

Sympathetic effect of auricular transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation on healthy subjects: a crossover controlled clinical trial comparing vagally-mediated and active control stimulation using microneurography

Anaïs Gauthey^{1*}, Sofia Morra², Philippe Van de Borne², Denis Deriaz³, Nathalie Maes⁴, Jean-Benoît Le Polain de Waroux⁵

¹Pôle de Recherche Cardiovasculaire, Institut de Recherche Expérimentale et Clinique, Université Catholique de Louvain, Belgium, ²Department of Cardiology, Erasmus Hospital, Free University of Brussels, Belgium, ³Department of Biomedical and Preclinical Sciences, Faculty of Medicine, University of Liege, Belgium, ⁴Department of Biostatistics and Medico-Economic Information, University Hospital Center of Liège, Belgium, ⁵Department of Cardiology, Sint jan hospital, Belgium

Submitted to Journal: Frontiers in Physiology

Specialty Section: Autonomic Neuroscience

Article type: Original Research Article

Manuscript ID: 599896

Received on: 28 Aug 2020

Revised on: 10 Nov 2020

Frontiers website link: www.frontiersin.org



Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest

Author contribution statement

A.G., S.M., P.V.D.B and J.B.L.P.D.W conceived the design of the study. A.G. and S.M. carried out all the experimental sessions from the recruitment to MSNA acquisition. Data were analyzed both by A.G. and S.M. D.D. and N.M. had full access to data and provided the statistical analyzes. S.M., P.V.D.B, J.B.L.P.D.W, D.D. and N.M. critically revised the manuscript. All the authors proofread and made corrections to this manuscript.

Keywords

Cardiac autonomic function, healthy subjects, Muscle sympathetic nerve activity (MSNA), auricular transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation, Auricular branch of the vagus nerve

Abstract

Word count: 320

Introduction: Auricular low-level transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation (aLL-tVNS) has emerged as a promising technology for cardiac arrhythmia management but is still experimental. In this physiological study, we hypothesized that aLL-tVNS modulated the autonomic nervous balance through a reduction of sympathetic tone and an increase in heart rate variability (HRV). We investigated the muscle sympathetic nerve activity (MSNA) recorded by microneurography during vagally-mediated aLL-tVNS and active control on healthy volunteers.

Methods: In this crossover, double-blind controlled study, healthy men (N=28; 27 ± 4 years old) were assigned to aLL-tVNS applied to cymba and lobe (active control) of the right ear. Each participant was randomly allocated to the three sequences (5Hz, 20Hz and active control-5Hz) during one session. MSNA signal was recorded at rest, during voluntarily apnea and aLL-tVNS. Sympathetic activity was expressed as: 1) number of bursts per minute (burst frequency: BF) and 2) MSNA activity calculated as BF x mean burst amplitude and expressed as changes from baseline (%). RR intervals, HRV parameters and sympathetic activity were analyzed during 5min-baseline, 10min-stimulation and 10min-recovery periods. Mixed regression models were performed to evaluate cymba-(5Hz-20Hz) effects on the parameters with stimulation.

Results: During apnea and compared to baseline, BF and MSNA activity increased (p = 0.002, p = 0.001, respectively). No stimulation effect on RR intervals and HRV parameters were showed excepted a slightly increase of the LF/HF ratio with stimulation in the cymba-5Hz sequence (coef. \pm SE: 0.76 \pm 0.32%; p=0.02). During stimulation, reductions from baseline in BF (Coef. \pm SE: -4.8 \pm 1.1, p<0.001) was observed but was not statistically different from that one in the active control. Reduction of MSNA activity was not significantly different between sequences.

Conclusion: Acute right cymba aLL-tVNS did not induce any overall effects neither on heart rate, HRV nor MSNA variables on healthy subjects when compared to active control. Interestingly, these findings questioned the role of active controls in medical device clinical trials that implied subjective endpoints.

Contribution to the field

Autonomic nervous system (ANS) disbalance is one of the crucial determinants for atrial fibrillation pathogenesis. With its non-invasive approach, auricular low-level vagus nerve stimulation (aLL-tVNS) appears as a promising technology to manage patients suffering from paroxysmal atrial fibrillation. Nevertheless, physiological effects on sympathovagal balance remain to be fully understood before standardizing the use of tVNS devices for clinical applications. Mediated effects implying afferents auricular vagal projections would result in a reduction of sympathetic tone and an increase in heart rate variability (HRV). Our original research is the first one that explored the directs effects of aLL-tVNS on ANS in a randomized, crossover, sham-controlled and double-blind study. As muscle sympathetic nerve activity (MSNA) directly assesses the sympathetic ganglionic neuron activity, we hypothesized that aLL-tVNS lowered the sympathetic activity measured by microneurography on healthy volunteers. We reported for the first time the results of two tested frequencies (5Hz-20Hz) compared to an active sham in a crossover design. Although our results did not demonstrate any consistent aLL-tVNS effects on HRV, they provide substantial feedback on ONS response to aLL-tVNS using microneurography. Finally, these findings underscored the paramount importance of sham-controlled studies in medical device clinical trials.

Funding statement

BioWin Health cluster of Wallonia (Belgium) Grant numbers (N°7452).

Ethics statements

Studies involving animal subjects Generated Statement: No animal studies are presented in this manuscript.

Studies involving human subjects

Generated Statement: The studies involving human participants were reviewed and approved by Ethics Committee Hospitalo-Facultaire Saint-Luc-UCL, Brussels, Belgium and Ethics Committee Erasme Hospital, Brussels, Belgium. The patients/participants provided their written informed consent to participate in this study.

Inclusion of identifiable human data

Generated Statement: No potentially identifiable human images or data is presented in this study.

Data availability statement

Generated Statement: The raw data supporting the conclusions of this article will be made available by the authors, without undue reservation.

1	Sympathetic effect of auricular transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation					
2	on healthy subjects: a crossover controlled clinical trial comparing vagally-					
3	mediated and active control stimulation using microneurography					
4						
5	Anaïs Gauthey* (MD) ¹ ; Sofia Morra (MD) ² ; Philippe van de Borne (MD, PhD) ² ; Denis					
6	Deriaz (MSc) ³ , Nathalie Maes ⁴ , Jean-Benoît le Polain de Waroux (MD, PhD) ⁵					
7						
8	*Anaïs Gauthey and Sofia Morra equally contributed to this work.					
9						
10						
11	Authors department:					
12 13	Department of Condiciony, Spint Lup Hospital, Universitá Catholique de Louvein, Delaium					
15 14	¹ Department of Cardiology, Saint-Luc Hospital, Université Catholique de Louvain, Belgium					
14 15	² Department of Cardiology, Erasme Hospital, Université Libre de Bruxelles, Belgium					
16	³ Department of Biomedical and Preclinical Sciences, Université de Liège, Liège, Belgium ⁴ Department of Biostatistic and Medico-Economic Information, CHU Hospital of Liège,					
17	Belgium					
18	⁵ Department of Cardiology, AZ Sint Jan, Bruges, Belgium					
19						
20						
21	First and Corresponding author:					
22	Gauthey Anaïs					
23	E-mail: anaisgauthey@gmail.com					
24						
25	Keywords: auricular transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation, auricular branch of the vagus					
26	nerve, heart rate variability, healthy subjects, sham, muscle sympathetic nerve activity, cardiac					
27	autonomic function.					
28						
29	Word count: 3899					
30						

31 <u>COI related to this study: none</u>

1 ABSTRACT

2

Introduction: Auricular low-level transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation (aLL-tVNS) has emerged as a promising technology for cardiac arrhythmia management but is still experimental. In this physiological study, we hypothesized that aLL-tVNS modulated the autonomic nervous balance through a reduction of sympathetic tone and an increase in heart rate variability (HRV). We investigated the muscle sympathetic nerve activity (MSNA) recorded by microneurography during vagally-mediated aLL-tVNS and active control on healthy volunteers.

10

Methods: In this crossover, double-blind controlled study, healthy men (N=28; 27 ± 4 years 11 old) were assigned to aLL-tVNS applied to cymba and lobe (active control) of the right ear. 12 13 Each participant was randomly allocated to the three sequences (5Hz, 20Hz and active control-14 5Hz) during one session. MSNA signal was recorded at rest, during voluntarily apnea and aLL-15 tVNS. Sympathetic activity was expressed as: 1) number of bursts per minute (burst frequency: 16 BF) and 2) MSNA activity calculated as BF x mean burst amplitude and expressed as changes from baseline (%). RR intervals, HRV parameters and sympathetic activity were analyzed 17 during 5min-baseline, 10min-stimulation and 10min-recovery periods. Mixed regression 18 19 models were performed to evaluate cymba-(5Hz-20Hz) effects on the parameters with 20 stimulation.

21

Results: During apnea and compared to baseline, BF and MSNA activity increased (p = 0.002, p = 0.001, respectively). No stimulation effect on RR intervals and HRV parameters were showed excepted a slightly increase of the LF/HF ratio with stimulation in the cymba-5Hz sequence (coef. \pm SE: $0.76 \pm 0.32\%$; p=0.02). During stimulation, reductions from baseline in BF (Coef. \pm SE: -4.8 ± 1.1 , p<0.001) was observed but was not statistically different from that one in the active control. Reduction of MSNA activity was not significantly different between sequences.

- Conclusion: Acute right cymba aLL-tVNS did not induce any overall effects neither on heart
 rate, HRV nor MSNA variables on healthy subjects when compared to active control.
 Interestingly, these findings questioned the role of active controls in medical device clinical
 trials that implied subjective endpoints.
- 34 35

36 INTRODUCTION

37

38 Cardiac autonomic disbalance represents a prerogative for the onset and maintenance of atrial fibrillation (AF).¹⁻⁴ Atrial ganglionated plexus ablation in addition or not to pulmonary 39 veins (PV) isolation, has demonstrated a significant benefit for free-recurrence of atrial 40 41 fibrillation.^{5,6} Auricular low level transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation (aLL-tVNS) has been described to inhibit ganglionated plexus and stellate activities. Cholinergic anti-inflammatory 42 pathway mediated by tVNS involves a reduction in pro-inflammatory cytokines levels.⁷ Also, 43 44 aLL-tVNS increases atrial and PV myocardial refractory periods. ^{7,8} Concordantly, this technique is susceptible to modulate both the trigger and substrate for AF along with autonomic, 45 electrical and structural atrial remodelings.^{9,10}. Nevertheless, physiological effects on 46 sympathovagal balance remain to be fully understood before standardizing the use of tVNS 47 devices for clinical applications. Feasibility of aLL-tVNS as a reliable alternative to invasive 48 cervical VNS is driven by the cutaneous distribution of vagal fibers through its auricular branch 49 50 (ABVN) and its subsequent afferents projections illustrated by functional magnetic resonance

imaging (fMRI).¹¹⁻¹³ Published randomized and non-randomized aLL-tVNS studies on 1 cardiovascular effects in healthy subjects^{11,14} are attractive but would require to be validated by 2 3 controlled designs with direct assessment of orthosympathetic activity. Muscle sympathetic nerve activity (MSNA) assessed by the microneurography, records directly the sympathetic 4 activity directed toward peripheral blood vessels while analysis of HRV indirectly reflects 5 6 changes in cardiac parasympathetic activity.¹⁵⁻¹⁷ As potential explanation for aLL-tVNS mechanisms, excitatory signals from afferents vagal fibers to the nucleus of the solitary tract 7 8 (NTS) and caudal ventrolateral medulla (CVLM) would result in both a reduction and an increase in sympathetic and parasympathetic tones respectively.¹⁴ Inhibitory signals from 9 CVLM to the rostro ventrolateral medulla (RVLM), well described as the mainstay of 10 sympathetic output sent inhibitory signals to the sympathetic paravertebral ganglionic chain 11 resulting in a decrease in sympathetic activity. ¹⁸ In this crossover, double-blind controlled 12 study, we focused on acute and direct effects of aLL-tVNS on sympathetic tone. As MSNA 13 directly assesses the sympathetic ganglionic neuron activity¹⁹, we hypothesized that aLL-tVNS 14 lowered the sympathetic activity measured by microneurography. For this purpose, we 15 16 investigated the MSNA signal recorded by microneurography during cymba aLL-tVNS and active control on healthy volunteers. 17

- 18
- 19

21

20 MATERIALS AND METHODS

22 Study design

23

24 This was a clinical experimental, double-blind with crossover-controlled study. All the participants were tested for 3 sequences: cymba-(5Hz-20Hz) stimulation along with active 25 control (earlobe-5Hz) in a simple randomly allocated order. Prior to each session, randomness 26 27 of the assignment to one of the sequences was determined throwing a dice. Thus, there were in 28 total six possible combinations. The random list for the sequences (one number of the dice 29 corresponding to one combination of sequences) has been established prior to the first 30 participant session. Each phase (baseline, stimulation and recovery times) of each sequence (cymba-5Hz; cymba-20Hz and earlobe-5Hz) for all participants dataset received a random 31 allocated alphanumerical code so that operators were blinded for the inspection of the 32 neurogram. Statistical analyzes were fully blinded to the operators and performed by the 33 34 biostatisticians (D.D. and N.M.).

35

36 **Participants and data**

37

Healthy, young and active men $(27 \pm 4 \text{ years old})$ were enrolled (N=28) from June 2019 until 38 39 November 2019 in one single center by the two investigators. Only male gender was included based on the following considerations: 1) avoiding confounding contribution of menstrual cycle 40 on the measurements; 2) easier identification of peroneal in men probably due to lower amount 41 of subcutaneous fat²⁰ and 3) lower resting MSNA activity reported in women.²¹ Candidates 42 43 were eligible if they did not have any cardiovascular nor neurological nor mental diseases and if they did not take any medication. They had to be over 18 years of age and they were asked 44 45 to avoid intense exercise and alcohol, and were asked to refrain from smoking and taking 46 caffeine the day before participation. Prior to the experimental session, participants were asked 47 to empty their bladder. Our local ethics committee (P2019/264; 2017/14JUI/317) approved the

48 study and all patients consented orally and in written to participate to the study.

HRV analyzes were available for all the subjects (N=28). Successful recording rate for MSNA
signal identification was 64% (N=18/28) with a good signal to noise ratio (5Hz: N=16/18;
20Hz: N=15/18).

4 5

Intervention

6

7 First, we assessed the muscle sympathetic nerve activity (MSNA) using the microneurography 8 technique. Participants underwent subsequent aLL-tVNS either performed on the cymba of the 9 right ear applying low frequency (5Hz) and high frequency (20Hz) stimulation and on the lobe 10 of the right ear applying low frequency (5Hz) in a randomly order. They were blinded for assignment. Each sequence included a 5min-baseline followed by a 10min-stimulation and a 11 10min-recovery (wash-out) phases along with continuous MSNA recording (Figure 1). During 12 13 the session and in between all the three sequences, the adequacy of the nerve recording site was acertained by means of voluntary end-expiratory sustained apnea performed by participants 14 15 with a subsequent increase in the MSNA activity (Figure 2). The duration of the apnea differed 16 between individuals; each of them was required to hold his breath as long as he could (from a minimum of 13 seconds to a maximum of 49 seconds). The aim of this maneuver was to induce 17 modification of blood gases concentration to activate the MSNA and to make sure the needle 18 19 was correctly placed, and the obtained record coincided with MSNA activity and not with 20 SSNA one. The identification of the apnea was based on the respiratory signal measured with 21 the respiratory belt: the beginning of the apnea was identified at the end of a maximal 22 expiration, the lungs being at their residual volume, the end of the apnea was identified prior to 23 the restauration of respiration.

24

25 Sample size calculation was limited by the lack of reliable and objective effect size for physiological tVNS impact either on cardiac autonomic function (HRV markers) and peripheral 26 27 sympathetic tone (MSNA). Several considerations could participate to the varied tVNS 28 response reported in the literature: 1) the inter-subject variability could limit the reproducibility 29 of the results along with 2) the heterogeneity among tVNS protocols (setting parameters); 3) the need for more tVNS studies evaluating the sympathetic markers such as MSNA and 4) the 30 31 complexity of the autonomic nervous system and clinical covariates that limited the evaluation 32 of a one size effect-parameter. Nonetheless, we performed this study using a crossover design 33 with each subject being its own control, requiring a smaller cohort to achieve outcomes and allowing for precise description of the intervention effect. 34

35 36

37 Statistical methods

38

Outcomes measured were: 1) direct comparison of the changes in RR intervals, HRV, blood
pressure and MSNA parameters between cymba-aLL-tVNS (5Hz-20Hz) and active control
sequence (earlobe-5Hz); 2) correlation between the variation of MSNA activity (%baseline)
and RMSSD, SDRR or the LF/HF ratio.

43

44 Distribution of continuous variables were graphically checked at each phase level for HRV
 45 variables and at minute level for both BP and MSNA variables. Both outliers' observations

46 (N=3) and artifacts (0.78% of the pooled MSNA recordings) were dropped out for statistical

47 analysis. Continuous variables were expressed as means and standard deviations (mean \pm SD)

- 48 and categorical variables were reported as counts and proportions. SDRR (ms), LF and HF
- 49 components (ms²) and MSNA (AU/s) were log-transformed. Mixed linear regression models
- 50 were used to analyze the stimulation effect on the evolution of variables with stimulation.

For each variable, models included the sequence effect (active control- 5Hz= reference, cymba-1 2 5Hz and cymba-20Hz), the stimulation effect (baseline= reference, and stimulation), and the 3 stimulation*sequence effect. Random subject intercepts were added to the models in order to 4 take into account the subject-specific variation. For the active control-5Hz, cymba-5Hz and 5 cymba-20Hz stimulation, effect delay was tested by dividing the stimulation phase in two 5 6 minutes subphases. Pearson correlations between the variation of MSNA activity (%baseline) 7 and RMSSD, SDRR or the LF/HF ratio were also computed. Data analysis was carried out 8 using R software (version 3.6.2) and SAS software (version 9.4) and results were considered significant at the 5% critical level (p < 0.05). 9

10

12

11 Transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation

Low frequency (5Hz) and high frequency (20Hz) stimulation with a fixed pulse duration of
0.2ms were delivered using a tVNS system dedicated to target the right cymba and the earlobe.
Earlobe, currently used as the standard not vagally-mediated site in fMRI studies^{12,13,22-24} was
considered for active control sequence. ¹¹ Subject's right ear was cleaned and dried so that a
good contact between earpiece and skin was ensured. Individually intensity level (mA) was
based on sensory perception.^{25,26}

19 20

21 Microneurography

22

Firstly used in the mid 60's to record action potentials on peripheral human nerves, 23 microneurography directly assesses the efferent sympathetic activity directed to vascular 24 25 smooth muscle of vessels called muscle sympathetic nerve activity (MSNA).^{27,28} The equipment was composed of: two tungsten needle electrodes (µm), an amplifier to increase 26 27 the raw signal and improved signal to noise ratio, a signal integrator (GRASS, Instrumental 28 division, Astro-Med[®]) and an output (computer software-ADInstrument).²⁹ Subjects were 29 tested at rest in a semi-supine position with a pillow under the head and a supported pillow under the right leg so that the site of stimulation remained stable for all the experiment. The 30 31 experimental session was realised in a dedicated room with temperature controlled.

32 First part of the session consisted in peroneal nerve of the right leg identification by cutaneous electrical stimulation. ²⁹⁻³¹ Then, an active micro electrode (UNA35F2S, FHC Neural 33 MicroTargetingTM) was inserted into the peroneal nerve which was preferentially choosen to 34 35 record MSNA because of its easy accessibility. The reference electrode was placed in the 36 subcutaneous tissue 2-3cm away from the active one. Electrode adjustements and 37 audiomonitoring were made until a clear MSNA signal was achieved. Establishement of the 38 MSNA signal was assessed on real time using the following criteria: 1) diastolic-pulsedsynchronized, 2) no influence of startle nor sensory stimuli and 3) respiratory modulated.¹⁶ Raw 39 signal was processed to be amplified, filtered, integrated and connected to the acquisition 40 41 system PowerLab 16/30 (ADInstruments). To avoid the unwanted noise of electrical stimulus 42 from 5 to 20Hz frequency stimulations, an automatic band-pass filter was applied. Each burst was manually identified by a trained operator. The amplitude of each burst was determined 43 44 (arbitrary units: AU). Required amplitude of the normalized signal had to be at least a 2:1 signal to noise ratio, as previously described²⁹. Burst frequency (number of burst/min), burst incidence 45 (BI; bursts/100 heart beats) and MSNA activity were reported. Burst amplitude varied along 46 with amplification and nerve position among subjects. MSNA activity was calculated as burst 47 frequency multiplied by mean burst amplitude (AU) expressed in percentage from baseline 48 value to allow inter-participant comparison. ³² 49

1 Others data acquisition

2

3 One lead-ECG, systemic blood pressure, oxygen saturation and respiratory ampliation signals

4 were continously assessed during the experimental session (Figure 1). Breathing was free (17±3

- 5 breath/min). Prior to HRV analysis, adequate R peak detection was manually checked. Beat-to-
- 6 beat RR interval analysis was automatically processed using the Heart rate variability (HRV)
- 7 module for LabChart Pro v8 (ADInstruments) after exclusion of ectopic beats. A 1000-Hz
- 8 sampling frequency was set by default for HRV analysis.

9 Standard deviation of RR intervals (SDRR) and root mean square of the successive RR interval

- differences (RMSSD) were used for time-domain analysis. Low (LF), high (HF) frequency
 power and LF/HF ratio were used for frequency-domain measurements. ¹⁶ ³³Beat-to-beat
 systemic blood pressure was acquired by a finger cuff (Finometer Pro, FMS©, Amsterdam, the
 Netherlands) and analyzed off-line through the Blood Pressure Module for LabChart
 (ADInstruments). Brachial blood pressure was measured using an automatic manometer to
 confirm finometer values. Oxygen saturation and respiratory ampliation signal were obtained
 using a pulse oximeter (Capnostream-35-monitor [©], Oridion Medical 272 Ltd, Jerusalem,
 Israël) and a chest belt (ADInstruments) respectively.
- 17 Israël) and a chest belt (ADInstruments) respectively.
- 18
- 19

20

21 **RESULTS**

22

23 All participants (N=28) were healthy young men with baseline characteristics reported in Table 1. Mean stimulation intensities at cymba-(5Hz-20Hz) and active control-5Hz were 1.5±0.6mA, 24 1.2±0.5mA and 5.5±1.6mA respectively which is concordant with others studies.²⁴⁻²⁶ During 25 26 apnea and compared to baseline, burst frequency and MSNA activity increased (p=0.002; 27 p=0.001 respectively) which specifically featured effective sympathetic tone modulation in 28 response to breathing cessation. At the beginning of the apnea, there is a suppression of the 29 sympathetic nerve activity without discernable bursts. HR accelerates compared to normal 30 respiration and systolic blood pressure slightly falls. Towards the end of the apnea, a marked rise in the sympathetic nerve activity is observed, characterized by an increase of BF and 31 MSNA. HR slows and systolic blood pressure rises compared to the beginning of the apnea 32 33 (Figure 2).

34

35 Stimulation effects of the 3 sequences on parameters

36

• Effects of aLL-tVNS on heart rate variability

37 38

No overall stimulation effect on RR intervals nor HRV parameters was demonstrated excepted in the LF/HF ratio (cymba-5Hz). LF/HF ratio was significantly lower in the cymba-5Hz (Coef. \pm SE: -0.54 \pm 0.23, *p*=0.021) and increased significantly with stimulation in this sequence (Coef. \pm SE:0.76 \pm 0.32; *p*=0.020). HF was significantly lower in the cymba-20Hz sequence and no stimulation effect was noted. LF was significantly lower in the cymba-(5Hz-20Hz) sequences and no stimulation effect was noted (Table 2 and Figure 3). No effect delay during stimulation was observed (p-values>0.05 for all parameters).

- 46
- 47 48

- Effects of aLL-tVNS on blood pressure parameters
- 50 No stimulation effect was observed for all the blood pressure variables. (Table 2)

1

9

11 12

13

Effects of aLL-tVNS on MSNA parameters

During stimulation, reductions from baseline in BF (Coef. ± SE: -4.8 ± 1.1, p<0.001) was
observed. However, this evolution was not statistically different from that one in the active
control (Table 2 and Figure 4). Reduction of MSNA activity was not statistically significant
(Table 2) We did not find any correlation between MSNA activity and HRV parameters.

7 For additional information regarding descriptive statistics, see supplementary data (additional8 Table 1).

10 DISCUSSION

• Results summary

14 To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first to explore the specific aLL-tVNS effects on 15 sympathetic tone using microneurography compared to active control in crossover trial with 16 randomly allocated stimulation sequences. Our results did not demonstrate any overall effects 17 of cymba aLL-tVNS neither on HRV nor MSNA variables compared to active control (earlobe 18 sequence-5Hz). Interestingly, an active control response may also be suggested.

19 20

21

• Heterogeneous response of autonomic nervous system to stimuli

HRV analysis is currently used for clinical assessment of cardiac autonomic function with the 22 assumptions that LF and HF power reflect sympathetic and vagal modulation respectively. 23 Also, the LF/HF ratio has been suggested as an index for sympathovagal balance. ^{15,16} 24 25 Obviously, interpretation of those HRV parameters remains questionable since they are indirect 26 indexes of the autonomic balance at the cardiac level. For each of them, LF and HF components resulted in a mix and variable proportion of orthosympathetic (ONS) and parasympathetic 27 28 (PNS) systems. ^{16,33} Same LF/HF ratio values could refer to different fluctuations of PNS or 29 ONS or both of them. Also, varying effects between the two systems should not be considered 30 as reciprocal. Indeed, heterogeneous response like "diving reflex" with observed bradycardia 31 along with activated ONS clearly indicated the complexity of the relationship between the two pathways³⁴. Therefore the clinical significance of LF/HF ratio has not been yet fully clarified.³⁵ 32 33 LF/HF ratio has been shown to be reduced by aLL-tVNS which is associated with improved HRV in healthy humans.¹⁴ In contrast, in the present study, we identified a slightly increase in 34 the LF/HF ratio during the cymba-5Hz stimulation compared to active control (earlobe-5Hz) 35 36 suggesting a potential shift toward a sympathetic predominance. However, an important remark 37 concerned the context which remained crucial for HRV measurements interpretation:1) LF/HF ratio was significantly lower (cymba-5Hz) compared to active control (Table 2 and Figure 3) 38 39 and 2) a more sensitive perception of the stimulus when applied to cymba versus ear lobe could 40 participate to explain the observed shift in the autonomic balance. Therefore, the clinical conclusion relative to this result may be not relevant. Further and for all the three sequences, 41 42 no correlation was found between HRV parameters and MSNA activity highlighting the 43 complexity to accurately interpret those variations mediated by two different systems 44 (autonomic cardiac and peripheral sympathetic activities). Noteworthily, aLL-tVNS effects on HRV are hard to carry out since mixed results exist in the literature probably due to the variety 45 46 of study designs, control groups, protocols and stimulation parameters, etc. Finally, although 47 our results did not demonstrate any consistent aLL-tVNS effects on HRV, they provide 48 substantial feedback on ONS response to aLL-tVNS using microneurography.

1 2

Variability among aLL-tVNS studies on cardiac autonomic system

Compared to Clancy el al¹⁴, we report higher baseline values for spectral HRV parameters. 3 4 However, our participants were younger, healthy and exclusively active male. These 5 characteristics are well known to be associated with LF power and SDRR.^{25,33,36} Variability among aLL-tVNS parameters (frequencies, site of stimulation and intensity levels, etc.) could 6 7 also play a role in the heterogeneity of the results observed in the literature. In their elegant 8 review¹¹, Butt et al. summarized the different settings and findings of aLL-tVNS studies focusing on cardiovascular parameters among healthy subjects. As underscored by the authors, 9 10 the various results observed on HRV could be related to differences among the stimulation protocols.^{14,25} Beyond parameters, the location of auricular stimulation sites also differs 11 12 between the different studies. We used a device designed to target the cymba as this region is exclusively innervated by ABVN with a more expected impact on HRV and strong evidence of 13 vagal activated projections.^{24,25,37} In contrast, others used tragus-dedicated systems.^{7,14} With 14 15 the right vagus nerve destinated to the sinoatrial node and the left one dedicated to 16 atrioventricular node, the stimulation side is also a potential source of discrepancy. As we 17 wanted to specifically explore effects on heart rate variability, we decided to target the right cymba²⁵. Control group also varies with either inactive or active aLL-tVNS^{14,22,25}. Also, 18 stimulation settings (intensity levels, pulse width, frequency, duration of the stimulus, etc.) 19 ranged widely. As De Couck et al.²⁵, we used a personalized thresholding to define intensity 20 21 level but others refer to a "set stimulation method" in which intensity was determined by the operator.²⁶ Two frequencies of stimulation (5Hz and 20Hz) were tested in our study based on 22 23 the following considerations. Vagus nerve is composed of afferent (80%) and efferent (20%) 24 fibers with a majority of C fibers activated at low frequency stimulation (5Hz) and high intensity level (mA)^{8,37}. Nonetheless, fibers nerve composition differs between vagus nerve and 25 26 ABVN, the latter containing more A fibers themselves activated at higher frequency $(20Hz)^{38}$. 27 But others have recommended the frequency of 10Hz (pulse width:500µs) for its major reduction of heart rate.³⁹ Several explanations for the lack of differences during stimulation 28 between sequences could be suggested: 1) an active control response to aLL-tVNS cannot be 29 30 excluded. The latter also questioned the implication of subjective endpoints to explain the observed results; 2) our healthy and active population may have challenged the modulation of 31 32 a "normal" autonomic state; 3) settings parameters might have been not optimal to activate 33 afferent vagal pathway but higher intensities would have led to discomfort; and 4) the small 34 number of participants could have limited the results.

35 36

37

• Active control response of aLL-tVNS

38 Using the crossover design with active control stimulation performed on the earlobe, we observed a signification reduction in BF during stimulation, but this was not related neither to 39 40 stimulation frequency nor to site of stimulation. Strongly supported by an accurate modulation 41 of ONS illustrated by MSNA changes during apnea, these results are in favor of a sympathetic mediated effect. We did not identify any predictors for the active control response. Validating 42 43 an effect during the active control sequence would have implied a direct comparison with a "no treatment" sequence.⁴⁰ Nonetheless, taking into account that our study was initially designed to 44 compare cymba aLL-tVNS versus ear lobe aLL-tVNS, we may questioned the subjective 45 outcomes in the observed results. Some relevant points could be pointed out: 1) active control 46 47 with crossover along with MSNA protocols are lacking. Indeed, active control aLL-tVNS is not systematic^{14,25} as well as MSNA recording. ^{26,41} Published aLL-tVNS studies on cardiovascular 48 49 parameters are promising but comparison with active control stimulation would help to validate 50 the effectiveness of the therapy. Using a crossover design with each subject being its own

control, confounding variates influences are limited. From statistical considerations, this allows 1 2 for smaller sample size. As sequences were randomized, order effect is excluded. We checked 3 if the results were robust to the order of sequence attribution adding a categorical variable to the regression models. Also, each sequence was composed of a baseline and recovery periods 4 5 which has the advantage to manage carry-over effects. aLL-tVNS studies conventionally 6 explored the potential effect of aLL-tVNS compared to control but not in the reverse way. 2) Ear lobe as a reliable site for active control stimulation^{12,13,22} may be questioned despite its 7 innervation free from vagal fibers.⁴² Indeed, changes in BOLD signal induced by ear lobe 8 transcutaneous stimulation in healthy subjects has been documented through fMRI studies¹¹. 9 Published activation brain maps for several ear location stimulation, highlighted that earlobe 10 projections overlap with cymba projections for some cortical areas. However, NTS nor locus 11 coeruleus, two major targets for tVNS mechanisms were concerned by this crossing ^{12,24}. Ear 12 13 lobe is definitively not physiologically inert challenging tVNS methodology in clinical trials. We could mention cymba as ABVN dedicated region to be used for both active and control 14 15 stimulation but with different settings.⁴³

16

17 18

• Active control design for aLL-tVNS medical devices

19 As the present work was designed to demonstrate a specific effect of tVNS on autonomic 20 balance, we included an active control sequence (earlobe-5Hz) not vagally-mediated and a 21 crossover design as a control strategy. We questioned here the role of controls in clinical trials 22 with non-invasive medical devices like tVNS that implied subjective endpoints. This should be 23 integrated to methodology to test the efficacy of tVNS itself that would not be reliable to a 24 relaxation state of the subjects. Question may be clinically relevant as well as feasibility with no additional risk making that active control ethically acceptable.⁴⁴ Effectiveness of aLL-tVNS 25 devices should clearly be distinguished from active control effect/subjective outcomes before 26 approval and commercial use of the technique.⁴⁵ The importance of controlled design certainly 27 made sense to improve the understandings of aLL-tVNS mechanisms so that optimal 28 29 parameters of stimulation could be defined.

30 31

32 LIMITATIONS

33

This study has several limitations. First, the small number of participants might have been insufficient to demonstrate aLL-tVNS impact on sympathetic tone (type II error) but this had to be integrated with the technical challenge of MSNA acquisition. Second, carryover effect

could have not been excluded despite the wash out period of 10 min whom duration was limitedby the required stability of the active needle inserted into the peroneal nerve around subdermal

39 tissues to obtain high quality signal of MSNA.

40 We observed a response during active control sequence, but this could be questioned, as active

41 control may not be free from specific effect. Although study design was focused on active aLL-

42 tVNS rather than on control effect, we discussed this with limited bias using a crossover-43 controlled design. Second, all our subjects were healthy and young men so no extrapolation

44 could be made for other groups (women, elderly, etc.) and particularly for patients with cardiac

45 arrhythmia. Third, despite prior cleaning of the ear, skin properties could have limited the

46 delivery of the electrical signal. Also, even if participant were asked to breath constantly,

47 respiration rate fluctuations could have influenced HRV parameters. Finally, active maneuvers

such as standing and/or tilt test could have been an alternative to evaluate the effects of aLLtVNS on autonomic balance.

1 2

CONCLUSION

Acute right cymba aLL-tVNS did not induce overall effects neither on heart rate, HRV nor
MSNA variables on healthy subjects compared to active control. These findings questioned the
role of active controls in medical device clinical trials that implied subjective endpoints.

6 7

8

9

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

A.G., S.M., P.V.D.B and J.B.L.P.D.W conceived the design of the study. A.G. and S.M. carried
out all the experimental sessions from the recruitment to MSNA acquisition. Data were
analyzed both by A.G. and S.M.. D.D. and N.M. had full access to data and provided the
statistical analyzes. S.M., P.V.D.B, J.B.L.P.D.W, D.D. and N.M. critically revised the
manuscript. All the authors proofread and made corrections to this manuscript.

15

16

17 FUNDING

18 We are thankful in the BioWin cluster of Wallonia for their financial support (Grant Agreement
19 N°7452).

- 20
- 21

22 CONFLICT OF INTEREST23

A.G. declares that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial

25 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

ABBREVIATIONS LIST

RR (ms): time interval between two successive R-waves of the ORS HR (beats/min): heart rate MSNA: muscle sympathetic nerve activity BMI (kg/m^2): body mass index SBP (mmHg): systolic blood pressure DBP (mmHg): diastolic blood pressure MAP (mmHg): mean blood pressure aLL-tVNS: auricular low-level transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation RMSSD (ms): root mean square of the successive RR interval differences SDRR (ms): standard deviation of RR intervals LF power (%): relative power of the low frequency band (0.04-0.15Hz) LF power (ms²): absolute power of the low frequency band HF power (%): relative power of the high frequency band (0.15-0.4Hz) HF power (ms²): absolute power of the high frequency band LF/HF (%): ratio of the LF-to-HF power BF (bursts/min): number of bursts per minute MSNA activity (%): burst frequency multiplied by mean burst amplitude (AU) expressed in percentage of change from baseline value. reviev

REFERENCES

1. Stavrakis S, Nakagawa H, Po SS, Scherlag BJ, Lazzara R, Jackman WM. The role of the autonomic ganglia in atrial fibrillation. JACC Clinical electrophysiology 2015;1:1-13.

2. Bettoni M, Zimmermann M. Autonomic tone variations before the onset of paroxysmal atrial fibrillation. Circulation 2002;105:2753-9.

3. Agarwal SK, Norby FL, Whitsel EA, et al. Cardiac Autonomic Dysfunction and Incidence of Atrial Fibrillation: Results From 20 Years Follow-Up. Journal of the American College of Cardiology 2017;69:291-9.

4. Chen PS, Chen LS, Fishbein MC, Lin SF, Nattel S. Role of the autonomic nervous system in atrial fibrillation: pathophysiology and therapy. Circulation research 2014;114:1500-15.

5. Stavrakis S, Po S. Ganglionated Plexi Ablation: Physiology and Clinical Applications. Arrhythmia & electrophysiology review 2017;6:186-90.

6. Katritsis DG, Pokushalov E, Romanov A, et al. Autonomic denervation added to pulmonary vein isolation for paroxysmal atrial fibrillation: a randomized clinical trial. Journal of the American College of Cardiology 2013;62:2318-25.

7. Stavrakis S, Humphrey MB, Scherlag BJ, et al. Low-level transcutaneous electrical vagus nerve stimulation suppresses atrial fibrillation. Journal of the American College of Cardiology 2015;65:867-75.

8. Yu L, Scherlag BJ, Li S, et al. Low-level transcutaneous electrical stimulation of the auricular branch of the vagus nerve: a noninvasive approach to treat the initial phase of atrial fibrillation. Heart rhythm 2013;10:428-35.

9. Zhu C, Hanna P, Rajendran PS, Shivkumar K. Neuromodulation for Ventricular Tachycardia and Atrial Fibrillation: A Clinical Scenario-Based Review. JACC Clinical electrophysiology 2019;5:881-96.

10. Stavrakis S, Stoner JA, Humphrey MB, et al. TREAT AF (Transcutaneous Electrical Vagus Nerve Stimulation to Suppress Atrial Fibrillation): A Randomized Clinical Trial. JACC Clinical electrophysiology 2020;6:282-91.

11. Butt MF, Albusoda A, Farmer AD, Aziz Q. The anatomical basis for transcutaneous auricular vagus nerve stimulation. Journal of anatomy 2019.

12. Frangos E, Ellrich J, Komisaruk BR. Non-invasive Access to the Vagus Nerve Central Projections via Electrical Stimulation of the External Ear: fMRI Evidence in Humans. Brain stimulation 2015;8:624-36.

13. Badran BW, Dowdle LT, Mithoefer OJ, et al. Neurophysiologic effects of transcutaneous auricular vagus nerve stimulation (taVNS) via electrical stimulation of the tragus: A concurrent taVNS/fMRI study and review. Brain stimulation 2018;11:492-500.

14. Clancy JA, Mary DA, Witte KK, Greenwood JP, Deuchars SA, Deuchars J. Non-invasive vagus nerve stimulation in healthy humans reduces sympathetic nerve activity. Brain stimulation 2014;7:871-7.

15. Heart rate variability: standards of measurement, physiological interpretation and clinical use. Task Force of the European Society of Cardiology and the North American Society of Pacing and Electrophysiology. Circulation 1996;93:1043-65.

16. Iwase S, Hayano J, Orimo S. Clinical Assessment of the Autonomic Nervous System: Springer; 2017.

17. David R. Primer on the Autonomic Nervous System. 2011:730.

18. Murray AR, Atkinson L, Mahadi MK, Deuchars SA, Deuchars J. The strange case of the ear and the heart: The auricular vagus nerve and its influence on cardiac control. Autonomic neuroscience : basic & clinical 2016;199:48-53.

Guyenet PG. The sympathetic control of blood pressure. Nat Rev Neurosci 2006;7:335 46.

20. Stephens MM, Kelly PM. Fourth toe flexion sign: a new clinical sign for identification of the superficial peroneal nerve. Foot Ankle Int 2000;21:860-3.

21. Matsukawa T, Sugiyama Y, Watanabe T, Kobayashi F, Mano T. Gender difference in age-related changes in muscle sympathetic nerve activity in healthy subjects. The American journal of physiology 1998;275:R1600-4.

22. Kraus T, Hosl K, Kiess O, Schanze A, Kornhuber J, Forster C. BOLD fMRI deactivation of limbic and temporal brain structures and mood enhancing effect by transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation. Journal of neural transmission (Vienna, Austria : 1996) 2007;114:1485-93.

23. Kraus T, Kiess O, Hosl K, Terekhin P, Kornhuber J, Forster C. CNS BOLD fMRI effects of sham-controlled transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation in the left outer auditory canal - a pilot study. Brain stimulation 2013;6:798-804.

24. Yakunina N, Kim SS, Nam EC. Optimization of Transcutaneous Vagus Nerve Stimulation Using Functional MRI. Neuromodulation : journal of the International Neuromodulation Society 2017;20:290-300.

25. De Couck M, Cserjesi R, Caers R, et al. Effects of short and prolonged transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation on heart rate variability in healthy subjects. Autonomic neuroscience : basic & clinical 2017;203:88-96.

26. Borges U, Laborde S, Raab M. Influence of transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation on cardiac vagal activity: Not different from sham stimulation and no effect of stimulation intensity. PloS one 2019;14:e0223848.

27. Delius W, Hagbarth KE, Hongell A, Wallin BG. General characteristics of sympathetic activity in human muscle nerves. Acta Physiol Scand 1972;84:65-81.

28. Vallbo AB. Microneurography: how it started and how it works. Journal of neurophysiology 2018;120:1415-27.

29. White DW, Shoemaker JK, Raven PB. Methods and considerations for the analysis and standardization of assessing muscle sympathetic nerve activity in humans. Autonomic neuroscience : basic & clinical 2015;193:12-21.

30. Vallbo AB, Hagbarth KE, Wallin BG. Microneurography: how the technique developed and its role in the investigation of the sympathetic nervous system. Journal of applied physiology (Bethesda, Md : 1985) 2004;96:1262-9.

31. Vallbo AB, Hagbarth KE, Torebjörk HE, Wallin BG. Somatosensory, proprioceptive, and sympathetic activity in human peripheral nerves. Physiol Rev 1979;59:919-57.

32. Najem B, Unger P, Preumont N, et al. Sympathetic control after cardiac resynchronization therapy: responders versus nonresponders. American journal of physiology Heart and circulatory physiology 2006;291:H2647-52.

33. Shaffer F, Ginsberg JP. An Overview of Heart Rate Variability Metrics and Norms. Frontiers in public health 2017;5:258.

34. Gooden BA. Mechanism of the human diving response. Integr Physiol Behav Sci 1994;29:6-16.

35. Billman GE. The LF/HF ratio does not accurately measure cardiac sympatho-vagal balance. Front Physiol 2013;4:26.

36. Berkoff DJ, Cairns CB, Sanchez LD, Moorman CT, 3rd. Heart rate variability in elite American track-and-field athletes. J Strength Cond Res 2007;21:227-31.

37. Groves DA, Brown VJ. Vagal nerve stimulation: a review of its applications and potential mechanisms that mediate its clinical effects. Neuroscience and biobehavioral reviews 2005;29:493-500.

38. Safi S, Ellrich J, Neuhuber W. Myelinated Axons in the Auricular Branch of the Human Vagus Nerve. Anatomical record (Hoboken, NJ : 2007) 2016;299:1184-91.

39. Badran BW, Mithoefer OJ, Summer CE, et al. Short trains of transcutaneous auricular vagus nerve stimulation (taVNS) have parameter-specific effects on heart rate. Brain stimulation 2018;11:699-708.

40. Enck P, Klosterhalfen S, Zipfel S. Novel study designs to investigate the placebo response. BMC Med Res Methodol 2011;11:90-.

41. Antonino D, Teixeira AL, Maia-Lopes PM, et al. Non-invasive vagus nerve stimulation acutely improves spontaneous cardiac baroreflex sensitivity in healthy young men: A randomized placebo-controlled trial. Brain stimulation 2017;10:875-81.

42. Peuker ET, Filler TJ. The nerve supply of the human auricle. Clinical anatomy (New York, NY) 2002;15:35-7.

43. Bauer S, Baier H, Baumgartner C, et al. Transcutaneous Vagus Nerve Stimulation (tVNS) for Treatment of Drug-Resistant Epilepsy: A Randomized, Double-Blind Clinical Trial (cMPsE02). Brain stimulation 2016;9:356-63.

44. Sutherland ER. Sham procedure versus usual care as the control in clinical trials of devices: which is better? Proc Am Thorac Soc 2007;4:574-6.

45. Redberg RF. Sham controls in medical device trials. The New England journal of medicine 2014;371:892-3.

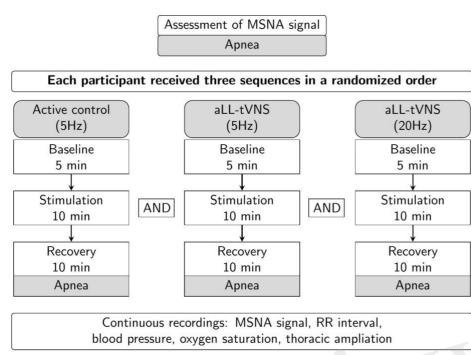


Figure 1. Study design

Consecutive sequences (active control (5Hz), aLL-tVNS-5Hz; aLL-tVNS-20Hz) were randomly ordered and composed of 5min-baseline, 10min-stimulation and 10min-recovery phases. Apnea were performed before and after each sequence.

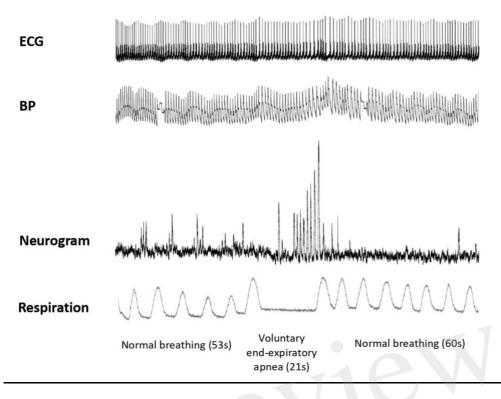
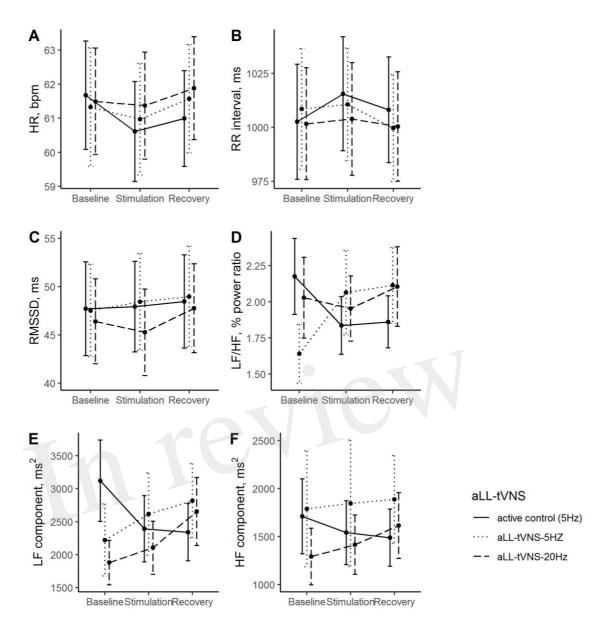


Figure 2. MSNA variations during baseline and voluntary end-expiratory apnea. Normal respiration during baseline (53s length), maximal voluntary end-expiratory apnea (21s length) and normal respiration during recovery (60s) are illustrated. From top to bottom: ECG; blood pressure (BP); neurogram and respiration. Towards the end of the apnea, a marked rise in the sympathetic nerve activity is observed, characterized by increased number of bursts with higher amplitude.



<u>Figure 3.</u> During all the consecutive aLL-tVNS sequences (active control-5Hz, aLL-tVNS-5Hz, aLL-tVNS-20Hz), evolution (mean \pm SD) of heart rate (A), RR interval (B), RMSSD (C), LF/HF ratio (D), LF (E) and HF (F) components per phase (baseline, stimulation and recovery). No stimulation effect on RR intervals and HRV parameters were showed excepted a slightly increase of the LF/HF ratio with stimulation in the cymba-5Hz sequence (coef. \pm SE: 0.76 \pm 0.32; p=0.02).

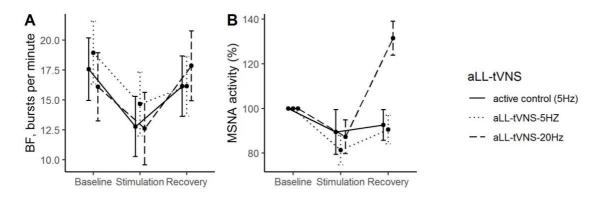


Figure 4. During all the consecutive aLL-tVNS sequences (active control-5Hz, aLL-tVNS-5Hz, aLL-tVNS-20Hz), evolution (mean \pm SD) of burst frequency (A) and MSNA activity (%) (B) per phase (baseline, stimulation, recovery). During stimulation, reductions from baseline in BF (Coef. \pm SE: -4.8 \pm 1.1, p<0.001) was observed but was not statistically different from that one in the active control. Reduction of MSNA activity was not significantly different between sequences.



Variable	Mean \pm SD or n (%)
Male, <i>n</i> (%)	28 (100%)
Age (years)	27 ± 4
BMI (kg/m^2)	23.5 ± 3.2
Hemodynamics	
SBP (mmHg)	126 ± 10
DBP (mmHg)	72 ± 6
MAP (mmHg)	90±7
Respiratory rate (breath/min)	17±3
HR (bpm)	64±9
Intensity (mA)	
Active control-5Hz	1.5±0.6
aLL_tVNS-5Hz	1.2±0.5
aLL-tVNS-20Hz	5.5±1.6

review

Table 1. Participants baseline characteristics

	Independent variable	Coefficient ± SE	<i>p</i> -value
HR, bpm	Intercept	61.7 ± 1.6	
	5-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	-0.3 ± 0.6	0.57
	20-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	-0.2 ± 0.6	0.77
	Stimulation phase (ref=baseline phase)	-1.1 ± 0.6	0.09
	5-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	0.7 ± 0.9	0.42
	20-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	0.9 ± 0.9	0.28
RMSSD, ms	Intercept	47.7 ± 4.7	
	5-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	-0.2 ± 2.1	0.93
	20-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	-1.3 ± 2.1	0.53
	Stimulation phase (ref=baseline phase)	0.2 ± 2.1	0.9
	5-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	0.7 ± 2.9	0.82
	20-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	-1.4 ± 2.9	0.64
DRR, ms	Intercept	70.5 ± 4.9	
	5-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	-7.2 ± 3.0	0.02
	20-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	-6.2 ± 3.0	0.04
	Stimulation phase (ref=baseline phase)	-3.1 ± 3.0	0.3
	5-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	6.7 ± 4.3	0.1
	20-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	1.0 ± 4.3	0.8
F component,	Intercept	7.41 ± 0.21	
ns ² *	5-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	-0.33 ± 0.16	0.03
	20-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	-0.31 ± 0.16	0.04
	Stimulation phase (ref=baseline phase)	-0.11 ± 0.16	0.4
	5-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	0.27 ± 0.22	0.2
	20-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	0.17 ± 0.22	0.4
IF component,	Intercept	6.86 ± 0.21	
ns ² *	5-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	-0.08 ± 0.11	0.4
	20-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	-0.25 ± 0.11	0.02
	Stimulation phase (ref=baseline phase)	-0.01 ± 0.11	0.9
	5-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	-0.002 ± 0.153	0.9
	20-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	-0.09 ± 0.15	0.5
.F/HF ratio,	Intercept	2.18 ± 0.25	
6 power ratio	5-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	-0.54 ± 0.23	0.02
-	20-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	-0.15 ± 0.23	0.5
	Stimulation phase (ref=baseline phase)	-0.34 ± 0.23	0.1
	5-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	0.76 ± 0.32	0.02
	20-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	0.26 ± 0.32	0.4
BP, mmHg	Intercept	114.7 ± 2.0	
2	5-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	1.0 ± 1.1	0.3
	20-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	-0.1 ± 1.1	0.93
	Stimulation phase (ref=baseline phase)	0.2 ± 1.1	0.8′
	5-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	-1.3 ± 1.6	0.42
	20-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	-0.3 ± 1.6	0.80

<u>**Table 2**</u>: Study of aLL-tVNS effects (Linear Mixed Model)

DBP, mmHg	Intercept	58.5 ± 1.7	_
DDI, inining	5-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	0.5 ± 0.7	0.47
	20-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	0.3 ± 0.7 0.3 ± 1.7	0.47
	Stimulation phase (ref=baseline phase)	-0.1 ± 0.7	0.89
	5-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	-0.3 ± 1.0	0.05
	20-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	0.3 ± 1.0 0.2 ± 1.0	0.75
	20-112 sum sequence – Sum phase	0.2 ± 1.0	0.04
MBP, mmHg	Intercept	77.2 ± 1.7	-
C C	5-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	0.6 ± 0.8	0.41
	20-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	0.2 ± 0.8	0.82
	Stimulation phase (ref=baseline phase)	0.0 ± 0.8	0.99
	5-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	-0.6 ± 1.1	0.57
	20-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	0.0 ± 1.1	0.97
BF, bursts per	Intercept	17.6 ± 2.7	-
minute	5-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	1.4 ± 1.1	0.21
	20-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	-1.5 ± 1.1	0.19
	Stimulation phase (ref=baseline phase)	-4.8 ± 1.1	<0.001
	5-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	0.5 ± 1.6	0.75
	20-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	1.3 ± 1.6	0.41
MSNA activity,	Intercept	3.95 ± 0.20	-
AU/min*	5-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	0.12 ± 0.10	0.21
	20-Hz stimulation sequence (ref=control)	-0.09 ± 0.10	0.34
	Stimulation phase (ref=baseline phase)	-0.13 ± 0.10	0.19
	5-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	-0.06 ± 0.14	0.66
	20-Hz stim sequence * Stim phase	-0.003 ± 0.139	0.99
*Madala and mudiativ	a the least man of a mead war is his		

*Models are predicting the log-transformed variable Significant values at level α =5% are bolded.

Variable	n	Baseline	Stimulation	Recovery
HR, bpm				
Active control (5Hz)	28	61.7 ± 8.4	60.6 ± 7.7	61.0 ± 7.4
aLL-tVNS-5Hz	28	61.3 ± 9.2	61.0 ± 8.7	61.5 ± 8.3
aLL-tVNS-20Hz	28	61.5 ± 8.3	61.4 ± 8.3	61.9 ± 8.0
RMSSD, ms				
Active control (5Hz)	28	47.7 ± 25.8	47.9 ± 24.8	48.5 ± 25.6
aLL-tVNS-5Hz	28	47.5 ± 25.4	48.4 ± 26.5	49.0 ± 27.6
aLL-tVNS-20Hz	28	46.4 ± 23.3	45.3 ± 23.7	47.8 ± 24.5
SDRR, ms				
Active control (5Hz)	28	70.5 ± 29.7	67.4 ± 25.7	73.7 ± 28.3
aLL-tVNS-5Hz	28	63.3 ± 22.4	66.9 ± 27.7	71.0 ± 25.3
aLL-tVNS-20Hz	28	64.3 ± 25.0	62.3 ± 24.7	72.0 ± 28.4
LF component, ms ²				
Active control (5Hz)	28	3120 ± 3269	2392 ± 2662	2340 ± 2299
aLL-tVNS-5Hz	28	2222 ± 2887	2616 ± 3303	2818 ± 2979
aLL-tVNS-20Hz	28	1880 ± 1784	2104 ± 2131	2655 ± 2732
HF component, ms ²				
Active control (5Hz)	28	1711 ± 2064	1541 ± 1760	1488 ± 1577
aLL-tVNS-5Hz	28	1789 ± 3201	1847 ± 3486	1891 ± 2421
aLL-tVNS-20Hz	28	1292 ± 1555	1416 ± 1630	1616 ± 1809
LF component, % power				
Active control (5Hz)	28	36.7 ± 17.8	33.1 ± 13.2	34.3 ± 12.7
aLL-tVNS-5Hz	28	35.9 ± 15.0	33.0 ± 13.9	32.7 ± 11.5
aLL-tVNS-20Hz	28	34.7 ± 14.0	34.1 ± 14.1	32.0 ± 14.4
HF component, % power				
Active control (5Hz)	28	20.5 ± 10.0	20.9 ± 9.3	20.8 ± 7.6
aLL-tVNS-5Hz	28	26.7 ± 11.2	21.2 ± 11.1	20.3 ± 9.9
aLL-tVNS-20Hz	28	21.8 ± 10.5	20.9 ± 9.1	18.9 ± 9.7
LF/HF ratio, % power ratio				
Active control (5Hz)	28	2.2 ± 1.4	1.8 ± 1.1	1.9 ± 1.0
aLL-tVNS-5Hz	28	1.6 ± 1.1	2.1 ± 1.5	2.0 ± 1.3

Supplemental data: Additional table 1: Changes on HR, HRV, blood pressure and MSNA parameters

SBP, mmHg

Active control (5Hz)	28	115 + 11	115 + 12	114 + 12
aLL-tVNS-5Hz	28 28	115 ± 11 116 ± 11	115 ± 12 115 ± 10	114 ± 12 115 ± 10
aLL-tVNS-20Hz	28	115 ± 12	115 ± 10	115 ± 10
DBP, mmHg				
Active control (5Hz)	28	58 ± 9	58 ± 9	58 ± 10
aLL-tVNS-5Hz	28	59 ± 9	59 ± 9	59 ± 9
aLL-tVNS-20Hz	28	59 ± 9	59 ± 8	59 ± 9
MBP, mmHg				
Active control (5Hz)	28	77 ± 9	77 ± 10	77 ± 10
aLL-tVNS-5Hz	28	78 ± 9	77 ± 8	78 ± 9
aLL-tVNS-20Hz	28	77 ± 10	77 ± 8	77 ± 9
BF, bursts per minute				
Active control (5Hz)	16	17.6 ± 10.5	12.8 ± 10.1	16.1 ± 10.1
aLL-tVNS-5Hz	16	19.0 ± 10.5	14.7 ± 10.7	17.1 ± 9.8
aLL-tVNS-20Hz	15	16.1 ± 11.1	12.6 ± 11.8	17.9 ± 11.3
MSNA activity (%)				
Active control (5Hz)	16	100	89.4 ± 40.0	92.6 ± 27.5
aLL-tVNS-5Hz	16	100	81.3 ± 26.2	90.6 ± 25.6
aLL-tVNS-20Hz	15	100	87.3 ± 29.2	131.4 ± 29.5

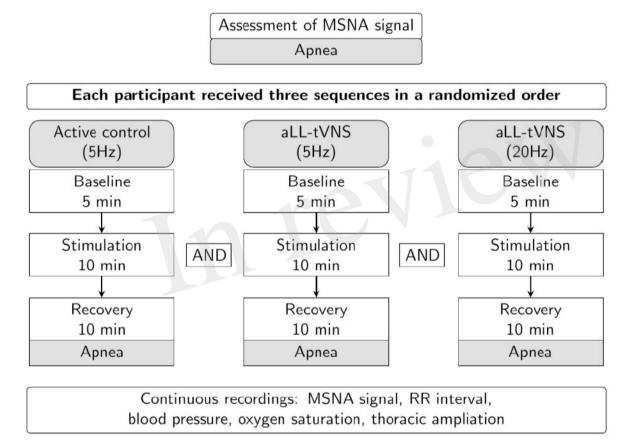


Figure 1. Study design

Consecutive sequences (active control (5Hz), aLL-tVNS-5Hz; aLL-tVNS-20Hz) were randomly ordered and composed of 5min-baseline, 10min-stimulation and 10min-recovery phases. Apnea were performed before and after each sequence.

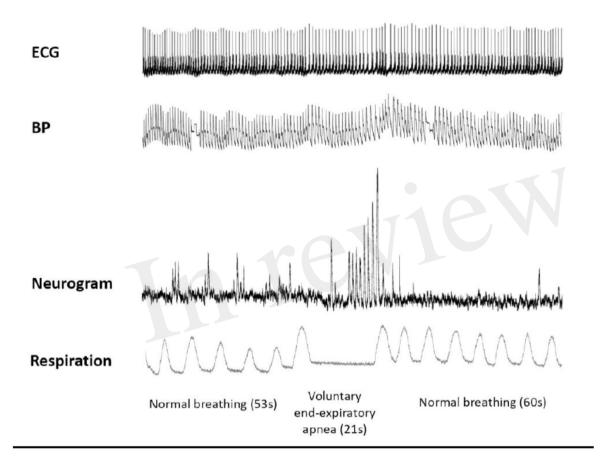
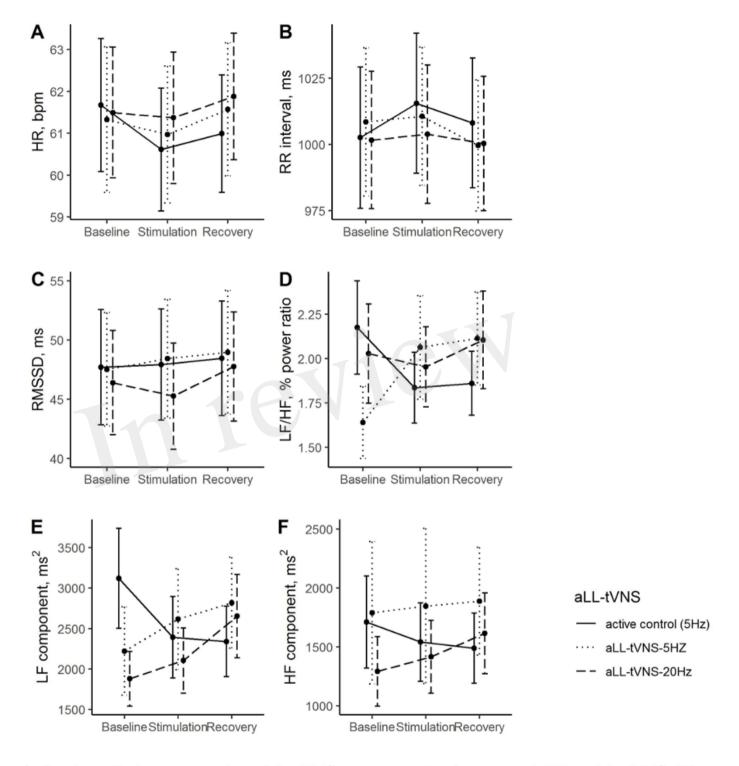


Figure 2. MSNA variations during baseline and voluntary end-expiratory apnea. Normal respiration during baseline (53s length), maximal voluntary end-expiratory apnea (21s length) and normal respiration during recovery (60s) are illustrated. From top to bottom: ECG; blood pressure (BP); neurogram and respiration. Towards the end of the apnea, a marked rise in the sympathetic nerve activity is observed, characterized by increased number of bursts with higher amplitude.



<u>Figure 3.</u> During all the consecutive aLL-tVNS sequences (active control-5Hz, aLL-tVNS-5Hz, aLL-tVNS-20Hz), evolution (mean \pm SD) of heart rate (A), RR interval (B), RMSSD (C), LF/HF ratio (D), LF (E) and HF (F) components per phase (baseline, stimulation and recovery). No stimulation effect on RR intervals and HRV parameters were showed excepted a slightly increase of the LF/HF ratio with stimulation in the cymba-5Hz sequence (coef. \pm SE: 0.76 \pm 0.32; p=0.02).

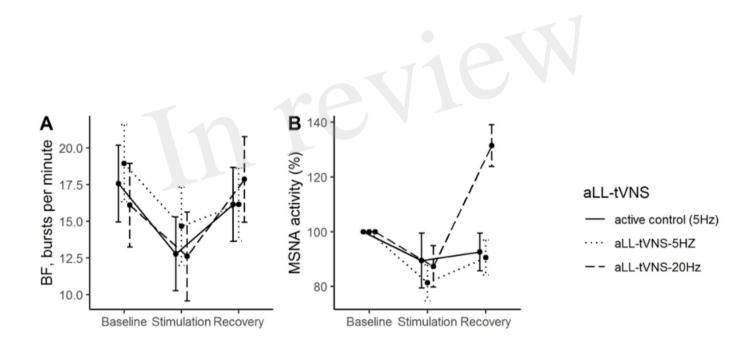


Figure 4. During all the consecutive aLL-tVNS sequences (active control-5Hz, aLL-tVNS-5Hz, aLL-tVNS-20Hz), evolution (mean \pm SD) of burst frequency (A) and MSNA activity (%) (B) per phase (baseline, stimulation, recovery). During stimulation, reductions from baseline in BF (Coef. \pm SE: -4.8 \pm 1.1, p<0.001) was observed but was not statistically different from that one in the active control. Reduction of MSNA activity was not significantly different between sequences.