

# Automatic Classification of Sleep Apnea Type and Severity using EEG Signals

Maryam Alimardani<sup>a</sup> and Guido de Moor

*Department of Cognitive Science and Artificial Intelligence, Tilburg University, Warandelaan 2, Tilburg, The Netherlands*

**Keywords:** Sleep Apnea Disorder, Apnea Severity, Apnea Type, Automatic Diagnosis, Artificial Intelligence, Machine Learning, EEG, Brain-Computer Interface (BCI).


**Abstract:** Sleep apnea is a potentially fatal disorder that causes frequent breathing pauses during sleep. Prior research has shown that monitoring of EEG signals during sleep can contribute to automatic detection of apnea events. However, a more comprehensive classification of specific apnea types and their severity is required for accurate clinical diagnosis and real-time detection of critical apnea episodes. In this study, we employed annotated EEG signals from 25 apnea patients and constructed two distinct classifiers using EEG frequency domain and non-linear features for binary classification of apnea severity and multiclass classification of apnea types. In both classification problems, three models i.e. Support Vector Machine (SVM), Linear Discriminant analysis (LDA) and Naive Bayes (NB) were evaluated and compared. Results showed that SVM model performed the best in both classification problems reaching accuracy higher than the baseline level. The SVM performance in the binary classification of apnea severity was acceptable (76% mean accuracy) however in the case of multiclass classification of apnea types, the SVM classifier did not reach acceptable performance for all apnea types (48% mean accuracy). Our findings illustrate that in addition to the detection of apnea episodes, EEG signals can be used in classification of apnea severity, which could lead to development of accurate diagnostic systems for automatic assessment and management of sleep disorders.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

A major proportion of our day is devoted to sleep and hence it is fundamental to our wellbeing and health. Sleep Apnea is a respiratory sleep disorder characterized by shallow breaths or intermittent stops of the breathing process, which manifests clinically with snoring, gasping or choking during sleep and hence results in poor sleep quality (Altevogt & Colten, 2006). According to American Sleep Apnea Association<sup>1</sup>, it is estimated that in the US alone, 22 million people suffer from sleep apnea, with majority of the moderate and severe cases undiagnosed. Research shows that prevalence of sleep apnea has increased in the past two decades in part due to increasing rates of obesity (Senaratna et al., 2017). This has created a concern for undiagnosed apnea patients as cessation of breathing during sleep can lead to severe respiratory and cardiovascular

disorders as well as cognitive impairment (Fonseca et al., 2015; Senaratna et al., 2017).

Given that apnea episodes occur during sleep when patients have no control over events, the most frequently used tool for diagnosis of sleep apnea is through polysomnography, in which multiple physiological measurements, such as heart rhythm (measured by ECG), brain activity (measured by EEG), muscle activation (measured by EMG) and respiratory flow are collected during sleep and analyzed by sleep physicians (Tan et al., 2014). Although this method provides reliable results, it is complicated and requires extensive time and labour from sleep specialists to conduct visual inspection and manual labelling of the patients' data collected at sleep labs. Therefore, there is an eminent demand for AI-supported techniques that automatically process long durations of physiological signals and detect

<sup>a</sup>  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3077-7657>

<sup>1</sup> <https://www.sleepapnea.org/learn/sleep-apnea-information-clinicians/>

sleep apnea at an early stage of the disorder (Zhou et al., 2015).

Several past studies have conducted research on detection of sleep apnea using EEG signals and obtained promising results (Almuhammadi et al., 2015; Goshvarpour et al., 2013; Hassan & Bhuiyan, 2017; Kumari et al., 2020; Vimala et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2015). However, almost the entire scope of previous research is focused on the detection, rather than classification of sleep apnea. This means that, even though sleep apnea exists in a variety of types, namely central, obstructive and mixed apnea, and in different severity level, such as severe apnea and mild hypopnea, the majority of the prior research have not made this distinction. The prediction problem in these studies is based on whether the subject has or does not have the apnea disorder. Those studies that did make the distinction, only focused on obstructive sleep apnea, which is a very severe type of the disorder and is accompanied by prominent physiological features (Almuhammadi et al., 2015; Kumari et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2019; Tan et al., 2014). Therefore, despite impressive results of these classifiers in detection of apnea vs. non-apnea events, they have failed to grasp the complexity of the sleep apnea disorder and its severity level in different patients (Goshvarpour et al., 2013). This gap in research is also identified by previous scholars, highlighting the importance of such classification in better comprehension of the disorder (Goshvarpour et al., 2013) as well as in early diagnosis of high-priority cases that might bear fatal consequences (Leppänen et al., 2017).

This study attempts to approach this gap in the literature by expanding the existing apnea detection models to an EEG-based classification system that recognizes apnea severity and apnea type among patients. Earlier research has established three types of sleep apnea based on respiratory effort;

obstructive, central and mixed apnea (Vimala et al., 2019). “Obstructive sleep apnea”, which is a frequent and serious type of sleep disorder, relaxes the throat muscles during sleep and causes a complete blockage of upper airways. In “central sleep apnea”, the brain stops to send proper signals to the muscles that control respiration and therefore the breathing stops and starts repeatedly during sleep. Finally, “mixed sleep apnea” which is also known as “complex sleep apnea” is a combination of obstructive and central apnea types, carrying the symptoms of both disorders in the same episode. On the other hand, all apnea symptoms indicated above could happen on a less severe level, in which case the episode is called a hypopnea. Unlike apnea episodes that contain periods of no breathing, hypopneas are usually accompanied by abnormally slow or shallow breathing (a reduction rather than absence in airflow). Therefore, apneas are considered as the “Severe” level of the disorder while hypopneas are the “Mild” subcategory. Similar to apneas, hypopneas consist of three types of obstructive, central and mixed. Table 1 summarizes the description of all apnea types and severity categories based on the American Academy of Sleep Medicine criteria for diagnosing sleep apnea disorder (Kagawa et al., 2016).

Based on the existing knowledge with regard to apnea severity and types, two research questions were formulated:

RQ1: To what extent can a binary classification model distinguish between mild and severe cases of sleep apnea disorder based on EEG signals?

RQ2: To what extent can a multiclass classification model distinguish between multiple types of sleep apnea and hypopnea based on EEG signals?

We believe that our attempt to answer these questions in this study provides new insights with

Table 1: Description of apnea severity levels and apnea types as established in previous research.

Severity level	Type	Label	Symptoms
Severe (Apnea)	Obstructive	APNEA-O	Obstruction of the upper airways, complete cessation airflow
	Central	APNEA-C	No obstruction upper airways, complete cessation airflow
	Mixed	APNEA-M	Central respiratory pause is quickly followed by obstructive ventilatory effort, complete cessation airflow
Mild (Hypopnea)	Obstructive	HYP-O	Obstruction of the upper airways, incomplete cessation airflow
	Central	HYP-C	No obstruction upper airways, incomplete cessation airflow
	Mixed	HYP-M	Central respiratory pause is quickly followed by obstructive ventilatory effort, incomplete cessation airflow

respect to different neurophysiological underpinnings of apnea disorder. In addition, our AI-based approach for detection of apnea severity and types will put forward cost-efficient support systems such as home-based brain-computer interfaces (BCIs) that assist sleep therapists in their diagnosis of disorder and monitoring of the patients' treatment process (Penzel et al., 2018).

## 2 METHODS

### 2.1 Dataset

We employed the St. Vincent's University Hospital database, which can be found online on PhysioNet repository (Goldberger et al., 2000). The dataset contains full overnight polysomnograms from 25 adult subjects (21 men, 4 female; all above 18 years old) with sleep-disordered breathing but no known cardiac disease or medication to interfere with the experiment. The included EEG signals consisted of two channels in the left and right central area (C3 and C4) referenced to the earlobes. The recordings had an average duration of six hours and contained annotations by a sleep technologist who labelled different apnea episodes based on their type and severity. There were two severity levels; Mild (hypopnea) and Severe (apnea) each including three categories; Obstructive (labelled "O"), Central (labelled "C"), and Mixed (labelled "M") (see Table 1 for a full description of labels and symptoms associated with each apnea severity category and apnea type).

Figure 1 illustrates the distribution of available apnea episodes and their labels in the dataset with respect to each classification problem. As can be seen in this figure, the number of "Mild" hypopnea

episodes was considerably larger than the number of "Severe" apnea episodes (Figure 1a). Also among six classes of apnea and hypopnea types (Figure 1b), the central hypopnea "HYP-C" and obstructive hypopnea "HYP-O" episodes occurred more frequently than other apnea and hypopnea types. This imbalance in the dataset could introduce a bias in the performance whereby prediction of the majority class would maximize accuracy. Therefore, the majority class in each classification problem was downsampled so that every class held the same number of occurrences during training and test of the models.

### 2.2 Data Pre-processing

EEG signals were pre-processed in MATLAB using EEGLAB toolbox (Delorme & Makeig, 2004). First the signals were imported at a sampling rate of 128 Hz, which was the original sampling rate at the time of recording, and band-pass filtered between 0.5 to 30 Hz. Then, filtered EEG signals were segmented into apnea epochs using the event markers in the data. Each apnea epoch was used to extract EEG features associated with that apnea episode. In total, the data provided 3318 EEG epochs with durations ranging between 10 to 20 seconds.

### 2.3 Feature Extraction

There are three types of features, which are commonly used in sleep classification; time domain features, frequency domain features and non-linear features (Koley & Dey, 2012). In the case of sleep apnea classification, the features that are found the most relevant are frequency domain and non-linear features (Almuhammadi et al., 2015; Goshvarpour et al., 2013). Therefore, in this research we used

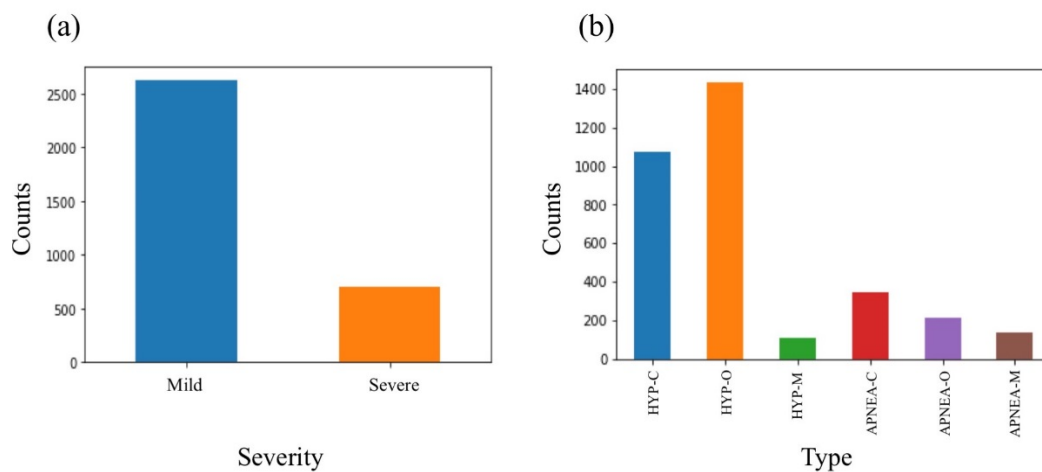


Figure 1: Distribution of the apnea episodes in the dataset based on (a) severity and (b) type.

previously reported frequency domain and non-linear features as the input for the classification algorithms. For frequency domain features, mean spectral powers were computed in four frequency bands of delta (1-4 Hz), theta (4-8 Hz), alpha (8-12 Hz) and beta (12-30 Hz) through Fast-Fourier Transform (FFT).

For the second non-linear feature category, approximate entropy, which is a measure of system complexity, was computed using Entropy package<sup>2</sup>. Approximate entropy quantifies the unpredictability of fluctuations and the regularity in a time series data. A smaller approximate entropy value means that the data performs well in terms of regularity and prediction. It can be obtained using equation 1 (Goshvarpour et al., 2013), where  $m$  is the pattern length,  $r$  is the effective filter and  $L$  is the total number of data points in the data. In this research, we chose  $m = 2$  and  $r$  was set to 15% of the standard deviation of each EEG segment.

$$\begin{aligned} ApEn(m, r, L) &= \frac{1}{L-m} \sum_{i=1}^{L-m} \log C_i^{m+1}(r) \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{L-m+1} \sum_{i=1}^{L-m} \log C_i^m(r) \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Additionally, two statistical measures, i.e. mean and standard deviation of the amplitudes, were extracted from the EEG signal segments as time domain features. These statistical measures were included to feed the algorithm a more comprehensive selection of information content from the data as such features offer information about the shape and density of the EEG signal during sleep (Koley & Dey, 2012). The obtained spectral powers, approximate entropy and statistical measures were then passed to the feature selection step in order to construct an optimized feature space for each classification algorithms.

## 2.4 Feature Selection

In order to obtain the most optimal input features for the classification algorithms, the leave-one-out technique was employed (Feng et al., 2013). This method consists of dropping one individual feature per run to examine how the outcome of the classifier is influenced. In this way, individual importance of each selected feature is evaluated while interactions between features during selection process is preserved which, in turn, results in a more optimal

and unified selection of features. For this study, non-linear features as well as frequency band powers were dropped individually to investigate what the effect was on the evaluation metrics.

## 2.5 Classification

Following our research questions in this study, two classification problems were investigated; 1) binary classification of severe apnea episodes (APNEA) vs. mild hypopnea episodes (HYP), and 2) multiclass classification of apnea and hypopnea types which included six classes of obstructive sleep apnea (APNEA-O), central sleep apnea (APNEA-C), mixed sleep apnea (APNEA-M), obstructive sleep hypopnea (HYP-O), central sleep hypopnea (HYP-C), and mixed sleep hypopnea (HYP-M) (see Table 1).

For each classification problem, three models including Support Vector Machine (SVM), Linear Discriminant analysis (LDA), and Naive Bayes (NB) were imported from the scikit-learn package and were fitted to the input and target data. Feature vectors were split into train and test set to construct a supervised learning setting for the classifiers (70% training data, 30% test data). The training and test data were subsequently fitted with the use of StandardScaler from the scikit-learn package to standardize the features. Furthermore, LabelEncoder, which was also derived from scikit-learn, was used to convert the targets into numerical values.

Finally, for each model, four metrics of accuracy, precision, recall and F1-score were reported to get a conclusive view of the model performance. These metrics are commonly used as evaluation tools for sleep apnea research (Almuhamadi et al., 2015; Vimala et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2015). Accuracy refers to the ratio of correct predictions to the total amount of predictions; precision is the ratio of correct positive predictions to the total of predicted positives; recall is the ratio of correct positive predictions to the total of positive cases in the set and the F1-score is the harmonic mean of precision and recall.

## 3 RESULTS

The outcomes of classification performances are presented in two subsections, each associated with apnea severity and apnea type classification problems.

<sup>2</sup> <https://github.com/raphaelvallat/entropy>

### 3.1 Binary Classification for Apnea Severity Recognition

In the feature selection step for this classification problem, the leave-one-out method (as described in 2.4) showed that for the SVM model, the performance was optimal when all spectral band powers were dropped from the input features (1.19% increase on accuracy). Also, the performance of LDA was improved by dropping the delta band power (0.24% increase on accuracy) and the performance of NB was enhanced when the theta band was left out of the input features (0.48% increase on accuracy).

Table 2 demonstrates the outcomes of the binary classification of apnea severity for the SVM, LDA and NB classifiers. Boldface denotes the best performance for each measure. A comparison among the three classification models shows that the SVM model reached the highest average performance on all metrics. All models reached an accuracy level above the baseline accuracy of 50%, however, the highest mean accuracy was obtained from the SVM model, which was 75.90%.

### 3.2 Multiclass Classification for Apnea Type Recognition

In the feature selection step for this classification, the leave-one-out method indicated that for the SVM model, the performance was optimal when the theta band power was dropped from the input features (increase of 2.36% on accuracy). For LDA, the alpha band power was dropped to strengthen the model (increase 5.10% on accuracy), and in the case of NB it turned out that dropping all band power features was beneficial for the model performance (increase of 1.96% on accuracy).

Table 3 presents the results of the efforts to classify different types of sleep apnea with the use of

SVM, LDA and NB algorithms. Boldface denotes the best performance for each measure. As is evident from the table, again the SVM model surpassed the other two classifiers in every performance metric as averaged over multiple classes. All models reached an accuracy level above the baseline accuracy of 20%, however, the highest mean accuracy was obtained from the SVM model, which was 48.24%. Additionally, the highest F1-score was obtained for the HYP-O class in all classification models.

## 4 DISCUSSION

Diagnosis of sleep apnea disorder using polysomnogram signals has become an increasingly difficult and resourceful task for sleep physicians due to the prevailing magnitude of the apnea phenomenon (Altevogt & Colten, 2006). Previous studies have shown the efficacy of EEG signals in detection of apnea presence. However, classification of apnea severity and apnea type based on EEG signals has never been explored in the past. Therefore, a combined call from the scientific community (Goshvarpour et al., 2013) as well as a sense of urgency from the practical point of view (Goldberger et al., 2003; Koley & Dey, 2012) drove the motivation for this study to explore the promises of machine learning models in automatic detection of apnea severity and apnea type from neurophysiological signals.

In this study, we used annotated EEG recordings from 25 patients who suffered from sleep apnea and developed classifiers for automatic classification of two apnea severity levels and three apnea types. Our results from three classification models showed that overall EEG signals could be employed in automatic recognition of apnea severity to a decent extent, but an optimal performance was not achieved for classification of apnea types.

Table 2: Performance results for binary classification of apnea severity with three models of Support Vector Machine, Linear Discriminant Analysis and Naive Bayes.

	Binary Classification for Apnea Severity								
	Support Vector Machine			Linear Discriminant Analysis			Naive Bayes		
	F1-score	Precision	Recall	F1-score	Precision	Recall	F1-score	Precision	Recall
Mild	0.7624	0.7043	0.8308	0.6916	0.6352	0.7590	0.6509	0.5613	0.7744
Severe	0.7554	0.8254	0.6964	0.6780	0.7473	0.6205	0.5668	0.7067	0.4732
Weighted Average	<b>0.7587</b>	<b>0.7691</b>	<b>0.7590</b>	0.6844	0.6951	0.6850	0.6059	0.6390	0.6134
Accuracy	<b>75.90%</b>			68.50%			61.34%		

Table 3: Performance results for binary classification of apnea severity with three models of Support Vector Machine, Linear Discriminant Analysis and Naive Bayes.

	Multiclass Classification for Apnea Types								
	Support Vector Machine			Linear Discriminant Analysis			Naive Bayes		
	F1-score	Precision	Recall	F1-score	Precision	Recall	F1-score	Precision	Recall
APNEA-C	0.4200	0.3559	0.5122	0.3855	0.3810	0.3902	0.1509	0.3333	0.0976
APNEA-M	0.4615	0.4865	0.4390	0.4471	0.4318	0.4634	0.4706	0.3590	0.6829
APNEA-O	0.2973	0.5000	0.2115	0.2558	0.3235	0.2115	0.1972	0.3684	0.1346
HYP-C	0.5321	0.5088	0.5577	0.5000	0.4821	0.5192	0.4306	0.3370	0.5964
HYP-M	0.3019	0.3200	0.2857	0.2388	0.2051	0.2857	0.1860	0.2667	0.1429
HYP-O	<b>0.7500</b>	0.6545	0.8780	<b>0.7160</b>	0.7250	0.7073	<b>0.6000</b>	0.6154	0.5854
Weighted Average	<b>0.4646</b>	<b>0.4815</b>	<b>0.4824</b>	0.4293	0.4341	0.4314	0.3448	0.3834	0.3843
Accuracy	<b>48.24%</b>			43.14%			38.43%		

With respect to the first classification problem, the SVM model performed the best on the binary recognition of mild hypopnea vs. severe apnea episodes (76% accuracy). A close look at Table 2 and other performance metrics of each model in this classification problem revealed that in general the models obtained a superior precision and an inferior recall score for the “Severe” class than they did for the “Mild” class. Also, the precision score was higher than recall in classification of “Severe” apnea episodes, while opposite pattern was present for the “Mild” class, where the recall score was higher than the precision score. This means that the classifiers made few mistakes in attribution of mild episodes to a severe class whereas many severe episodes were falsely detected as mild. This outcome is disadvantageous to the classification goal in this study, as the aim of this research was to detect as many severe cases as possible. The flagging of severe cases helps physicians to spot high-risk patients that require immediate attention. Hence, the recall metric is an important measure for this classification problem and thus the scales should be tipped in favour of detecting as many severe cases as possible, even if this means that some patients with mild apnea are classified as severe.

The importance of the recall score has also been mentioned in previous apnea detection studies, in view of the fact that the classifier should reduce the risk of missing the apnea/hypopnea events rather than reducing the incorrect recognition of non-apnea events (Xie & Minn, 2012). To that end, Xie and Minn (2012) proposed a cost-sensitive classification that would enhance the recall score by imposing a cost matrix to penalize the FN errors more than the FP errors. They incorporated this strategy of cost-

sensitive weighting in the feature selection process to favour highly predictive features. They also found that this method reduced the computational load by 1/5 of the even cost method (Xie & Minn, 2012). The same technique could be applied in future research on the results of this study, in order to improve the classifier and make it functional for practitioners.

In the second classification problem, the multiclass classifier did not reach a favourable performance in apnea type detection, even though the accuracy obtained from the three models was above the chance-level baseline. Again, the SVM model performed the best on the multiclass classification of apnea types (48% accuracy) and the performance metrics were relatively high only for the HYP-O and HYP-C classes; the same classes that originally provided more instances in the dataset and were downsampled for training of the model. This means that although for a few apnea types the model learned the EEG representations well, the classifier cannot be put into practice on the basis of this study alone. Nevertheless, this does not mean that the model cannot be a starting point for future research and the further development of an apnea type detection system. Various strategies can be suggested for future research to improve the classification performance on apnea type detection task. For instance,

One of the effective tools in improvement of sleep data classification is combination of two or more models (Supratak et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2016). This strategy is based on the idea that individual classifiers offer different perspectives in decision making and that the combination of different classifiers would harnesses the complementary information provided by each of them. In this study, an improvement of the model can be expected by

merging of the SVM and LDA models, since the LDA precision scores for “APNEA-C” and “HYP-O” offer additional value for the classification performance.

Another direction for future research could be investigation of appropriate EEG features for apnea type and severity classification. In this study, we mainly relied on previously reported EEG features that were employed in the field of apnea detection research, however, it is conceivable that the best features for apnea detection are not necessarily the optimal features for apnea classification. For instance, past research shows that sample entropy has an advantage over approximate entropy as it yields more consistent results and is less affected by the choice of parameters in the model (Richman & Moorman, 2000). Nonetheless, both are sensitive to spikes and noise in the EEG signals (Molina-Picó et al., 2011). Further research should be conducted in order to estimate what other non-linear, time domain or frequency domain features could be used to strengthen the model and its performance. Alternatively, deep learning models can be employed for automatic learning of the EEG signal characteristics without utilizing any hand-engineered features (Zhang et al., 2016).

Increasing the size of the dataset will also benefit the performance of the model although insufficient data is a problem that is often faced in sleep research since collection and annotation of polysomnogram data is a very costly and time-consuming process. It is worth noting that not only the number of the recorded patients, but also the unbalanced frequency in the occurrence of apnea and hypopnea episodes imposed a limitation on the final data employed in this study. Due to the imbalance of the Vincent’s dataset, we had to deploy a downsampling technique, which meant a large part of the data segments could not be used in the training and test of the models. Consequently, we had to combine all EEG epochs from all subjects and employ cross validation over events rather than subjects. Although, this approach is ideal for development of a one-fit-all solution that makes diagnosis without system calibration possible, it comes at the expense of accuracy for long-term monitoring and treatment. With extended and more frequent EEG recordings from more apnea patients, future research can investigate the inter-subject variability in classifiers’ performance and develop a personalized BCI system that learns from the same patient’s EEG signals and provides a more reliable prediction.

In sum, our study showed that machine learning methods combined with EEG monitoring sensors can provide a prominent evidence for automated

classification of apnea severity. Determining the severity of apnea disorder is a key aspect of accurate diagnosis and the first step toward development of home testing and treatment devices for apnea disorder. Apnea can have very serious health consequences and, therefore, the severe cases need to be detected and treated promptly. Development of AI-driven home-based apnea management systems will have three major impacts; 1) they would alleviate the burden of lengthy diagnosis procedures from overworked physicians, 2) they would relieve a patient from the intrusive data collection process at a sleep lab, and 3) they would make the diagnosis of sleep apnea and follow-up monitoring of treatment cost-efficient and widely accessible to the public. Therefore, future research should continue to explore methods for improvement of the apnea classifier performance and pragmatically investigate the benefits of real-time BCI applications in sleep health research and clinical practice.

## 5 CONCLUSIONS

This study attempted the classification of sleep apnea severity and apnea types from EEG signals of 25 patients. Our results showed promising findings with respect to recognition of apnea severity (mild vs. severe), which could be of significant interest to sleep specialists. Additionally, our comparison of three machine learning algorithms confirmed that the SVM model performed better than LDA and NB models in both classifications of apnea severity and apnea type. These findings hold promise for future development of EEG-based apnea diagnosis technologies as well as home-based apnea monitoring and management systems (e.g. smartphone apps) that can automatically detect apnea episodes in real-time and provide immediate care.

## REFERENCES

- Almuhammadi, W. S., Aboalayon, K. A., & Faezipour, M. (2015, May). Efficient obstructive sleep apnea classification based on EEG signals. In *2015 Long Island Systems, Applications and Technology* (pp. 1-6). IEEE.
- Altevogt, B. M., & Colten, H. R. (Eds.). (2006). *Sleep disorders and sleep deprivation: an unmet public health problem*. National Academies Press.
- Delorme, A., & Makeig, S. (2004). EEGLAB: an open source toolbox for analysis of single-trial EEG dynamics including independent component analysis. *Journal of neuroscience methods*, 134(1), 9-21.

- Feng, D., Chen, F., & Xu, W. (2013). Efficient leave-one-out strategy for supervised feature selection. *Tsinghua Science and Technology*, 18(6), 629-635.
- Fonseca, M. I. P., Pereira, T., & Caseiro, P. (2015). Death and disability in patients with sleep apnea—a meta-analysis. *Arquivos Brasileiros de Cardiologia*, 104(1), 58-66.
- Goldberger, A. L., Amaral, L. A., Glass, L., Hausdorff, J. M., Ivanov, P. C., Mark, R. G., ... & Stanley, H. E. (2000). PhysioBank, PhysioToolkit, and PhysioNet: components of a new research resource for complex physiologic signals. *circulation*, 101(23), e215-e220.
- Goshvarpour, A., Abbasi, A., & Goshvarpour, A. (2013). Nonlinear evaluation of electroencephalogram signals in different sleep stages in apnea episodes. *International journal of intelligent systems and applications*, 5(10), 68.
- Hassan, A. R., & Bhuiyan, M. I. H. (2017). An automated method for sleep staging from EEG signals using normal inverse Gaussian parameters and adaptive boosting. *Neurocomputing*, 219, 76-87.
- Koley, B., & Dey, D. (2012). An ensemble system for automatic sleep stage classification using single channel EEG signal. *Computers in biology and medicine*, 42(12), 1186-1195.
- Kagawa, M., Tojima, H., & Matsui, T. (2016). Non-contact diagnostic system for sleep apnea–hypopnea syndrome based on amplitude and phase analysis of thoracic and abdominal Doppler radars. *Medical & biological engineering & computing*, 54(5), 789-798.
- Kumari, C. U., Kora, P., Meenakshi, K., Swaraja, K., Padma, T., Panigrahy, A. K., & Vignesh, N. A. (2020). Feature Extraction and Detection of Obstructive Sleep Apnea from Raw EEG Signal. In *International Conference on Innovative Computing and Communications* (pp. 425-433). Springer, Singapore.
- Lee, P. L., Huang, Y. H., Lin, P. C., Chiao, Y. A., Hou, J. W., Liu, H. W., ... & Chiueh, T. D. (2019). Automatic Sleep Staging in Patients With Obstructive Sleep Apnea Using Single-Channel Frontal EEG. *Journal of Clinical Sleep Medicine*, 15(10), 1411-1420.
- Leppänen, T., Kulkas, A., Duce, B., Mervaala, E., & Töyräs, J. (2017). Severity of individual obstruction events is gender dependent in sleep apnea. *Sleep and Breathing*, 21(2), 397-404.
- Molina-Picó, A., Cuesta-Frau, D., Aboy, M., Crespo, C., Miro-Martinez, P., & Oltra-Crespo, S. (2011). Comparative study of approximate entropy and sample entropy robustness to spikes. *Artificial intelligence in medicine*, 53(2), 97-106.
- Penzel, T., Schöbel, C., & Fietze, I. (2018). New technology to assess sleep apnea: wearables, smartphones, and accessories. *F1000Research*, 7.
- Richman, J. S., & Moorman, J. R. (2000). Physiological time-series analysis using approximate entropy and sample entropy. *American Journal of Physiology-Heart and Circulatory Physiology*, 278(6), H2039-H2049.
- Senaratna, C. V., Perret, J. L., Lodge, C. J., Lowe, A. J., Campbell, B. E., Matheson, M. C., ... & Dharmage, S. C. (2017). Prevalence of obstructive sleep apnea in the general population: a systematic review. *Sleep medicine reviews*, 34, 70-81.
- Supratak, A., Dong, H., Wu, C., & Guo, Y. (2017). DeepSleepNet: A model for automatic sleep stage scoring based on raw single-channel EEG. *IEEE Transactions on Neural Systems and Rehabilitation Engineering*, 25(11), 1998-2008.
- Tan, H. L., Gozal, D., Ramirez, H. M., Bandla, H. P., & Kheirandish-Gozal, L. (2014). Overnight polysomnography versus respiratory polygraphy in the diagnosis of pediatric obstructive sleep apnea. *Sleep*, 37(2), 255-260.
- Vimala, V., Ramar, K., & Ettappan, M. (2019). An intelligent sleep apnea classification system based on EEG signals. *Journal of medical systems*, 43(2), 36.
- Xie, B., & Minn, H. (2012). Real-time sleep apnea detection by classifier combination. *IEEE Transactions on information technology in biomedicine*, 16(3), 469-477.
- Zhang, J., Wu, Y., Bai, J., & Chen, F. (2016). Automatic sleep stage classification based on sparse deep belief net and combination of multiple classifiers. *Transactions of the Institute of Measurement and Control*, 38(4), 435-451.
- Zhou, J., Wu, X. M., & Zeng, W. J. (2015). Automatic detection of sleep apnea based on EEG detrended fluctuation analysis and support vector machine. *Journal of clinical monitoring and computing*, 29(6), 767-772.