

IEEE MELECON 2022

PALERMO, ITALY / JUNE 14-16, 2022

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Proceedings of 2022 IEEE Mediterranean Electrotechnical Conference

IEEE MELECON 2022

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IEEE Catalog Number: CFP22MEL-ART

ISBN: 978-1-6654-4280-0

- 91 **Extended Kalman Filter (EKF) Based Localization Algorithms for Mobile Robots Utilizing Vision and Odometry**
Hoang T. Tran, Duy Tan University, Vietnam
Thanh C. Vo, Duy Tan University, Vietnam
Dong LT. Tran, Duy Tan University, Vietnam
Quan NA. Nguyen, Duy Tan University, Vietnam
Duyen M. Ha, Duy Tan University, Vietnam
Quang N. Pham, Duy Tan University, Vietnam
Thanh Q. Le, Duy Tan University, Vietnam
Thang K. Nguyen, Duy Tan University, Vietnam
Hai T. Do, Thai Nguyen University of Technology, Vietnam
Minh T. Nguyen, Thai Nguyen University of Technology, Vietnam
- 97 **Embedded Image Capture System for Liquid Monitoring in the Smart Chemical Industry**
Nesrine Boussaada, ESTIA Bidart, France
Guillaume Terrasson, ESTIA, France
Alvaro Llaría, ESTIA, France
Octavian Curea, ESTIA, France
- 103 **Analysis of the Sentiments of the Participants in a Clinical Study to Evaluate a Balance Rehabilitation Intervention Delivered by a Virtual Coach**
Maria Roumpi, University of Ioannina, Greece
Dimitrios Gatsios, University of Ioannina, Greece
Vassilios Tsakanikas, University of Ioannina, Greece
Kostas M. Tsiouris, University of Ioannina, Greece
Eleni Georga, University of Ioannina, Greece
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Christos Nikitas, National Kapodistrian University of Athens, Greece
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Isabelle Daniela Walz, University of Freiburg, Germany
Christoph Maurer, University of Freiburg, Germany
Dimitris Fotiadis, University of Ioannina, Greece

SESSION S3A - Services, Applications and Solutions in Smart Healthcare

Room: Room 4 - University of Palermo

Chairs: Maria Gabriella Signorini, *Politecnico di Milano, Italy*
 Fernando Vaquerizo-Villar, *Institute for Bioengineering of Catalonia, Spain*
 Maurizio Naldi, *LUMSA University, Italy*

- 108 **A Convolutional Neural Network to Classify Sleep Stages in Pediatric Sleep Apnea From Pulse Oximetry Signals**
Fernando Vaquerizo-Villar, Universidad de Valladolid, Spain
Daniel Alvarez, Universidad de Valladolid, Spain
Gonzalo Gutiérrez-Tobal, Biomedical Engineering Group, Universidad de Valladolid, CIBER-BBN, Spain
Felix del Campo, Hospital Universitario Rio Hortega de Valladolid, Spain
Leila Kheirandish-Gozal, The University of Missouri School of Medicine, USA
David Gozal, The University of Missouri School of Medicine, USA
Thomas Penzel, Charité - Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Germany
Roberto Hornero, University of Valladolid, Spain
- 114 **The Artificial Intelligence Based Diagnostic Assistant - AIDA**
Azra Pašić, Budapest University of Technology and Economics, Hungary
Lejla Pašić, Budapest University of Technology and Economics, Hungary
Alija Pašić, Budapest University of Technology and Economics, Hungary
- 120 **Heal the Privacy: Functional Encryption and Privacy-Preserving Analytics**
Alexandros Bakas, Tampere University, Finland
Antonis Michalas, Tampere University, Finland

- 126 **The Uncertain Times of COVID Mass Vaccine Deliveries: From Start-Up to Steady-State**
Maurizio Naldi, LUMSA University, Italy
Gaia Nicosia, Università Roma Tre, Italy
Andrea Pacifici, Università di Roma "Tor Vergata", Italy
- 131 **A Model to Improve the Quality of Low-Dose CT Scan Images**
Francesca Chircop, University of Malta, Malta
Carl J. Debono, University of Malta, Malta
Paul Bezzina, University of Malta, Malta
Francis Zarb, University of Malta, Malta
- 137 **PDapp: A Companion Mobile Application With Accessories for Continuous Follow-Up of Parkinson's Disease Patients**
Duarte Dias, INESC TEC, Portugal
Joana M Silva, Previous Member of INESC Technology and Science, Portugal
Nuno Oliveira, Denguin, Portugal
João Massano, Centro Hospitalar Universitário de São João, University of Porto, Portugal
João Paulo S. Cunha, INESC TEC, University of Porto, Portugal
- 142 **Typical External Loads That Require to Be Resisted by a Non-Dominant Prosthetic Hand**
Yesenia Aquilina, University of Malta, Malta
Michael A. Saliba, University of Malta, Malta
Jesmond Attard, University of Malta, Malta
Alexiei Dingli, University of Malta, Malta

SESSION S4A - 3D Networks

Room: Room 5 - University of Palermo

Chairs: Barbara Masini, CNR-IEIIT, Italy

- Franco Davoli, University of Genoa and CNIT S2N National Lab, Italy*
Mario Marchese, University of Genoa and CNIT S2N National Lab, Italy
Ana Perez-Neira, Centre Tecnològic Telecomunicacions Catalunya, Spain
- 148 **Power and Bandwidth Allocation Based on Age of Information Metrics in Satellite Uplink Channels**
Jorge Torres Gomez, TU Berlin, Germany
Máximo Morales-Céspedes, Universidad Carlos III de Madrid, Spain
Musbah Shaat, Centre Tecnològic de Telecomunicacions de Catalunya, Spain
Ana Isabel Pérez Neira, UPC/CTTC, Spain
Ana Garcia Armada, Universidad Carlos III de Madrid, Spain
- 154 **NS-3-Based 5G Satellite-Terrestrial Integrated Network Simulator**
Nour Badini, University of Genoa, Italy
Mario Marchese, University of Genoa, Italy
Fabio Patrone, University of Genoa, Italy
- 160 **Over the Air Computing for Satellite Networks in 6G**
Marc M. Gost, Universitat Politecnica de Catalunya, Centre Tecnologic de Telecomunicacions de Catalunya, Spain
Ana Pérez-Neira, , Universitat Politecnica de Catalunya, Centre Tecnologic de Telecomunicacions de Catalunya, Spain
- 165 **Federated Semi-Supervised Classification of Multimedia Flows for 3D Networks**
Saira Bano, University of Pisa, ISTI-CNR, Italy
Achilles Machumilane, University of Pisa, ISTI-CNR, Italy
Lorenzo Valerio, CNR, Institute of Informatics and Telematics, Italy
Pietro Cassarà, CNR, Institute of Information Science and Technologies, Italy
Alberto Gotta, CNR, Institute of Information Science and Technologies, Italy

SESSION SID - Electrical Machines and Drivers for Industry

Room: Room 6 - University of Palermo

Chairs: Giorgio Sulligoi, University of Trieste, Italy

A convolutional neural network to classify sleep stages in pediatric sleep apnea from pulse oximetry signals

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Abstract— Characterization of the sleep and wake stages is essential in the diagnosis of pediatric obstructive sleep apnea (OSA). The onerous requirements and limitations of overnight polysomnography (PSG), the gold standard, have led to the search for simplified sleep scoring systems. Accordingly, the aim of this study was to assess the usefulness of a convolutional neural network (CNN)-based deep-learning architecture fed with pulse oximetry signals to automatically classify sleep stages in symptomatic children at risk of OSA. Nocturnal pulse rate (PR) and blood oxygen saturation (SpO₂) from 429 pediatric OSA patients were employed for this purpose. A 2D CNN architecture was trained using 30-s epochs from PR and SpO₂ signals for the automatic classification of the three main sleep stages: wake (W), non-Rapid Eye Movement (non-REM), and REM sleep. The proposed 2D CNN model showed a promising diagnostic performance for the three-stage classification procedure (W/NREM/REM) in an independent test set, with 83.1% accuracy and 0.680 Cohen's kappa, outperforming 1D CNN models trained using PR or SpO₂ signals alone. Furthermore, the total sleep time calculated for each subject using the 2D CNN model showed high agreement with the manually scored from PSG (intra-class correlation coefficient of 0.677). These results were superior to previous studies focused on the automated detection of sleep stages in pediatric OSA patients using photoplethysmography and PR signals derived from pulse oximetry. Therefore, joint analysis of PR and SpO₂ signals using CNNs can be helpful detect sleep stages in at-home pulse oximetry tests for pediatric OSA diagnosis.

Keywords— Convolutional neural networks (CNN), deep learning, pediatric obstructive sleep apnea (OSA), pulse oximetry, sleep staging.

I. INTRODUCTION

Obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) is a highly prevalent condition among children (1.2%-5.7%) [1], which presents differentiating etiological, diagnostic, and therapeutic considerations when compared to adults [1], [2]. Childhood OSA is characterized by recurrent apneas (cessation of airflow) and hypopneas (airflow reductions) during sleep [1], leading to oxygen desaturations, elevations in carbon dioxide, and recurrent arousals, i.e., sleep fragmentation [1], [3]. As a result, affected children are at increased risk of suffering from long-term neurobehavioral abnormalities and diminished cardiovascular and metabolic functions [1], [2], which impose a negative impact on their overall health and quality of life [1], [2]. Thus, it is essential to accelerate the diagnosis of pediatric OSA, which requires assessments during sleep and thus, identification of sleep and wake stages to characterize the sleep architecture.

Overnight polysomnography (PSG) is the gold standard to diagnose childhood OSA [1]. PSG consists in monitoring children's sleep in a specialized laboratory by recording a wide range of cardiorespiratory and neurophysiological signals [4], [5]. After the test, sleep stages and respiratory events are scored from PSG recordings following the guidelines of the American Academy of Sleep Medicine (AASM) [5]. In this respect, electroencephalogram (EEG), electrooculogram (EOG), and submental electromyogram (EMG) signals are visually inspected by a technician to identify the sleep stage corresponding to each non-overlapping 30-s epoch: wake (W), three levels of non-Rapid Eye Movement (non-REM) sleep (N1, N2, and N3) and REM sleep [6]. Conversely, technicians manually score apneic (apnea+hypopnea) events and subsequently obtain the apnea-

hypopnea index (AHI: number of apneas and hypopneas per sleep hour), which is one of the major parameters used to diagnose childhood OSA [5].

Despite its widespread acceptance, PSG is technically complex, costly, highly intrusive, and relatively unavailable, thus delaying the diagnosis and treatment of the affected children [4], [7]. Furthermore, sleep scoring suffers from a considerable inter-rater variability in OSA patients [8], which may alter the accuracy of the diagnosis [8].

Alternatives predicated on the automated analysis of a reduced set of signals have been proposed to overcome these PSG-related limitations. EEG, EOG, electrocardiogram (ECG), airflow, and pulse oximetry (photoplethysmography, pulse rate, and blood oxygen saturation) signals have been used, among others, for the automated detection of sleep stages and/or the diagnosis of OSA and its severity both in adult and pediatric patients [6], [9], [10]. In this regard, pulse oximetry signals have been frequently advocated. These signals can be obtained in a non-invasive way at children's home with a portable pulse-oximeter, typically located on the finger, thus being a simplified alternative to PSG [9].

Multiple studies have demonstrated the utility of the automated analysis of peripheral blood oxygen saturation (SpO_2) and pulse rate (PR) from nocturnal oximetry for the screening of pediatric OSA [9], [11]. Particularly, SpO_2 and PR signals allow to quantify oxygen desaturations and heart rate responses related to apneic events, respectively [5]. On the other hand, the automated detection of sleep stages in pediatric OSA patients has been marginally explored. In this respect, the PR signal derived from photoplethysmography (PPG) is a surrogate of the heart rate variability (HRV) signal [6], thus containing information regarding changes in the autonomic nervous system (ANS) activity related to sleep stages [12]. Furthermore, the SpO_2 baseline value is slightly higher during wakefulness, whereas oxygen desaturations associated to apneic events predominantly occur in REM sleep [13].

Only two preliminary studies have conducted automated sleep staging in pediatric OSA patients using pulse oximetry signals [14], [15]. Dehkordi *et al.* [14] performed sleep staging using common HRV time and spectral features extracted from the PR signal. Recently, a conference paper developed by our own group evaluated a deep-learning methodology based on a convolutional neural network (CNN) architecture to detect sleep stages from raw PPG data [15]. However, no studies have included the SpO_2 signal for automatic sleep staging. In this respect, an automated system for the detection of sleep stages from PR and SpO_2 could be easily integrated into simplified sleep monitoring devices.

The main novelty of this study is the use of a CNN architecture to automatically classify W, NREM, and REM sleep stages from raw PR and SpO_2 signals. As a deep-learning technique, CNNs can automatically learn intricate patterns from the data [16]. We hypothesized that a 2D CNN architecture fed with raw PR and SpO_2 data could enhance pulse oximetry ability to detect sleep stages in children suffering from OSA. Thus, our main goal was to evaluate the usefulness of CNNs to classify W, NREM, and REM stages from PR and SpO_2 signals in childhood OSA patients. In addition, the secondary goal of this work was to evaluate the usefulness of the 2D CNN model to estimate the total sleep time (TST), which is involved in the calculation of the AHI.

II. MATERIAL AND METHODS

A. Subjects and signals

The baseline dataset from the public multicenter Childhood Adenotonsillectomy Trial (CHAT) database was used in this study [17], [18]. The clinical trial is registered as NCT00560859 and its full protocol is provided in the supplementary material of Marcus *et al.* [17]. The baseline dataset is composed of PSG studies of 453 pediatric subjects (5-10 years) suffering from OSA, who were randomized to early adenotonsillectomy or a strategy of watchful waiting [18]. Sleep stages and apneic events were annotated using the AASM 2007 rules in order to derive the hypnogram and the AHI for a definitive diagnosis [5].

Complete PR and SpO_2 signals from PSG-derived pulse oximetry were downloaded for 429 pediatric subjects and used different sampling rates ranging from 1 to 512 Hz. These signals were resampled to a common sample frequency of 1 Hz in order to homogenize the frequency, as well as to reduce the computational load [19], [20]. Then, both signals were standardized to normalize heart rate and oxygen saturation baseline levels among different subjects. Finally, PR and SpO_2 signals were divided into 30-second non-overlapping epochs, being each epoch labeled as W, NREM, or REM using the sleep stages annotations provided by the clinicians [14], [15].

This dataset was split into three groups: training set (257 first subjects, 60%), used to train the CNN architecture; validation set (86 following subjects, 20%), employed to monitor the convergence of the CNN model; and test set (last 86 subjects, 20%), employed to assess the proposed methodology in an independent group. Table I shows clinical and polysomnographic data from the children under study.

B. Proposed CNN architecture

Figure 1 shows the overall CNN-based deep-learning architecture used in this study. In order to assess whether PR and SpO_2 provide complementary information, the input signal of the CNN is: (i) PR signal; (ii) SpO_2 signal; (iii) PR and SpO_2 signals. For each of these configurations, the input section of the network consists of the input signal(s) for the 30-s epoch (i.e., 30 samples) to be classified, concatenated with the five preceding and the four following epochs [15], thus having a 10-epochs length 1D (300×1 : PR or SpO_2) or 2D (300×2 : PR+ SpO_2) input vector. Using preceding and following epochs allows for a better modeling of the temporal context used by technicians for scoring sleep stages [6], [15].

The input is processed by the CNN architecture using six convolutional blocks (conv block), each one consisting of:

- Convolutional layer (conv). This layer extracts feature maps from the data using convolutional filters (kernels) [16]. In this work, each conv layer had 64 filters with a kernel size of: (i) 5×1 when the input vector of the CNN is 1D (PR or SpO_2); (ii) 5×2 , when the input vector is 2D (PR+ SpO_2).
- Batch normalization (BN). BN is employed to normalize the feature maps extracted by the convolutional layer [16].
- Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU). ReLU is the standard activation function for deep neural networks. It introduces a nonlinearity to the normalized feature maps, which allows the CNN to learn complex patterns from the input data [16].

TABLE I. DEMOGRAPHIC AND POLYSOMNOGRAPHIC DATA OF THE SUBJECTS IN THE STUDY

	All	Training set	Validation set	Test set
Subjects (n)	429	257	86	86
Age (years)	6 [5, 8]	6 [5, 8]	6 [5, 7]	6 [5, 7]
Males (n)	208 (48.5%)	126 (49.2%)	35 (40.7%)	46 (53.5%)
BMI (kg/m ²)	17.2	17.1	18.8	16.5
AHI (e/h)	4.8	4.6	4.6	5.1
	[2.7, 8.7]	[2.6, 8.8]	[2.5, 8.5]	[3.2, 9.5]
Wake (n)	133891	79814	27899	26178
	(25.4%)	(25.1%)	(26.9%)	(25.0%)
NREM (n)	319038	193547	62153	63338
	(60.6%)	(60.9%)	(60.0%)	(60.6%)
REM (n)	73405	44724	13661	15020
	(14.0%)	(14.1%)	(13.2%)	(14.4%)
TRT (min)	608	618	589	608
	[557, 658]	[563, 661]	[540, 651]	[562, 641]
TST (min)	466	472	447	461
	[429, 494]	[440, 497]	[420, 482]	[423, 500]

Data are presented as median [interquartile range], n or %. BMI: Body Mass Index; AHI: Apnea-Hypopnea Index; e/h: events per hour; REM: Rapid Eye Movement; NREM: Non-REM; TRT: Total Recording Time; TST: Total Sleep Time

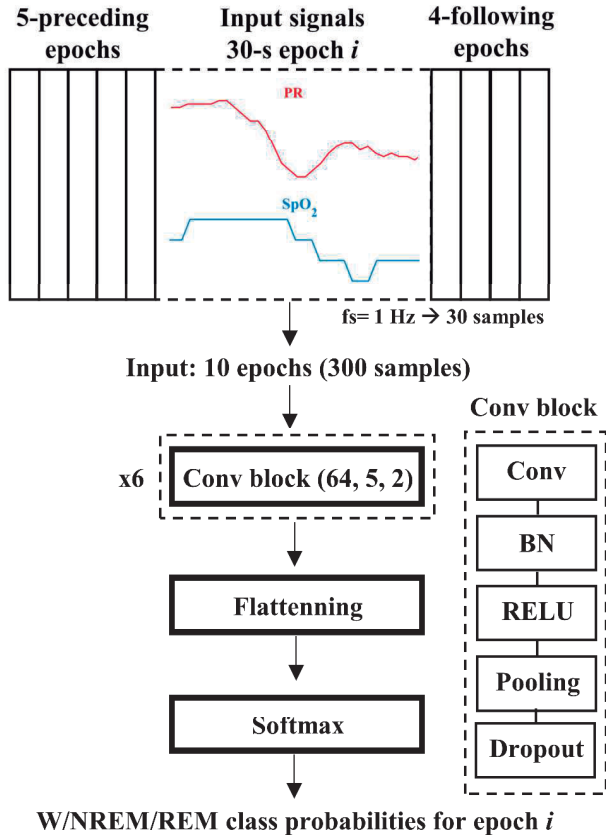


Fig. 1. Overview of the proposed convolutional neural network (CNN) architecture. Each convolutional block (conv block) includes a convolutional layer (conv), batch normalization (BN), a rectified linear unit (RELU) activation function, pooling, and dropout.

- Pooling. After the ReLU function, a max-pooling operation with a pool factor of 2 was applied to reduce dimensionality, while the most relevant feature maps are kept [16].
- Dropout. As the last step in each convolutional block, dropout operation was included to reduce overfitting. It randomly removes node connections with a probability p

during the training phase [16]. In this work, a dropout probability $p=0.1$ was chosen [20].

Following the last convolutional block, a flattening layer is used to reshape the feature maps into a 1-D series [16]. Finally, the output layer of the network is a softmax activation function, which yields the probability of belonging to W, NREM, and REM sleep stages for the input 30-s epoch.

The CNN training process was performed using the following configuration: He-normal method for the initialization of weights and biases of the network; categorical cross entropy as the loss function to minimize during training; adaptive moment estimation (Adam) algorithm with an initial learning rate of 0.0001 to update network weights at each iteration; and a batch size of 100 with a random shuffling strategy to accelerate the convergence of the Adam algorithm [15]. During the training process, the loss function was calculated in the validation set to monitor the convergence of the network. Accordingly, the learning rate was reduced by a factor of 2 after 10 epochs with no reduction of the validation loss, and the training was stopped (early stopping) after 30 epochs of non-improvement in the validation loss, restoring the weights to those that minimized the validation loss [16].

C. Statistical analysis

The overall performance of the CNN was assessed by means of confusion matrices, which were used to calculate the 3-class accuracy (Acc) and Cohen's kappa index (kappa). The performance for each sleep stage was evaluated by means of precision (positive predictive value, proportion of epochs rightly classified among all the epochs assigned to the class), recall (sensitivity, percentage of epochs belonging to the class correctly classified), and F1-score (harmonic mean of the precision and recall). Furthermore, the total sleep time (TST) was calculated for each subject based on CNN scoring (TST_{CNN}) and compared with the TST obtained in PSG (TST_{PSG}). Bland-Altman plots and the intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC) were used to assess their agreement.

III. RESULTS

A. CNN model performance

Figure 2 shows the confusion matrices of the CNN models obtained using PR (CNN_{PR}), SpO₂ (CNN_{SpO₂}) and PR+SpO₂ (CNN_{PR+SpO₂}) data in the test set for the three-stage classification procedure (W/NREM/REM). Using CNN_{PR} and CNN_{SpO₂}, 80.4% and 75.2% of the 30-s epochs in the test set were correctly assigned to their actual sleep stage (sum of the main diagonal elements of the confusion matrix), respectively. Conversely, the combination of PR and SpO₂ (CNN_{PR+SpO₂}) reached higher accuracy (83.1%) than the single-channel models (CNN_{PR} and CNN_{SpO₂}). Similarly, CNN_{PR+SpO₂} reached a higher kappa (0.680) than CNN_{PR} (0.626) and CNN_{SpO₂} (0.478) in the test set.

Table II presents the diagnostic performance of CNN_{PR}, CNN_{SpO₂}, and CNN_{PR+SpO₂} models for each individual sleep stage. The three CNN models obtained a higher performance for NREM than for REM and W stages. In addition, CNN_{PR+SpO₂} outperformed CNN_{PR} and CNN_{SpO₂}, as derived from the values of F1-score in W, NREM, and REM stages.

B. Estimation of TST

Figure 3 shows the Bland-Altman plots of the TST derived from CNN scoring using PR (TST_{PR}), SpO₂ (TST_{SpO₂}) and

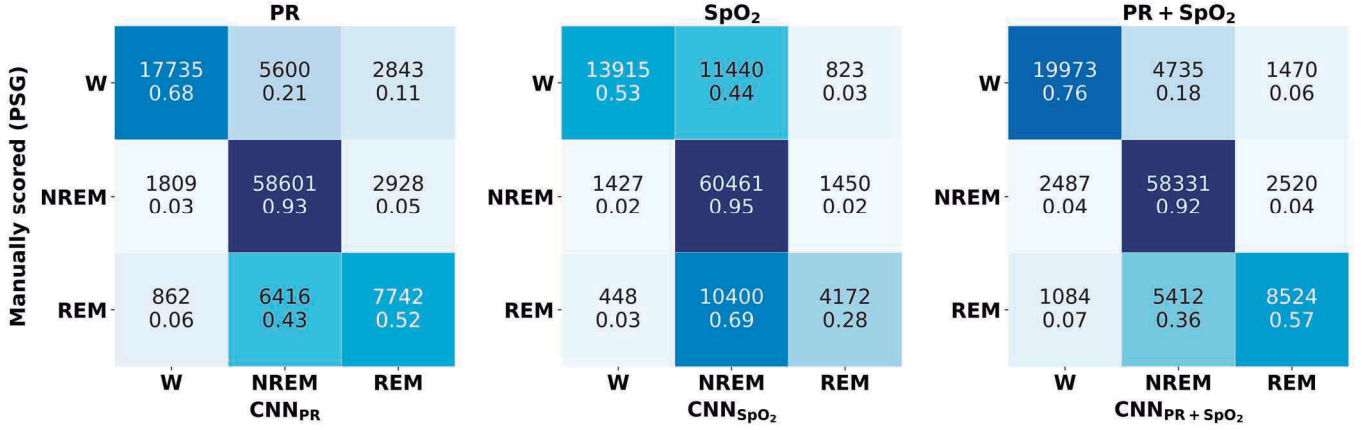


Fig. 2. Confusion matrices of CNN_{PR} , CNN_{SpO_2} , and CNN_{PR+SpO_2} models in the test set. These matrices compare the sleep stages from standard PSG with those predicted by the CNN models.

TABLE II
DIAGNOSTIC PERFORMANCE OF CNN_{PR} , CNN_{SpO_2} , AND CNN_{PR+SpO_2} MODELS FOR W, NREM, AND REM SLEEP STAGES

Test set		Precision	Recall	F1-score
W	CNN_{PR}	0.87	0.68	0.76
	CNN_{SpO_2}	0.88	0.53	0.66
	CNN_{PR+SpO_2}	0.85	0.76	0.80
NREM	CNN_{PR}	0.83	0.93	0.87
	CNN_{SpO_2}	0.73	0.95	0.83
	CNN_{PR+SpO_2}	0.85	0.92	0.89
REM	CNN_{PR}	0.57	0.52	0.54
	CNN_{SpO_2}	0.65	0.28	0.39
	CNN_{PR+SpO_2}	0.68	0.57	0.62

CNN = convolutional neural network, CNN_{PR} = CNN model obtained using PR data, CNN_{SpO_2} = CNN model obtained using SpO_2 data, CNN_{PR+SpO_2} = CNN model obtained using PR and SpO_2 data, W: Wake; REM: Rapid Eye Movement; NREM: Non-REM.

$PR+SpO_2$ (TST_{PR+SpO_2}) compared to TST_{PSG} in the test set. ICC is also shown. It can be seen that TST_{PR} , TST_{SpO_2} , and TST_{PR+SpO_2} overestimated TST_{PSG} , as reported by their mean difference (bias). In this respect, TST_{PR+SpO_2} reached lower bias and confidence interval than TST_{PR} and TST_{SpO_2} . In addition, TST_{PR+SpO_2} showed higher agreement with manual scoring (ICC=0.677) than TST_{PR} (ICC=0.524) and TST_{SpO_2} (ICC=0.276) in the test set.

IV. DISCUSSION

In this preliminary work, we evaluated the diagnostic ability of a 2D CNN architecture fed with PR and SpO_2 signals from pulse oximetry to detect wake, NREM, and REM sleep stages in pediatric OSA patients. To our knowledge, this is the first study that proposes the joint analysis of PR and SpO_2 signals to detect sleep stages in children.

The proposed CNN models reached high performance for the classification of sleep stages, with 80.4% Acc and 0.626 kappa (CNN_{PR}), 75.2% Acc and 0.478 kappa (CNN_{SpO_2}), and 83.1% Acc and 0.680 kappa (CNN_{PR+SpO_2}). Specifically, the PR signal showed higher ability than SpO_2 to detect W/NREM/REM stages, which can be explained by wider shifts in heart rate associated with sleep stages. Conversely, the combination of PR and SpO_2 (CNN_{PR+SpO_2}) produced a slight improvement in performance comparing to using only PR. This indicates that SpO_2 provides additional information to PR in the detection of sleep stages, as also reported by Casal

et al. in adult OSA patients [19]. According to the guidelines of McHugh [21], the kappa value obtained by CNN_{PR+SpO_2} (in the range 0.61-0.79) indicates that there is a substantial agreement between our deep-learning models and manual PSG-based scoring. Hence, our CNN-based approach could be used to detect W, NREM, and REM stages and hence characterize the sleep architecture in at-home pulse oximetry tests for pediatric OSA diagnosis [9], [11].

Regarding the estimation of TST, it has been observed that TST derived from CNN-based automatic scoring (TST_{PR} , TST_{SpO_2} , and TST_{PR+SpO_2}) overestimates TST_{PSG} , which can be explained by the slight trend of the CNN models to assign W epochs to the NREM class. This also agrees with the higher values of F1-score obtained for NREM stage. Nonetheless, the TST obtained from the CNN models showed promising results, particularly TST_{PR+SpO_2} , which reached an ICC of 0.677. In this respect, an ICC value in the range 0.50-0.75 indicates a moderate agreement [22]. Accordingly, our approach could be used to estimate TST in nocturnal oximetry tests.

In the last years, multiple studies showed the usefulness of deep-learning techniques to automatically classify sleep stages in adult OSA patients from raw biomedical signals [6], including those from pulse oximetry [19], [23]. In this respect, Korkalainen *et al.* [23] applied a CNN combined with a recurrent neural network (RNN) to automatically classify sleep stages from raw PPG data, achieving 80.1% Acc and 0.65 kappa for W/NREM/REM detection. Similarly, Casal *et al.* [19] applied a RNN to raw PR and SpO_2 signals for sleep-wake (W/Sleep) classification, reaching 90.1% Acc. In contrast to these studies, our research addresses a slightly higher performance for the detection of W/NREM/REM (83.1% Acc and 0.68 kappa) and W/Sleep (90.7% Acc) in childhood OSA patients, whose sleep architecture and cardiac activity differ from adults [5].

In pediatric OSA patients, Dehkordi *et al.* [14] addressed the automated detection of W/Sleep and NREM/REM from the PPG-derived PR signal using a feature-based approach, reaching 77% Acc (W/Sleep) and 80% Acc (NREM/REM). Additionally, a preliminary study developed by our group applied a CNN to classify W/NREM/REM stages from raw PPG data, reaching 78.3% Acc and 0.57 kappa [15]. In contrast, our current results achieved higher performance with the use of a CNN fed with raw PR and SpO_2 data: 83.1% Acc

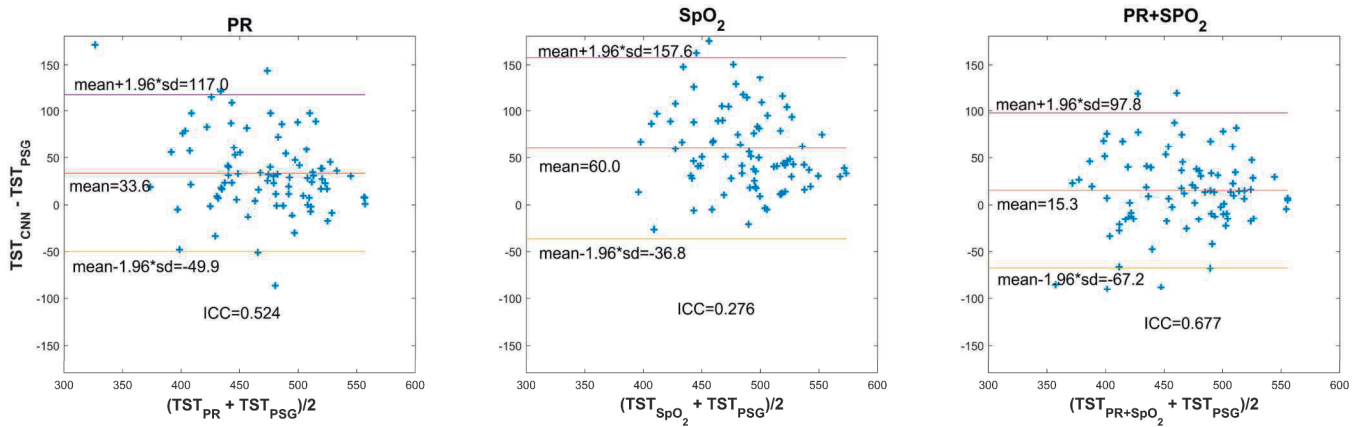


Fig. 3. Bland-Altman plots comparing TST_{PR} , TST_{SpO_2} , and TST_{PR+SpO_2} with TST_{PSG} in the test set.

for 3-class (W/NREM/REM) classification, 90.7% Acc for W/Sleep detection, and 89.4% for NREM/REM classification.

Despite the potential usefulness of our proposed approach, several limitations need to be considered. First, the database employed in this work did not contain healthy control subjects ($AHI < 1$ e/h). The inclusion of these subjects could help to analyze the performance of our CNN-based scoring in non-pathological sleep. Furthermore, the use of additional deep-learning techniques (e.g., RNN or time series transformers) may contribute to improve the automated classification of sleep stages at the cost of higher computational load. Finally, the application of eXplainable Artificial Intelligence algorithms could help to identify the patterns of PR and SpO_2 signals linked with wake, NREM, and REM stages.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Our 2D CNN-based deep-learning model fed with PR and SpO_2 data exhibited high performance in the automated detection of sleep stages in symptomatic children at risk of OSA, outperforming 1D CNN models fed with PR and SpO_2 alone, as well as previous approaches based on pulse oximetry signals. The 2D CNN model also showed high agreement in the estimation of TST. Therefore, we conclude that deep-learning approaches can be used to reliably characterize sleep stage distribution in pulse oximetry tests for pediatric OSA diagnosis.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This research has been developed under the grants PID2020-115468RB-I00, PDC2021-120775-I00 and RTC-2017-6516-1 funded by 'Ministerio de Ciencia e Innovaci3n/Agencia Estatal de Investigaci3n/10.13039/501100011033/' and ERDF A way of making Europe; by Sociedad Espa1ola de Neumolog1a y C1ruga Tor1cica (SEPAR) under project 649/2018, by Sociedad Espa1ola de Sue1o (SES) under project "Beca de Investigaci3n SES 2019" and by 'CIBER en Bioingenier1a, Biomateriales y Nanomedicina (CIBER-BBN)' through 'Instituto de Salud Carlos III' co-funded with ERDF funds. The work of Daniel 1lvarez was supported by a "Ram3n y Cajal" grant (RYC2019-028566-I) from the 'Ministerio de Ciencia e Innovaci3n - Agencia Estatal de Investigaci3n' co-funded by the European Social Fund. David Gozal and Leila Kheirandish-Gozal are supported by the Leda J. Sears Foundation.

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