3 compared to group 1 and 2. RRDI is a mean number of RRI dips/hr of total recording time of PSG. RRDI=R-R interval dips index.

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Supplements Materials:

Analysis supplement:

 Table 1S: Adjusted Time to Event Cox Proportional Hazards Models for RRDI

 Predicting Incidence of Composite CVD Event for Continuous RRDI and across

 Categories of All RRDI

	N	Model 1 Adjusted for Age, BMI, Gender, AHI categories Adjusted HR* (95% CI) P-value	Model 2 Additionally adjusted for Diabetes, HTN, Stroke, and Smoking Adjusted HR* (95% CI) P-value	Model 3 Additionally adjusted for Average HR, % TST < 90% Adjusted HR ** (95% CI) P-value
Continuous RRDI	24/569	1.23 (1.109, 1.38)	1.21 (1.08, 1.37)	1.22 (1.08, 1.37)
(10-unit increment)	(4)	0.0007	0.0014	0.0012
RRDI Category		•	0	
Tertile 1	3/187	REF	REF	REF
(< 15.1)	(2)		Ο,	
Tertile 2	7/194	3.16 (0.81,	3.22 (0.82,	3.22 (0.80,
(15.1- < 28.4)	(4)	12.40) 0.099	12.64) 0.094	12.93) 0.10
Tertile 3	14/188	7.40 (1.97,	7.48 (1.98.	8.99 (2.35,
(≥ 28.4)	(7)	27.73) 0.003	28.25) 0.003	34.40) 0.001
p-trend		0.0017	0.0017	0.0006

Abbreviations: AHI 4%, apnea-hypopnea index with hypopnea scored if associated with at least 4 % denaturation (events/hour); HR, hazard ratio; RRDI,

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R-R interval dips index (dips/hour); HTN, hypertension; % TST<90, total sleep time spent less than 90% on oxygen saturation signal (%). * Model 1 Adjusted for age, body mass index, and AHI 4% categories. * Model 2 adjusted for age, body mass index, AHI 4% categories, Diabetes, HTN, stroke, and smoking. ** Model 3 additionally adjusted for average heart rate, and % TST < 90%.

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Table 2S: Adjusted Time to Event Cox Proportional Hazards Models for RRDI
Predicting Incidence of Composite CVD Event for Continuous RRDI and across

Categories of sleep RRDI

	N N	Model 1 Adjusted for Age, BMI, Gender, AHI categories Adjusted HR* (95% CI) P-value	Model 2 Additionally adjusted for Diabetes, HTN, Stroke, and Smoking Adjusted HR* (95% CI) P-value	Model 3 Additionally adjusted for Average HR, % TST < 90% Adjusted HR ** (95% CI) P-value
Continuous RRDI	24/569	1.20 (1.07, 1.34)	1.19 (1.06, 1.33)	1.19 (1.06, 1.33)
(10-unit	(4)	0.0015	0.003	0.003
increment)				
RRDI Category				
Tertile 1	4/187	REF	REF	REF
(< 9.0)	(2)		'h	
Tertile 2	9/194	2.66 (0.80, 8.77)	2.70 (0.81, 8.98)	2.79 (0.83, 9.36)
(9.0- < 23.5)	(5)	0.1092	0.10	0.10
Tertile 3	11/188	3.61 (1.08, 12.10)	3.60 (1.07, 12.06)	4.00 (1.17, 13.68)
(≥ 23.5)	(6)	0.0373	0.038	0.027
p-trend		0.0365	0.038	0.026

Abbreviations: AHI 4%, apnea-hypopnea index with hypopnea scored if associated with at least 4 % denaturation (events/hour); HR, hazard ratio; RRDI, R-R interval dips index (dips/hour); HTN, hypertension; % TST<90, total sleep time spent less than 90% on oxygen saturation signal (%). * Model 1 Adjusted for

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age, body mass index, and AHI 4% categories. * Model 2 adjusted for age, body mass index, AHI 4% categories, Diabetes, HTN, stroke, and smoking. ** Model 3 additionally adjusted for average heart rate, and % TST < 90%.

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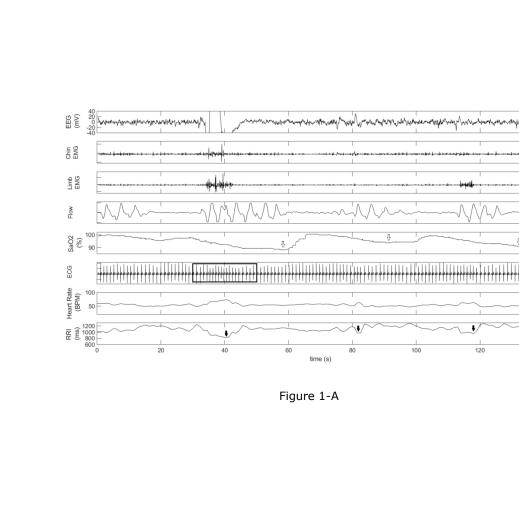
 Table 3S. Medications were taken by individuals excluded due to the potential

effect on heart rate.

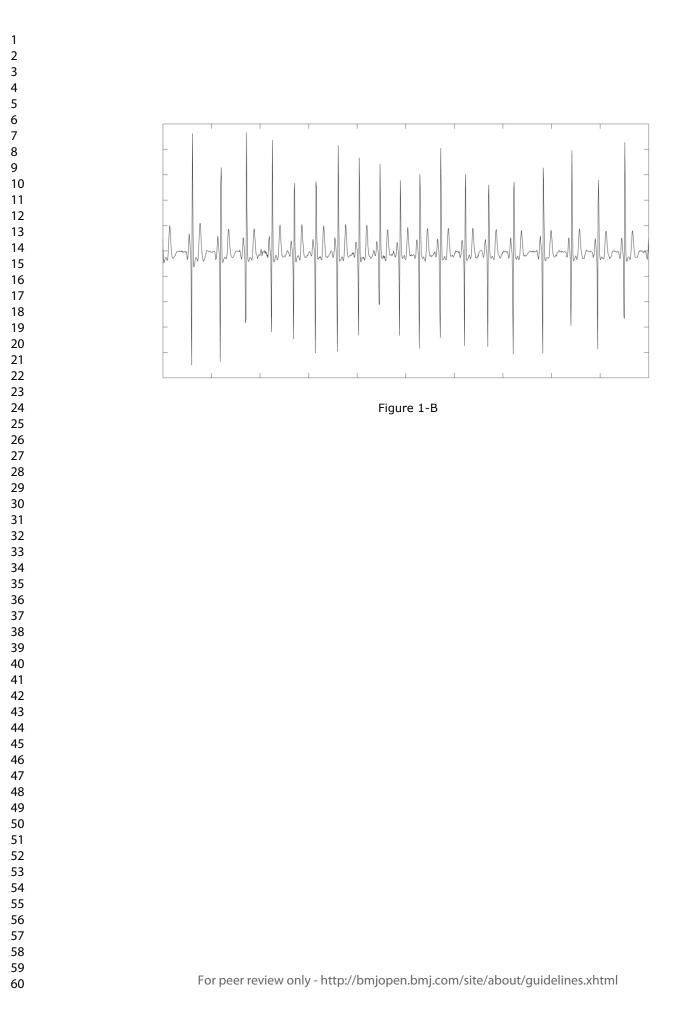
Medication name (Brand)	
Metoprolol tartrate (Lopressor,	
nebivolol)	
Enalapril maleate (Vasotec)	
Nadolol (Corgard)	
Atenolol (Tenormin, Zebeta)	
Betaxolol hydrochloride (Kerlone)	
Acebutolol hydrochloride (Sectral)	
Clonidine (Catapres, other alpha	
adrenergic agonist agents)),
Atenolol & Chlorthalidone (Tenoretic)	4
Metoprolol succinate (Toprol XL)	2
Diazac (dup see 604)	
Labetalol Hydrochloride (Normodyne,	
Tradate)	2/
Betachron (Propranolol)	
Ziac (Hydrocholorothiazide / Bisoprolol	
combo)	
Carvediol (Coreg, Cartrol)	
Pindolol (Visken)	
Diltiazem HCL (Cardizem, Dilacor,	

Taztia XT, Tiazac)

Amiodarone HCI (Cordarone, tikosyn)



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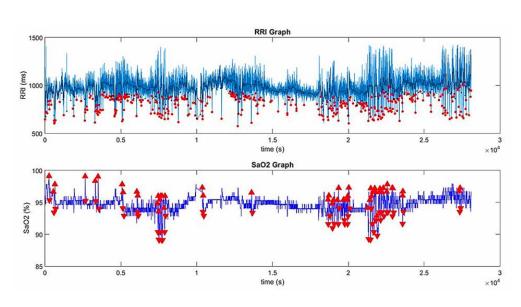
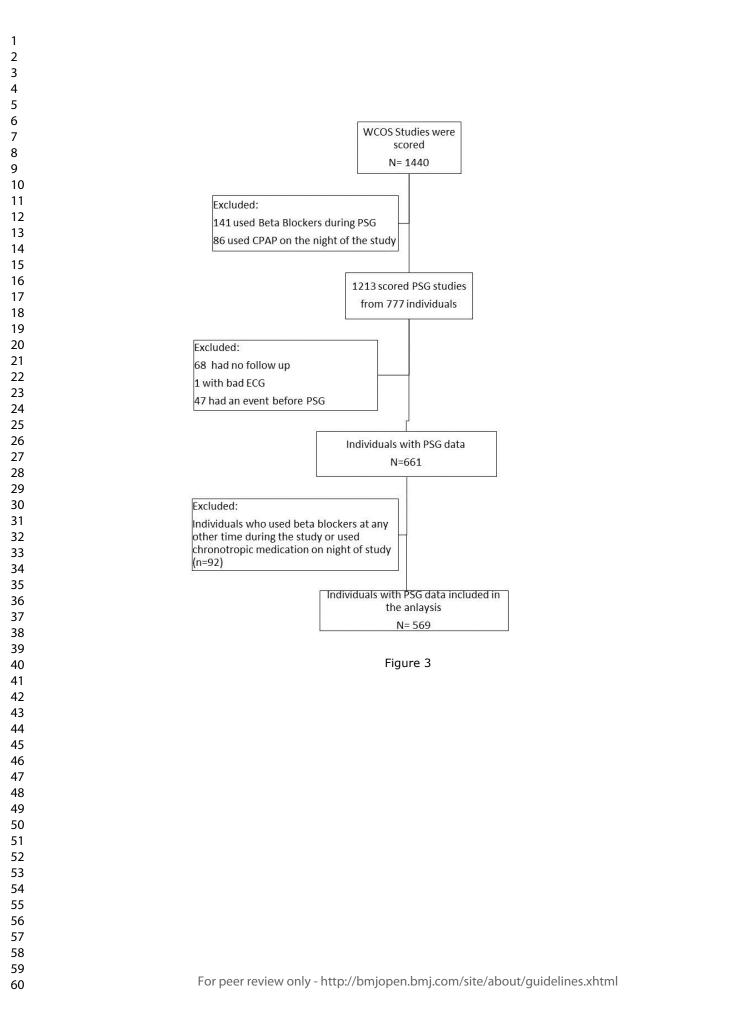


Figure 2



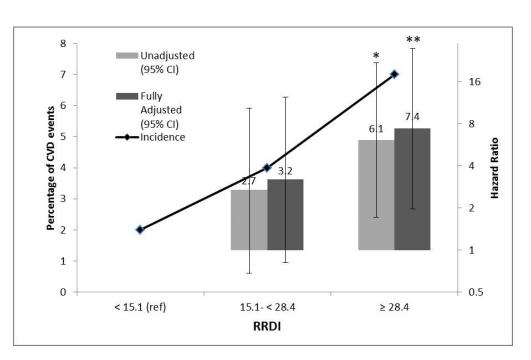
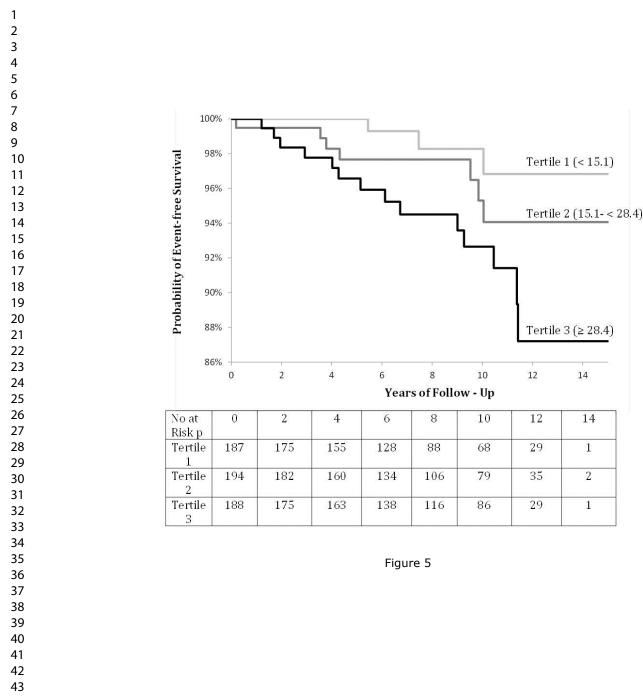


Figure 4



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Longitudinal Effect of Nocturnal R-R Intervals Changes on Cardiovascular Outcome in a Community-Based Cohort

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Longitudinal Effect of Nocturnal R-R Intervals Changes on Cardiovascular Outcome in a Community-Based Cohort

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Conception and design: A. Sankari, M. S. Badr, and P. E. Peppard.

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Obtained funding: A. Sankari and P. E. Peppard.

Study supervision: A. Sankari and P. E. Peppard.

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Conflict of interest: All authors declare no conflict of interest.

Disclosure Statement: The following authors A. Sankari, M.S Badr, and S. Maresh and Wayne State University have a pending Patent #US62395634, entitled "The Detection of Sleep Disordered Breathing Using Cardiac Autonomic Responses", application number#15/706097 for Utility/Design using an application data sheet (37 CFR 1.54), Date Filed: September 15, 2017. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the Department of Veterans Affairs, National Institute of Health or Wayne State University.

Data Availability:

Data may be obtained from a third party and are not publicly available. Upon approval from the University of Wisconsin IRB and the PI of Wisconsin Sleep Cohort study (Dr Paul Peppard) access to de-identified data may be provided.

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ABSTRACT

Rationale: Sleep-disordered breathing (SDB) is strongly linked to adverse cardiovascular outcomes (CVD). Whether heart rate changes measured by nocturnal R-R interval dips (RRDI) adversely affect the CVD outcomes is unknown.

Objectives: To test whether nocturnal RRDI predicts CVD incidence and mortality in the Wisconsin Sleep Cohort study (WSCS), independent of the known effects of SDB on beat-to-beat variability.

Methods: The study analyzed electrocardiograph obtained from polysomnography study to assess the nocturnal total RRDI (the number of RRI dips divided by the total recording time) and sleep RRDI (the number of RRI dips divided by total sleep time). A composite CVD risk as a function of total and sleep RRDI was estimated by Cox proportional hazards in the WSCS.

Results: The sample consisted of 569 participants from the WSCS with no prior CVD at baseline were followed up for up to 15 years. Nocturnal total RRDI (10-unit change) was associated with composite CVD event(s) (HR, 1.24 per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.10-1.39], P <0.001). After adjusting for demographic factors (age 58±8 years old; 53% male; and BMI 31±7 kg/m²), and apnea-hypopnea index (AHI 4%), individuals with highest total nocturnal RRDI category (≥28 vs <15 dips/h) had a significant hazard ratio for increased incidence of CVD and mortality of 7.4 [95% CI, 1.97-27.7], P = 0.003). Sleep RRDI was significantly associated with new-onset CVD event(s) (HR, 1.21 per

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10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.09-1.35], P < 0.001) which remained significant after adjusting for demographic factors, AHI 4%, hypoxemia, and other comorbidities.

Conclusion: Increased nocturnal RRDI predicts cardiovascular mortality and morbidity, independent of the known effects of SDB on beat-to-beat variability. The frequency of RRDI is higher in men than in women, and is significantly associated with new-onset CVD event(s) in men but not in women.

Keywords: Heart rate, R-R interval, sleep-disordered breathing, cardiovascular disease.

Abbreviations: AHI, apnea-hypopnea index, BMI, body mass index; CVD, cardiovascular disease; ECG, electrocardiograph; HR, heart rate; PSG, polysomnography; RRI, R-R interval; RRDI, RRI dips index; SDB, Sleepdisordered breathing; SHHS, Sleep Heart Health Study; WSCS, Wisconsin Sleep Cohort Study.

Article summary

Strengths and limitations of this study:

This study has the following strengths and limitations:

- 1- It used a new method of detecting heart rate accelerations on the incidence of cardiovascular diseases (such as heart attack, heart failure, or need for cardiac procedures) and cardiovascular-related mortality.
- 2- Using secondary analysis of a database of a prospective community cohort from the Wisconsin Sleep Cohort (WSCS), we found that heart rate accelerations predict cardiovascular mortality and incidence of cardiovascular diseases.
- 3- These results suggest that assessing the nocturnal ECG for heart accelerations may assist in predicting cardiovascular disease early on.
- 4- The study was focused on individuals who had no prior preexisting cardiac disease and not on medications that affect heart rate such as Beta blocker; therefore, it may not be applicable to patients with current heart disease.
- 5- This study lack racial diversity as 95% was reported as a white race.Therefore, the results may not be generalizable to other races.

Introduction

Sleep-disordered breathing (SDB) is a disorder characterized by the occurrence of recurrent episodes of apnea and hypopnea, resulting in a cascade of physiological responses including hypoxemia, hypercapnia, intrathoracic pressure swings due to the inspiratory effort, activation of the sympathetic nervous system, and arousal from sleep ¹. In clinical practice, SDB is defined by the measurement of apnea-hypopnea index (AHI), as the average number of respiratory events divided by the total sleep time. Although AHI is easy to use. this measure discounts other physiological consequences of the respiratory events that may be important, including associated hypoxemia and arousals from sleep, as well as the cardiac autonomic disturbances throughout the night². Indeed, recent evidence showed that sub-type of excessively sleepy patients with moderate to severe SDB have significantly increased the risk for prevalent and incident cardiovascular events indicating the central role of sleep disruption in increased CVD risk³. In addition, a recent study found that varying hypopnea definitions in the general population can affect the risk stratification of cardiovascular disease in patients with SDB^{4,5}.

While recent reports included measurements of sleep fragmentation and respiratory event duration as a surrogate of arousal threshold ⁶ it did not include direct measurements of sympathetic activity and heart rate changes related to these events and its physiological stressors. Nocturnal heart rate variability, not day-time, is a heritable phenotype ⁷ independent of covariates, suggesting that

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genetic factors play an important role in controlling these cardiovascular risk factors⁸. Therefore, R-R interval, a time domain measure of heart rate variability, may reflect a physiological trait that predicts the risk of adverse cardiovascular outcomes, otherwise missed by SDB severity classification using traditional AHI and desaturation crietria⁹. However, the long-term effect of heart rate changes during sleep on the cardiovascular outcome and mortality is unknown.

The objectives of this study were to examine whether R-R interval (RRI) or heart rate accelerations can serve as predictors of cardiovascular disease in the Wisconsin Sleep Cohort study (WSCS), a prospective community cohort. We hypothesized that increased nocturnal RRI dip index (RRDI) would be associated with increased cardiovascular disease (CVD) or mortality independent of the known effects of SDB on beat-to-beat variability. Results of this study have been previously reported in the form of an abstract ^{10, 11}.

Methods

<u>Participants:</u> We studied individuals from the WSCS. The protocols of the WSCS were approved by the Health Sciences Institutional Review Board of the University of Wisconsin-Madison. All participants provided written informed consent. Sampling and data collection protocols of the WSCS have been described previously ¹².

<u>Cohort Description:</u> The WSCS comprises 1546 adult employees of state agencies, ages 30-60 years old at the Cohort's inception, which underwent

attended in-laboratory overnight polysomnography (PSG) and provided healthrelated questionnaires approximately every four years. Data presented here were collected from August of 2000 through August 2016 (the period when digital PSG recording systems were in use by the WSCS). The most recent available PSG study was used for analysis. WSCS participants were eligible to be included in the study if they had full PSG with adequate ECG recording, not treated for SDB, had no prior CVD event and did not use beta blockers or chronotropic drugs (Table 1S; supplement) on the night of the sleep study or at any other point during follow-up.

Patient and Public Involvement: This study was a secondary analysis for preexisting data from an established cohort of the Wisconsin study. Therefore, participants were not involved in the design, recruitment, or conduct of this study.

<u>Predictor:</u> The main predictor variable is the hourly rate of R-R interval (RRI) changes assessed over an entire night's sleep period. The recorded ECG signals were retrieved from PSG to measure the RRI, which are time intervals between successive pairs of QRS complexes, by using software for the detection of R waves in LabChart 7 with heart rate variability Module (AD Instruments, Colorado Springs, CO) (Fig.1). In this program, ECG signal was examined and retrieved to a MatLab R2017a program (MathWorks, Natick, MA) developed and validated by our group to obtain RRI signal for the entire night (Fig. 2)^{13, 14}. The RRI dips, defined by a decreased RRI compared to the average RRI for the corresponding

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1-minute segment as a baseline, were collected. Given that 90% dips threshold correlated previously with most respiratory events (apneic and non-apneic respiratory events, defined below)¹⁴, total RRI dip index (RRDI) was defined by the number of RRI dips below the 90% baseline divided by the total PSG recording time in hours (from light on to light out), regardless of wake or sleep stages. Sleep RRDI for non-REM and REM stages combined were defined by the number of RRI dips below the 90% baseline divided by the total sleep time in hours (for both REM and non-REM sleep stages). Subsequently, sleep RRDI was calculated for specific sleep stages for REM and non-REM, respectively. In subgroup analysis, the gender differences in total and sleep RRDI were compared between men and women.

The person performing the analysis was blinded to the participant's demographic information. The RRDI values were examined as a continuous variable and as a categorical variable divided into tertiles [lower 25% (low), middle 50% (medium), and upper 25% (high)].

<u>Outcome:</u> Incident CVD events were death related to CVD, self-reported physician-diagnosed heart attack, heart failure, or a CVD procedure (angioplasty, stent, pacemaker, bypass, or defibrillation). Information on CVD events, including the date of the event, was obtained on the overnight health questionnaire. Death certificates and cause of mortality in the cohort were obtained by matching social security numbers with two data sources: The National Death Index (NDI) and the Wisconsin State Bureau of Health Information and Policy, Vial Records Section. All included participants in this study were able to complete the follow-up

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information. The censored analysis was used, and the data is censored at the last visit. If multiple events were reported over the course of follow-up, the first reported event was used in this analysis.

Covariates: Participants underwent a baseline overnight 18-channel PSG (Grass model 78; Quincy, MA) at the University of Wisconsin-Madison Clinical Research Unit using a standard protocol ¹⁵. The PSG recorded sleep state using electroencephalography, electrooculography, and electromyography; and breathing, using respiratory inductance plethysmography (Respitrace; Ambulatory Monitoring, Ardsley, NY), nasal and oral airflow (ProTec thermocouples; Hendersonville, TN) and oxyhemoglobin saturation, using pulse oximetry (Ohmeda Biox 3740, Englewood, CO). Each 30-second epoch of the polysomnographic recordings was scored for sleep stage, and apnea and hypopnea events by trained technicians and reviewed using standard criteria¹⁵. Appea was defined as the cessation of nasal and oral airflow for ≥ 10 seconds and hypopnea as a discernible reduction in breathing (sum of the chest and abdominal excursions) with a decrease in oxyhemoglobin saturation of $\geq 4\%$. The apnea-hypopnea index was calculated as the mean number of apnea and hypopnea events per hour of sleep.

Statistical analysis:

Cox proportional hazards regression was used to estimate adjusted hazard ratios and 95% CIs for the association between RRDI and subsequent risk of an

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incident CVD event ¹⁶. Because of the strong dependence of CVD risk on age, Cox-regression models were based on age as the time scale, (the age when RRDI was measured and age at the event) allowing for left truncation (late entry) ¹⁷. In addition to adjusting for age using this methodology, models 2 were adjusted for BMI and gender. Models 3 were adjusted for AHI 4% (as continuous and categorical variables [AHI<5, 5-15, or >15 events/hour]). Subsequently, models 4 were adjusted for other factors: diabetes, hypertension, stroke, smoking, average HR, % TST < 90%, Kaplan-Meier techniques were used to compare survival across RRDI categories¹⁸.

Results

Baseline characteristics:

Table 1 presents the baseline characteristics of the eligible participants. A total of 1440 sleep studies were examined for inclusion in this study as depicted in Figure 3. The final sample included 569 participants (one sleep study per participant) after excluding those on CPAP treatment, individuals who had a prior history of cardiovascular disease, use of beta blocker the night of the study or in other visits during the study, lack of follow up or if they had events before PSG. RRDI (at 90% threshold) significantly correlated with the following sleep parameters: AHI 4%, periodic legs movements index (PLMI) and respiratory EEG arousals (P<0.001) (Table 2).

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CVD incidence – association with total RRDI:

Using Cox Proportional Hazards Model, continuous total RRDI (with 90% threshold for RRI dips) was significantly associated with new-onset CVD event(s) (HR, 1.24 per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.10-1.39], P < 0.001) which remained significant after adjustment for age, BMI and gender (model 1) and the addition of AHI 4% (model 3) (as depicted in Table 3). Lower thresholds (80%, 70%, and 60%) of RRDI correlated with total RRDI 90% but were less sensitive in predicting CVD (less than 5 individuals attained RRDI >20 dips/h). The association between total RRDI at 90% threshold and the incidence of new-onset CVD remained significant after the adjustment for AHI 4% (model 3) (P < 0.001). Total RRDI category 3 (≥28.4/h vs <15.1 dips/h) was associated with increased CVD hazards risk of 6.1 (95% CI, 1.7-27.7, P = 0.005) and remained significant after adjustment for AHI 4% (P = 0.003). Continuous total RRDI 90% remained significant (HR, 1.22 (per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95%) CI, 1.08, 1.37], P = 0.001) after additionally adjusted for diabetes, hypertension, stroke, smoking, average heart rate, and % total time with oxygen saturation less than 90% (model 4) (as depicted in Table 3).

Figure 4 illustrates the changes in CVD incidence and hazard ratios for total RRDI less than 15.1 dips per hour (as reference), RRDI 15.1-28.4 dips per hour (second tertile) and for the third group (tertile) of individuals with RRDI equal or more than 28.4 dips per hour. Kaplan-Meier survival curves (Fig.5) illustrate

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decreased CVD event-free survival with increasing total RRDI category from RRDI less than 15.1 to RRDI equal or more than 28.4 dips per hour.

CVD incidence – association with sleep RRDI:

Using Cox Proportional Hazards Model, continuous sleep RRDI 90% was significantly associated with new-onset CVD event(s) (HR, 1.21 per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.09-1.35], P < 0.001) which remained significant after the model adjusted for age, BMI and gender (model 2) and the addition of AHI 4% (model 3) (as depicted in Table 4). RRDI category 3 (≥23.5/h vs. <9.0/h) was associated with increased CVD hazards risk of 3.39 (95% CI, 1.06-</p> 10.85, P = 0.04) and remained significant after adjustment for demographics and AHI 4% (model 4) (P = 0.037). The relationship between sleep RRDI categories and CVD events were predominantly in non-REM sleep as depicted in Table 5. Continuous RRDI 90% during REM sleep was significant (HR, 1.19 per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.07-1.32], P = 0.001) in the unadjusted model (model 1) and remained significant after the model adjusted for age, BMI and gender (model 2) and the addition of AHI 4% (model 3) (as depicted in Table 6). However, sleep RRDI category 3 (≥24/h vs. <9.0/h) was only significant in the unadjusted model (model 1) with hazards risk of new CVD events of 2.92 (p=0.04).

Cardiovascular events were detected in twenty-five participants (4%), of the sample, over a follow-up interval of 15 years with mean age 59 years old (range

41-80). Cardiovascular events consisted of heart failure, heart attack, CVD Procedure (before any events), or CVD Death (Table 7). No difference between mean age at the start for those who had CVD vs not (P=0.58).

Gender effect on the association of CVD incidence with total and sleep RRDI:

Table 8 presents the baseline characteristics of men and women participants and associated total and sleep RRDI. While BMI was higher in women (32.0 \pm 7.0 *vs*. 30.0 \pm 5.0 kg/m², P=0.0001), men had higher AHI, total RRDI and sleep RRDI than women (P<0.01). Using Cox Proportional Hazards adjusted model (3) (for age, body mass index, and AHI 4%), continuous total RRDI 90% was significantly associated with new-onset CVD event(s) in men (HR, 1.22 per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.06, 1.40], P<0.001) but not in women (as depicted in Table 8). Likewise, continuous sleep RRDI 90% was significantly associated with new-onset CVD event(s) in men (HR, 1.19 per 10-unit increment in RRDI [95% CI, 1.04, 1.36], P<0.05) but not in women. Using total RRDI threshold of 20 dips per hour or more from the adjusted model (model 3) was associated with increased CVD hazards risk of 4.34 in men only (95% CI, 1.32, 14.34, P = 0.016).

Discussion

Our study prospectively examined the relationship of nocturnal beat-to-beat RR interval changes, i.e. brief accelerations in the heart rate, with long-term cardiovascular outcomes. The study revealed several important and novel findings. First, increased frequency of heart rate accelerations (RRDI) during sleep study was associated with the development of cardiac events or mortality in a prospective large community-based cohort of individuals over a follow-up interval of 15 years, who had no known heart disease at the time of their sleep study. Second, the relationship between total RRDI and incidence of CVD remained significant after adjusting for demographics, SDB severity using AHI 4%, hypoxemia, and other comorbidities. Third, the frequency of total RRDI was higher in men than in women and associated with CVD predominantly in men.

To our knowledge, this is the first community-based cohort that has shown an association between adverse cardiovascular outcomes and heart rate changes during sleep. Specifically, we found that the association between RRDI and incidence of new CVD events was independent of AHI (with a 4% desaturation threshold for hypopnea scoring) and hypoxia. Prior studies assessed the relationship between AHI using different thresholds and adverse cardiovascular consequences. For example, in the Sleep Heart Health Study (SHHS), Punjabi, et al. (2008) found an association of cardiovascular morbidity with SDB characterized by breathing events defined as having ≥4% de-saturations, but not by SDB characterized by de-saturations of less than 4% ¹⁹. More recently, it has

been found that the desaturation hypoxic burden related to respiratory events, measured by the integration of the severity of the desaturation and its length, predicted CVD mortality²⁰. Another study that examined heart rate variability during sleep found that SDB patients had shorter RRI and increased sympathetic burst frequency (49±4 bursts/min) compared with control subjects ²¹. The authors speculated that abnormalities in heart rate and blood pressure variability might be implicated in the subsequent development of cardiovascular disease in patients with SDB. The present study confirmed this association between the frequency of heart rate accelerations (RRDI) and adverse cardiovascular consequence in a prospective large cohort of individuals who had no known heart disease at the time of their sleep study.

The mechanism of increased incidence of CVD and association with RRDI can be explained by an increased sympathetic tone and autonomic arousals. First, sleep disturbances like SDB, periodic limb movements, insufficient sleep are all associated with an increased risk of CVD. These sleep disorders are commonly associated with impaired autonomic nervous system leading to increased sympathetic tone²². Furthermore, sleep fragmentation due to autonomic or respiratory arousals from sleep increases the cardiac sympathetic tone activity resulting in a sudden elevation in vascular tone and heart rate generating a rise in arterial blood pressure ^{22, 23}. The increased sympathetic tone in patients with heart disease has been proposed as an intermediate outcome linking heart rate variability with increased mortality ²⁴. Resting heart rate also has been linked to CVD in patients with SDB and COPD ^{21, 25, 26}. Second, the augmented shear

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forces due to intermittent episodes of tachycardia secondary to respiratory events and the resultant mechanical shear forces may lead to endothelial dysfunction ²⁷. This possibility is physiologically plausible particularly in male patients,²⁸ who may have significant endothelial dysfunction secondary to activation of several inflammatory pathways. Such pathophysiologic changes in untreated SDB patients have been linked to nocturnal angina, myocyte necrosis leading to cardiomyopathy, and cardiac remodeling ²⁹⁻³¹. Our findings corroborate these pathological changes particularly in the coronary vessels making the vast majority of CVD events either related to CAD (48%) or myocardial infarction (36%), predominantly in men. On the other hand, medications such as Betablockers attenuate the increase in heart rate related to respiratory events during sleep in patients with hypertension and untreated SDB ³². This modulation of cardiac responses in patients with SDB provides a mechanism by which Betablockers may decrease the risk of sudden cardiac death, particularly in patients with CVD ³³. Finally, hypoxic events can affect the autonomic cardiac response and generate significant RRI dips events ³⁴. Hypoxemia and RRI dips may represent different features of SDB-related stress, both of which may contribute to CVD morbidity and mortality through independent pathways. Our findings suggest a need to further identify the intermediate mechanisms that link RRI dips events to long-term outcomes.

This study has several strengths including its prospective design with longitudinal follow-up of participants, community-based including a diverse group of ages and morbidities from both genders, and the use of the gold-standard laboratory-based

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polysomnography for assessment of SDB. This study assessed the role of heart rate changes, a heritable and physiological phenotype, on CVD outcome. These findings can allow clinicians to identify early on high-risk patients and implement an intervention to prevent cardiovascular disease and premature death. In addition, our study used a novel method of automatic detection of heart rate accelerations that can be translated into an executable program or a plug-in for sleep scoring software and can be used in any sleep study across the world. The study has some limitations. First, we used the self-reported diagnosis of CVD (including dates of diagnosis). However, there is evidence that self-reported CVD is very reliable and accurate as noted in the AusDiab cohort. Barr et al. reported more than 99% of self-reported CVD events were correctly verified in the patients' medical records; only 0.2% of those denying any CVD event being recorded as having had an event on the medical record ³⁵. Second, we lack racial diversity in our study as 95% was reported as a white race. Therefore, the results may not be generalizable to other races. Third, the incidence of CVD in this population is relatively smaller than what was observed in other high cardiovascular risk population. This is might be due to the inclusion of only those who have no prior history of CVD. Finally, the study excluded participants who had preexisting cardiac disease history (history of any CVD event as listed in table 7), were on CPAP treatment or were on beta-blocker and/or other chronotropic medications, which alter the cardiac autonomic responses, particularly heart rate bursts following respiratory events. Therefore, this study could not include all WSCS participants and might not be applicable to

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individuals with heart disease or if taking Beta-blocker or chronotropic medications. Likewise, this study might not be applicable to individuals with arrhythmia, frequent ectopic beats and in case of cardiac pacemakers.

Clinical Perspectives:

The association between heart rate changes and the cardiovascular outcome may have significant clinical implications. First, the association between increased incidence of cardiovascular events and the RRI dips index suggest that early detection of heart rate fluctuations during sleep could identify those who are at increased risk of future CVD events and inform primary preventions strategies. Second, several behavioral factors³⁶ and medical conditions, such as SDB³⁷ and COPD²⁶, are associated with changes in resting heart rate, which increase the risk of cardiovascular diseases. Third, the attenuation of heart rate accelerations by Beta-blockers during sleep as recently shown in patients with SDB,³² indicate that Beta-blockers may play an important role in preventing CVD. However, large prospective clinical studies are needed to confirm this finding.

In summary, this study demonstrates that after adjusting for age, BMI, sex, AHI, and other comorbidities, people with high RRI dips index during sleep study are at increased risk for incident CVD events. These results suggest that assessing the ECG of high-risk patients for RRDI during sleep may assist in predicting cardiovascular disease early on. Further research is needed to understand the

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2 3	pathophysiology of heart rate bursts during sleep and whether the RRI dips
4	patrophysiology of heart rate buists during sleep and whether the rate ups
5 6	provide markers of subclinical cardiac disease or whether their occurrence
7 8	represents pathophysiological responses to respiratory events that increase the
9 10	risk of cardiovascular morbidity.
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Characteristics	Value
n	569
Age in years, mean (sd) range	58 (8) 39-79
Body Mass Index in kg/m ² , mean (sd)	31 (7) 18-66
range	
Years to Event/Censor, mean (sd) range	8 (4) 0.1-15
Males, n (%)	300 (53)
Apnea-Hypopnea Index, n (%)	
< 5	253 (44)
5-15	168 (30)
> 15	148 (26)
Diabetes, n (%)	32 (6)
Hypertension, n (%)	191 (34)
Stroke, n (%)	11 (2)
Antihypertensive Medication Use	133 (24)
(excluding Beta Blockers or any	2/
chronotropic medication), n (%)	
Smoking, n (%)	
Current	63 (11)
Past	213 (37)
Never	293 (52)
White Race, n (%)	538 (97)

Number of Alcoholic drinks per week,	4 (5) 0-32	
mean (sd) range		
Total Sleep time, minutes, Mean (sd)	368 (61) 30-514	
range		
Percent Stage 1 Sleep,	10.6 (6.5)	
mean (sd)		
Percent Stage 2 Sleep,	65.0 (9.3)	
mean (sd)		
Percent Stage 3,4 Sleep, mean (sd)	7.8 (8.0)	
Percent REM Sleep,	16.6 (6.4)	
mean (sd)		
Mean SaO2, mean (sd)	95.4 (1.8)	
Mean Desaturation, mean (sd)	4.5 (1.5)	
Percentage of Total Sleep Time below	2.7 (11.2)	
90% Saturation, mean (sd)		
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Table 2: Pearson Correlation for RRDI (at 90% threshold):

	Correlation Coefficients	P value
AHI 4%	0.18	<.0001
PLMI	0.19	<.0001
Respiratory arousal	0.24	<.0001
index		
Leg movement arousal index	0.23	<.0001
Spontaneous arousal	-0.09	0.127
index	8	

Abbreviations: AHI 4%= apnea-hypopnea index based on hypopnea associated with 4 % desaturation; PLMI=periodic legs movement index; RRDI= R-R interval dips index.

Table 3: The adjusted time to event Cox Proportional Hazards Models for **total RRDI** predicting the incidence of CVD event.

	CVD	Hazard Ratio (95% CI)				
	Events		p-value			
	N (%)	Unadjuste d Model (1)	Adjusted Model (2)	Adjusted Model (3)	Adjusted Model (4)	
Continuous RRDI (10- unit	24/569 (4)	1.24 (1.10, 1.39)	1.22 (1.08, 1.38)	1.23 (1.11, 1.38)	1.22 (1.08, 1.37)	
increment)		0.0003	0.0018	0.0007	0.0012	
RRDI Category		, Ç				
Tertile 1	3/187	REF	REF	REF	REF	
(< 15.1)	(2)		0.70 (0.70		2.02.(0.00	
Tertile 2	7/194	2.66 (0.68, 10.34)	2.72 (0.70, 10.59)	3.16 (0.81, 12.40)	3.22 (0.80, 12.93)	
(15.1-< 28.4)	(4)	0.1586	0.1481	0.099	0.10	
Tertile 3	14/188	6.11 (1.72, 21.72)	5.87 (1.60, 21.46)	7.40 (1.97, 27.73)	8.99 (2.35, 34.40)	
(≥ 28.4)	(7)	0.0052	0.0075	0.003	0.001	
p-trend		0.0024	0.0045	0.0017	0.0006	

Abbreviations: AHI 4%, apnea-hypopnea index with hypopnea scored if associated with at least 4 % desaturation (events/hour); HR, hazard ratio; RRDI, R-R interval dips index (dips/hour); HTN, hypertension; % TST<90, total sleep time spent less than 90% on oxygen saturation signal (%). Model (1) is unadjusted. Model (2) is adjusted for age, sex, and body mass index. Model (3) is additionally adjusted for age, sex, body mass index, and AHI (4% criteria). Model (4) is additionally adjusted for diabetes, HTN, stroke, and smoking, average HR, and % TST < 90%.

Table 4: The adjusted time to event Cox Proportional Hazards Models for sleep**RRDI** predicting the incidence of CVD event.

	CVD	Hazard Ratio (95% CI)			
	Events	p-value			
	N (%)	Unadjusted Model (1)	Adjusted Model (2)	Adjusted Model (3)	Adjusted Model (4)
Continuous RRDI (10-unit increment)	24/569 (4)	1.21 (1.09, 1.35) 0.0006	1.29 (1.06, 1.33) 0.0037	1.20 (1.07, 1.34) 0.0015	1.19 (1.06, 1.33) 0.003
RRDI Category		2			0.005
Tertile 1 (< 9.0)	4/187 (2)	REF	REF	REF	REF
Tertile 2 (9.0- < 23.5)	9/194 (5)	2.61 (0.79, 8.57) 0.1144	2.46 (0.75, 8.11) 0.1383	2.66 (0.80, 8.77) 0.1092	2.79 (0.83, 9.36) 0.10
Tertile 3 (≥ 23.5)	11/188 (6)	3.39 (1.06, 10.84) 0.0398	2.94 (0.91, 9.56) 0.0729	3.61 (1.08, 12.10) 0.0373	4.00 (1.17, 13.68) 0.027
p-trend		0.0392	0.0768	0.0365	0.026

Abbreviations: AHI 4%, apnea-hypopnea index with hypopnea scored if associated with at least 4 % desaturation (events/hour); HR, hazard ratio; RRDI, R-R interval dips index (dips/hour); HTN, hypertension; % TST<90, total sleep time spent less than 90% on oxygen saturation signal (%). Model (1) is unadjusted. Model (2) is adjusted for age, sex, and body mass index. Model (3) is additionally adjusted for age, sex, body mass index, and AHI (4% criteria). Model (4) is additionally adjusted for diabetes, HTN, stroke, and smoking, average HR, and % TST < 90%.

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Table 5: The adjusted time to event Cox Proportional Hazards Models for RRDIduring non-REM sleep predicting the incidence of CVD event.

	CVD	Hazard Ratio (95% CI)			
	Events	p-value			
	N (%)	Unadjusted Model (1)	Adjusted Model (2)	Adjusted Model (3)	
Continuous RRDI (10-	24/569	1.19 (1.08, 1.33)	1.17 (1.05, 1.31)	1.18 (1.07, 1.32)	
unit increment)	(4)	0.0009	0.0044	0.0019	
RRDI Category					
Tertile 1	4/187	REF	REF	REF	
(< 8.5)	(2)		R		
Tertile 2	9/194	2.69 (0.82, 8.86)	2.69 (0.82, 8.82)	2.85 (0.87, 9.36)	
(8.5-< 22.6)	(5)	0.1040	0.1023	0.0849	
Tertile 3	11/188	3.40 (1.06,	3.11 (0.96,	3.92 (1.18,	
(≥ 22.6)	(6)	10.94) 0.0389	10.06) 0.0577	13.09) 0.0263	
p-trend		0.0390	0.0612	0.0249	

Abbreviations: AHI 4%, apnea-hypopnea index with hypopnea scored if associated with at least 4 % desaturation (events/hour); HR, hazard ratio; RRDI, R-R interval dips index (dips/hour). Model (1) is unadjusted. Model (2) is adjusted for age, sex, and body mass index. Model (3) is additionally adjusted for age, sex, body mass index, and AHI (4% criteria).

during REM sleep predicting the incidence of CVD event.

	CVD	Hazard Ratio (95% CI)			
	Events	p-value			
	N	Unadjusted Model (1)	Adjusted Model (2)	Adjusted Model (3)	
	(%)				
Continuous RRDI (10-unit increment)	24/569	1.19 (1.07, 1.32)	1.17 (1.05, 1.31)	1.19 (1.07, 1.33)	
	(4)				
		0.0013	0.0056	0.0016	
RRDI Category	2				
Tertile 1	5/187	REF	REF	REF	
(< 9.0)	(3)				
Tertile 2	7/194	1.34 (0.42,	1.19 (0.37,	1.24 (0.39,	
	(4)	4.24)	3.78)	4.00)	
(9.0- < 24.0)	(4)	0.6222	0.7732	0.7171	
Tertile 3	12/188	2.92 (1.00,	2.42 (0.80,	2.69 (0.88,	
		8.55)	7.29)	8.19)	
(≥ 24.0)	(6)	,	,	,	
		0.0508	0.1173	0.0825	
p-trend		0.0393	0.0936	0.0657	

Abbreviations: AHI 4%, apnea-hypopnea index with hypopnea scored if associated with at least 4 % desaturation (events/hour); HR, hazard ratio; RRDI, R-R interval dips index (dips/hour). Model (1) is unadjusted. Model (2) is adjusted for age, sex, and body mass index. Model (3) is additionally adjusted for age, sex, body mass index, and AHI (4% criteria).

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Table 7: A summary of CVD events types.

	CVD events types (n=24)
First Event Type*	N (%)
Myocardial Infarction	9 (36)
Heart Failure	4 (17)
Pacemaker	2 (8)
CAD/Intervention	12 (48)
Bypass Surgery	1 (4)
CVD Death	5 (20)

*Individuals could have multiple type events (for example myocardial infarction and stent and coronary artery disease). If multiple events were reported over the course of follow-up, the first reported event was used in this analysis.

Table 8: Adjusted time to event Cox Proportional Hazards Models for RRDIPredicting Incidence of CVD Event Stratified by Gender for Continuous RRDI andacross Categories of Participants with RRDI more than 20 dips per hour.

	Males (n=300)	Females (n=269)	P-value
Age, mean (SD)	58 (8)	58 (8)	0.52
Body Mass Index, kg/m ² , mean (SD)	30 (5)	32 (7)	0.0001
AHI, mean (SD)	13 (16)	10 (12)	0.0045
RRDI(SLEEP), mean (SD)	26 (24)	18 (21)	< 0.0001
RRDI (ALL), mean (SD)	30 (23)	22 (20)	<0.0001
RRDI (SLEEP) >20, n (%)	143 (48)	78 (29)	< 0.0001
RRDI (ALL) >20, n (%)	179 (60)	105 (39)	<0.0001
	Adjusted Model (3)* (95% Cl) p-value	Adjusted Model (3) * (95% Cl) p-value	
Continuous RRDI (SLEEP) (10-unit	1.19 (1.04, 1.36)	1.22 (0.96, 1.54)	
increment)	0.011	0.109	
RRDI Category			
<20	REF	REF	
>20	1.85 (0.67, 5.07) 0.234	1.29 (0.22, 7.47) 0.779	
	Adjusted Model (3)* (95% Cl)	Adjusted Model (3) * (95% Cl) p-value	
Continuous RRDI (ALL)	p-value 1.22 (1.06, 1.40)	1.25 (0.97, 1.67)	
(10-unit increment)	0.006	0.086	
RRDI Category			
<20	REF	REF	
>20	4.34 (1.32, 14.34) 0.016	2.03 (0.38, 10.77) 0.407	

Abbreviations: AHI 4%, apnea-hypopnea index with hypopnea scored if associated with at least 4 % desaturation (events/hour); HR, hazard ratio; RRDI,

R-R interval dips index (dips/hour). * Model adjusted for age, body mass index, and AHI 4% categories.

Figure Legends

Figure 1: (A) A representative polygraph from one subject in the Wisconsin Sleep Cohort Study (WSCS) that illustrate changes in respective heart rate and computed R-R-intervals (RRI) tracing during sleep. (B) A magnified segment of ECG illustrating RRI following respiratory event (apnea). The RRI tracing was retro-graphed from the exported signal that calculates RRI from raw ECG recordings. Abbreviations: EEG= electroencephalogram; EMG= electromyogram; ECG=electrocardiogram; RRI=R-R interval. Open arrows indicate oxygen desaturation following apnea and closed arrows indicate RRI dip following apnea.

Figure 2: A representative computed data of RRI and oxygen saturation (S_aO_2) from one individual during sleep. The red dots represent the RRI dips throughout the duration of the PSG recording (approximately 8 hours). The RRI dips index (RRDI) at 90% threshold for this participant was 54.5 dips /hour, the average heart rate was 61.1 BPM, and the ODI (3%) was 2.3 de-saturations/hour (from the original PSG recording). The RRI tracing was retro-graphed from the exported signal that calculates RRI and S_aO_2 from raw ECG and pulse oximetry recordings, respectively. Abbreviations: ECG, electrocardiogram; ODI, oxygen desaturation index; RRI, R-R intervals; S_aO_2 , oxygen saturation.

Figure 3: The Wisconsin Sleep Cohort Study (WSCS) sample. ECG= electrocardiography; PSG= polysomnography; CPAP= continuous positive airway pressure.

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Figure 4: Incidence of composite CVD and hazard ratios across different total RRDI severity: Category 1 as a reference (RRDI < 15.1), category 2 (RRDI 15.1-
<28.4), and category 3 (RRDI \ge 28.4) (n = 569). CVD=Cardiovascular disease;
RRDI=R-R interval dips index. (*) versus unadjusted model (1) RRDI <15.1 dips per hour, P<0.01; (**) versus adjusted model (3) RRDI <15.1 dips per hour, P<0.01.

Figure 5: Kaplan-Meier estimates of the likelihood of survival according to total RRDI severity: Category 1 as a reference (RRDI < 15.1), category 2 (RRDI 15.1- < 28.4), and category 3 (RRDI ≥ 28.4) (n = 569); log-rank test for differences in survival by RRDI category; Survival was lower for category 3 compared to group 1 and 2. RRDI is a mean number of RRI dips/hr of total recording time of PSG. RRDI=R-R interval dips index.

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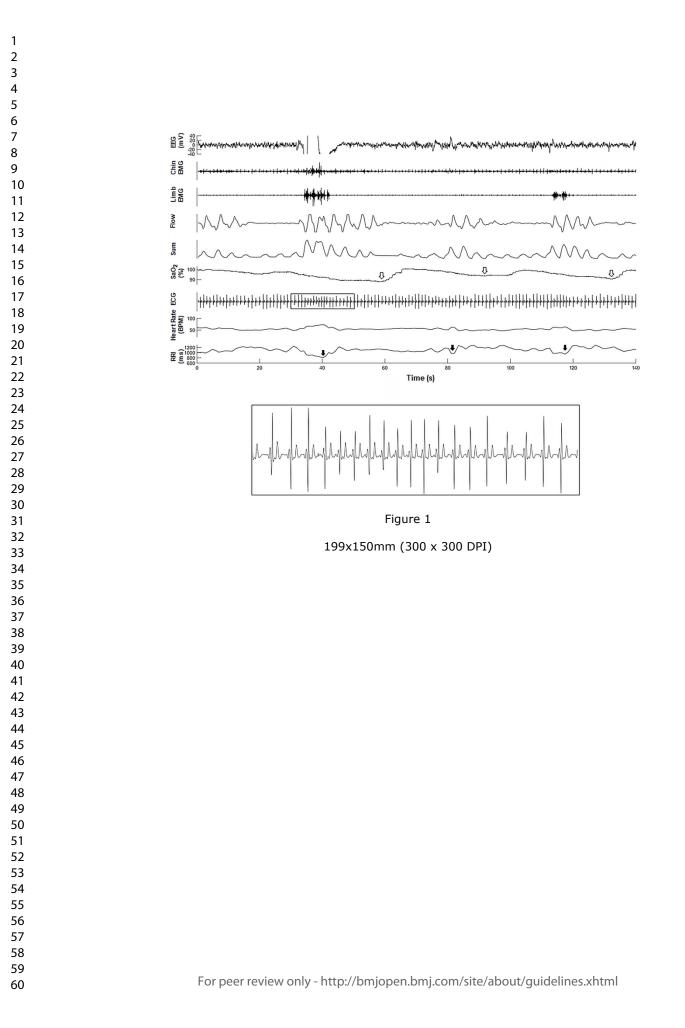
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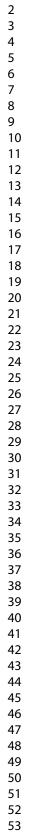
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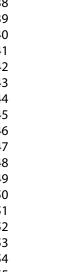
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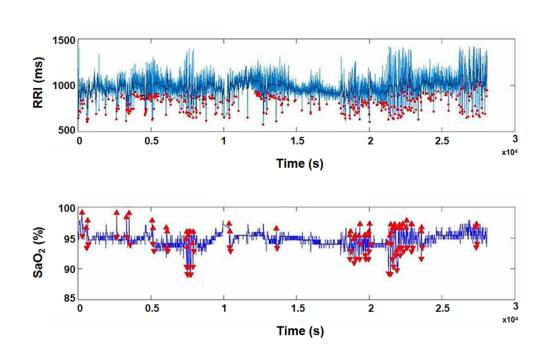
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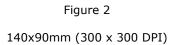


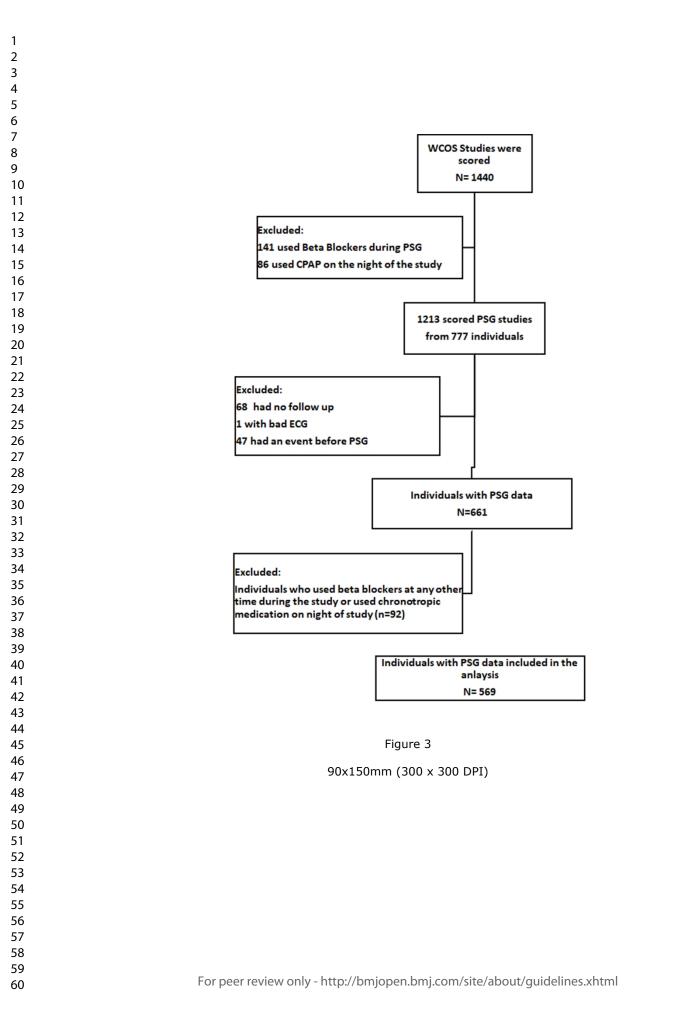
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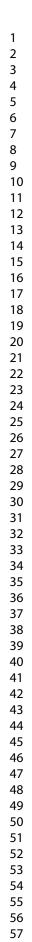






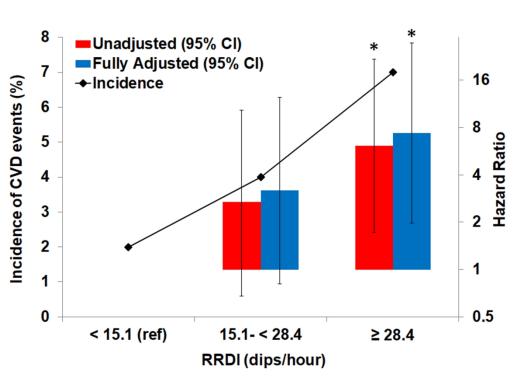


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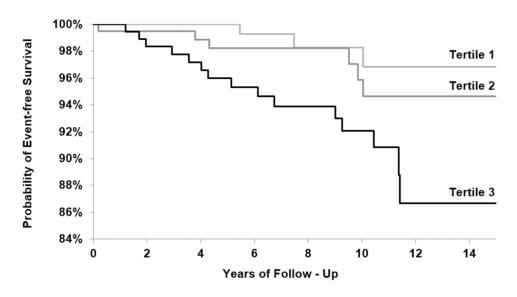
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Not at Risk	0	2	4	6	8	10	12	14
Tertile 1	188	176	156	128	88	68	29	1
Tertile 2	193	182	160	134	106	79	35	2
Tertile 3	188	175	163	138	116	86	29	1

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Figure 5

Supplements Materials:

Analysis supplement:

Table 1S. Medications were taken by individuals excluded due to the potential effect on

heart rate.

Medication name (Brand)]
Metoprolol tartrate (Lopressor, nebivolol)	-
Enalapril maleate (Vasotec)	-
Nadolol (Corgard)	-
Atenolol (Tenormin, Zebeta)	
Betaxolol hydrochloride (Kerlone)	
Acebutolol hydrochloride (Sectral)	
Clonidine (Catapres, other alpha adrenergic	
agonist agents)	6
Atenolol & Chlorthalidone (Tenoretic)	
Metoprolol succinate (Toprol XL)	
Diazac	
Labetalol Hydrochloride (Normodyne, Tradate)	
Betachron (Propranolol)	
Ziac (Hydrocholorothiazide / Bisoprolol combo)	
Carvediol (Coreg, Cartrol)	
Pindolol (Visken)	
Diltiazem HCL (Cardizem, Dilacor, Taztia XT,	
Tiazac)	
Amiodarone HCI (Cordarone, tikosyn)	

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10 11 12 13 14	Title and abstract	1		1-3	Longitudinal Effect of Nocturnal R-R Intervals Changes on Cardiovascular Outcome in a Community-Based Cohort
15 16	Introduction				
17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37	Background/ration ale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported	5	While recent reports included measurements of sleep fragmentation and respiratory event duration as a surrogate of arousal threshold, ⁵ it did not include direct measurements of sympathetic activity and heart rate changes related to these events and its physiological stressors. Nocturnal heart rate variability, not day-time, is a heritable phenotype ⁶ independent of covariates, suggesting that genetic factors play an important role in controlling these cardiovascular risk factors ⁷ . Therefore, R-R interval, a time domain measure of heart rate variability, may reflect a physiological trait that predicts the risk of adverse cardiovascular outcomes, otherwise missed by SDB severity classification using traditional AHI and desaturation crietria ⁸ . However, the long-term effect of heart rate
38 39					changes during sleep on the cardiovascular outcome and mortality is unknown.
40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51	Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	6	The objectives of this study were to examine whether R-R interval (RRI) or heart rate accelerations can serve as predictors of cardiovascular disease in the Wisconsin Sleep Cohort study (WSCS), a prospective community cohort. We hypothesized that increased nocturnal RRI dip index (RRDI) would be associated with increased cardiovascular disease (CVD) or mortality independent of the known effects of SDB on beat-to-beat variability.
52	Methods				
53 54 55 56	Study design	4	Present key elements of study	7	Cohort study design
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		design early in the		
		paper		
Setting	5	Describe the	7-8	Cohort Description: The WSCS comprises
		setting, locations,		1546 adult employees of state agencies,
		and relevant dates,		ages 30-60 years old at the Cohort's inception, which underwent attended in-
		including periods		laboratory overnight polysomnography
		of recruitment,		(PSG) and provided health-related questionnaires approximately every four
		exposure, follow-		years. Data presented here were collected
		up, and data		from August of 2000 through August 2016 (the period when digital PSG recording
		collection		systems were in use by the WSCS). The
		conection		most recent available PSG study was used
Participants	6	(a) Cohort study—	8	for analysis. WSCS participants were eligible to be
		Give the eligibility		included in the study if they had full PSG
		criteria, and the		with adequate ECG recording, not treated for SDB, had no prior CVD event and did
		sources and		not use beta blockers or chronotropic
		methods of		drugs (Table 3S; supplement) on the night of the sleep study or at any other point
		selection of		during follow-up.
		participants.		
		Describe methods		
		of follow-up		
		0110110w-up		
Variables	7	Clearly define all	8	The main predictor variable is the hourly
Variables	2	outcomes,	0	rate of R-R interval (RRI) changes
		exposures,		assessed over an entire night's sleep period. The recorded ECG signals were
		predictors,		retrieved from PSG to measure the RRI
		potential		
		-		
		confounders, and effect modifiers.		
		Give diagnostic		
		criteria, if		
		applicable		
Data sources/	8*	For each variable	7	We studied individuals from the WSCS.
measurement		of interest, give		
		sources of data and		

1 2					
3			details of methods		
4 5			of assessment		
6			(measurement).		
7 8			Describe		
9			comparability of		
10 11			assessment		
12			methods if there is		
13 14					
15			more than one		
16 17			group		
18	Bias	9	Describe any	9	The person performing the analysis was blinded to the participant's demographic
19 20			efforts to address		information.
21			potential sources of		
22 23			bias		
24 25	Study size	10	Explain how the	11	A total of 1440 sleep studies were
25 26			study size was		examined for inclusion in this study as depicted in Figure 3. The final sample
27 28			arrived at		included 569 participants (one sleep study
28 29					per participant) after excluding those on CPAP treatment, individuals who had a
30 31					prior history of cardiovascular disease, use
31					of beta blocker the night of the study or in other visits during the study, lack of follow
33 34					up or if they had events before PSG.
35	O- utimus d				
36 37	Continued	on next	page		
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46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57					
46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56					
46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58		For pe	eer review only - http://bmjoj	oen.bmj.co	om/site/about/guidelines.xhtml

_	Quantitative	11	Explain how quantitative	9	The RRDI values were examined as a continuous	
	variables		' BMJ Ope variables were handled in	'n	variable and as a categorical variable divided thto tertiles [lower 25% (low), middle 50% (medium),	51
1			the analyses. If		and upper 25% (high)].	
2			applicable, describe			BMJ
3 4			which groupings were			Oper
5			chosen and why			BMJ Open: first
6_ 7	Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical	11		t publis
8 9			methods, including those		estimate adjusted hazard ratios and 95% CIs for the association between RRDI and subsequent ris	en sile
10			used to control for		of an incident CVD event. In addition to adjusting	id as
11 12			confounding		for age using this methodology, models were adjusted for BMI and gender. Models were	10.1
13					subsequently adjusted for AHI 4% (as continuous	136/t
14 15					and categorical variables [AHI<5, 5-15, or >15 events/hour]). Subsequently, the model was	omjop
16 17					adjusted for other factors: diabetes, hypertension,	ben-2
18					stroke, smoking, average HR, % TST < 90%, Kaplan-Meier techniques were used to compare	2019-
19 20					survival across RRDI categories	0305
21 22			(b) Describe any methods		NA	00 0
22 23			used to examine			n 17
24 25			subgroups and			July
26			interactions			2019
27 28			(c) Explain how missing		There was no missing data	10.1136/bmjopen-2019-030559 on 17 July 2019. Downloaded from
29			data were addressed	,		wnlþa
30 31			(d) Cohort study—If		All eligible participants had follow up.	aded
32 33			applicable, explain how			from
34			loss to follow-up was			
35 36			addressed		7	http://bmjopen.
37			(<u>e</u>) Describe any	12	Lower thresholds (80%, 70%, and 60%) of RRDI correlated with total RRDI 90% but were less	jopei
38 39			sensitivity analyses		sensitive in predicting CVD (less than 5 individuals	n.bm
40					sensitive in predicting CVD (less than 5 individuals attained RRDI >20 dips/h). The association between total RRDI at 90% threshold and the	j.con
41 42					incidence of new-onset CVD remained significant	on
43 _ 44	Results				after the adjustment for AHI 4% (P < 0.001)	April
45	Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of	31	Figure 3: The Wisconsin Sleep Cohort Study	23, 2
46 47			individuals at each stage		(WSCS) sample	2024
48			of study—eg numbers			by g
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			potentially eligible,		
			examined for eligibility,		
			confirmed eligible,		
			included in the study,		
)			completing follow-up, and		
l			analysed		
2			(b) Give reasons for non-		
-			participation at each		
<u>.</u>			stage		
3			(c) Consider use of a flow		
)			diagram		
Descript	tive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of		Table 1
<u>2</u> 3			study participants (eg		
1			demographic, clinical,		
5			social) and information on		
,			exposures and potential		
			confounders		
)			(b) Indicate number of		NA
2			participants with missing		
;			data for each variable of		
5			interest		
5			(c) Cohort study—	14	a follow-up interval of 15 years
3			Summarise follow-up time		
)			(eg, average and total		
1 2			amount)		
Outcom	e data	15*	Cohort study—Report	14	Cardiovascular events were detected in twenty-fiv
1 5			numbers of outcome		participants (4%), of the sample, over a follow-up interval of 15 years with mean age 59 years old
5 7			events or summary		(range 41- 80). Cardiovascular events consisted of
3			measures over time		heart failure, heart attack, CVD Procedure (before any events), or CVD Death (Table 7).
)			Case-control study—		
			Report numbers in each		
2 3			exposure category, or		
1			summary measures of		
5 5					
7 8					
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2 3		exposure			BMJ Open: first published
4 5		Cross-sectional study—			ben: fi
6		Report numbers of			irst p
7 8		outcome events or			ublis
9 10		summary measures			ned a
11	Main results 16	(a) Give unadjusted	12	Using Cox Proportional Hazards Model, continue	<u>ຂ</u> ວບ ຮ
12 13		estimates and, if		total RRDI (with 90% threshold for RRI dips) was	.1136
14		applicable, confounder-		significantly associated with new-onset CVD event(s) (HR, 1.24 per 10-unit increment in RRD	
15 16		adjusted estimates and		[95% CI, 1.10-1.39], P < 0.001) which remained significant after adjustment for age, BMI and	jopen
17 18		their precision (eg, 95%		gender (model 1) and the addition of AHI 4%	-201
19		confidence interval). Make		(model 2) (as depicted in Table 3). Lower thresholds (80%, 70%, and 60%) of RRDI	136/bmjopen-2019-030559 ∽
20 21		clear which confounders		correlated with total RRDI 90% but were less	
22 23		were adjusted for and why		sensitive in predicting CVD (less than 5 individua attained RRDI >20 dips/h). The association	alsg
23 24		they were included		between total RRDI at 90% threshold and the	7 July
25 26				incidence of new-onset CVD remained significar after the adjustment for AHI 4% (P < 0.001). Tota	"N
27				PPDI category 3 (>28 $1/h$ vs <15 1 dins/h) was	.9
28 29				associated with increased CVD hazards risk of 6 (95% Cl, $1.7-27.7$, P = 0.005) and remained	5.1§
30				significant after adjustment for AHI 4% (P = 0.00	3) <u>d</u>
31 32		(b) Report category	12	Figure 4 illustrates the changes in CVD incidence and hazard ratios for total RRDI less than 15.1 d	æ≛
33 34		boundaries when		per hour (as reference), RRDI 15.1-28.4 dips pe	• •
34 35		continuous variables were		hour (second tertile) and for the third group (terti of individuals with RRDI equal or more than 28.4	
36 37		categorized		dips per hour.	Jiop
38		(c) If relevant, consider			en.b
39 40		translating estimates of			mj.cc
41		relative risk into absolute			om/ c
42 43		risk for a meaningful time			n Ap
44 45		period			vril 23
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Other analyses	17	Report other analyses	14	Table 8 presents the baseline
		done—eg analyses of		characteristics of men and women participants and associated total
		subgroups and		and sleep RRDI.
		interactions, and		
		sensitivity analyses		
Discussion				
Key results	18	Summarise key results	15	The study revealed several
		with reference to study		important and novel findings. Firs increased frequency of heart rate
		objectives		accelerations (RRDI) during sleep
				study was associated with the development of cardiac events or
				mortality in a prospective large
				community-based cohort of
				individuals over a follow-up interv
				of 15 years, who had no known heart disease at the time of their
				sleep study. Second, the
				relationship between total RRDI
				and incidence of CVD remained significant after adjusting for
				demographics, SDB severity usin
				AHI 4%, hypoxemia, and other
				comorbidities. Third, the frequence of total RRDI was higher in men
				than in women and associated
				with CVD predominantly in men.
Limitations	19	Discuss limitations of	18-	This study has several strengths including its prospective design
		the study, taking into	19	with longitudinal follow-up of
		account sources of		participants, community-based
		potential bias or		including a diverse group of ages and morbidities from both gender
		imprecision. Discuss		and the use of the gold-standard
		both direction and		laboratory-based polysomnography for assessment
		magnitude of any		of SDB. This study assessed the
		potential bias		role of heart rate changes, a
				heritable and physiological phenotype, on CVD outcome.
				These findings can allow clinician
				to identify early on high-risk
				patients and implement an intervention to prevent
				cardiovascular disease and
				premature death. In addition, our
				study used a novel method of
				automatic detection of heart rate

accelerations that can be translated into an executable program or a plug-in for sleep scoring software and can be used in any sleep study across the world. The study has some limitations. First, we used the self-reported diagnosis of CVD (including dates of diagnosis). However, there is evidence that self-reported CVD is very reliable and accurate as noted in the AusDiab cohort. Barr et al. reported more than 99% of selfreported CVD events were correctly verified in the patients' medical records; only 0.2% of those denying any CVD event being recorded as having had an event on the medical record ³³. Second, we lack racial diversity in our study as 95% was reported as a white race. Therefore, the results may not be generalizable to other races. Third, the incidence of CVD in this population is relatively smaller than what was observed in other high cardiovascular risk population. This is might be due to the inclusion of only those who have no prior history of CVD. Finally, the study excluded participants who had preexisting cardiac disease history (history of any CVD event as listed in table 7), were on CPAP treatment or were on beta-blocker and/or other chronotropic medications, which alter the cardiac autonomic responses, particularly heart rate bursts following respiratory events. Therefore, this study could not include all WSCS participants and may not be applicable to individuals with heart disease or if taking Beta-blocker or chronotropic medications. Likewise, this study may not be applicable to individuals with arrhythmia. frequent ectopic beats and in case of cardiac pacemakers.

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Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence Discuss the	19	this study could not include all WSCS participants and may no be applicable to individuals wit heart disease or if taking Beta- blocker or chronotropic medications.
Other informatio	(generalisability (external validity) of the study results		individuals with arrhythmia, frequent ectopic beats and in c of cardiac pacemakers.
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	2	This secondary analysis is supported by the National Hea Lung, and Blood Institute (R21HL140447). The Wiscons Sleep Cohort Study was support by the National Heart, Lung, an Blood Institute (R01HL62252), National Institute on Aging (R01AG036838), and the Nation Center for Research Resource (UL1RR025011) at the US NIH Author (Sankari) is supported to Career Development Award # IK2CX000547 from the Clinical Science Research & Developm Service of the VA Office of Research and Development of VA Office of Research and Development from the (U.S.) Department of Veterans Affairs and by Cardiovascular Research Institute [CVRI].