

**EVALUATING CARDIORESPIRATORY
RESPONSES TO SLOW BREATHING IN
YOUNG HEALTHY INDIVIDUALS:
FITBIT “RELAX MODE” VERSUS
RESPERATE.**

Evan Daniel Jette

August, 2020

Department of Kinesiology and Physical Education

McGill University, Montreal

A thesis submitted to McGill University in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of Master of Science in Kinesiology and Physical Education.

© Evan Jette, 2020

Table of Contents

PREFACE.....	3
Abstract.....	3
Résumé.....	4
Acknowledgments	5
Contribution of Authors.....	5
CHAPTER 1: LITERATURE REVIEW	6
1 Hypertension	6
2 Acute Regulation of Blood Pressure: Baroreflex	7
2.1 Baroreflex Sensitivity	10
3 Slow Breathing	14
4 Respiratory Sinus Arrhythmia	15
4.1 Heart Rate Variability.....	15
4.2 Origins and Mechanisms of Respiratory Sinus Arrhythmia.....	17
5 Effects of Slow Breathing on Blood Pressure	18
6 Slow Breathing Devices	21
CHAPTER 2: MANUSCRIPT.....	25
7 Introduction.....	25
8 Methods.....	27
9 Results	33
10 Discussion.....	35
10.1 Methodological Considerations	40
11 Conclusion	42
12 Tables and Figures.....	43
13 References	54

1 **PREFACE**

2 ***Abstract***

3 Device-guided slow breathing has been used to reduce blood pressure (BP) in clinical
4 populations. The Fitbit’s “Relax Mode” (FB) and the RESPeRATE (RESP) are commercially-
5 available devices which guide users through bouts of slow breathing (SB). However, it remains
6 to be established which device is most effective in reducing BP. Therefore, the purpose of this
7 study was to test the null hypothesis that there would be no difference in the SB-induced
8 reductions in BP between the FB and RESP. We tested 7 young individuals (22±1yr; 6 women)
9 with a normal body mass index (24±2 kg/m²). Blood pressure was measured using finger
10 photoplethysmography (Finometer Midi), which was then used to calculate stroke volume (SV).
11 We observed that the relative decrease from baseline in systolic BP induced by the RESP (-
12 1.5±2.2 mmHg) was greater than that elicited by the FB (+1.5±1.8, P<0.05) when both devices
13 were used according to manufacturer-recommended conditions. Interestingly, the FB resulted in
14 increases in SV (+3.6±2.9 ml) which were not observed with the RESP (+0.3±3.9 ml; P<0.05),
15 which likely limited the BP-lowering effects of the FB relative to RESP. Likewise, when
16 duration of exposure was matched between devices, the RESP reduced mean arterial pressure,
17 systolic BP, and diastolic BP to a greater extent than the FB (main effect of device, P<0.05).
18 These preliminary data indicate that the RESP device may be more effective than the FB device
19 in reducing BP, supporting use of the RESP device in the management of hypertensive disorders.

20
21
22
23
24
25

26 **Résumé**

27 L'utilisation d'appareils guidant la respiration lente permet de réduire la pression artérielle
28 (PA) dans les populations cliniques. Le Fitbit "Mode Relax" (FB) et le RESPeRATE (RESP)
29 sont des appareils disponibles sur le marché qui guident les utilisateurs à travers des épisodes de
30 respiration lente (SB). Cependant, il reste à déterminer quel appareil est le plus efficace pour
31 réduire la PA. Par conséquent, le but de cette étude était de tester l'hypothèse nulle selon laquelle
32 la réduction de la PA par la SB ne serait pas différente entre le FB et le RESP. Nous avons testé
33 7 jeunes individus (22 ± 1 an; 6 femmes) avec un indice de masse corporelle normal (24 ± 2
34 kg/m^2). La PA a été mesurée en utilisant la photopléthysmographie au niveau du doigt
35 (Finometer Midi), et a ensuite été utilisée pour calculer le volume systolique (SV). Nous avons
36 observé que la diminution relative de la PA systolique induite par le RESP ($-1,5 \pm 2,2$ mmHg)
37 était supérieure à celle provoquée par le FB ($+1,5 \pm 1,8$, $P < 0,05$) lorsque les deux appareils
38 étaient utilisés conformément aux recommandations du fabricant. De plus, le FB a entraîné une
39 augmentation de la SV ($3,6 \pm 2,9$ ml) qui n'a pas été observée avec le RESP ($0,3 \pm 3,9$ ml; $P < 0,05$),
40 ce qui a pu limiter les effets de réduction de la PA du FB par rapport au RESP. De même,
41 lorsque la durée d'exposition a été appariée entre les appareils, le RESP a réduit la PA moyenne,
42 la PA systolique et la PA diastolique de manière plus importante que le FB (effet principal de
43 l'appareil, $P < 0,05$). Ces données préliminaires indiquent que l'appareil RESP pourrait être plus
44 efficace que l'appareil FB pour réduire la PA, soutenant l'utilisation de l'appareil RESP dans la
45 gestion des troubles d'hypertension.

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53 ***Acknowledgments***

54 I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Charlotte Usselman for instilling in me a great base and
55 appreciation for research. From starting as an undergraduate student to completing my masters, I
56 have gained numerous skills which I will carry with me for the rest of my life. I thank you for
57 always supporting my path and for being a great mentor.

58
59 Thank you to my co-supervisor, Dr. Dennis Jensen who always pushes the scientific envelope
60 and provides a unique perspective. Your willingness to always make time and provide excellent
61 feedback was extremely appreciated.

62
63 All of the undergraduate and graduate students in the CHARLab have been instrumental in my
64 journey by providing great support and by making the lab a great environment. Celine Chen and
65 Fiona Howse were extremely helpful with data analysis. Seasy Huang was vital for piloting, data
66 analysis and for continuing the slow breathing movement.

67
68 Lastly, I would like to thank my family and friends for their constant love and support. Your
69 encouragement and positivity have helped me achieve and overcome any obstacle that stood in
70 my way.

71
72 This project was financially supported by a Discovery Grant from the Natural Sciences and
73 Engineering Research Council of Canada and a Canada Graduate Scholarship-Master's from the
74 Canadian Institute of Health Research.

75

76 ***Contribution of Authors***

77 All chapters were written by Evan D. Jette. Drs Charlotte Usselman and Dennis Jensen provided
78 advisory feedback for all chapters. Drs. Jenna Gibbs and Celena Scheede-Bergdahl provided
79 feedback for chapters one and two. Celine Chen and Fiona Howse aided with baroreflex
80 sensitivity and heart rate variability analysis, respectively.

81

82

83

84

85

86

87 CHAPTER 1: LITERATURE REVIEW

88 *1 Hypertension*

89 Arterial blood pressure (BP) is defined as the force of circulating blood within large
90 arteries (1). Adequate BP is necessary for survival as perfusion of tissues needs to be maintained
91 both acutely and chronically (2). According to the 2017 revisions to the American Heart
92 Association's (AHA) BP guidelines, normal BP is now defined as a systolic BP less than 120
93 mmHg and a diastolic BP less than 80 mmHg (3). Conversely, stage 1 hypertension is now
94 classified as a systolic value of 130-139 mmHg or a diastolic value of 80-89 mmHg, and stage 2
95 hypertension is classified as a systolic value of at least 140 mmHg or diastolic value of at least
96 90 mmHg.

97 These recent adjustments to the AHA guidelines were made with the understanding that
98 even small increases in BP are associated with future adverse cardiovascular events (4). As such,
99 individuals with hypertension are at an increased risk for stroke, myocardial infarction, kidney
100 failure, and retinopathy (5). This is concerning as the prevalence of hypertension in Canada, as
101 assessed according to the 2017 AHA guidelines, is 42% (6). Aged individuals are most at risk as
102 the prevalence of hypertension increases substantially after the age of 60 years (7). Clinically, the
103 burden of hypertension is expected to increase considerably with the aging population that
104 Canada faces (8).

105 Mechanistically, there are several reasons why individuals suffer from hypertension.
106 Some important factors include the over-activation of the renin angiotensin aldosterone system
107 (RAAS), which results in the chronic elevation of blood volume through an increase in sodium
108 and water reabsorption (see (9) for review). Over-activation of the sympathetic nervous system
109 can also lead to pronounced vasoconstriction, thereby increasing total peripheral resistance and

110 BP (see (10) for a full review). Finally, and particularly relevant to this thesis project, diminished
111 baroreflex sensitivity (BRS) is a strong contributor to hypertension (11). Essentially, the
112 baroreflex cannot buffer changes in BP adequately in hypertensive individuals with reduced
113 BRS.

114 Therefore, the baroreflex is an important mechanism to target considering that traditional
115 antihypertensive pharmacotherapies (i.e. beta blockers, ACE inhibitors) primarily target the
116 RAAS (9). Therefore, slow breathing (SB; see *section 3*) may be an adjunctive non
117 pharmacological therapy which may help reduce BP in part through the activation of the
118 baroreflex (12).

119 ***2 Acute Regulation of Blood Pressure: Baroreflex***

120 Overall, the baroreflex is a critical mechanism for the regulation of BP on an acute basis
121 (13). The baroreflex functions to maintain BP within a certain range which can be defined as the
122 normal “set point”. Therefore, if BP values are too high the baroreflex will work to lower them
123 and *vice versa* if BP values are too low.

124 Changes in BP are sensed by arterial baroreceptors (mechanical stretch receptors) located in
125 the arteries of the neck (carotid sinus) and the heart (aortic arch) (14, 15). When BP increases
126 beyond a certain threshold, baroreceptors sense an increase in mechanical stretch which then
127 triggers an increase in afferent neural activity to the brainstem (specifically, the nucleus of the
128 solitary tract; NTS) via the vagus and glossopharyngeal nerves (16, 17). This information is
129 integrated within the NTS, and results in alterations to the level of efferent parasympathetic
130 (“rest and digest”) and sympathetic (“fight or flight”) neural activity. Consequently, a decrease in
131 sympathetic activity reduces heart rate (HR), and total peripheral resistance via a reduction in
132 vasoconstriction of the peripheral vasculature (16, 18). An increase in parasympathetic activity

133 reduces (HR) via increased acetylcholine release at the sinoatrial and atrioventricular nodes (16,
134 18). Combined, these effector mechanisms result in a reduction in BP towards the normal set
135 point. Conversely, when BP values are too low, baroreceptor activity is diminished which results
136 in an increase in sympathetic activity and a decrease in parasympathetic activity, which in turn
137 increases vasoconstriction, HR, and BP as shown in Figure 1.1 (16, 18). As such, the baroreflex
138 is a negative (inhibitory) feedback loop, which can monitor and maintain appropriate BP values
139 when functioning optimally.

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

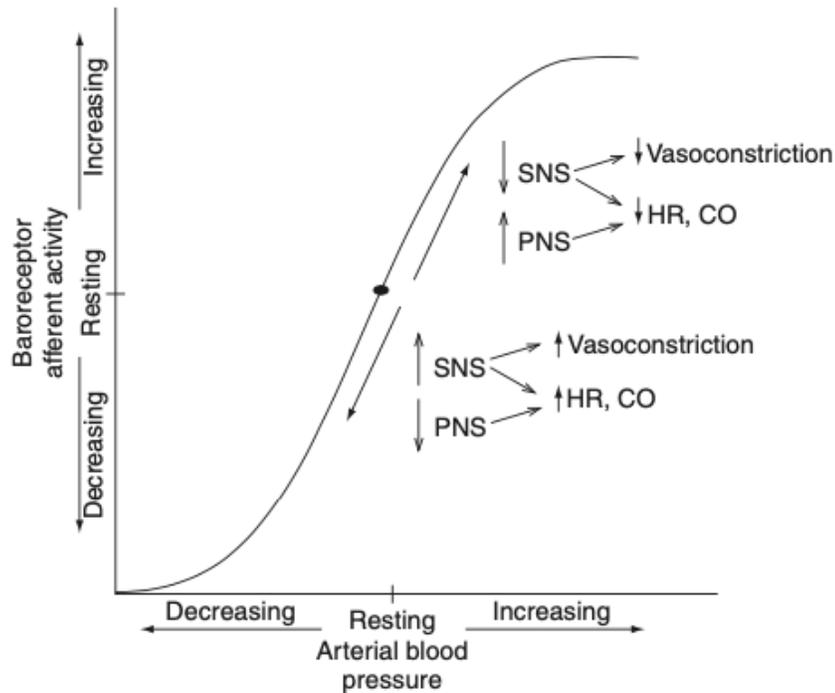
151

152

153

154

155



156

157 **Figure 1.1. Relationship between arterial blood pressure, baroreceptor afferent activity,**

158 **and cardiovascular autonomic outflow.** When blood pressure is below a certain set point,

159 baroreceptor afferent activity decreases which results in an increase in sympathetic activity and a

160 decrease in parasympathetic activity thereby increasing vasoconstriction, heart rate and cardiac

161 output. When blood pressure is above a certain set point, baroreceptor afferent activity increases

162 resulting in a decrease in sympathetic activity and an increase in parasympathetic activity

163 thereby decreasing vasoconstriction, heart rate and cardiac output. The set point is indicated by

164 the black circle on the sigmoidal curve. SNS, sympathetic nervous system; PNS,

165 parasympathetic nervous system; HR, heart rate; CO, cardiac output. Figure from Sved et al.

166 2009 (16).

167

168

169 2.1 Baroreflex Sensitivity

170 Baroreflex sensitivity (BRS) is a marker of how well the baroreflex buffers acute changes
171 in BP (19). Specifically, cardiovagal BRS reflects the ability of the baroreflex to modulate HR in
172 response to changes in systolic BP, which is largely the result of parasympathetic effector
173 mechanisms (20). Baroreflex sensitivity can also be quantified in terms of peripheral vascular
174 responsiveness, which describes the magnitude of change in muscle sympathetic outflow for a
175 given change in diastolic BP. This branch of the baroreflex is summarized elsewhere (see (21)
176 for a review). In this project (and section) we will focus exclusively on cardiovagal BRS.

177 As alluded to in *section 1*, individuals with hypertension operate with (a) reduced
178 cardiovagal BRS, and (b) they do so at a higher set point (Figure 1.2) which further contributes
179 to their elevated BP (11, 13, 22). Reduced BRS can be attributed to lower vascular compliance in
180 individuals with hypertension (11). Although the exact mechanism which reduces vascular
181 compliance in people with hypertension remains unknown, it is likely that factors such as the
182 composition of the arterial wall (type of collagen fibers) and reduced endothelium derived
183 compounds (nitric oxide) play a role (23). Regardless, reduced baroreceptor stretch per unit rise
184 in BP results in less BRS activation, therefore resulting in a smaller afferent response, and
185 accordingly a weakened efferent response. In terms of alterations to the baroreflex set point in
186 people with hypertension, the range of BP values that can be defined as normal may be altered.
187 The set point can change depending on the task at hand or in certain pathologies. For example,
188 during exercise a higher BP is needed to ensure adequate oxygen delivery to the working
189 muscles (24). Therefore, the baroreflex set point is reset to a higher level which is now
190 considered the new normal.

191 Baroreflex sensitivity can be quantified through the use of various techniques. Intrusive
192 methods such as the use of vasoactive drugs (i.e. the modified Oxford technique) and the neck
193 chamber technique are available to conduct comprehensive analyses of BRS under a wide range
194 of BPs (see (25) for a full review). Briefly, in the modified Oxford technique the injection of
195 phenylephrine (a vasoactive drug) causes an increase in BP without directly affecting HR (25,
196 26). This is followed by an injection of sodium nitroprusside (a vasodilator drug) which lowers
197 BP without directly affecting HR (26). As such, BRS is assessed by measuring the change in the
198 HR response to changes in BP induced by the injection of phenylephrine and sodium
199 nitroprusside. Conversely, the neck chamber technique allows for selective activation or
200 deactivation of carotid baroreceptors by altering external pressure to the neck region (25). For
201 example, a positive pressure applied by the neck chamber is sensed by baroreceptors, which
202 detect transmural pressure, as a decrease in BP and thus elicits a reflex response to increase BP
203 and HR. While these techniques are useful and provide detailed information regarding baroreflex
204 function, non-intrusive techniques such as the sequence method have been developed to examine
205 the function of the baroreflex under normal physiologic conditions (25, 27).

206 The sequence technique makes use of HR and BP data to determine cardiovagal BRS.
207 The standard electrical firing pattern of the heart is measured by a 3- or 5- lead
208 electrocardiogram (ECG). The duration of a given heartbeat is quantified based on the distance
209 between the “R” peaks of the “QRS” complex of an ECG waveform. Therefore, the quantitative
210 measurement of BRS via the sequence method is dependent on the number of heartbeats in
211 which increases or decreases in R-R interval and systolic BP occur at the same time (27). Thus,
212 BRS can be obtained from the slope of the fitted line representing the relationship between the
213 change in R-R interval (milliseconds) and the change in systolic BP (mmHg). All computed

214 slopes are averaged to obtain the BRS. As such, gain in BRS indicates a greater capacity of the
215 baroreflex to modulate changes in HR in response to a change in systolic BP. Therefore, a
216 steeper slope is indicative of increased BRS. Conversely, individuals with low BRS (< 3
217 ms/mmHg) post-myocardial infarction (28) or with heart failure (29) are at an increased risk for
218 cardiac mortality. As such, BRS can be an important prognostic tool for cardiovascular health in
219 certain clinical populations.

220 Advantages for the use of the sequence method include automation and standardization
221 of identifying sequences which reduces measurement variability (25). Additionally, it allows the
222 distinct measurement of up (concurrent increases in systolic BP and R-R interval) and down
223 (concurrent decreases in systolic BP and R-R interval) sequences (25). The up sequences reflect
224 mainly vagal activation whereas down sequences reflect vagal inhibition (30). Therefore, the
225 delineation of up *versus* down sequences can reveal whether baroreceptors demonstrate
226 specificity in response to increases or decreases in BP under a variety of clinical and
227 physiological conditions. Slow breathing (SB) may be an effective means of increasing BRS and
228 thus reducing BP (12). Interestingly, previous SB studies have found only increases in the up
229 sequences (31-33).

230

231

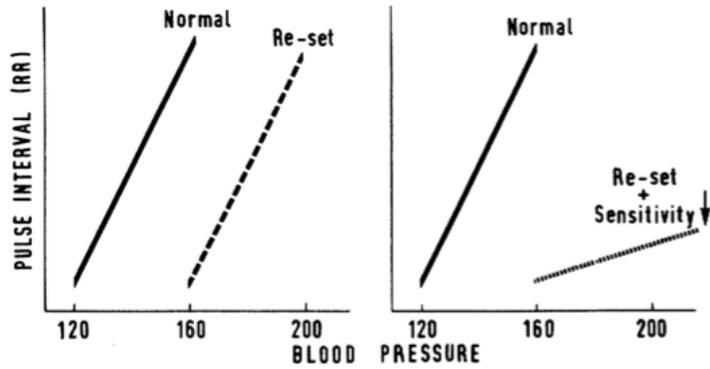
232

233

234

235

236



237

238 **Figure 1.2. Alteration of baroreflex function.** (Left) Resetting of the baroreflex to a higher set

239 point without a change in sensitivity as seen during exercise. The slope of the relationship

240 between blood pressure and pulse interval is not changed. (Right) In addition to resetting of the

241 baroreflex to a higher set point, there is a decrease in sensitivity as commonly seen in individuals

242 with hypertension. Adapted from Bristow et al. 1969 (11).

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253 **3 Slow Breathing**

254 Slow breathing has been defined as a respiration rate between 4-10 breaths per minute
255 (34). At these breathing frequencies, a number of benefits have been documented including:
256 increased respiratory efficiency, a shift from sympathetic to parasympathetic dominance, and an
257 augmentation in BRS (12, 34-36). As a result of those changes, increased heart rate variability
258 (HRV; see *section 4.1* for further details) and reduced BP are evident (12, 34).

259 In fact, SB is an effective method of reducing BP in people with hypertension (37), type 2
260 diabetes (38), post-traumatic stress disorder (39), and even healthy individuals with normal BP
261 (31). Chronic implementation of SB has been successful in reducing systolic BP and diastolic BP
262 in non-diabetic and diabetic hypertensives by 3.7 and 2.5 mmHg, respectively, as per a meta-
263 analysis (40). These changes exceed the generally accepted threshold for a clinically meaningful
264 reduction in BP of 2 mmHg (41, 42). However, a more recent meta-analysis with stricter
265 inclusion criteria (i.e. excluding any study without an randomized control) found no clear
266 evidence of BP reductions following chronic SB in non-diabetic and diabetic hypertensives (43).
267 As such, further research on the long-term use of SB is warranted.

268 Acute bouts of SB have demonstrated significant and immediate reductions in systolic
269 BP. Both hypertensive and normotensive individuals who performed 30 seconds of SB have
270 shown reductions in systolic BP of 3.9 and 3.4 mmHg, respectively (44). Additionally, we
271 recently demonstrated a mean reduction in systolic BP of 3 mmHg in both normotensive men
272 and women during 15 minutes of SB (31).

273 There are numerous ways to perform SB. Pranayama yoga breathing is a form of SB
274 which has been practiced for thousands of years (45). This method involves conscious inhalation,
275 retention, and exhalation of a given breath. However, one of the major drawbacks is that it may

276 be difficult for naïve participants to become accustomed to. Without a coach, an individual may
277 breathe both at an inappropriate respiration rate and tidal volume. As such, individuals may
278 become hypocapnic or hypercapnic, both of which can result in dizziness and breathlessness
279 (46). Additionally, newer techniques such as HRV-biofeedback have been developed. This
280 technique requires an extensive protocol done in a laboratory setting to assess and ensure a
281 specific breathing frequency (see (47) for the full methodology). Essentially, software and
282 equipment are needed to ensure that HR and respiration rate are in phase with each other. As
283 such, clinical utility of this technique is limited because the protocol and equipment are not
284 readily available for consumer use. Therefore, device-guided SB has emerged as a suitable
285 alternative in which participants are coached through acute bouts of SB via a technological
286 device. This ensures that participants are lowering their breathing frequency to a therapeutic
287 level and in an appropriate manner. Currently, there are numerous devices on the market,
288 including SB smartphone applications, wearable technology, and other devices (see *section 6* for
289 more details).

290 **4 Respiratory Sinus Arrhythmia**

291 A major component of the pathway which governs the beneficial effects of SB involves
292 respiratory sinus arrhythmia (RSA). Specifically, RSA is HRV in synchrony with respiration, such
293 that HR increases with inspiration and decreases with expiration (48). The exact phase
294 relationship between HR and respiration is dependent on the specific breathing frequency (49).
295 However, to fully understand RSA, one must be familiar with HRV.

296 **4.1 Heart Rate Variability**

297 Heart rate variability is defined as the variation over time between R-R intervals. It has
298 been suggested that HRV reflects the heart's ability to adapt to certain challenges such as

299 exercise or stressors (50, 51), with reduced HRV associated with increased risk of cardiac
300 mortality (52) especially in individuals who suffered a myocardial infarction (53). In these
301 individuals, it has been hypothesized that decreased HRV correlates with increased sympathetic
302 tone, which may predispose an individual to ventricular fibrillation (53). Additionally, reduced
303 HRV has been linked with autonomic neuropathy in diabetic patients (54). In fact, reduced HRV
304 has been used to detect autonomic neuropathy prior to the onset of symptoms such as postural
305 hypotension, gastric fullness, and hypoglycemic unawareness (55, 56). Therefore, HRV can be
306 seen as an important prognostic and diagnostic tool in certain diseased populations.

307 The quantification of HRV is a surrogate measure to assess overall cardiac health.
308 Specifically, it quantifies the activity of the autonomic nervous system responsible for regulating
309 cardiac activity (50). An ECG is an accurate and precise method to record HR patterns. This is
310 because the shape and timing of the waveform is easily detected by software algorithms capable
311 of discriminating normal from ectopic (abnormal) beats (57). Afterwards, power spectrum
312 analysis and time domain analysis can be completed (see (58) for a full review on the
313 methodology).

314 Power spectrum analysis (or frequency domain analysis) estimates the distribution of
315 absolute or relative power into distinct frequency bands. Power is defined as the signal energy
316 found within a frequency band. Of importance are the low frequency (LF) and high frequency
317 (HF) bands. The LF band, previously called the “baroreceptor range”, reflects baroreceptor
318 activity at rest. The LF band ranges from 0.04-0.15 Hz and represents a combination of
319 parasympathetic and sympathetic activity. However, at respiration rates less than 8.5 breaths per
320 minute, the LF band is largely vagally- (i.e. parasympathetically-) mediated (51, 59). Conversely,
321 the HF band ranges from 0.15-0.40 Hz and is called the respiratory band as it corresponds with

322 variations in HR related to the respiratory cycle during quiet breathing (51, 59). The HF band
323 exclusively reflects parasympathetic activity.

324 Time domain analysis includes measurements of normal-to-normal (NN) intervals,
325 defined as R-R intervals with ectopic beats excluded. These measurements are easy to calculate
326 and are highly reproducible if the recording periods are of the same length (51). Of major
327 interest is the standard deviation of NN intervals (SDNN). This measurement is highly correlated
328 with LF power spectrum analysis. It is also parasympathetically-mediated via RSA, especially
329 during SB protocols (51, 59). Additionally, the root mean square of the successive differences
330 between adjacent R-R intervals (RMSSD) reflects vagally-mediated changes in HRV. It is
331 correlated with the HF band and is less affected by changes in respiration rate (60).

332 *4.2 Origins and Mechanisms of Respiratory Sinus Arrhythmia*

333 The mechanisms that generate RSA are still unclear; however, it is believed that both
334 central and peripheral factors play a role (34, 61). The central pathway involves both the NTS
335 and the nucleus ambiguus, which generate cardiorespiratory rhythms via a neural “pacemaker”.
336 The most well-established theory in relation to the “pacemaker” is termed “respiratory gating”.
337 Closing of the gate occurs during inspiration, while opening of the gate occurs with expiration.
338 As such, cardiac vagal preganglionic neurons are hyperpolarized during inspiration due to
339 acetylcholine post-synaptic inhibition (62). Therefore, HR increases during inspiration and
340 decreases during expiration.

341 Additionally, pulmonary stretch receptors play a vital role in the generation of RSA (34).
342 These mechanoreceptors located in the lungs send autonomic afferent information to the nucleus
343 ambiguus (63, 64). During inspiration, pulmonary stretch receptor activity is enhanced, which
344 then decreases cardiac vagal activity thereby increasing HR (65). However, the degree of cardiac

345 vagal withdrawal is dependent on the level of lung stretch as influenced by the size (volume) of
346 the breath. Interestingly, double-lung transplant patients with intact hearts but vagal denervation
347 demonstrate a 53% reduction in RSA in comparison to control subjects (63). This confirms the
348 obligatory role of vagal feedback from the pulmonary stretch receptors in the genesis of RSA.

349 Other factors such as baroreceptor activity may play a minor role in RSA amplitude.
350 Experiments which stimulate baroreceptors via neck suction in humans have demonstrated
351 maximum vagal excitation during expiration but minimal activity during inspiration (66). This
352 suggests that the baroreflex may decrease HR during expiration further contributing to RSA.
353 However, the involvement of the baroreceptors in relation to the genesis of RSA is still up for
354 debate (67).

355 Lastly, mechanical factors driven by respiration such as changes in intrathoracic pressure,
356 venous return, stroke volume and cardiac output may also affect RSA. Specifically, these
357 changes may stretch the sinoatrial node thereby increasing HR during inspiration (68). As such,
358 RSA is diminished but present in heart transplant patients indicating a necessary role for non-
359 neural factors (69). Therefore, it is evident that the genesis and factors involved with RSA are
360 multifactorial and complex.

361 ***5 Effects of Slow Breathing on Blood Pressure***

362 During SB, a couple of different mechanisms and pathways occur which result in changes
363 in BP. Firstly, SB is accompanied by a reduction in respiration rate, which is offset by an
364 increase in tidal volume to maintain normal minute ventilation (37). This leads to an increase in
365 cardiopulmonary stretch receptor activation, which reduces sympathetic activity (70). Although
366 it is difficult to measure in humans, anesthetized and artificially ventilated cats have
367 demonstrated reduced sympathetic tone in response to lung inflation or electrical stimulation of

368 the vagus nerve (71). This suggests that inflation of the lungs during SB can induce vasodilation
369 of vascular beds, therefore reducing total peripheral resistance and BP provided there are no
370 changes in cardiac output.

371 Acetylcholine release and hydrolysis at the cardiac level are optimised at a respiration
372 rate of six breaths per minute, thereby maximizing RSA (72). Importantly, RSA results in
373 periodic oscillations in BP which entrain the baroreflex. An increase in BP is observed during
374 expiration, while BP decreases during inspiration (73). Additionally, spontaneous fluctuations in
375 BP titled “Mayer waves” oscillate at 0.1 Hz (equivalent to 6 breaths per minute) and occur due to
376 the baroreflex (74). Therefore, during SB these “Mayer waves” synchronize with BP oscillations
377 that arise due to RSA (70). This results in an increase in BRS (34). Thus, SB improves the
378 capacity of the baroreflex to buffer changes in BP.

379 Combined, both the cardiopulmonary stretch receptors and the baroreflex play a role in
380 reducing BP during SB as shown in Figure 1.3 (12). Given that cardiopulmonary stretch receptor
381 activity is not feasible to quantify in humans, this paper will focus on direct measurement of the
382 baroreflex.

383

384

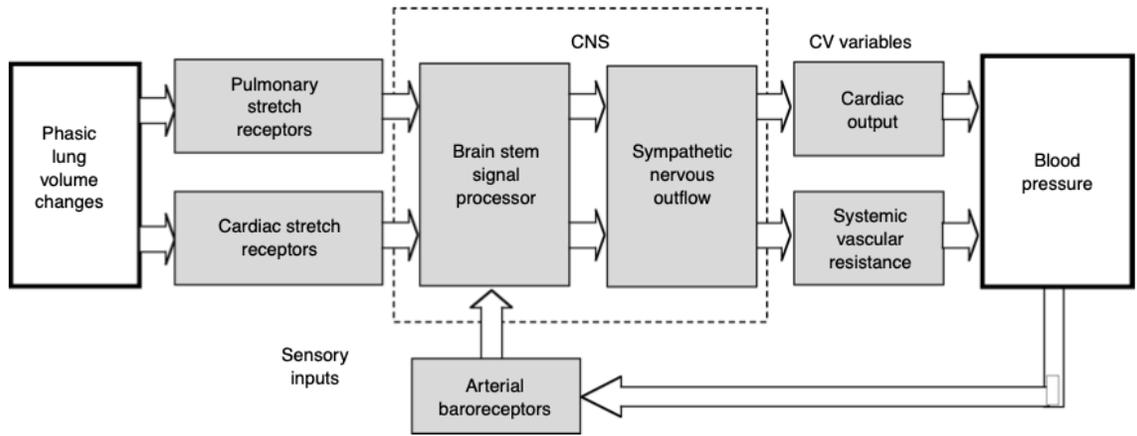
385

386

387

388

389



390

391 **Figure 1.3. Schematic illustrating the modulating effects of phase lung volume changes on**

392 **blood pressure, with focus on reflex mechanisms.** CNS, central nervous system; CV

393 cardiovascular. Diagram from Izzo et al. 2008 (70).

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405 **6 *Slow Breathing Devices***

406 Respiratory sinus arrhythmia is an important aspect of SB and the two variables of
407 interest which can be used to quantify RSA are respiration rate and HRV. During SB, respiration
408 rate decreases and HRV increases resulting in an increase in RSA (34). However, different SB
409 devices target separate aspects of RSA.

410 The RESPeRATE device (Intercure Ltd., Israel) is approved by the Food and Drug
411 Administration (FDA) and recommended by the AHA as an adjunct treatment to reduce BP for
412 people with hypertension (75). This device analyzes respiration rates via an elastic strap and a
413 breathing sensor placed around the chest or abdomen depending on individual breathing
414 preference (Figure 1.4). It then guides the user to reduce their respiration rate to 4-6 breaths per
415 minute over the course of a SB session (typically 15 minutes) through the use of musical tones.
416 This device has been used extensively in other research studies; however, the BP lowering
417 effects have been mixed. Specifically, performing SB for 10-15 minutes daily over an 8-week
418 period has resulted in 8-15 mmHg and 4-10 mmHg reductions in both systolic and diastolic BP,
419 respectively, in individuals with hypertension (76-78). However, not all studies have found
420 prolonged BP reductions (79-81).

421 In contrast to the RESPeRATE device, the Fitbit Charge 2 has a feature called “Relax
422 Mode” (Fitbit Inc., San Francisco, CA), which does not monitor respiration rate. Instead, it
423 monitors HRV and delivers instructions for SB in the form of visual cues on the screen and
424 vibrations of the device (Figure 1.5). This device has not been widely studied and further
425 research is warranted regarding the effectiveness of this stimulus in reducing BP.

426 Given these key differences in the way that the RESPeRATE and Fitbit monitor
427 physiological outcomes and deliver SB instructions, it is likely that users of these devices will

428 achieve different respiration rates using each device, which has the potential to affect RSA and
429 thus the BP-lowering outcomes of each device.

430 Therefore, the **purpose** of this MSc thesis research was to compare the BP-lowering
431 effects of two SB devices: RESPeRATE and Fitbit. To conduct a comprehensive analysis of their
432 efficacies, we evaluated both devices in healthy normotensive adults in a supine position at rest
433 under manufacturer-recommended conditions, with matched duration of exposure, and also
434 during a period of acute hypertension induced via the cold pressure test (CPT), an established
435 sympatho-excitatory stressor. We **hypothesized** that both devices would be equally effective at
436 reducing BP under all experimental conditions.

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

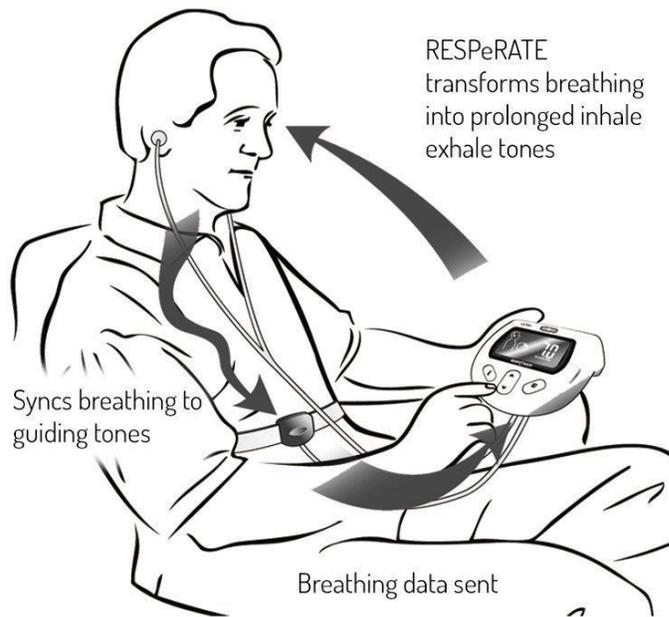
446

447

448

449

450



451

452 **Figure 1.4. Diagram of an individual using the RESPeRATE device to perform slow**

453 **breathing.** Image from Intercure Ltd., Israel.

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464



465

466 **Figure 1.5. Fitbit Charge 2 demonstrating the visual cue on screen during an exhalation.**

467 Image from Fitbit Inc., San Francisco, CA.

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

479

480 CHAPTER 2: MANUSCRIPT

481 **7 Introduction**

482 In Canada, 42% of adults present with hypertension as defined according to the 2017
483 American Heart Association guidelines (6). This is important clinically as even moderate
484 elevations in blood pressure (BP) can contribute to the development of future cardiovascular
485 events (5). Therefore, the effective management of BP is a significant public health priority.

486 Typically, hypertension is addressed with pharmacological therapies; however, they are not
487 always effective in resolving hypertension. For example, suboptimal adherence to anti-
488 hypertensive medication occurs in 50% of patients within one year of beginning treatment (82).
489 Moreover, it is estimated that 12-18% of hypertensive individuals suffer from drug-resistant
490 hypertension (83). However, when effective and used consistently, anti-hypertensive medication
491 typically reduces systolic BP (SBP) by 9 mmHg, which exceeds the generally accepted threshold
492 for a clinically meaningful reduction in BP of 2 mmHg (41, 42). Still, in some individuals this
493 may not be enough to resolve hypertension completely, particularly in individuals with a SBP of
494 140 mmHg or greater (84). Given that 31% of the global adult population are classified as having
495 a SBP of at least 140 mmHg or a diastolic BP (DBP) of at least 90 mmHg (85), it is clear that
496 non-pharmacological adjunct treatments are urgently needed to improve the management of
497 hypertension.

498 A simple technique that has shown promise to effectively lower BP in hypertensive
499 individuals over several weeks is slow breathing (SB) (75-78, 86). Typically, SB is defined as a
500 technique which prolongs the respiration period such that breathing frequency is reduced from a
501 normal rate of 15-20 breaths/min to 4-10 breaths/min (34). Acute bouts of SB have been shown
502 to reduce SBP in untreated hypertensive individuals by up to 8 mmHg (37), while performing a

503 daily 15-min bout of SB for 8-weeks has been shown to lead to sustained reductions in SBP of 5
504 mmHg in treated and untreated hypertensive individuals (76). Finally, we have demonstrated that
505 SB is equally effective in lowering SBP by 3 mmHg in young healthy men and women (31).

506 Due to the promising nature of SB as a non-pharmacological adjunct anti-hypertensive
507 therapy, devices which aim to guide a user through bouts of SB have been made commercially
508 available. The FDA-approved RESPeRATE (RESP) device, which is recommended by the
509 American Heart Association as an adjunct treatment to lower BP in hypertensive individuals
510 (75), analyzes a user's breathing frequency and uses musical tones to gradually reduce
511 respiration rate and then maintain a steady state of 4-6 breaths/min, typically for a period of 15
512 minutes. In contrast, some models of the Fitbit (FB) include a function titled "Relax Mode"
513 which analyzes a user's heart rate variability (HRV) to help generate a customized breathing
514 pattern. The FB device then guides the user into a SB pattern through the use of visual and
515 vibrational cues. However, information from the manufacturer is limited, such that the extent and
516 utility of HRV in generating a customized breathing pattern remains unknown. Additionally, it
517 has been previously demonstrated that a customized breathing pattern based upon HRV metrics
518 may not be necessary in order to reduce BP (87). Other relevant differences between the RESP
519 and FB devices include the use of different physiological cues to generate a custom SB pattern
520 for each user (i.e. RESP: respiration rate; FB: HRV). Respiration rate and HRV are the principal
521 components of respiratory sinus arrhythmia (48), which is hypothesized to play a primary role in
522 the SB-induced reductions in BP (34, 46). In this phenomenon, HRV is synchronized with
523 respiration whereby the R-R interval of the electrocardiogram signal is shortened during
524 inspiration and prolonged during expiration (48). This physiological synchrony acts to augment
525 baroreflex sensitivity (BRS), thereby improving the capacity of the baroreflex to buffer changes

526 in BP (34), and lowering BP both during an acute bout (31, 37, 87) and chronically, when
527 performed repeatedly over several weeks (75-78, 86). Thus, the targeting of different yet equally
528 critical components of respiratory sinus arrhythmia in the RESP and FB devices (i.e. respiration
529 rate *versus* HRV, respectively) may result in differences in the efficacy of these devices in
530 lowering BP. However, to the best of our knowledge, there have been no direct comparisons of
531 the effectiveness of these devices in lowering BP.

532 As such, the purpose of this study was to compare the acute BP-lowering effects of the
533 RESP and FB devices. To conduct a comprehensive analysis of their efficacies, we evaluated
534 both devices under three different conditions: i) when used as intended by the manufacturer, ii)
535 when matched in duration of exposure, and iii) during an acute sympatho-excitatory stress, the
536 cold pressor test (CPT), in order to simulate a hypertensive state. In all comparisons we tested
537 the null hypothesis, such that there would be no difference in the magnitude of fall in BP from
538 baseline elicited by the two devices.

539 **8 Methods**

540 *Participants:* We recruited 7 healthy individuals (1 man and 6 women) who were young
541 (mean±SD; 22±1 yr), healthy and non-obese (body mass index 24±2 kg/m²). Women were
542 eumenorrheic (cycle length: 22-30 days; n=4) or regular users of hormonal contraceptives (n=1
543 drospirenone and ethinyl estradiol; n=1 levonorgestrel and ethinyl estradiol). None of the
544 participants were smokers, pregnant, and/or reported any endocrinopathy, neurological,
545 respiratory, or cardiovascular diseases, as assessed by a Health History Questionnaire. All
546 participants took part in the study after providing written, informed consent. This study
547 conformed to the guidelines in the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the Faculty of
548 Medicine Institutional Review Board at McGill University (IRB Study Number A00-M12-20A).

549 *Experimental Design:* Prior to testing, participants attended the lab for a familiarization
550 session, during which they experienced all instrumentation and protocols, including being trained
551 to perform SB using the RESP device (RESPeRATE, Intercure, Israel) and the FB (Fitbit Charge
552 2 “Relax Mode”; Fitbit Inc., San Francisco, CA). To determine percent body fat, participants
553 entered an air displacement plethysmograph where body fat percentage was assessed in duplicate
554 (BOD POD, Life Measurement Instruments, Concord, CA).

555 On testing days, participants arrived at the laboratory at 8:00am following an overnight
556 fast and having abstained from caffeine, strenuous exercise, and alcohol for at least 12 hours.
557 Women were tested during the early follicular phase of the menstrual cycle (i.e. days 1-7) or
558 during the placebo phase of oral contraceptive use. Testing took place in a dimly lit room at an
559 ambient air temperature of 22–25°C. Upon arrival, participants were asked to void their bladders.
560 Participants were positioned supine on a padded table. Following instrumentation, and a 10-min
561 period of quiet rest which allowed for the stabilization of BP values (88), resting blood pressure
562 was assessed at the brachial artery just proximal to the antecubital fossa via manual
563 sphygmomanometry by a single trained researcher (3 values separated by 2-mins each).
564 Afterwards, we collected 10-min of “true baseline” data (i.e. the resting state prior to any
565 perturbations). Participants then executed the following 3 protocols in randomized order (see
566 Figure 2.1). Each SB protocol consisted of 15-min of device-guided SB, with a CPT in the final
567 3-min (i.e. 12-min of SB alone, followed by 3-min of SB+CPT). The default setting of the RESP
568 device includes 15-min of SB, thus the participants simply followed the device-recommended
569 patterns during exposure to RESP. However, the FB device guides the user through up to 5-min
570 of SB. Therefore, in order to match the duration of exposure to the RESP, FB-guided SB was
571 repeated 3 times in a row (i.e. 3 x 5-min = 15-min). Given that the FB requires a calibration

572 period between each subsequent repetition, a coaching period was implemented in order to
573 ensure that the participants continued to practice SB wherein the researchers assessed the
574 participant's SB respiration rate and then coached them to continue that respiratory pattern until
575 the FB's calibration period had been completed. Finally, participants also completed a CPT
576 under normal conditions (i.e. without SB). The CPT is a commonly used sympatho-excitatory
577 stimulus which can elevate SBP levels acutely by 16 mmHg in normotensive individuals (89). It
578 involves a participant submerging their hand, above their wrist, in ice cold water (~4°C) from
579 one to seven minutes (90, 91). Thus, in a randomized order, each participant performed i) CPT
580 alone, ii) FB then FB+CPT, and iii) RESP then RESP+CPT. Each protocol was preceded by a 3-
581 min baseline period and followed by a recovery period of at least 3-min, or until BP and hand
582 skin temperature returned to baseline values, usually approximately 10-min (Figure 2.1).

583

584

585

586

587

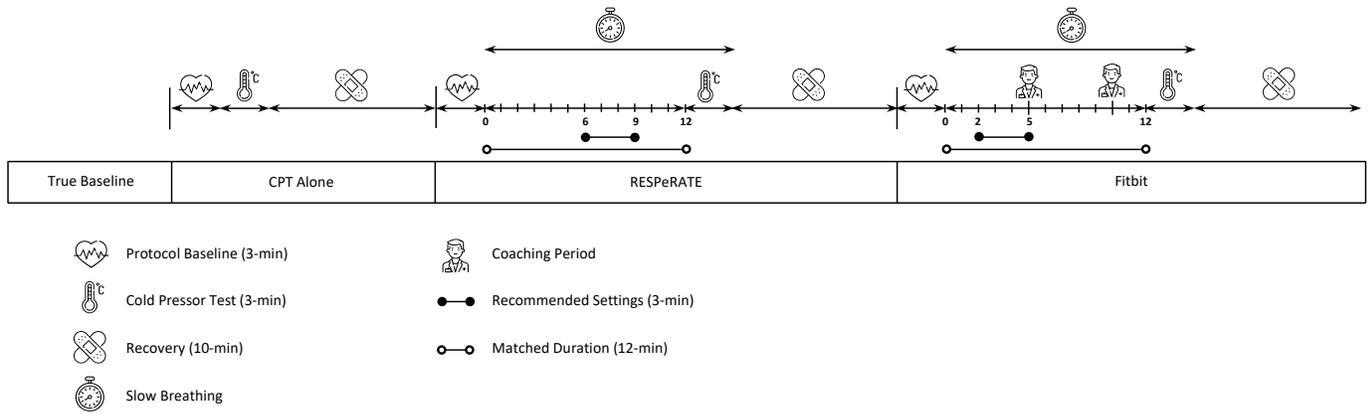
588

589

590

591

592



593

594 **Figure 2.1. Example of Experimental Protocol Timeline.** True baseline was a 10-min
 595 recording period before any of the protocols started. The order of cold pressor test (CPT) Alone,
 596 RESPeRATE and Fitbit protocols were randomized for each participant. All protocols started
 597 with a 3-min baseline protocol and ended with a recovery period which lasted around 10-mins in
 598 duration. The CPT Alone protocol involved the participant performing the CPT for 3-min. The
 599 RESPeRATE and Fitbit protocol required the participant to perform 15-min of slow breathing,
 600 i.e. 12-min alone and 3-min with a CPT. However, the Fitbit required coaching periods at
 601 minutes 5 and 10 which occurred during device calibration. For data analyses, data to assess
 602 responses to the recommended settings were selected as minutes 6-9 of the RESPeRATE and
 603 minutes 2-5 of the Fitbit as these time points allowed each device to reach a steady state in terms
 604 of respiration rate while conforming to the manufacturers intended use (closed circles), and to
 605 assess responses with matched duration minutes 0-12 were extracted for both the RESPeRATE
 606 and the Fitbit (open circles).

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616 *Instrumentation:* Participants were instrumented for beat-to-beat BP (finger
617 photoplethysmography; Finometer Midi, Finapres, Amsterdam, The Netherlands), heart rate
618 (HR; 5-lead ECG, 1000 Hz sampling rate), and respiration rate (respiratory belt transducer,
619 ADInstruments, Dunedin, New Zealand). All BP values were calibrated to the mean of three
620 resting values (manual sphygmomanometry). Hand temperature was verified to return to baseline
621 levels via a surface skin temperature probe (ADInstruments, Dunedin, New Zealand).

622 *Data analysis:* Systolic BP, DBP, and mean arterial BP (MAP) were obtained from the
623 beat-to-beat BP signal. Pulse Pressure (PP) was calculated as SBP minus DBP. Cardiac output
624 (Q; L·min⁻¹) was calculated beat-to-beat from the finger BP signal offline using the Non-
625 Invasive Cardiac Output algorithm (three-element Windkessel model; ADInstruments). Total
626 peripheral resistance (TPR; mmHg·L⁻¹·min⁻¹) was calculated as MAP/Q. Stroke volume (SV; ml)
627 was calculated as Q/HR*1000.

628 Spontaneous cardiovagal baroreflex sensitivity (BRS) was assessed via the sequence
629 method (27, 92). We used Ensemble software (Elucimed, Wellington, New Zealand) to identify
630 sequences of three or more consecutive heartbeats in which the period between R-R intervals and
631 SBP changed simultaneously (i.e. both increased or decreased). A minimal coefficient of
632 correlation between changes in SBP and changes in R-wave to R-wave (R-R) interval were
633 required to validate a sequence ($r^2 > 0.8$) (93). Given the relatively slow HR of participants
634 during baseline and SB, we expected that the effects of the baroreflex on the R-R interval would
635 be observed within the same cardiac cycle; we therefore chose not to apply a lag of one beat to
636 the dataset (92). Cardiovagal BRS was assessed separately for up-sequences (in which SBP and
637 R-R interval increase) and down-sequences (in which SBP and R-R interval decrease), given the

638 literature supporting a propensity of SB to enhance up-sequences without an effect on down-
639 sequences (31, 32).

640 To obtain indirect indices of autonomic outflow to the sinoatrial node, HRV time domain
641 measures included standard deviation of normal-to-normal intervals (i.e. R-R intervals with no
642 artifact; SDNN) and root mean square of successive R-R intervals (RMSSD). Additionally,
643 frequency domain measures included both low frequency (LF, 0.05-0.15 Hz) and high frequency
644 (HF, 0.15-0.4 Hz) spectral density. All HRV metrics were assessed using Ensemble software
645 (Elucimed, Wellington, New Zealand).

646 *Statistical analysis:* To compare the BP-lowering effects of RESP and FB under
647 manufacturer-recommended conditions (i.e. 15-min for RESP and 5-min for FB), we extracted 3-
648 min of steady state data following the initial acclimatization period which occurred at the onset
649 of any SB protocol (i.e. FB minutes 2-5, RESP minutes 6-9). Hemodynamic responses to SB
650 were assessed as deltas such that the SB response was expressed relative to the preceding
651 baseline period. To compare the hemodynamic effects of SB between devices, we conducted 2-
652 tailed paired T-tests. Conversely, to compare the effects of the devices on BRS and HRV, we
653 analyzed absolute values *via* 2-way repeated measures ANOVA (factor 1 = Device, 2 levels =
654 FB, RESP; factor 2 = Condition, 2 levels = baseline, SB).

655 To compare the BP-lowering effects of RESP and FB with matched duration of exposure
656 (i.e. 15-min of each), hemodynamic variables were averaged into 3-min time bins and the first
657 12-min of SB (i.e. prior to the commencement of CPT) within each device were extracted and
658 expressed as deltas (i.e. SB – baseline). We compared these responses using 2-way repeated
659 measures ANOVAs (factor 1 = Device, 2 levels = FB, RESP; factor 2 = Time, 4 levels = minutes
660 0-3, 3-6, 6-9, and 9-12). However, to compare the effects of the devices on absolute values of

661 BRS and HRV, the 10-min of true baseline (i.e. the baseline period from the beginning of the test
662 session; see Figure 2.1) and minutes 2-12 of SB were extracted for analysis and assessed using a
663 1-way repeated measures ANOVA (3 levels: true baseline vs RESP vs FB).

664 Finally, to compare the BP-lowering effects of RESP and FB devices during the CPT, we
665 first calculated the relative changes in all variables during exposure to CPT alone. We then
666 subtracted this value from the relative changes that we observed during CPT+SB for each device
667 in order to determine whether the magnitude of increase in BP was attenuated by SB (and
668 whether this effect differed between RESP and FB). Two-tailed paired T-tests were used to
669 compare the MAP, SBP and DBP responses. Also, 2-tailed paired T-tests were used to compare
670 the BP responses between the CPT alone and the FB, as well as the CPT alone and the RESP.

671 All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 8 (La Jolla, California)
672 with a 0.05 alpha value. All data are reported at mean \pm standard deviation.

673 **9 Results**

674 Participant characteristics, including baseline hemodynamic and autonomic
675 characteristics, are presented in Table 2.1. By design, participants were classified as having a
676 moderately lean body fat percentage (women: $26 \pm 5\%$; man: 20%) as per the BODPOD
677 guidelines. They were also classified as normotensive according to the 2017 revisions to the
678 American Heart Association's BP guidelines (3).

679 *Responses to Manufacturer-Recommended Settings.* A steady state of SB in terms of
680 respiration rate was achieved (Figure 2.2). Therefore, minutes 2-5 for the FB device and minutes
681 6-9 for the RESP device were selected to compare the SB-induced changes in steady state
682 hemodynamic and autonomic responses between devices. The relative decrease in respiration
683 rate from baseline was not different between devices (Figure 2.3). Likewise, relative changes in

684 MAP and DBP were not different between devices (Figure 2.3), nor were changes in PP, HR, Q,
685 or TPR (Table 2.2). However, the SB-induced decrease in SBP was greater with RESP than FB
686 by an average of 3 mmHg (Figure 2.3), and SV increased to a greater extent during FB compared
687 to RESP-guided SB (Table 2.2). Cardiovascular BRS during up-sequences was enhanced during
688 SB, whereas BRS during down-sequences was unaffected by SB (Figure 2.4). However, we
689 observed no effect of device or device-by-SB interactions in BRS during either up- or down-
690 sequences. Finally, while analysis of HRV demonstrated a main effect of SB on SDNN and LF
691 power, both of which were increased by SB, we observed no main effect of device or device-by-
692 SB interaction in any components of HRV (Table 2.3).

693 *Responses to SB with Matched Duration.* When the duration of SB was matched between
694 devices by extending the duration of FB-guided SB to 15-mins, the relative decrease in
695 respiration rate throughout SB was not different between devices (Figure 2.5). However, RESP
696 resulted in greater relative reductions in MAP, SBP, DBP compared to FB over 12-mins of
697 device-guided SB (Figure 2.5). Although changes in PP, HR, Q, and TPR were similar between
698 devices, the FB device resulted in greater relative increases in SV compared to the RESP device
699 (Table 2.4). Analysis of HRV revealed a main effect of SB on SDNN and LF power (Table 2.6),
700 with no main effect of device. Cardiovascular BRS during down-sequences was unaffected by
701 either device, whereas BRS during up-sequences increased as a main effect of SB with the FB
702 device. However, there was no significant difference between the two devices in BRS during
703 either up- or down-sequences (Table 2.5).

704 *Effect of SB on Responses to the Cold Pressor Test.* Participants performed SB and the
705 CPT concurrently during minutes 12-15 of the SB protocols (Figure 2.2). Increases in BP
706 following the CPT alone (MAP $+7.2 \pm 5.8$ mmHg; SBP $+7.2 \pm 7.4$ mmHg, ; DBP $+6.0 \pm 4.4$

707 mmHg) were not significantly different from the BP responses during RESP+CPT (MAP $+9.1 \pm$
708 5.3 mmHg, $P=0.1$; SBP $+7.2 \pm 5.6$ mmHg, $P=0.9$; DBP $+8.2 \pm 5.3$ mmHg, $P=0.06$). However,
709 the increases in BP following the CPT alone were significantly lower than those of the FB+CPT
710 (MAP $+10.3 \pm 5.8$ mmHg, $P<0.05$; SBP $+9.2 \pm 7.3$ mmHg, $P<0.05$; DBP $+8.8 \pm 4.8$ mmHg,
711 $P<0.05$). Importantly, there were no differences in the effects of SB on the BP responses to the
712 CPT between the two devices (Figure 2.6).

713 ***10 Discussion***

714 These preliminary data suggest that the RESP device is better able to reduce SBP than the
715 FB device when the devices were assessed under manufacturer-recommended conditions in
716 young, normotensive individuals. Moreover, when the duration of SB for FB was extended in
717 order to match the duration of exposure between devices, RESP remained more effective than
718 FB, reducing MAP, SBP and DBP to a greater extent than FB. In order to ascertain why RESP
719 elicited greater reductions in BP than FB, we assessed a number of hemodynamic and autonomic
720 outcomes known to be acute determinants of BP. We observed that FB elicited increases in SV
721 during SB, which were not observed with RESP, suggesting a mechanism by which the SB-
722 induced reductions in BP are limited when guided by the FB device. Together, these data suggest
723 that the RESP device may be a more suitable choice for device-guided SB with the goal of acute
724 lowering of BP. Whether RESP remains more effective than FB when used over time (e.g.
725 following a 12-week SB intervention), or when used in hypertensive individuals, remain to be
726 established.

727 To the best of our knowledge, this study was the first to compare BP responses to device-
728 guided SB between two commercially-available devices, the RESP and FB. We did so by first
729 investigating the BP responses of each device under manufacturer-recommended conditions; that

730 is, 15-min of SB using RESP *versus* 5-min of SB using FB. We selected data following each
731 device's acclimatization period to ensure that participants had reached a steady state respiration
732 rate. In this analysis, we observed that RESP elicited greater reductions in SBP than FB,
733 although MAP and DBP were reduced to a similar extent between devices. While these data
734 indicate that the RESP device evoked a stronger BP-lowering effect than the FB device, it may
735 also be that this was simply a reflection of the shorter SB period that was evoked through the
736 manufacturer-recommended conditions of FB. Indeed, although there is some evidence to
737 support acute reductions in SBP (-3.4 mmHg) and DBP (-1.2 mmHg) following just 30-sec of
738 SB in normotensive participants (44), another study which exposed participants to only 3-min of
739 SB failed to elicit a significant reduction in SBP (+2 mmHg) or DBP (0 mmHg) (94).
740 Conversely, SB of at least 10-min in duration was accompanied by reductions in SBP (-3.2 and -
741 4.6 mmHg) and DBP (-1.3 and -2.1 mmHg) (31, 87). Therefore, while the evidence is not
742 universal, it is likely that the duration of exposure to SB is an important factor for the BP-
743 lowering effect associated with SB, and an exposure of greater than 3-min may be necessary to
744 achieve a statistically significant drop in BP from baseline. To address this, we conducted
745 subsequent analysis at matched durations of the two devices by extending exposure to the FB
746 device. However, we once again observed that RESP evoked a stronger BP-lowering effect than
747 FB, as evidenced by relatively greater reductions in MAP, SBP and DBP from baseline.

748 From a respiratory perspective, respiration rate did not differ between the two devices
749 under the recommended settings or when matched for duration. Therefore, it is unlikely that one
750 device was more successful in reaching an optimal resonance frequency than the other.
751 Resonance frequency, which can be defined as a 0-degree phase shift between HR and
752 respiration rate, and a 180-degree phase shift between BP and respiration rate, is believed to

753 stimulate the baroreflex on each breath and thus increase vagal activity (73). Resonance
754 frequency occurs at a specific respiration rate (~6 breaths/min) but which is likely optimized
755 when personalized to each individual's HRV to account for inter-individual differences in HR
756 (95), and, when achieved, has been hypothesized to maximize the BP-lowering effects of SB
757 (73). However, other studies have demonstrated that breathing at resonance frequency compared
758 with breathing at resonance frequency +1 breath/min resulted in no differences in the eventual
759 SB-induced reductions in BP (87). Thus, achieving resonance frequency may not be a
760 requirement for the significant lowering of BP with SB. Even if RESP and FB devices had
761 resulted in small (yet non-significant) differences in respiration rate in the present study, it
762 appears unlikely that this would account for the differences in the BP-lowering effects that we
763 observed between the RESP and FB.

764 From an autonomic standpoint, HRV and cardiovagal BRS gave insight into the
765 autonomic mechanistic pathways of SB-induced reductions in BP. Our results are in accordance
766 with the SB literature such that SDNN and LF power increased with both devices, both during
767 the manufacturer-recommended settings and when matched in duration (96, 97). Increases in
768 SDNN during a single bout of SB are primarily influenced by respiratory sinus arrhythmia, and
769 moderated by parasympathetic activity (59). Therefore, the observed increases in SDNN with
770 both devices may be interpreted as an increase in parasympathetic outflow to the heart during
771 SB. Although LF power can contain both sympathetic and parasympathetic information,
772 increases associated with LF power during SB may be attributed primarily to vagal activity (59).
773 As such, the increase in LF power elicited by both devices during SB may be interpreted as an
774 increase in parasympathetic activity. Furthermore, our observation of SB-induced increases in
775 BRS during up-sequences is in alignment with the current literature (31-33). Up-sequences occur

776 during concurrent increases in SBP and R-R interval (25), and reflect the activity of the
777 baroreflex as it responds to an acute increase in BP by decreasing HR and also reducing total
778 peripheral resistance via a reduction in vasoconstriction of the peripheral vasculature (16). Thus,
779 an increase in BRS during up-sequences provides further evidence for a SB-mediated increase in
780 parasympathetic activity with both FB and RESP devices (16, 18). Taken together, both HRV
781 and BRS indicate a shift towards an increase in parasympathetic activity which reflects a more
782 optimal sympatho-vagal balance (i.e. defined as more parasympathetic outflow and/or less
783 sympathetic outflow) (34). This is clinically relevant as poor sympatho-vagal balance that is
784 shifted toward increased sympathetic outflow and/or reduced parasympathetic outflow is
785 associated with hypertension and diabetes (98). However, while it remains clear that SB in
786 general is advantageous in terms of eliciting a positive increase in parasympathetic activity, we
787 observed no significant differences between RESP and FB devices in their effects on HRV or
788 BRS. This finding persisted across both the manufacturer-recommended condition and when the
789 devices were matched for duration, and thus we are unable to attribute the differences in the BP
790 effects to an autonomic mechanism.

791 Interestingly, we observed that FB-guided SB was associated with increases in SV which
792 were not observed with the RESP device. However, there were no differences in PP between the
793 two devices, which was unexpected as it has been suggested that a change in PP is proportional
794 to a change in SV (99). However, a different study demonstrated that PP and SV are nonlinear,
795 such that changes in PP are smaller than changes in SV (100). In other words, alterations in PP
796 may underestimate changes in SV, which may explain why we observed no apparent differences
797 in PP between the two devices. Importantly, SV is a primary determinant of SBP, such that an
798 increase in SV may result in an increase in SBP (101). Thus, it may be that increases in SV

799 during FB-guided SB resulted in significantly smaller reductions in SBP when compared to
800 RESP-guided SB, although the exact mechanism by which SV increased to a greater extent
801 during FB compared to RESP-guided SB remains unknown. Interestingly, during spontaneous
802 inspiration increases in lung volume and decreases in intrathoracic pressure are associated with
803 increases in right atrial venous return and decreases in left ventricular SV (34, 70, 102). These
804 changes are reversed during expiration such that right atrial venous return decreases and left
805 ventricular SV increases. However, the changes in venous return are dependent on the
806 participant's breathing pattern, such that thoracic breathing increases venous return during
807 inspiration, whereas diaphragmatic (abdominal) breathing results in larger venous return
808 throughout expiration (103). Therefore, it may be that the participants' breathing pattern
809 (diaphragmatic *vs* thoracic) and/or changes in lung volume and intrathoracic pressure played a
810 role in the observed differences in SV, and, in turn, BP, between FB and RESP-guided SB.
811 While many studies have investigated the effects of SB on BP, very few if any have looked at the
812 role that SV may play. Therefore, future studies should examine SB-mediated changes in SV and
813 the mechanisms associated with them in order to improve our understanding of the complex
814 cardiorespiratory responses that are associated with the BP-lowering effects of SB.

815 Another notable difference between the devices which may have contributed to our
816 findings centres around the experience of SB using RESP *versus* FB. Namely, the RESP device
817 plays musical tones in order to guide the participant through SB, whereas the FB device uses
818 vibrations directed to the wrist as well as visual cues to guide the user. Previous studies
819 examining the RESP device have included comparisons to the effects of either a sham device
820 which provided musical tones without performing SB, or a Walkman to expose the user to
821 relaxing music. These studies have demonstrated that both control measures are effective in

822 eliciting reductions in BP (i.e. without exposure to SB) (79, 81, 104). Although the exact
823 mechanisms by which listening to music reduces BP remains poorly understood, it is
824 hypothesized that music may reduce sympathetic activity and trigger the release of endorphins
825 which enhance a sense of well-being (105). Therefore, it is indeed possible that the musical tones
826 may have contributed to the greater BP reductions observed during RESP compared to FB-
827 guided SB.

828 To increase the clinical relevance of our study, which was conducted in healthy, young,
829 non-obese normotensive adults, we induced an acute hypertensive state by the CPT to determine
830 whether RESP and FB differed in their ability to reduce acute hypertension. However, contrary
831 to our expectation, neither device was effective in mitigating the BP response to the CPT. We
832 observed no significant difference between RESP and FB in reducing BP during the CPT, and
833 moreover, the FB device appeared to exacerbate the BP response to the CPT. Although we are
834 not aware of any studies which have examined the potential of SB to mitigate the BP and/or
835 cardiovascular hemodynamic response to an acute sympatho-excitatory stimulus such as the
836 CPT, our results are in alignment with a previous study which found that BP responses to a CPT
837 were not affected by 8-weeks of SB (106). Thus, it may be that the pressor response evoked by
838 the CPT is too potent to be mitigated or overcome by SB.

839 *10.1 Methodological Considerations*

840 One of the biggest limitations to this study was the relatively small sample size.
841 Unfortunately, COVID-19 abruptly halted data collection after 7 participants had completed our
842 study due to safety concerns. Given that 1 out of the 7 participants was a man, our results may be
843 skewed towards women until both sexes are tested equally. However, we have previously shown
844 that SB is equally effective in reducing BP in both men and women (31). Therefore, these results

845 must be seen as preliminary until further data collection can be completed. Prior to beginning the
846 study, we had conducted sample size calculations based on our pilot data, which demonstrated a
847 large effect size of 0.80 in the differences between RESP and FB devices in the BP responses to
848 SB (FB appeared to be more effective than the RESP in lowering BP), as well as a desired power
849 of 0.8 and type I error of 0.05. As such, we calculated that we would require a sample size of 17
850 participants to observe a difference between RESP and FB devices. Accordingly, in order to
851 effectively evaluate our hypothesis in both men and women, we will seek to continue data
852 collection at the earliest possible opportunity.

853 Given that the cardiorespiratory responses to SB are complex and multifactorial, we were
854 unable to evaluate all of the potential mechanistic pathways involved with SB in order to
855 pinpoint the reason for the larger reductions in BP elicited by the RESP compared to FB-guided
856 SB. Specifically, it is possible that the typical increases in tidal volume associated with SB (34,
857 37), then activated pulmonary stretch receptors to induce vagal withdrawal and potentially
858 contribute to the BP-lowering response (12). Therefore, it is indeed possible that the RESP
859 device activated pulmonary stretch receptors to a greater extent than the FB device which could
860 therefore partially account for the different BP responses.

861 Lastly, although the coaching periods that we implemented for the FB device in order to
862 match the duration of exposure were necessary in order to make a meaningful time comparison
863 to the RESP device, they may have been a source of variation as the participants had to switch
864 cues from the device to the researcher. Given that there is some doubt as to whether very short
865 (i.e. 3-min) bouts of SB are effective in reducing BP, a more ideal approach would be an
866 extension of the duration of SB as guided by the FB in order to facilitate direct comparisons
867 between the two devices.

868 ***11 Conclusion***

869 Our novel and preliminary study demonstrated that the RESPeRATE device acutely reduced
870 blood pressure to a greater extent than the Fitbit “Relax Mode” in healthy, young and non-obese
871 normotensive individuals, most of whom were women. The RESPeRATE device was better able
872 to acutely reduce blood pressure than the Fitbit device, both under manufacturer-recommended
873 conditions and when the two devices were matched for duration. Although the exact
874 mechanism(s) mediating this difference are poorly understood and require further examination,
875 greater Fitbit-induced increases in stroke volume may have prevented the reductions in blood
876 pressure, specifically systolic blood pressure, that we observed with the RESPeRATE device.
877 Given that the results of this study revealed potentially meaningful differences in the
878 cardiorespiratory response to SB guided by RESPeRATE and Fitbit devices, we believe that the
879 FDA-approved RESPeRATE device may be better suited than the Fitbit device to lower blood
880 pressure, and perhaps also to treat hypertension in clinical populations at risk for adverse
881 cardiovascular health outcomes. However, our results are directly generalizable only to young,
882 healthy, non-obese, normotensive individuals. Therefore, further research with pre-hypertensive
883 and hypertensive participants is necessary.

884
885
886
887
888
889
890
891
892
893
894

895 **12 Tables and Figures**

896 **Table 2.1.** Participant baseline characteristics.

Height (cm)	169 ± 9
Weight (kg)	68 ± 6
Body Fat %	25 ± 6
MAP (mmHg)	81.9 ± 4.9
SBP (mmHg)	109.7 ± 5.1
DBP (mmHg)	64.1 ± 3.9
PP (mmHg)	45.6 ± 5.1
HR (bpm)	60.2 ± 11.4
Q (L/min)	4.6 ± 1.1
SV (ml)	77.4 ± 17.6
TPR (mmHg/L/min)	18.8 ± 4.4
Respiration Rate (breaths/min)	10.2 ± 2.5
BRS down (ms/mmHg)	40.6 ± 19.0
BRS up (ms/mmHg)	37.1 ± 19.6
LF (ms ²)	5500 ± 8800
HF (ms ²)	2300 ± 1900
SDNN (ms)	0.095 ± 0.051
RMSSD (ms)	91 ± 48

897 Data are mean ± standard deviation. MAP, mean arterial pressure; SBP, systolic blood pressure;
 898 DBP, diastolic blood pressure; PP, pulse pressure; HR, heart rate; Q, cardiac output; SV, stroke
 899 volume; TPR, total peripheral resistance; BRS, baroreflex sensitivity; LF, low frequency power;
 900 HF, high frequency power; SDNN, standard deviation of the NN interval; RMSSD, root mean
 901 squared of successive RR interval differences
 902

903

904

905

906

907

908

909

910

911

912

913

914

915

916

917 **Table 2.2.** Changes in hemodynamic measures during Fitbit and RESPeRATE recommended
 918 settings.

	RESPeRATE	Fitbit	<i>P</i> value
PP (mmHg)	-0.2 ± 1.5	1.7 ± 2.0	0.2
HR (bpm)	1.3 ± 1.7	1.6 ± 1.2	0.7
Q (L/min)	0.1 ± 0.3	0.3 ± 0.1	0.1
SV (ml)	0.3 ± 3.9	3.6 ± 2.9	<0.05
TPR (mmHg/L/min)	-0.8 ± 1.6	-1.8 ± 1.8	0.1

919 Data are mean ± standard deviation. PP, pulse pressure; HR, heart rate; Q, cardiac output; SV,
 920 stroke volume; TPR, total peripheral resistance.

921
 922
 923
 924
 925
 926
 927
 928
 929
 930
 931
 932
 933
 934
 935
 936
 937
 938
 939
 940
 941
 942
 943
 944
 945
 946
 947
 948
 949
 950
 951
 952
 953
 954

955
956
957

Table 2.3. Heart rate variability measures analyzed under Fitbit and RESPeRATE recommended settings

Measures	Fitbit		RESPeRATE		Condition	Device	Condition x Device
	BSL	SB	BSL	SB			
SDNN (ms)	0.10 ± 0.06	0.14 ± 0.04	0.11 ± 0.05	0.14 ± 0.04	<0.05	0.9	0.6
RMSSD (ms)	110 ± 62	120 ± 52	100 ± 42	110 ± 37	0.5	0.8	0.7
LF Power (ms²)	2200 ± 2400	4600 ± 2500	2400 ± 3000	4800 ± 2800	<0.05	0.9	0.9
HF Power (ms²)	1800 ± 1600	900 ± 610	980 ± 1100	830 ± 490	0.07	0.4	0.2

958 Data are mean ± standard deviation. SDNN, standard deviation of the NN interval; RMSSD, root
959 mean squared of successive RR interval differences; LF, low frequency power; HF, high
960 frequency power. BSL, baseline; SB, slow breathing.

961
962
963
964
965
966
967
968
969
970
971
972
973
974
975
976
977
978
979
980
981
982
983
984
985

986 **Table 2.4.** Hemodynamic measures during Fitbit and RESPeRATE with matched duration of
 987 exposure.

		PP (mmHg)	HR (bpm)	Q (L/min)	SV (ml)	TPR (mmHg/L/min)
Minutes 1-3	Fitbit	1.1±1.4	0.7±1.1	0.2±0.1	1.5±2.1	-0.7±0.6
	RESPeRATE	0.9±1.4	0.7±1.1	0.2±0.1	1.4±1.3	-1.2±0.7
Minutes 4-6	Fitbit	1.5±1.8	1.6±1.4	0.3±0.2	3.7±3.3	-1.8±2.0
	RESPeRATE	0.7±1.0	1.6±1.2	0.3±0.2	2.0±1.9	-1.5±1.6
Minutes 7-9	Fitbit	0.8±2.0	0.8±2.1	0.3±0.3	4.0±4.6	-1.5±2.6
	RESPeRATE	-0.2±1.4	1.3±1.6	0.1±0.3	0.3±3.7	-0.8±1.5
Minutes 10-12	Fitbit	0.1±2.3	1.9±1.9	0.2±0.3	2.2±6.0	-1.3±2.4
	RESPeRATE	-0.6±1.6	1.3±1.7	0.1±0.3	0.5±3.3	-0.5±1.4
P value	Time	0.1	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.8
	Device	0.2	0.9	0.09	<0.05	0.3
	Time x Device	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.5

988 Data are mean ± standard deviation. PP, pulse pressure; HR, heart rate; Q, cardiac output; SV,
 989 stroke volume; TPR, total peripheral resistance.

990
 991

992

993

994

995

996

997

998

999 **Table 2.5.** Baroreflex sensitivity measures during Fitbit and RESPeRATE with matched duration
 1000 of exposure.

	Baseline	Fitbit	RESPeRATE
BRS down sequence (ms/mmHg)	40.6 ± 19.0	42.2 ± 24.0	40.8 ± 28.8
BRS up sequence (ms/mmHg)	37.1 ± 19.6	49.9 ± 22.5 *	43.9 ± 14.1

1001 Data are mean ± standard deviation. **P* < 0.05 Fitbit vs baseline. BRS, baroreflex sensitivity
 1002
 1003
 1004
 1005
 1006
 1007
 1008
 1009
 1010
 1011
 1012
 1013
 1014
 1015
 1016
 1017
 1018
 1019
 1020
 1021

1022 **Table 2.6.** Heart rate variability measures during Fitbit and RESPeRATE with matched duration
 1023 of exposure.

	Baseline	Fitbit	RESPeRATE
SDNN (ms)	0.10 ± 0.05	0.14 ± 0.04 *	0.13 ± 0.04 *
RMSSD (ms)	91 ± 48	120 ± 58	110 ± 39
LF Power (ms ²)	5500 ± 8800	14000 ± 7500 *	14000 ± 7600 *
HF Power (ms ²)	2300 ± 1900	3000 ± 2500	2600 ± 1500

1024 Data are mean ± standard deviation. **P* < 0.05 Fitbit or RESPeRATE vs baseline. SDNN,
 1025 standard deviation of the NN interval; RMSSD, root mean squared of successive RR interval
 1026 differences; LF, low frequency power; HF, high frequency power.

1027
 1028

1029

1030

1031

1032

1033

1034

1035

1036

1037

1038

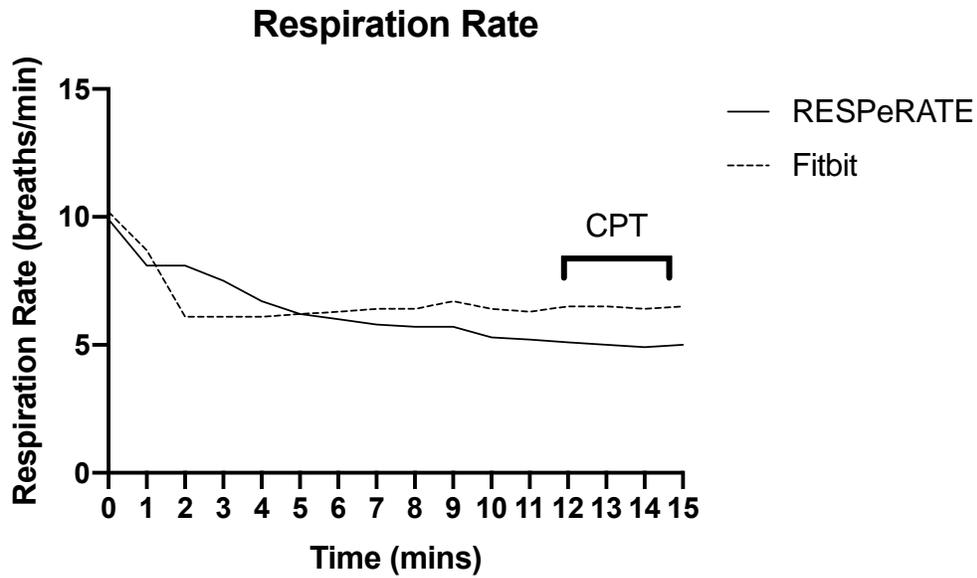
1039

1040

1041

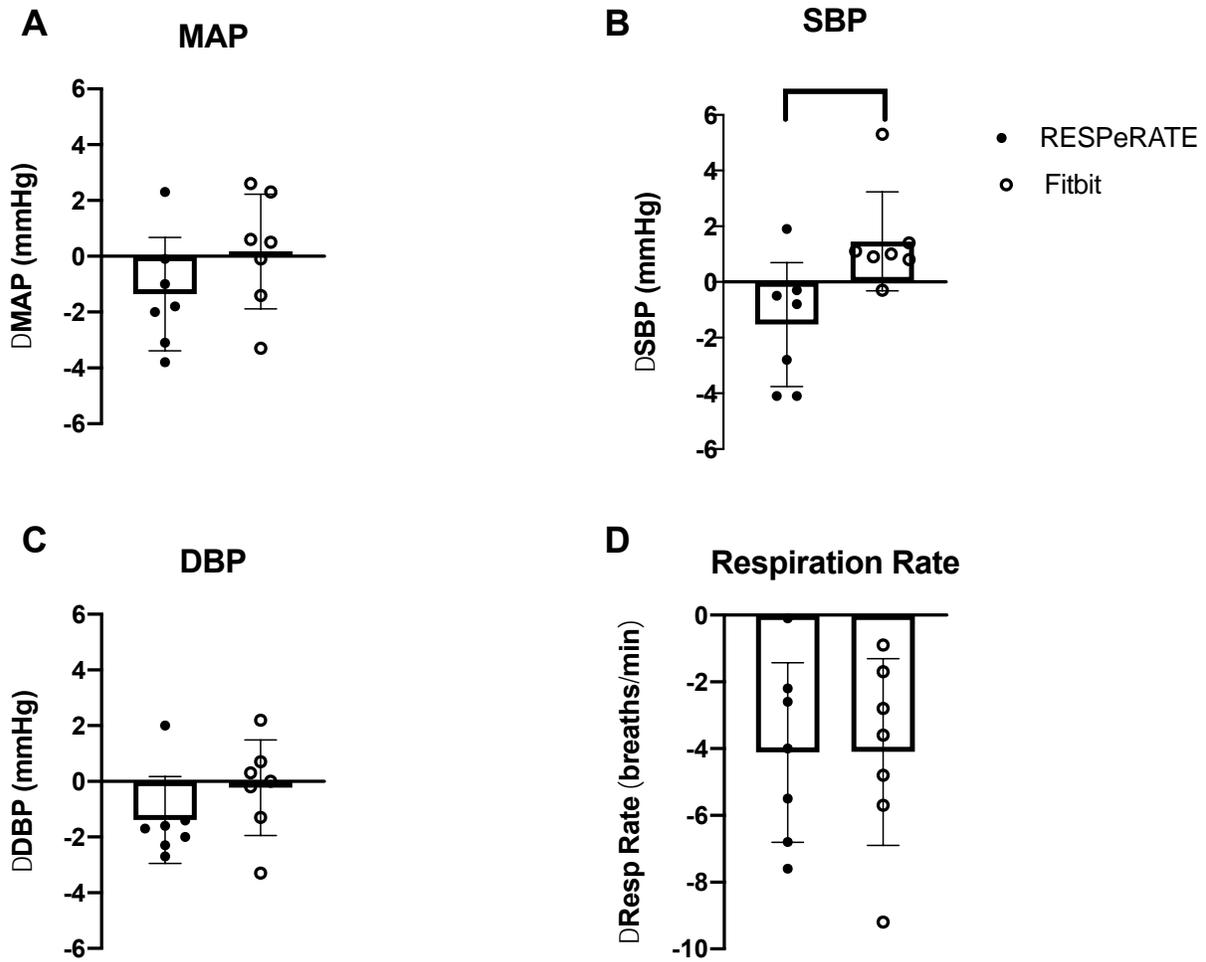
1042

1043



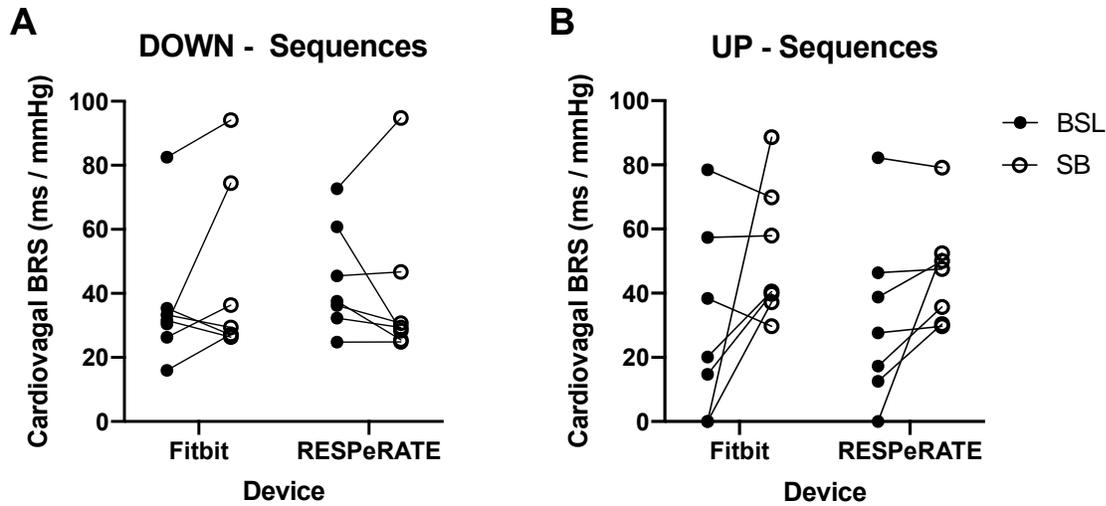
1044
 1045
 1046
 1047
 1048
 1049
 1050
 1051
 1052
 1053
 1054
 1055

Figure 2.2. Effect of RESPeRATE (RESP) and Fitbit (FB) on respiration rate. The RESPeRATE achieved a steady state of slow breathing after 6-mins. The Fitbit achieved a steady state of slow breathing after 2-mins. CPT, cold pressor test.

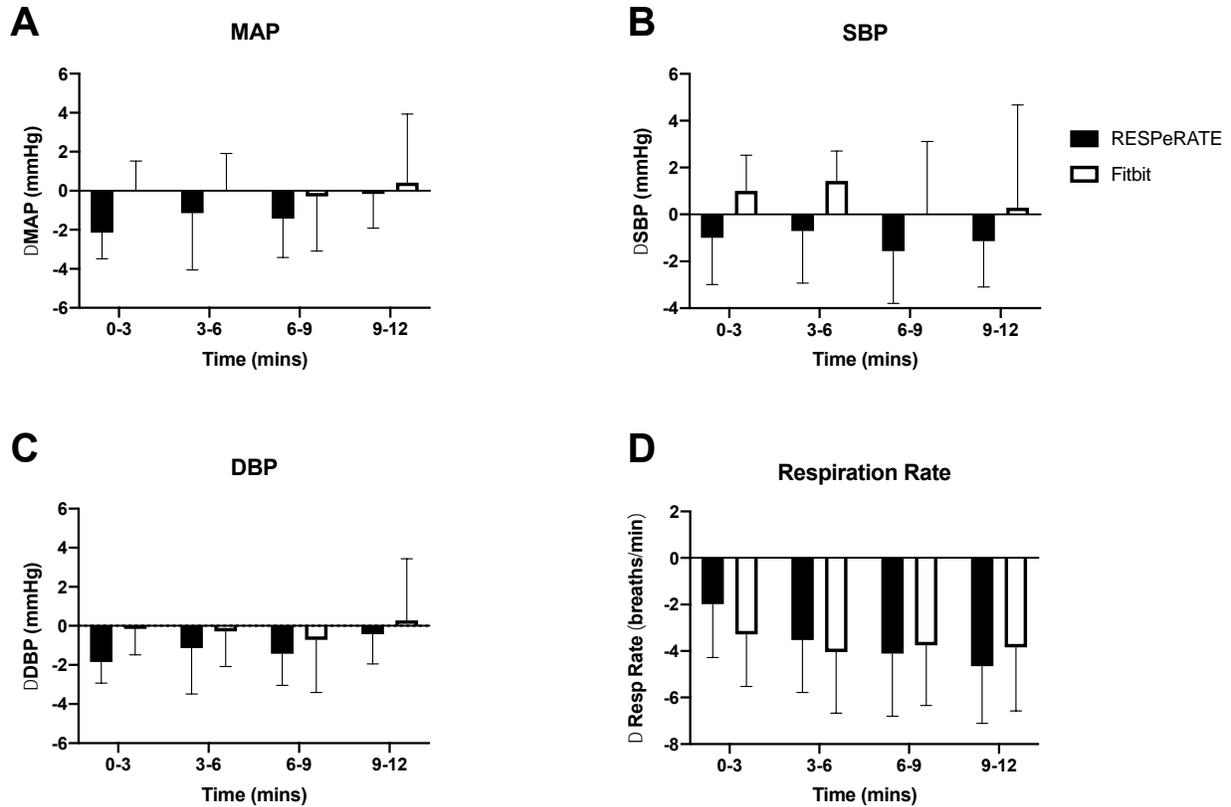


1056

1057 **Figure 2.3. Effect of RESPeRATE (RESP) and Fitbit (FB) on blood pressure and**
 1058 **respiration rate as per the manufacturer recommended settings. (A) Mean arterial pressure**
 1059 **(MAP) did not differ between devices, $P = 0.1$. (B) Systolic blood pressure (SBP) decreased**
 1060 **significantly with the RESP in comparison to the FB, $P < 0.05$. (C) Diastolic blood pressure**
 1061 **(DBP) did not differ between devices, $P = 0.08$. (D) Respiration rate did not differ between**
 1062 **devices, $P = 0.9$; individual data shown, Data are mean \pm standard deviation, $n = 7$.**
 1063



1064
 1065 **Figure 2.4. Effect of slow breathing on cardiovagal baroreflex sensitivity (BRS) using the**
 1066 **Fitbit (FB) and the RESPeRATE (RESP) under manufacture recommended**
 1067 **conditions.** (A) Cardiovag BRS in response to hypotensive stimuli (DOWN-sequences)
 1068 was unchanged in both Fitbit and RESPeRATE. Effect of slow breathing (SB), $P = 0.6$; effect of
 1069 device, $P = 0.9$; SB X Device, $P = 0.2$. (B) Cardiovag BRS in response to hypertensive stimuli
 1070 (UP-sequences) increased in both Fitbit and RESPeRATE. Effect of SB, $P < 0.05$; effect of
 1071 device, $P = 0.9$; SLOWB X Device, $P = 0.6$; individual data shown. Repeated Groups: $n = 7$.
 1072 BSL, baseline.
 1073
 1074



1075

1076 **Figure 2.5. Effect of RESPeRATE (RESP) and Fitbit (FB) on blood pressure and**
 1077 **respiration rate matching for duration.** (A) Mean arterial pressure (MAP) differed
 1078 significantly between devices (main effect of device; $P = <0.05$), no main effect of Time ($P =$
 1079 0.7), no Device x Time interaction ($P = 0.7$). (B) Systolic blood pressure (SBP) differed
 1080 significantly between devices ($P = <0.05$), no main effect of Time ($P = 0.6$), no Device x Time
 1081 interaction ($P = 0.9$). (C) Diastolic blood pressure (DBP) differed significantly between devices
 1082 ($P = <0.05$), no main effect of Time ($P = 0.7$), no Device x Time interaction ($P = 0.8$). (D)
 1083 Respiration rate (resp rate) did not differ between devices ($P = 0.6$), no main effect of Time ($P =$
 1084 0.6), no Device x Time interaction ($P = 0.1$). Data are mean \pm standard deviation.

1085

1086

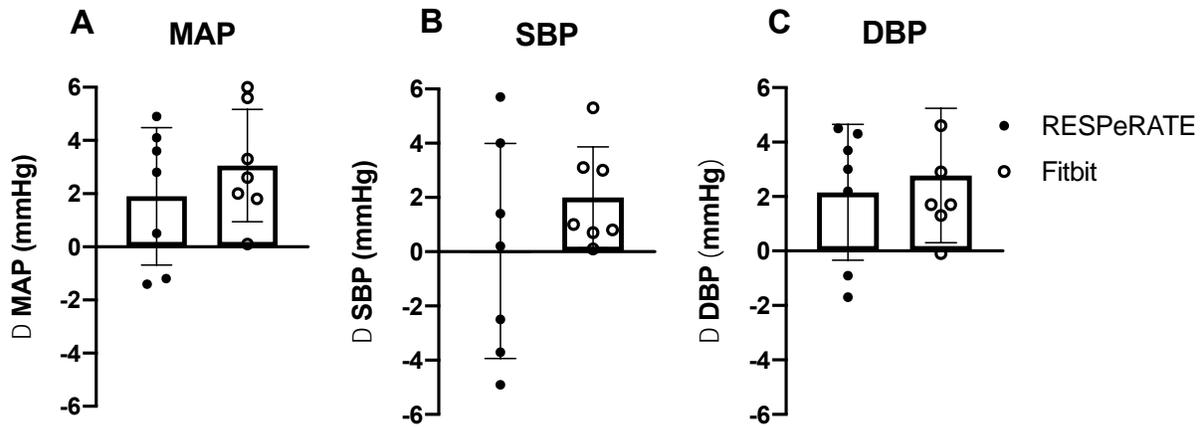
1087

1088

1089

1090

1091



1092

1093 **Figure 2.6. Effect of RESPeRATE (RESP) and Fitbit (FB) on blood pressure during a cold**
 1094 **pressor test.** (A) Mean arterial pressure (MAP) did not differ between devices, $P = 0.4$. (B)
 1095 Systolic blood pressure (SBP) did not differ between devices, $P = 0.3$. (C) Diastolic blood
 1096 pressure (DBP) did not differ between devices, $P = 0.6$; individual data shown. Repeated
 1097 Groups: $n = 7$. Data were analyzed as the delta of CPT+SB minus the delta of CPT alone. CPT,
 1098 cold pressor test; SB, slow breathing. Data are mean \pm standard deviation.

1099

1100

1101

1102

1103

1104

1105

1106

1107

1108

1109

1110

1111

1112

1113

1114 **13 References**

- 1115 1. Shahoud, J.S. and N.R. Aeddula, *Physiology, Arterial Pressure Regulation*, in *StatPearls*
1116 2019, StatPearls Publishing.
- 1117 2. Cowley Jr, A.W., *Long-term control of arterial blood pressure*. *Physiological reviews*,
1118 1992. **72**(1): p. 231-300.
- 1119 3. Whelton, P.K., et al., 2017
1120 *ACC/AHA/AAPA/ABC/ACPM/AGS/APhA/ASH/ASPC/NMA/PCNA guideline for the*
1121 *prevention, detection, evaluation, and management of high blood pressure in adults: a*
1122 *report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force*
1123 *on Clinical Practice Guidelines*. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology*, 2018.
1124 **71**(19): p. e127-e248.
- 1125 4. Vasan, R.S., et al., *Impact of high-normal blood pressure on the risk of cardiovascular*
1126 *disease*. *New England journal of medicine*, 2001. **345**(18): p. 1291-1297.
- 1127 5. Cushman, W.C., *The burden of uncontrolled hypertension: morbidity and mortality*
1128 *associated with disease progression*. *The Journal of Clinical Hypertension*, 2003. **5**(3): p.
1129 14-22.
- 1130 6. Garies, S., et al., *Prevalence of hypertension, treatment, and blood pressure targets in*
1131 *canada associated with the 2017 American college of cardiology and American heart*
1132 *association blood pressure guidelines*. *JAMA network open*, 2019. **2**(3): p. e190406-
1133 e190406.
- 1134 7. Lloyd-Jones, D.M., J.C. Evans, and D. Levy, *Hypertension in adults across the age*
1135 *spectrum: current outcomes and control in the community*. *Jama*, 2005. **294**(4): p. 466-
1136 472.

- 1137 8. Bohnert, N., J. Chagnon, and P. Dion, *Population projections for Canada (2013 to 2063),*
1138 *provinces and territories (2013 to 2038)*. 2015: Statistics Canada.
- 1139 9. Atlas, S.A., *The renin-angiotensin aldosterone system: pathophysiological role and*
1140 *pharmacologic inhibition*. Journal of managed care pharmacy, 2007. **13**(8 Supp B): p. 9-
1141 20.
- 1142 10. Mancina, G., *Björn Folkow Award Lecture The sympathetic nervous system in*
1143 *hypertension*. Journal of hypertension, 1997. **15**(12): p. 1553-1565.
- 1144 11. Bristow, J.D., et al., *Diminished baroreflex sensitivity in high blood pressure*.
1145 *Circulation*, 1969. **39**(1): p. 48-54.
- 1146 12. Sharma, M., W.H. Frishman, and K. Gandhi, *RESPeRATE: nonpharmacological*
1147 *treatment of hypertension*. Cardiology in review, 2011. **19**(2): p. 47-51.
- 1148 13. Head, G.A., *Baroreflexes and cardiovascular regulation in hypertension*. Journal of
1149 *cardiovascular pharmacology*, 1995. **26**: p. S7-S16.
- 1150 14. LANDGREN, W., *On the excitation mechanism of the carotid baroreceptors*. Acta
1151 *physiologica Scandinavica*, 1952. **26**(1): p. 1-34.
- 1152 15. Kirchheim, H.R., *Systemic arterial baroreceptor reflexes*. Physiological reviews, 1976.
1153 **56**(1): p. 100-177.
- 1154 16. Sved, A., *Blood pressure: baroreceptors*. Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Psychology,
1155 2009: p. 259-264.
- 1156 17. Spickler, J. and P. Kezdi, *Dynamic response characteristics of carotid sinus*
1157 *baroreceptors*. American Journal of Physiology-Legacy Content, 1967. **212**(2): p. 472-
1158 476.

- 1159 18. Dicarlo, S.E. and V.S. Bishop, *Central baroreflex resetting as a means of increasing and*
1160 *decreasing sympathetic outflow and arterial pressure.* Annals of the New York Academy
1161 of Sciences, 2001. **940**(1): p. 324-337.
- 1162 19. La Rovere, M.T., A. Mortara, and P.J. Schwartz, *Baroreflex sensitivity.* Journal of
1163 cardiovascular electrophysiology, 1995. **6**(9): p. 761-774.
- 1164 20. Klassen, S.A., et al., *Role of aortic arch vascular mechanics in cardiovagal baroreflex*
1165 *sensitivity.* American Journal of Physiology-Regulatory, Integrative and Comparative
1166 Physiology, 2016. **311**(1): p. R24-R32.
- 1167 21. Okada, Y., et al., *Relationship between sympathetic baroreflex sensitivity and arterial*
1168 *stiffness in elderly men and women.* Hypertension, 2012. **59**(1): p. 98-104.
- 1169 22. Chapleau, M.W., et al., *Mechanisms determining sensitivity of baroreceptor afferents in*
1170 *health and disease.* Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, 2001. **940**(1): p. 1-19.
- 1171 23. Correia, M.L. and W.G. Haynes, *Arterial compliance and endothelial function.* Current
1172 diabetes reports, 2007. **7**(4): p. 269-275.
- 1173 24. Fadel, P.J., *Arterial baroreflex control of the peripheral vasculature in humans: rest and*
1174 *exercise.* Medicine & Science in Sports & Exercise, 2008. **40**(12): p. 2055-2062.
- 1175 25. La Rovere, M.T., G.D. Pinna, and G. Raczak, *Baroreflex sensitivity: measurement and*
1176 *clinical implications.* Annals of noninvasive electrocardiology, 2008. **13**(2): p. 191-207.
- 1177 26. Rudas, L., et al., *Human sympathetic and vagal baroreflex responses to sequential*
1178 *nitroprusside and phenylephrine.* American Journal of Physiology-Heart and Circulatory
1179 Physiology, 1999. **276**(5): p. H1691-H1698.
- 1180 27. Parati, G., et al., *Evaluation of the baroreceptor-heart rate reflex by 24-hour intra-*
1181 *arterial blood pressure monitoring in humans.* Hypertension, 1988. **12**(2): p. 214-222.

- 1182 28. La Rovere, M.T., et al., *Baroreflex sensitivity and heart-rate variability in prediction of*
1183 *total cardiac mortality after myocardial infarction*. The Lancet, 1998. **351**(9101): p. 478-
1184 484.
- 1185 29. Pinna, G.D., et al., *Applicability and clinical relevance of the transfer function method in*
1186 *the assessment of baroreflex sensitivity in heart failure patients*. Journal of the American
1187 College of Cardiology, 2005. **46**(7): p. 1314-1321.
- 1188 30. Martín-Vázquez, M. and G.A.R. del Paso, *Physical training and the dynamics of the*
1189 *cardiac baroreflex: a comparison when blood pressure rises and falls*. International
1190 Journal of Psychophysiology, 2010. **76**(3): p. 142-147.
- 1191 31. Adler, T.E., et al., *Device-guided slow breathing reduces blood pressure and sympathetic*
1192 *activity in young normotensive individuals of both sexes*. Journal of Applied Physiology,
1193 2019. **127**(4): p. 1042-1049.
- 1194 32. del Paso, G.A.R., et al., *Short-term effects of a brief respiratory training on baroreceptor*
1195 *cardiac reflex function in normotensive and mild hypertensive subjects*. Applied
1196 psychophysiology and biofeedback, 2006. **31**(1): p. 37-49.
- 1197 33. Tzeng, Y., et al., *Respiratory modulation of cardiovagal baroreflex sensitivity*. Journal of
1198 Applied Physiology, 2009. **107**(3): p. 718-724.
- 1199 34. Russo, M.A., D.M. Santarelli, and D. O'Rourke, *The physiological effects of slow*
1200 *breathing in the healthy human*. Breathe, 2017. **13**(4): p. 298.
- 1201 35. Bernardi, L., et al., *Modulatory effects of respiration*. Autonomic neuroscience, 2001.
1202 **90**(1-2): p. 47-56.

- 1203 36. Noble, D.J. and S. Hochman, *Hypothesis: Pulmonary Afferent Activity Patterns During*
1204 *Slow, Deep Breathing Contribute to the Neural Induction of Physiological Relaxation.*
1205 *Frontiers in physiology*, 2019. **10**: p. 1176.
- 1206 37. Joseph, C.N., et al., *Slow breathing improves arterial baroreflex sensitivity and decreases*
1207 *blood pressure in essential hypertension.* *hypertension*, 2005. **46**(4): p. 714-718.
- 1208 38. Schein, M., et al., *Treating hypertension in type II diabetic patients with device-guided*
1209 *breathing: a randomized controlled trial.* *Journal of human hypertension*, 2009. **23**(5): p.
1210 325.
- 1211 39. Fonkoue, I.T., et al., *Acute effects of device-guided slow breathing on sympathetic nerve*
1212 *activity and baroreflex sensitivity in posttraumatic stress disorder.* *American Journal of*
1213 *Physiology-Heart and Circulatory Physiology*, 2018. **315**(1): p. H141-H149.
- 1214 40. Mahtani, K.R., D. Nunan, and C.J. Heneghan, *Device-guided breathing exercises in the*
1215 *control of human blood pressure: systematic review and meta-analysis.* *Journal of*
1216 *hypertension*, 2012. **30**(5): p. 852-860.
- 1217 41. Pater, C., *Beyond the Evidence of the New Hypertension Guidelines. Blood pressure*
1218 *measurement—is it good enough for accurate diagnosis of hypertension? Time might be*
1219 *in, for a paradigm shift (I).* *Current controlled trials in cardiovascular medicine*, 2005.
1220 **6**(1): p. 6.
- 1221 42. Whelton, P.K., et al., *Primary prevention of hypertension: clinical and public health*
1222 *advisory from The National High Blood Pressure Education Program.* *Jama*, 2002.
1223 **288**(15): p. 1882-1888.
- 1224 43. van Hateren, K.J., et al., *Device-guided breathing exercises for the treatment of*
1225 *hypertension: an overview.* *World journal of cardiology*, 2014. **6**(5): p. 277.

- 1226 44. Mori, H., et al., *How does deep breathing affect office blood pressure and pulse rate?*
1227 Hypertension research, 2005. **28**(6): p. 499-504.
- 1228 45. Sengupta, P., *Health impacts of yoga and pranayama: A state-of-the-art review.*
1229 International journal of preventive medicine, 2012. **3**(7): p. 444.
- 1230 46. Cernes, R. and R. Zimlichman, *Role of paced breathing for treatment of hypertension.*
1231 Current hypertension reports, 2017. **19**(6): p. 45.
- 1232 47. Lehrer, P., et al., *Protocol for heart rate variability biofeedback training.* Biofeedback,
1233 2013. **41**(3): p. 98-109.
- 1234 48. Yasuma, F. and J.-i. Hayano, *Respiratory sinus arrhythmia: why does the heartbeat*
1235 *synchronize with respiratory rhythm?* Chest, 2004. **125**(2): p. 683-690.
- 1236 49. Eckberg, D.L., *Human sinus arrhythmia as an index of vagal cardiac outflow.* Journal of
1237 Applied Physiology, 1983. **54**(4): p. 961-966.
- 1238 50. Acharya, U.R., et al., *Heart rate variability: a review.* Medical and biological
1239 engineering and computing, 2006. **44**(12): p. 1031-1051.
- 1240 51. Shaffer, F., R. McCraty, and C.L. Zerr, *A healthy heart is not a metronome: an*
1241 *integrative review of the heart's anatomy and heart rate variability.* Frontiers in
1242 psychology, 2014. **5**: p. 1040.
- 1243 52. Tsuji, H., et al., *Reduced heart rate variability and mortality risk in an elderly cohort.*
1244 *The Framingham Heart Study.* Circulation, 1994. **90**(2): p. 878-883.
- 1245 53. Kleiger, R.E., et al., *Decreased heart rate variability and its association with increased*
1246 *mortality after acute myocardial infarction.* The American journal of cardiology, 1987.
1247 **59**(4): p. 256-262.

- 1248 54. Wheeler, T. and P. Watkins, *Cardiac denervation in diabetes*. Br Med J, 1973. **4**(5892):
1249 p. 584-586.
- 1250 55. Ewing, D.J., et al., *The value of cardiovascular autonomic function tests: 10 years*
1251 *experience in diabetes*. Diabetes care, 1985. **8**(5): p. 491-498.
- 1252 56. Ewing, D., I. Campbell, and B. Clarke, *Mortality in diabetic autonomic neuropathy*. The
1253 Lancet, 1976. **307**(7960): p. 601-603.
- 1254 57. Mateo, J., A. Torres, and J.J. Rieta. *An efficient method for ectopic beats cancellation*
1255 *based on radial basis function*. in *2011 Annual International Conference of the IEEE*
1256 *Engineering in Medicine and Biology Society*. 2011. IEEE.
- 1257 58. Task Force, *Heart rate variability: standards of measurement, physiological*
1258 *interpretation, and clinical use*. Circulation, 1996. **93**(5): p. 1043-1065.
- 1259 59. Shaffer, F. and J. Ginsberg, *An overview of heart rate variability metrics and norms*.
1260 Frontiers in public health, 2017. **5**: p. 258.
- 1261 60. Hill, L., et al., *Are all measures created equal? Heart rate variability and respiration*.
1262 Biomed. Sci. Instrum, 2009. **45**: p. 71-76.
- 1263 61. Berntson, G.G., J.T. Cacioppo, and K.S. Quigley, *Respiratory sinus arrhythmia:*
1264 *autonomic origins, physiological mechanisms, and psychophysiological implications*.
1265 Psychophysiology, 1993. **30**(2): p. 183-196.
- 1266 62. Gilbey, M., et al., *Synaptic mechanisms involved in the inspiratory modulation of vagal*
1267 *cardio-inhibitory neurones in the cat*. The Journal of Physiology, 1984. **356**(1): p. 65-78.
- 1268 63. Taha, B.H., et al., *Respiratory sinus arrhythmia in humans: an obligatory role for vagal*
1269 *feedback from the lungs*. Journal of Applied Physiology, 1995. **78**(2): p. 638-645.

- 1270 64. Schelegle, E.S. and J.F. Green, *An overview of the anatomy and physiology of slowly*
1271 *adapting pulmonary stretch receptors*. *Respiration physiology*, 2001. **125**(1-2): p. 17-31.
- 1272 65. Anrep, G., W. Pascual, and R. Rössler, *Respiratory variations of the heart rate-I—The*
1273 *reflex mechanism of the respiratory arrhythmia*. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of*
1274 *London. Series B-Biological Sciences*, 1936. **119**(813): p. 191-217.
- 1275 66. Eckberg, D.L., Y.T. Kifle, and V.L. Roberts, *Phase relationship between normal human*
1276 *respiration and baroreflex responsiveness*. *The Journal of Physiology*, 1980. **304**(1): p.
1277 489-502.
- 1278 67. Eckberg, D.L., *Topical Review: The human respiratory gate*. *The Journal of Physiology*,
1279 2003. **548**(2): p. 339-352.
- 1280 68. Larsen, P., et al., *Respiratory sinus arrhythmia in conscious humans during spontaneous*
1281 *respiration*. *Respiratory physiology & neurobiology*, 2010. **174**(1-2): p. 111-118.
- 1282 69. Bernardi, L., et al., *Respiratory sinus arrhythmia in the denervated human heart*. *Journal*
1283 *of Applied Physiology*, 1989. **67**(4): p. 1447-1455.
- 1284 70. Izzo, J.L., D.A. Sica, and H.R. Black, *Hypertension primer*. 2008: Lippincott Williams &
1285 Wilkins.
- 1286 71. Gerber, U. and C. Polosa, *Effects of pulmonary stretch receptor afferent stimulation on*
1287 *sympathetic preganglionic neuron firing*. *Canadian journal of physiology and*
1288 *pharmacology*, 1978. **56**(2): p. 191-198.
- 1289 72. Taylor, J.A., et al., *Sympathetic restraint of respiratory sinus arrhythmia: implications*
1290 *for vagal-cardiac tone assessment in humans*. *American Journal of Physiology-Heart and*
1291 *Circulatory Physiology*, 2001. **280**(6): p. H2804-H2814.

- 1292 73. Lehrer, P.M. and R. Gevirtz, *Heart rate variability biofeedback: how and why does it*
1293 *work?* *Frontiers in psychology*, 2014. **5**: p. 756.
- 1294 74. Julien, C., *The enigma of Mayer waves: facts and models*. *Cardiovascular research*, 2006.
1295 **70**(1): p. 12-21.
- 1296 75. Brook, R.D., et al., *Beyond medications and diet: alternative approaches to lowering*
1297 *blood pressure: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association*.
1298 *Hypertension*, 2013: p. HYP. 0b013e318293645f.
- 1299 76. Grossman, E., et al., *Breathing-control lowers blood pressure*. *Journal of human*
1300 *hypertension*, 2001. **15**(4): p. 263.
- 1301 77. Schein, M., et al., *Treating hypertension with a device that slows and regularises*
1302 *breathing: a randomised, double-blind controlled study*. *Journal of human hypertension*,
1303 2001. **15**(4): p. 271.
- 1304 78. Viskoper, R., et al., *Nonpharmacologic treatment of resistant hypertensives by device-*
1305 *guided slow breathing exercises*. *American journal of hypertension*, 2003. **16**(6): p. 484-
1306 487.
- 1307 79. Altena, M.R., et al., *Effect of device-guided breathing exercises on blood pressure in*
1308 *patients with hypertension: a randomized controlled trial*. *Blood pressure*, 2009. **18**(5): p.
1309 273-279.
- 1310 80. de Barros, S., et al., *Effects of long term device-guided slow breathing on sympathetic*
1311 *nervous activity in hypertensive patients: a randomized open-label clinical trial*. *Blood*
1312 *pressure*, 2017. **26**(6): p. 359-365.

- 1313 81. Landman, G.W., et al., *Device-guided breathing as treatment for hypertension in type 2*
1314 *diabetes mellitus: a randomized, double-blind, sham-controlled trial*. JAMA internal
1315 medicine, 2013. **173**(14): p. 1346-1350.
- 1316 82. Vrijens, B., et al., *Adherence to prescribed antihypertensive drug treatments:*
1317 *longitudinal study of electronically compiled dosing histories*. Bmj, 2008. **336**(7653): p.
1318 1114-1117.
- 1319 83. Carey, R.M., et al., *Resistant hypertension: detection, evaluation, and management: a*
1320 *scientific statement from the American Heart Association*. Hypertension, 2018. **72**(5): p.
1321 e53-e90.
- 1322 84. Naci, H., et al., *How does exercise treatment compare with antihypertensive*
1323 *medications? A network meta-analysis of 391 randomised controlled trials assessing*
1324 *exercise and medication effects on systolic blood pressure*. British journal of sports
1325 medicine, 2019. **53**(14): p. 859-869.
- 1326 85. Mills, K.T., A. Stefanescu, and J. He, *The global epidemiology of hypertension*. Nature
1327 Reviews Nephrology, 2020: p. 1-15.
- 1328 86. Meles, E., et al., *Nonpharmacologic treatment of hypertension by respiratory exercise in*
1329 *the home setting*. American journal of hypertension, 2004. **17**(4): p. 370-374.
- 1330 87. Pagaduan, J., et al., *Acute effects of resonance frequency breathing on cardiovascular*
1331 *regulation*. Physiological reports, 2019. **7**(22): p. e14295.
- 1332 88. Sala, C., et al., *How long shall the patient rest before clinic blood pressure*
1333 *measurement?* American journal of hypertension, 2006. **19**(7): p. 713-717.
- 1334 89. Benetos, A. and M. Safar, *Response to the cold pressor test in normotensive and*
1335 *hypertensive patients*. American journal of hypertension, 1991. **4**(7_Pt_1): p. 627-629.

- 1336 90. Hellström, B. and U. Lundberg, *Pain perception to the cold pressor test during the*
1337 *menstrual cycle in relation to estrogen levels and a comparison with men.* Integrative
1338 Physiological and Behavioral Science, 2000. **35**(2): p. 132-141.
- 1339 91. Mitchell, L.A., R.A. MacDonald, and E.E. Brodie, *Temperature and the cold pressor test.*
1340 The Journal of Pain, 2004. **5**(4): p. 233-237.
- 1341 92. Blaber, A., Y. Yamamoto, and R. Hughson, *Methodology of spontaneous baroreflex*
1342 *relationship assessed by surrogate data analysis.* American Journal of Physiology-Heart
1343 and Circulatory Physiology, 1995. **268**(4): p. H1682-H1687.
- 1344 93. Silva, L.E.V., et al., *Revisiting the sequence method for baroreflex analysis.* Frontiers in
1345 Neuroscience, 2019. **13**: p. 17.
- 1346 94. Limberg, J.K., et al., *Respiratory influences on muscle sympathetic nerve activity and*
1347 *vascular conductance in the steady state.* American Journal of Physiology-Heart and
1348 Circulatory Physiology, 2013. **304**(12): p. H1615-H1623.
- 1349 95. Lehrer, P., *How does heart rate variability biofeedback work? Resonance, the baroreflex,*
1350 *and other mechanisms.* Biofeedback, 2013. **41**(1): p. 26-31.
- 1351 96. Lin, G., et al., *Heart rate variability biofeedback decreases blood pressure in*
1352 *prehypertensive subjects by improving autonomic function and baroreflex.* The Journal of
1353 Alternative and Complementary Medicine, 2012. **18**(2): p. 143-152.
- 1354 97. Brown, T.E., et al., *Important influence of respiration on human RR interval power*
1355 *spectra is largely ignored.* Journal of Applied Physiology, 1993. **75**(5): p. 2310-2317.
- 1356 98. Wulsin, L.R., et al., *Autonomic imbalance as a predictor of metabolic risks,*
1357 *cardiovascular disease, diabetes, and mortality.* The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology &
1358 Metabolism, 2015. **100**(6): p. 2443-2448.

- 1359 99. Dart, A.M. and B.A. Kingwell, *Pulse pressure—a review of mechanisms and clinical*
1360 *relevance*. Journal of the American College of Cardiology, 2001. **37**(4): p. 975-984.
- 1361 100. Bighamian, R. and J.-O. Hahn, *Relationship between stroke volume and pulse pressure*
1362 *during blood volume perturbation: a mathematical analysis*. BioMed research
1363 international, 2014. **2014**.
- 1364 101. Cernes, R., R. Zimlichman, and M. Shargorodsky, *Arterial elasticity in cardiovascular*
1365 *disease: focus on hypertension, metabolic syndrome and diabetes*, in *Cardiovascular*
1366 *Diabetology: Clinical, Metabolic and Inflammatory Facets*. 2008, Karger Publishers. p.
1367 65-81.
- 1368 102. Dornhorst, A., P. Howard, and G. Leathart, *Respiratory variations in blood pressure*.
1369 *Circulation*, 1952. **6**(4): p. 553-558.
- 1370 103. Miller, J.D., et al., *Skeletal muscle pump versus respiratory muscle pump: modulation of*
1371 *venous return from the locomotor limb in humans*. The Journal of physiology, 2005.
1372 **563**(3): p. 925-943.
- 1373 104. Logtenberg, S.J., et al., *Effect of device-guided breathing exercises on blood pressure in*
1374 *hypertensive patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: a randomized controlled trial*. Journal
1375 of hypertension, 2007. **25**(1): p. 241-246.
- 1376 105. Bradt, J., C. Dileo, and N. Potvin, *Music for stress and anxiety reduction in coronary*
1377 *heart disease patients*. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, 2013(12).
- 1378 106. Hering, D., et al., *Effects of acute and long-term slow breathing exercise on muscle*
1379 *sympathetic nerve activity in untreated male patients with hypertension*. Journal of
1380 hypertension, 2013. **31**(4): p. 739-746.
- 1381