

1 **Home-EEG assessment of possible compensatory mechanisms for sleep**
2 **disruption in highly irregular shift workers – The ANCHOR study**

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25 **Abstract**

26 **Study objectives:** While poor sleep quality has been related to increased risk of Alzheimer's disease,
27 long-time shift workers (maritime pilots) did not manifest evidence of early Alzheimer's disease in a
28 recent study. We explored two hypotheses of possible compensatory mechanisms for sleep
29 disruption: Increased efficiency in generating deep sleep during workweeks (model 1) and rebound
30 sleep during rest weeks (model 2).

31 **Methods:** We used data from ten male maritime pilots (mean age: 51.6±2.4 years) with a history of
32 approximately 18 years of irregular shift work. Subjective sleep quality was assessed with the
33 Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI). A single lead EEG-device was used to investigate sleep in the
34 home/work environment, quantifying total sleep time (TST), deep sleep time (DST), and deep sleep
35 time percentage (DST%). Using multilevel models, we studied the sleep architecture of maritime
36 pilots over time, at the transition of a workweek to a rest week.

37 **Results:** Maritime pilots reported worse sleep quality in workweeks compared to rest weeks
38 (PSQI=8.2±2.2 vs. 3.9±2.0; p<0.001). Model 1 showed a trend towards an increase in DST% of 0.6%
39 per day during the workweek (p=0.08). Model 2 did not display an increase in DST% in the rest week
40 (p=0.87).

41 **Conclusions:** Our findings indicated that increased efficiency in generating deep sleep during
42 workweeks is a more likely compensatory mechanism for sleep disruption in the maritime pilot
43 cohort than rebound sleep during rest weeks. Compensatory mechanisms for poor sleep quality
44 might mitigate sleep disruption-related risk of developing Alzheimer's disease. These results should
45 be used as a starting point for future studies including larger, more diverse populations of shift
46 workers.

47 **Keywords:** Rebound sleep; slow-wave sleep; sleep architecture; shift work; amyloid-β; Alzheimer's
48 disease; wearable electronic devices.

49

50 **1. Introduction**

51 Sleep disruption has been associated with higher risks of developing Alzheimer's disease (AD) (1-5).

52 In recent studies, individuals with sleep problems carried a 1.7 (95% CI 1.5 to 1.9) higher relative

53 dementia risk compared to normal sleepers (6), suggesting that 15% of current AD diagnoses might

54 be attributable to sleep problems (7). One of the hallmarks of Alzheimer's pathology is the

55 accumulation of amyloid- β , which is a potential mechanistic link between AD and sleep (8-13). During

56 wakefulness, amyloid- β builds up in the brain which is hypothesized to be counteracted during deep

57 sleep in two ways; through improved clearance of accumulated toxins (such as amyloid- β), driven by

58 the glymphatic system (8-11, 14) or due to an overall reduced level of synaptic activity in the brain,

59 leading to a decrease in production of waste products (such as amyloid- β) (13, 15, 16). The reduced

60 level of brain activity during deep sleep also leads to less blood flow and more cerebrospinal fluid

61 (CSF) flow, which additionally intensifies clearance of accumulated waste products (12, 17). These

62 hypotheses indicate how, through accumulation of amyloid- β , poor sleep could be a causal risk factor

63 for AD.

64 Indeed, studies reported increased amyloid- β concentration in CSF (18) and an acute increase of

65 amyloid- β assessed with PET and MRI (19) after one night of sleep deprivation compared to

66 unrestricted sleep. Selective disruption of deep sleep without affecting other sleep stages led to a

67 comparable increase in amyloid- β concentration in CSF (20). Previous studies mostly investigated

68 acute effects of sleep deprivation, whereas effects of long-term exposure to poor sleep has not been

69 studied extensively before. The SCHIP study (Sleep-Cognition-Hypothesis In maritime Pilots)

70 conducted by our group in 2016-2019, hypothesized that long-term exposure to sleep disruption

71 leads to an increased AD-risk (21). The maritime pilots included in the SCHIP study follow work

72 schedules, characterized by one week with irregular working hours, resulting in a combination of

73 sleep restriction, fragmentation and deprivation, followed by a rest week with unrestricted sleep. We

74 found that maritime pilots, with an average of 18 years of irregular and unpredictable work shifts
75 (night & day) did not manifest any AD-evidence, such as cognitive deficits or brain amyloid- β
76 accumulation (22).

77 In a separate study, we found that retired maritime pilots, who had worked irregular shifts for
78 approximately 26 years did not show any signs of early dementia or MCI (23). Neither did the long-
79 term exposure to irregular shift work result in circadian rhythm disruption, mood complaints or
80 decreased Quality of Life (QoL) after employment (23). Results of these two studies are in contrast
81 with earlier studies claiming that sleep loss leads to higher brain amyloid- β concentrations and
82 cognitive decline.

83 In the present study, the ANCHOR study (Assessing Nightly Components Highly Operative to
84 Recovery), we investigated potential causes for the absence of amyloid- β accumulation and cognitive
85 dysfunction after long-term exposure to sleep disruption in this specific cohort. By using a novel,
86 wearable home-EEG device, we studied sleep architecture of maritime pilots during and immediately
87 after a workweek. The findings of previous studies led to two hypotheses; first, we hypothesize that
88 maritime pilots are more efficient in generating deep sleep during workweeks, leading to higher
89 amounts of relative deep sleep time (DST%) in workweeks, even though total sleep time (TST) might
90 be limited. We speculate that, in case of increased efficiency, the higher DST% will continue into the
91 first days of the rest week. Second, poor sleep during workweeks could be counteracted by high
92 amounts of rebound sleep. In this case, we expect a higher DST% immediately after the workweek,
93 during the first nights of the rest week. The possible compensatory mechanisms might indicate
94 whether and how maritime pilots are able to recover from periods of poor sleep.

95 **2. Materials and Methods**

96 **2.1 Participants**

97 We used the SCHIP study dataset (21). The total research population consisted of 19 healthy male
98 maritime pilots (age range: 48 to 60 years), with an average of 18 years of work-related sleep
99 disruption. For the purpose of the ANCHOR study, we used data from 10 maritime pilots. Nine
100 participants had to be excluded for various reasons: development of sleep apnoea (n=1); retirement
101 (n=4); technical issues (n=2), no data available for rest week following a workweek (n=2) (only rest
102 week preceding the workweek).

103 Dutch maritime pilots guide international ships into their docking positions in Dutch harbours and
104 work irregular and unpredictable shifts that depend on the amount and variety of arriving ships.
105 Working these shifts mostly results in fragmented sleep divided over multiple sleep sessions per day
106 (24 hours). Detailed information about the maritime pilots and in-/exclusion criteria can be found in
107 the SCHIP methods paper (21). The SCHIP study was approved by the institutional review board (IRB)
108 (CMO Region Arnhem-Nijmegen, NL55712.091.16; file number 2016-2337) and performed in
109 accordance with good clinical practice (GCP) guidelines and conducted and reported according to the
110 STROBE guidelines for case-control studies.

111 2.2 Sleep measurements

112 To obtain subjective measurements of sleep characteristics, participants filled out the Pittsburgh
113 Sleep Quality Index (PSQI) with questions regarding bedtimes and wake-up times, sleep latency, total
114 sleep time, sleep efficiency, and sleep disturbances. The PSQI has a maximum score of 21, a total
115 score of 5 was used as cut-off point for sleep disturbances and a score of ≥ 7 indicates
116 severe/abnormal sleep behaviour (24). The PSQI was filled out separately for a rest week and for a
117 workweek.

119 2.2.1 Home-EEG measurements

120 To obtain objective sleep measurements, participants were instructed to wear a dry electrode,
121 single-lead (FpZ-M2) home-EEG device (SmartSleep; Philips, Eindhoven, The Netherlands) for twenty
122 consecutive days (10 workdays and 10 days off) (25, 26). Some participants wore the home-EEG
123 device during two periods of work days and rest days. Work-related fragmented sleep resulted in
124 multiple sleep sessions per 24 hours.

125 The home-EEG device was originally developed to acoustically stimulate deep sleep, through
126 automatic EEG-based detection of slow waves (0.5-4 Hz), however we used the device for
127 measurement purposes only, without auditory stimulation. The SmartSleep algorithm, based on 6
128 second epochs, differentiates between wakefulness, light sleep, and deep sleep (26, 27). Even though
129 these sleep stages are calculated based on a single lead, studies have proven feasibility and validity
130 of sleep staging with the home-EEG device (26, 28-30). The data is expressed as the following sleep
131 characteristics: total sleep time (TST), deep sleep time (DST), wake after sleep onset (WASO), number
132 of arousals and number of awakenings > 5 minutes. Based on these outcome variables deep sleep
133 time was calculated as percentage of TST (DST%) as the main outcome variable.

134 2.3 Statistical Analysis

135 2.3.1 Descriptive sleep data

136 The descriptive sleep data were assessed for normal distribution by inspection of histograms and the
137 Shapiro-Wilk test. Normally distributed data are shown as mean \pm standard deviation (SD), while not-
138 normally distributed data are shown as median with interquartile range (IQR). A paired samples t-test
139 was performed to compare PSQI scores between workweek and rest week. Home-EEG data was
140 analysed using the Wilcoxon signed rank test to compare number of sleep session per day, total sleep
141 time (TST) and deep sleep time (DST) between workweeks and rest periods. Alpha was set at 0.05

142 and tested two-sided. Descriptive data analyses were conducted with IBM SPSS Statistics for
143 Windows, version 20.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA).

144 2.3.2 Multilevel models

145 The data had a three-level hierarchical structure, with measurement days nested within a 10 day
146 measurement cycle that combined a rest week directly following a workweek (maximum two per
147 participant), nested within participants. Exploring the fit of increasingly complex models using
148 deviance statistic (31), Bayesian information criterion (BIC), and Akaike Information Criterion (AIC),
149 we built two multilevel models with DST% as the outcome variable to examine which of our two
150 hypotheses most plausibly fit the empirical data.

151 For our first model, regarding greater efficiency to generate deep sleep during the workweek, we
152 synchronized time on the second day off after a workweek. We fitted a linear spline model that
153 allows both a shift in level and slope on (before and after) the second day off after a workweek. The
154 model allowed for a linear change in DST% during the workweek and the first day of the rest week
155 and an abrupt shift on the second day off with DST% to stay constant for the remaining rest week
156 (i.e., linear slope constrained to zero, as adding a linear slope did not improve model fit). To evaluate
157 our second model, regarding rebound sleep after a workweek, time was synchronized on the last
158 workday. We again fitted a linear spline model, allowing for both a shift in level and slope in DST% on
159 the last workday. Based on model fit, we iterated towards a model in which DST% was held constant
160 during the workweek, and allowed to linearly change during the rest week. For both models, the
161 intercept was allowed to vary over participants (random intercept for participant) and over
162 measurement cycles within participants (random intercept for measurement cycle nested in
163 participant).

164 No covariates were added to the models, as all participants are male and of similar age and
165 education. Multilevel model analyses were performed in R version 3.6.2 (32).

167 **3. Results**

168 We used data from 10 maritime pilots. All participants had the same, high level of education, were
169 Dutch, male and of white European descent (Table 1).

170 **Table 1.** Baseline characteristics

Characteristics	
n	10
Age, years	51.6 ±2.4
Employment time, years	18.4 ±3.9
BMI, kg/m ²	25.8 ±2.2
SBP, mmHg	141 ±15.9
DBP, mmHg	89.7 ±11.9
Medication use (yes)	3 (30)
Smoking (yes)	2 (20)
History of hypertension	0 (0)
History of high cholesterol	1 (10)
History of diabetes	0 (0)

171 Data are shown as mean ± SD or Number (%).

172 Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; SBP, systolic blood pressure; DBP, diastolic blood pressure
173

174 **3.1 Descriptive sleep data**

175 Maritime pilots (n=10) report a mean PSQI score of 3.9 (±2.0) for rest weeks and an average score of
176 8.2 (±2.2) for workweeks, which was more than twice the score for rest weeks, with values exceeding
177 the validated cut-off point (≥7) for abnormal sleep behaviour (Table 2).

178 Home-EEG recordings calculated per sleep session showed less TST and DST during a workweek
179 compared to a rest week (Table 2). However, when combining the sleep sessions per day, maritime
180 pilots reached a similar amount of TST and slightly less DST in a larger number of sleep sessions
181 during a workweek, compared to a rest week (Table 2). As indicator of improved efficiency to
182 generate deep sleep, the point estimate for DST% was 3.5% higher during the workweek and this
183 estimate was close to statistical significance (p=0.08).

185 **Table 2.** Sleep characteristics obtained with home-EEG measurements

	Workweek	Rest week	P-value
n	10	10	
Number of sleep sessions per day	1.3 (1.1–1.8)	1.0 (1.0–1.0)	0.03
PSQI	8.2 ±2.2	3.9 ±2.0	<0.001
WASO, min	30.2 (21.3–42.8)	30.4 (24.9–52.9)	0.65
Number of arousals	29.1 (21.3–30.8)	34.1 (29.1–37.9)	0.005
Number of awakenings ≥ 5 minutes	1.2 (0.8–2.4)	1.2 (0.5–3.0)	0.80
Average TST per sleep session, min	295.0 (221.5– 359.9)	407.6 (343.0–424.8)	0.005
Average DST per sleep session, min	38.1 (31.1–61.5)	53.55 (49.9–68.3)	0.013
Average DST% per session	16.3 (12.8–18.5)	15.6 (12.3–18.9)	0.96
Average TST per day, min	409.1 (369.3–432.3)	419.2 (370.0–428.3)	1
Average DST per day, min	58.3 (50.5–70.3)	65.9 (51.1–73.6)	0.19
Average DST% per day	21.9 (20.2–23.6)	18.4 (13.5 –21.4)	0.08
Average DST% per day, time synchronized on second day of rest week	20.6 (19.0–23.73)	17.4 (12.5–22.1)	0.13

186 Data are shown as mean ±SD or median (IQR)

187 Abbreviations: PSQI, Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (≥5 indicates sleep disturbances, ≥7 indicates severe/abnormal sleep
188 behaviour; WASO, wake after sleep onset; TST, total sleep time; DST, deep sleep time.

189

190 3.2 Multilevel model analysis (DST%)

191 Our first model assessed whether maritime pilots are more efficient in generating deep sleep, shown
192 by an increase in DST% during the workweek (figure 1). As shown in table 3, during the workweek
193 until the second day of the rest week, DST% increased by 0.6% per day (p=0.08), peaking at 17.9% at
194 the second day of the rest week. In the remaining rest week, the DST% was constant at a level of
195 1.5% lower than the peak DST% at the second day of the rest week, though this difference was not
196 statistically significant (p=0.29). Our second model assessed whether maritime pilots experienced
197 rebound sleep, with an increase in DST% after their workweek (figure 2). In the resulting model, both
198 the lower DST% during the workweek, and the time-varying DST% during the rest week did not differ,

199 as illustrated in table 4. In addition, the model fit statistics (AIC/BIC) for model 1 were lower than for
200 model 2.

201 **Table 3.** Model 1: Increased efficiency to generate deep sleep

Model fit	AIC	BIC
	846.9	864.3
Fixed effects	B (SE)	p-value
Average DST% at day 2 of rest week	17.9 (1.7)	<0.001
Linear increase in DST% during workweek – day 2 of rest week	0.6 (0.3)	0.08
Difference in DST% during remaining rest week	-1.5 (1.4)	0.29

202

203 **Table 4.** Model 2: Rebound sleep after workweek

Model fit	AIC	BIC
	847.4	864.8
Fixed effects	B (SE)	p-value
DST% at switch between work- and rest week	16.9 (1.5)	<0.001
Constant DST% during workweek	-1.6 (1.1)	0.16
Linear increase in DST% during rest week	-0.1 (0.4)	0.87

204 Abbreviations: AIC, Akaike Information Criterion; BIC, Bayesian Information Criterion; DST%, relative deep sleep time.

205 **Figure 1.** Model 1 – efficiency in generating deep sleep. Red line indicates predicted model values,
206 individual participant data is shown in black.

207 **Figure 2.** Model 2 – rebound sleep after workweek. Red line indicates predicted model values,
208 individual participant data is shown in black.

209

211 **4. Discussion**

212 We examined sleep architecture of maritime pilots in their natural environment using home-based
213 EEG measurements during their workweek and rest week. We explored two hypotheses, one:
214 maritime pilots compensate for poor sleep with increased efficiency in generating deep sleep during
215 workweeks; and two: maritime pilots compensate work-related sleep disruption with excessive
216 rebound sleep in rest weeks. Our results indicate that increased efficiency of generating deep sleep
217 during workweeks is a more likely compensatory mechanism than rebound sleep after workweeks.

218 In general, maritime pilots report worse sleep quality during workweeks (PSQI) compared to rest
219 weeks, which was confirmed by home-EEG data, showing significantly less TST and absolute DST per
220 sleep session (Table 2). However, multiple sleep sessions are observed in a typical workday. These
221 combined sleep sessions add up to TST and DST slightly lower compared to a day off. This indicates
222 that maritime pilots, while they subjectively experience poor sleep quality, still reach a comparable
223 TST and DST in fragmented sleep sessions over the course of a workday.

224 The model describing hypothesis 1 represented a better fit with the data and showed a trend
225 towards deeper and thus improved sleep quality. Looking at DST%, we observed a trend towards an
226 increase of 0.6% per day during the workweek, starting with a DST% of 13.8%, rising up to 17.9% in
227 the beginning of a rest week. Even though a 0.6% increase per day does not seem very high, it
228 thereby slowly reaches normal DST% (17.9%). Combined with, on average, a significantly higher
229 DST% in workweeks, we suggest that our data lend more support to hypothesis 1.

230 In this group of maritime pilots, the compensatory mechanism to counteract sleep disruption of any
231 form (deprivation, fragmentation, restriction) may lie in the ability to become more efficient in
232 generating deep sleep during a workweek. This could explain earlier findings in this cohort (22, 23) of
233 absence of AD-related cognitive decline or amyloid- β accumulation which have been proposed to be
234 linked to poor sleep (8, 12, 13, 15).

235 Borbély and colleagues proposed that deep sleep specifically is enhanced after sleep deprivation
236 (33), which could explain our findings. Ferrara and colleagues showed that relative deep sleep is
237 increased after deep sleep disruption, without any increase in total sleep time, hypothesizing that a
238 fixed amount of deep sleep per night is required rather than sleep duration alone (34). However,
239 Borbély and Ferrera assessed sleep after total sleep deprivation and selective deep sleep disruption
240 specifically, while we examined sleep architecture during longer periods of sleep disruption. By
241 applying a home-EEG device, which has not been implemented in previous sleep studies, our findings
242 offer more insights into compensatory mechanisms while sleep is disturbed, instead of after sleep
243 disruption has taken place. Thus, we were able to measure sleep architecture during sleep
244 disruption, which has not been feasible in previous studies due to the nature of sleep assessment.
245 The difference in methodology for sleep assessment, therefore, makes it challenging to compare
246 outcomes of our studies to these of Borbély and Ferrera. Nevertheless, our findings can further be
247 related to sleep actigraphy outcomes from Korsiak and colleagues. They discovered that the daily (24
248 hours) TST during shift-work was similar to the TST during free time, due to more napping during
249 shift-work, as we have also observed in the maritime pilot cohort (i.e. fragmented sleep sessions over
250 a 24h-period). However, they concluded that shift workers tend to compensate for sleep loss with
251 rebound sleep during free time (35). This effect was not confirmed in our study: we found no
252 evidence of rebound sleep.

253 4.1 Strengths & Limitations

254 The ANCHOR study is one of the first studies to examine home-EEG based sleep data, recorded in a
255 home setting for a longer period of time. The use of wearables in a home-setting, instead of
256 polysomnography (PSG) in a sleep laboratory, allowed us to gain insights in sleep patterns during
257 normal workweeks and rest weeks, which otherwise could not have been measured. Combined with
258 additional subjective measures of sleep quality, we were able to comprehensively measure sleep to
259 illustrate the sleep architecture of maritime pilots. The maritime pilot group is a very unique

260 population, as they seem to be more resilient to sleep disruption, evidenced by the fact that they
261 successfully performed their job for approximately 18 years. Their overall (cognitive) health and
262 externally induced sleep disruption allowed us to investigate whether their sleep architecture may be
263 fundamental to this resilience.

264 The study is limited by the small sample size (n=10). However, since part of the participants
265 performed multiple measurement cycles of a rest week following a workweek, we were able to
266 include 19 measurement cycles in our analysis. Although we consider the home-EEG measurements a
267 strength of our study, a trade-off was made between a wearable EEG-device that collects limited
268 data and a full PSG, which requires a laboratory environment. The wearable device is a single-lead
269 EEG measurement device with an automated algorithm to calculate sleep staging. Raw data is
270 deleted after each session due to limited storage space and daily retrieval of raw data is not feasible
271 for logistical reasons. Therefore, data is limited compared to PSG, but allows to study sleep
272 architecture over time in participants' natural environment. Lastly, this research is a secondary
273 analysis of the SCHIP study, where we were limited to the maritime pilot group in the Netherlands,
274 who agreed to participate in this extensive study (21).

275 4.2 Implications

276 We discovered some implications for the use of subjective versus objective sleep measurements.
277 While the maritime pilots complained about worse sleep quality (self-reported in PSQI), objective
278 measurements of sleep did not fully confirm this. The discrepancy between objectively and
279 subjectively measured sleep is a well-known issue (36). Our findings imply that sleep fragmentation is
280 highly relevant for the overall subjective impression of sleep quality. However, detrimental health
281 effects seem unlikely if normal TST and DST can be obtained in multiple sessions, assuming a
282 sufficient level of general health. Still, future studies need to confirm our results and test whether
283 they are generalizable to a larger population. With wearable devices, such as the home-EEG device,
284 large-scale studies in home-settings are now possible (37) to investigate compensatory mechanisms

285 and consequences of poor sleep for the development of neurodegenerative disease and health
286 outcomes in general. For future research, we would therefore recommend to set up longitudinal
287 studies, with inclusion of larger populations of shift workers, as our hypothesis for possible
288 compensatory mechanisms is of importance for a broad population.

289 **5. Conclusion**

290 Maritime pilots seem to be more efficient in generating deep sleep when it is most required and
291 might start compensating for sleep loss during the workweek itself, where sleep is still fragmented.
292 The specific intensity and intermittent pattern of sleep disruption in combination with coping
293 mechanisms of the maritime pilot cohort might be protective against detrimental effects of sleep
294 disruption, such as AD related accumulation of amyloid- β and/or cognitive dysfunction. Results of
295 this study need to be confirmed in future longitudinal studies with comprehensive home-EEG sleep
296 measurements including larger samples and different populations of shift workers.

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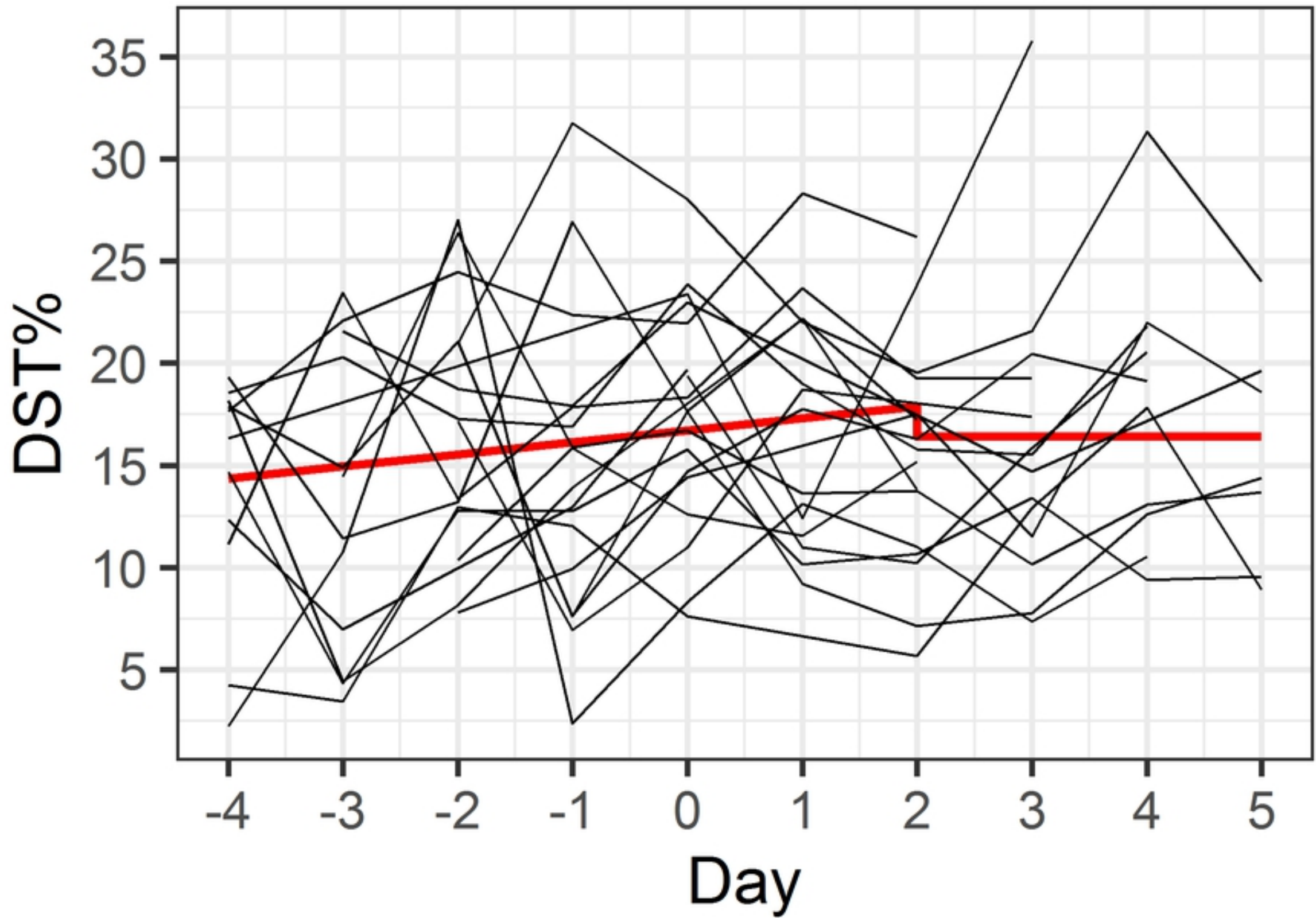


Figure 1

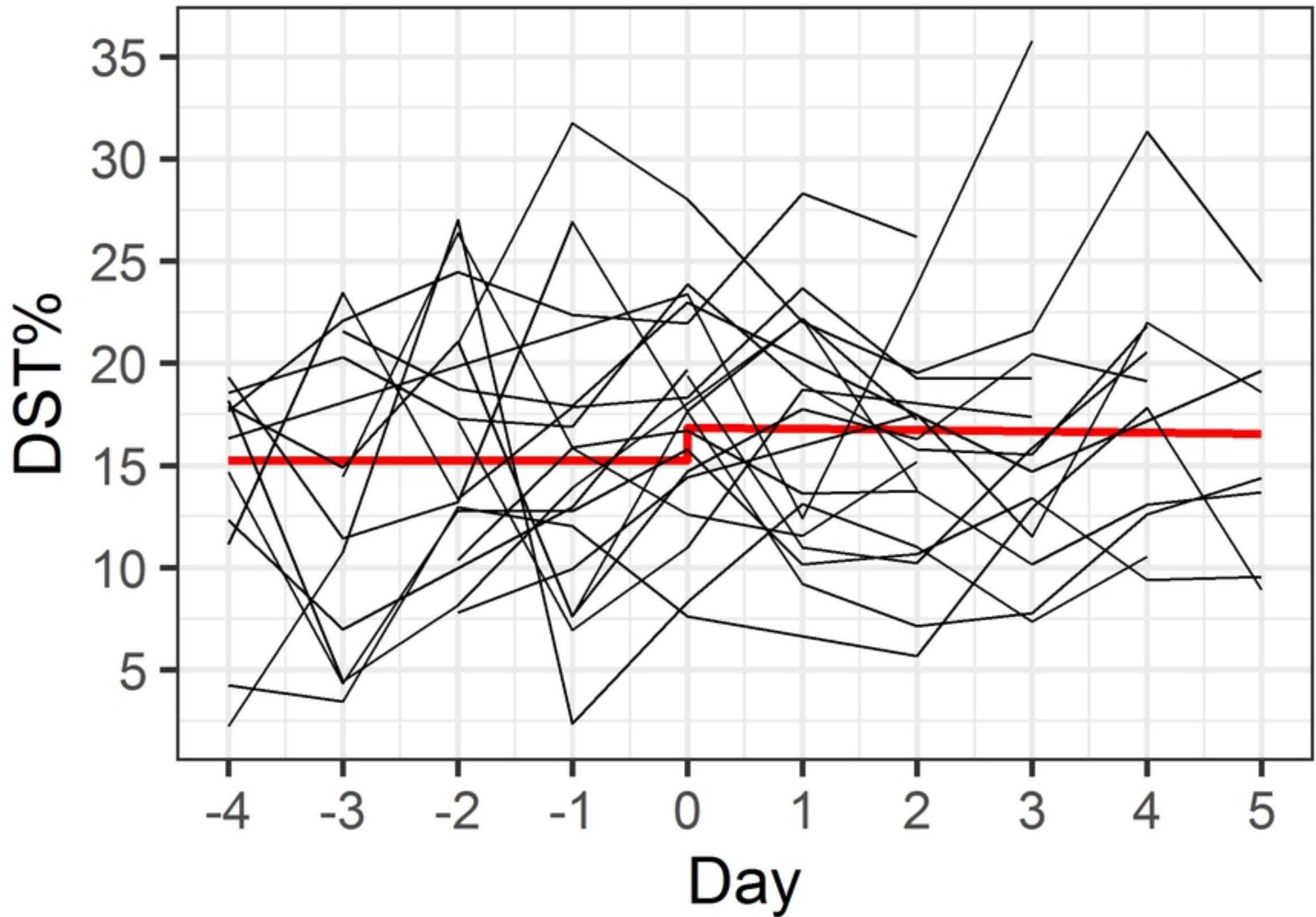


Figure 2