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# Comparison of Deep Learning Methods for Sleep Apnea Detection Using Spectrogram-Transformed ECG Signals

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Abstract Sleep apnea is a sleep disorder that occurs when breathing is disturbed, characterized by repeated periods of stopping breathing during sleep. This condition can cause various serious health problems if not treated, such as: high blood pressure, poor quality sleep, and difficulty concentrating. Sufferers often don't realize sleep apnea because it occurs during sleep. Generally, sleep apnea diagnosis is made by interviewing the patient and family to find out common symptoms such as snoring, then confirmed through physical examination and polysomnography (PSG). Since sleep apnea is related to respiratory activity that correlates with changes in cardiac activity, ECG examination during sleep is an alternative for diagnosis. Therefore, this study presents a comparative analysis of deep learning models for detecting sleep apnea from spectrogram-based ECG representations. The raw ECG signal is transformed into a spectrogram and then saved as an image for classification, specifically for normal and abnormal classification. Deep Learning (DL) method is applied for classification of normal ECG and sleep apnea ECG. EfficientNet, MobileNet V2, DenseNet, AlexNet, and VGG16 were used to evaluate the performance of the proposed method and to identify the best-performing model. The evaluation results show that EfficientNet demonstrated the highest performance with an accuracy of 91.01%, precision of 90.70%, recall of 95.76%, and an F1-score of 92.61%. EfficientNet outperformed the other evaluated models in this study. By utilizing a spectrogram-based approach combined with a scalable architecture, the method demonstrates competitive accuracy for sleep apnea detection. Investigating other methods to enhance accuracy remains an interesting topic for future study.

Keywords Deep Learning; ECG; Sleep Apnea; Spectogram.

# I. Introduction

Frequent breathing pauses during sleep are the hallmark of sleep apnea, a common sleep disease that can cause poor sleep quality as well as a number of health issues [1]. Obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) and central sleep apnea (CSA) are the two primary forms of sleep apnea. The most prevalent kind, OSA, is brought on by an obstruction in the airway during sleep, whereas CSA is brought on by a malfunction in the brain's signaling to the breathing muscles. Healthcare practitioners usually utilize a mix of sleep testing, physical examination, and self-reported symptoms to diagnose sleep apnea [2]. For the diagnosis of sleep apnea (SA), polysomnography which includes monitoring blood oxygen levels, breathing patterns, heart, lung, and brain activity throughout the night—is regarded as the gold standard. There are situations where home sleep tests, which monitor blood oxygen levels, breathing patterns, heart rate, and airflow may be a better option than polysomnography. One of information gathered in polysomnography electrocardiogram signal (ECG). ECG signals can yield important data for the diagnosis of sleep apnea. The use of a single lead ECG as a signal to detect sleep apnea has become popular because it is simpler compared to the use of multiple signals on a polysomnography. The ECG signal is an indication of because of the electrocardiogram derived respiratory (EDR) where changes in the respiratory pattern affect the ECG signal pattern [3].

Sleep apnea is typically diagnosed using polysomnography (PSG), which, although considered the gold standard, is costly, time-consuming, and requires overnight monitoring in specialized facilities.

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These limitations often result in long waiting times and reduced accessibility, particularly in resource-limited settings [4]. Consequently, there is a growing need for non-invasive, cost-effective, and widely deployable diagnostic alternatives. ECG-based detection offers a promising solution due to its portability, lower cost, and suitability for long-term monitoring [5]. However, existing ECG-based approaches often rely on manual feature extraction or simple time-domain analysis, which may overlook subtle patterns in both temporal and spectral domains that are indicative of apnea events [6], [7]. These limitations highlight the need for more advanced feature extraction techniques, such as spectrogram transformations, that can represent the full time frequency characteristics of ECG signals.

Several methods used to detect SA via ECG include heart rate variability (HRV), which begins with detecting the R-R signal in the ECG signal [8]. Researchers use several HRV parameters (RMSSD, NN50, etc.) and machine learning to detect SA. Other methods used are wavelet [9], fractal [10], Hilbert-Huang transform [11], or morphological analysis of ECG signals [12]. The spectrogram is a signal transformation method often used for SA detection in ECG signals. Spectrogram converts 1D signals into 2D by displaying information in the time and frequency domains [13]. Various methods were explored to use spectrograms as a characteristic for SA detection in ECG signals. Ullah et al used magnified R-R signal, scalogram dan spectrogram for SA detection in single channel ECG [14]. Combined with dual convolutional dual attention network (DCDA-Net), accuracy and F1 score of 98% and 97.5% were reported in their research. Linh et al. proposed different approach by analyse spectrogram of several subband of ECG signal [15]. The ECG signal was decomposed using discrete wavelet transform then the experiment report that the 8-50 Hz frequency band gave the best accuracy of 98.2%, and a F1-score of 0.93. Another variation of spectrogram was proposed by Gupta et al as feature extraction method for ECG based SA detection [16]. A smoothed Gabor spectrogram (SGS) was combined with Squeeze-Net, Res-Net50, and developed DLM called obstructive sleep apnea convolutional neural network (OSACN-Net) as classifier resulted accuracy of 94.81% with SGS using a tenfold cross-validation strategy. According to the research mentioned previously, the spectrogram must be supported by a classifier. Since automatic diagnosis of apnea is far more desirable than human diagnosis, the use of classifiers in sleep apnea detection is crucial [17]. Classifiers analyze the data and generate predictions based on the features collected from the signals, which can aid in automating the process of diagnosing sleep apnea. Deep learning as a classifier in SA detection has been widely used.

but none of them has provided a comprehensive performance comparison.

This study addresses these limitations by employing a spectrogram transformation of ECG signals, enabling the extraction of rich time-frequency features directly from single-lead recordings. While time-frequency analysis has been explored in some prior works, its application to spectrogram-transformed ECG data for apnea detection remains underrepresented in the literature. The proposed approach leverages these spectrograms as inputs to deep convolutional neural networks (CNNs), enabling automatic learning of discriminative patterns without manual feature engineering. This not only enhances sensitivity to apnea-related signal variations but also positions the method as a scalable, non-invasive alternative to conventional PSG based diagnosis.

This study fill this gap by investigating the use of deep learning as a classifier combined with spectrogram as a feature extraction approach for sleep apnea identification. Deep learning is a kind of machine learning that makes use of artificial neural networks to model and resolve complicated issues. It has demonstrated significant promise in a number of fields, including prediction and diagnosis in medicine. We anticipate that our integration of deep learning and spectrogram will enhance the precision dependability of sleep apnea identification, ultimately resulting in enhanced patient outcomes and quality of life. The analysis of ECG spectrogram-based images has the potential to become an innovative alternative approach and a benchmark in sleep apnea detection. Specifically, the primary objective of this study is to conduct a comprehensive performance comparison of various deep learning architectures for sleep apnea detection from ECG spectrograms, in order to identify the most effective model for this task. The primary contributions of this work are summarized as follows:

- Development of ECG-based sleep apnea detection method. This research proposes a novel approach that utilizes ECG as the primary modality, which is more accessible and cost-effective compared to standard polysomnography (PSG).
- Introduction of a transformation from 1D ECG signals into a 2D spectrogram representation. This transformation enables the extraction of rich timefrequency features, overcoming the limitations of 1D signal analysis and presenting the information in an optimal format for processing by deep learning architectures.
- Comprehensive comparative evaluation of various CNN architectures. This study does not merely propose a single model but conducts an in-depth comparative analysis to identify the most effective

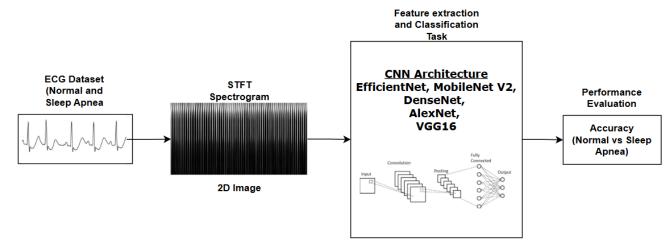


Fig. 1. Propose system for sleep apnea detection based on ECG spectrogram.

and robust deep learning architecture for classifying apnea-related ECG spectrograms. The remainder of this paper is structured as follows: Section 2 describes the materials and methodologies employed in this research. Section 3 and section 4 presents the results and discussion. Finally, Section 4 provides conclusions, acknowledges limitations, and outlines directions for future work

#### II. Material and Methods

## A. Proposed System

Fig. 1. presents a diagram of the proposed system for sleep apnea detection based on ECG spectrogram analysis. The proposed system uses ECG signals (normal and sleep apnea cases) processed through Short-Time Fourier Transform (STFT) to create spectrograms, which are then transformed as 2D images. These images are fed into various CNN architectures (EfficientNet, MobileNet V2, DenseNet, AlexNet, VGG16) for feature extraction and classification, with performance evaluated based on accuracy in distinguishing normal vs. sleep apnea cases. Different architectures are employed to identify the highest-performing model.

## B. Electrocardiogram

ECG signals have gained significant attention in diagnosing SA as an alternative to Polysomnography (PSG) due to their non-invasive nature and ease of use. Unlike PSG, which can be stressful and requires technical equipment, ECG is more patient-friendly, with a lower technical barrier for usage [5]. The ECG signal strength of 1-2 mV provides the best signal-to-noise ratio among physiological signals, making it an ideal candidate for analyzing heart rate variability (HRV) and respiratory changes associated with SA. Additionally, ECG can be utilized to extract respiratory effort curves, known as ECG-induced respiration (EDR), which provides valuable information regarding the patient's

respiratory patterns [18]. SA affects heart rate due to cyclical changes in oxygen levels during apnea or hypopnea episodes, which are reflected in the ECG. These episodes cause variations in heart rate as the body compensates for the reduction in oxygen levels by increasing the respiration rate, leading to changes in ECG waveforms [19].

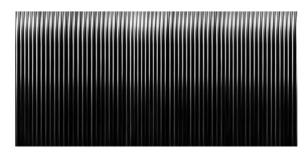


Fig. 2. Example of the spectrogram on ECG signal.

#### C. Dataset

The dataset that is used in this study was obtained from PhysioNet [20] and consists of 17,010 segments, with 10,496 labeled as "Normal" and 6,514 labeled as "Apnea". The dataset utilized in this study is publicly available at <a href="https://www.physionet.org/content/apneaecg/1.0.0/">https://www.physionet.org/content/apneaecg/1.0.0/</a>. Each recording ranges from 7 to 10 hours in length and includes a continuous ECG signal. Annotations for apnea and normal segments were provided by human experts based on simultaneously recorded respiratory and related signals. Recordings with fewer than 5 minutes of disordered breathing were labeled as normal, while those with 100 minutes or more were labeled as apnea. Recordings with 10–96 minutes of disordered breathing were categorized as borderline apnea but were not included in this study's analysis.

# D. Converting ECG Signal using Short-Time Fourier Transform (STFT)

Short-Time Fourier Transform (STFT) is a signal processing technique used to obtain a time-frequency representation of non-stationary signals through windowed power spectral density analysis, such as in electrocardiogram (ECG) signals [21]. In this study, STFT was applied to ECG signal segments to visualize frequency information over time, enabling identification of specific patterns in the ECG signal both visually and through image processing algorithms. The ECG data consisted of discrete signals x[n] sampled at  $f_s = 100 \ Hz$ , with each recording having a length of 6000 samples. Each recording was divided into frames of length L = 25 samples with an overlap O = 20 samples, resulting in a hop size expressed by Eq. 1.

$$R = L - O = 5 \text{ samples} \tag{1}$$

Each frame was multiplied by a Kaiser window function (w[n]) showed in Eq. 2, [22], with a parameter  $\beta = 5$  to reduce spectral leakage, where the Kaiser function incorporates the zero-order modified Bessel function  $I_{o}$ .

$$w[n] = \frac{I_o\left(\beta\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{2n}{L - 1} - 1\right)^2}\right)}{I_o(\beta)} \tag{2}$$
Short Time Fourier Transform (STET) (Y(n))

The Short-Time Fourier Transform (STFT) (X(m,k))was then applied for each windowed frame using an FFT length  $N_{FFT} = 512$ , producing the complex timefrequency representation defined as Eq.3, [23], where  $X_m$  is the original signal that sampled or segmented into m overlapping frames. The Kaiser window function is represented with w[n], where the sample index for a single frame is represented with n and k is the frequency bin index, ranging from 0 to  $N_{FFT} - 1$ . The imaginary unit is represented with *j*.

presented with 
$$j$$
.
$$X(m,k) = \sum_{n=0}^{L-1} X_m[n]w[n]e^{\frac{j2\pi kn}{N_{FFT}}}$$
(3)

The magnitude (S(m,k)) spectrum at frame m and frequency bin k was obtained using Eq. 4, [24] and normalized to the range [0,1] using min-max scaling, as defined in Eq. 5, [24], with  $S_{min}$  and  $S_{max}$  specified in

$$S(m,k) = |X(m,k)| \tag{4}$$

$$S(m,k) = |X(m,k)|$$
(4)  

$$\tilde{S}(m,k) = \frac{S(m,k) - S_{min}}{S_{max} - S_{min}}$$
(5)  

$$S_{min} = \min_{m,k} S(m,k), S_{max} = \max_{m,k} S(m,k)$$
(6)

$$S_{min} = \min_{m,k} S(m,k), S_{max} = \max_{m,k} S(m,k)$$
 (6)

The normalized spectovram values  $(\ddot{S}(m,k))$  then converted into 8-bit grayscale (I(m, k)) format according to Eq. 7, [25] which served as the visual representation of the ECG signal. In the resulting image, the horizontal axis corresponds to time with a resolution that is calculated using Eq. 8, [26], while the vertical axis represents frequency, with each bin k mapped using Eq.

$$I(m,k) = [255 \cdot \tilde{S}(m,k)] \tag{7}$$

$$\Delta t = \frac{R}{f_s} = 0.05 \, s/frame \tag{8}$$

$$f_k = k \cdot \frac{f_s}{N_{FFT}} \tag{9}$$

$$f_k = k \cdot \frac{f_s}{N_{EFT}} \tag{9}$$

The  $\Delta t$  represent the time resolution of the spectogram image, while R show the hop size between frames as shown in Eq.1. The resulting spectrograms are then used as input representations for deep learning models in the classification of sleep apnea conditions. A visualization example of a spectrogram generated from ECG signal processing is shown in Fig. 2.

# E. Convolutional Neural Network Design

CNN has become a popular choice for analyzing biomedical signals due to their ability to automatically extract meaningful patterns from complex data [27]. This deep learning method is composed of layers such as convolutional, pooling and fully connected layers, which work together to perform task such as classification with high accuracy. In convolutional layers, each filter  $W_{\nu}$ slides across the input X to compute a feature map by performing a convolution operation as expressed in Eq. 10, [28].

$$Z_{i,i,k} = (X * W_k)_{i,i} + b_k. (10)$$

The  $Z_{i,j,k}$  represent the activation output at (i,j) at the  $k^{th}$  filter and the bias term  $b_k$ . The output of this process is then passed through a non-linear activation function called Rectified Linear Unit (ReIU) that introduced the non-linearity feature and helps the network to learn complex representation. The RelU is defined as in Eq. 11, [28].

$$A_{i,j,k} = \max(0, Z_{i,j,k}). \tag{11}$$

Furthermore, to reduce the dimentionality while preserving the most salient features, then CNN applied max pooling shown in Eq. 12, [28].

$$P_{i,j,k} = \max_{m,n \in R} A_{m,n,k},$$
 (12)

here the R represent the receptive region over the maximum activation. For the feature extraction process, the produced feature maps are flattened and passed into a fully conencted layers that produce the final output represented by Eq. 13, [28].

$$y = \sigma(W^T x + b). \tag{13}$$

where the x is the input vector, while the W, b and  $\sigma$ represent the weight matrix, bias, and the activation function, respectively.

CNN has demonstrated significant potential in identifying and classifying patterns [29], highlighting their suitability for the classification of spectrograms

derived from ECG signals in the detection of sleep apnea. In this study, several CNN architectures, including EfficientNet, MobileNet V2, DenseNet, AlexNet, and ResNet, are employed to effectively perform sleep apnea classification.

The selection of five architectures was motivated by their characteristics and relevance to spectrogrambased classification. EfficientNet represents a state-ofthe-art scalable architecture that balances accuracy and computational cost, making it suitable for large spectrogram datasets [30]. MobileNet V2 is a lightweight model optimized for efficiency, providing a benchmark for low-resource scenarios [31]. DenseNet facilitates feature reuse through dense connections, which can be beneficial in extracting multi-scale patterns from spectrograms [32]. AlexNet, as one of the pioneering deep CNNs, serves as a baseline for evaluating advances in architecture design. VGG16, known for its depth and uniform convolutional structure, provides a comparison point for deeper but less parameter-efficient networks [33]. Including models with diverse design philosophies allows for a more comprehensive of performance, efficiency, evaluation generalization in the context of ECG spectrogram classification. In this study, the data split is set as 70% for training, 20% for validation, and 10% for testing. This division is intended to adjust hyperparameters and prevent overfitting [34]. Performance evaluation did not employ cross-validation because, in this study, validation was not conducted as a separate step [35].

The partitioning process was performed using a random shuffle that maintained class balance between the "Normal" and "Apnea" categories to preserve label distribution. No data augmentation techniques were applied in this study due to the risk of distorting the patterns present in ECG-derived spectrogram images. Since the spectrogram captures subtle time-frequency characteristics of cardiac signals, applying common augmentation methods such as rotation, scaling, or flipping could potentially alter meaningful clinical features and compromise signal integrity. Maintaining the authenticity of the spectrogram was prioritized to ensure that the model learned from accurate and undistorted representations of sleep apnea-related patterns. All training and evaluation processes were conducted using Google Colab, which provides access to cloud-based GPU resources.

The optimizer used is Adam with a learning rate of 0.001, and the model is trained with a batch size of 128, ensuring consistency across all architectures for the classification task. The model was tested at epochs 5, 10, 15, and 20. The choice of Adam optimizer was motivated by its effectiveness and frequent application in CNN architectures [36], [37], [38]. A learning rate of 0.001 was chosen due to its optimal performance, consistent with findings reported in [39], [40]. No explicit

regularization techniques such as L2 weight decay or dropout beyond those built into the architecture were used. This decision was primarily influenced by computational limitations, which constrained the exploration of more advanced optimization strategies. These settings were selected based on preliminary testing and were kept constant to allow for a fair comparison of architectural performance.

#### 1. EfficientNet

EfficientNet introduced in 2019 and designed to optimize the scaling of network depth, width, and resolution in a balanced manner [30]. This architecture employs a technique known as "Compound Model Scaling," which carefully increases these components to maintain a balance between depth and width, allowing for improved accuracy without unnecessary computational overhead [31]. This study uses the base model of EfficientNet B0 with additional layer modifications as shown in Table 1.

# 2. MobileNet V2

The MobileNet model is built on depthwise separable convolution, which decomposes the standard convolution into two parts, a depthwise convolution and a pointwise 1×1 convolution [32]. This method reduces the number of parameters and computational cost while maintaining performance. The depthwise structure of MobileNet enables efficient processing, balancing accuracy and latency through controllable parameters [33]. In this study, the MobileNet V2 architecture is modified by adding several additional layers as described in Table 2. to enhance its performance for the classification task.

#### 3. DenseNet

DenseNet is a deep learning architecture that introduces the concept of dense concatenation to improve the training of deep networks. Unlike traditional architectures that rely on summing the outputs of previous layers, DenseNet connects each layer to every subsequent layer in a direct way. This dense concatenation allows the network to retain features from earlier layers, making it more efficient at learning complex representations [34]. Table 3 represents the layers of the DenseNet model that is used in this study.

### 4. AlexNet

Alexnet that is used in this study, consists of five convolutional layers and three fully connected layers. It is designed to process large image datasets, with the initial layer accepting an image of dimensions 227×227×3 (height, width, and depth for the RGB channels) [35]. AlexNet is particularly well known for its ability to extract complex features from images while balancing between speed and accuracy, making it an ideal choice for image classification tasks [36].

### 5. VGG16

VGG-16 is a CNN architecture developed by the Visual Geometry Group (VGG) at the University of Oxford. It is

an extension of AlexNet and is known for its deep structure, consisting of 16 layers. The key characteristics of VGG-16 include the use of 3×3 convolutional kernels stacked multiple times and 2×2 pooling layers for feature extraction. This design allows the model to capture more complex patterns in image data [37]. In this study, the base model used with additional modifications made to the architecture by adding extra layers, as outlined in Table 4.

### F. Performance Evaluation

The classification performance of each CNN architecture was comprehensively assessed using accuracy, precision, recall (sensitivity), specificity, F1-score, and the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC). These metrics were computed at the segment level, where each input corresponds to a single ECG spectrogram segment rather than an aggregated patientlevel decision. Each segment was labeled as "A" for apnea or "N" for normal based on the ground-truth annotations. Model predictions were obtained as probability scores from the final sigmoid activation layer, and a fixed decision threshold of 0.5 was applied to assign class labels. Segments with predicted probabilities ≥ 0.5 were assigned to the apnea class ("A"), while those below the threshold were assigned to the normal class, ("N").

The definitions of each performance metric follow standard binary classification formulations [49]. Accuracy measures the overall proportion of correctly classified segments and is defined as Eq. 14

$$Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN} \tag{14}$$

[49]:

$$Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN} \tag{14}$$

Table 1. The additional layer for EfficientNet.

No	Layer	Size	Activation
1.	Global Max Pooling	2D -	-
2.	Dropout	0.3	-
3.	Dense	1024	RelU
4.	Dense	1	Softmax

Table 2. The additional layer for MobileNet V2.

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No	Layer	Size	Activation	
1.	Global Average Pooling 2D	-	-	
2.	Dense	64	RelU	
3.	Dropout	0.5	-	
4.	Dense	1	Softmax	

Table 3. The DenseNet architecture.

No	Layer	Size	Activation
1.	Conv2D	64	RelU
2.	Max Pooling 2D	3×3	-
3.	Dense	32	RelU
4.	Transition Layer	-	-
5.	Dense	32	RelU
6.	Transition Layer	- /	-
7.	Dense	32	RelU
8.	Average Pooling 2D	7×7	_
9.	Flatten	-	-
10.	Dense	1	Softmax

Table 4 The additional layer for VGG16.

No	Layer	Size	Activation
1.	Flatten	-	-
2.	Dense	64	RelU
3.	Dropout	0.5	-
4.	Dense	1	Softmax

Precision reflects the proportion of correctly identified apnea segments among all predicted apnea cases (Eq. 15):

$$Precision = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \tag{15}$$

Recall (or sensitivity) measures the proportion of actual apnea segments correctly identified (Eq. 16):

$$Recall = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \tag{16}$$

Finally, the F1-score represents the harmonic mean of precision and recall (Eq. 17):

$$F1Score = \frac{2 \times Precision \times Recall}{Precision + Recall}$$
 (17)

where TP is True Positive, TN is True Negative, FP is False Positive, and FN is False Negative. True Positives (TP) and True Negatives (TN) represent correct predictions made by the model. False Positives (FP) and False Negatives (FN) represent errors in the model's predictions.

In addition to these threshold-dependent metrics, the AUC was calculated to provide a threshold-independent measure of the model's discriminative ability. The ROC curve was generated by varying the classification threshold from 0 to 1, plotting the true positive rate (TPR) against the false positive rate (FPR) at each threshold. The AUC value was then obtained by integrating the ROC curve, providing a single scalar value that summarizes performance across all possible thresholds [50]. AUC is particularly informative for imbalanced datasets, as it

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able 5 Cla	able 5 Classification results for each architectures.				
No	CNN Architecture	Accuracy (%) [95% CI]	Precision (%) [95% CI]	Recall (%) [95% CI]I	F1-Score(%) [95% CI]
1.	EfficientNet	91.01 [89.53–91.53]	90.70 [88.32– 90.88]	95.76 [94.81–96.58]	92.61 [91.81–93.36]
2.	MobileNet V2	84.48 [83.22–85.68]	88.71 [87.26–90.06]	85.76 [84.19–87.22]	87.21 [86.06–88.28]
3.	DenseNet	88.36 [86.99–89.19]	89.62 [88.25–90.88]	91.33 [90.04–92.50]	90.47 [89.54–91.45]
4.	AlexNet	89.04 [87.94– 90.07]	92.14 [90.89–93.27]	89.90 [88.53–91.16]	91.01 [90.09–91.91]
5.	VGG16	85.98 [84.77–87.13]	90.23 [88.85–91.49]	86.66 [85.13–88.09]	88.41 [87.36–89.47]

considers the trade-off between sensitivity and specificity without being dependent on a single cutoff point. [50], [51] To assess the stability and statistical reliability of the reported performance, 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were computed for all evaluation metrics. For accuracy, precision, recall, and specificity, the Clopper-Pearson exact method was applied, as it provides robust interval estimates for proportions, even with moderate sample sizes [52]. The inclusion of these CIs enables a more rigorous comparison between models by quantifying the variability of performance metrics.

#### III. Results

Table 5 presents the classification results of five CNN architectures used for detecting sleep apnea from ECG spectrogram images. Among all models, EfficientNet demonstrated the highest performance with an accuracy of 91.01%, precision of 90.70%, recall of 95.76%, and an F1-score of 92.61%. The narrow Confidence Intervals (Cis) indicate stable and reliable performance, while the very high recall highlights its ability to detect apnea cases with minimal false negatives. The consistent balance across all metrics indicates its robustness in both detecting apnea and correctly identifying normal cases.

EfficientNet's superiority is further evidenced by its confusion matrix and ROC curve, as shown in Fig. 3a and Fig. 4a. The confusion matrix reveals that the model makes very few classification errors, with a high number of true positives and true negatives. Its ROC curve exhibits a near-perfect shape, resulting in a high AUC score, which signifies excellent discriminative ability between the two classes. The compound scaling strategy used in EfficientNet likely contributes to its effective balance of depth, width, and resolution, enabling it to extract relevant features more efficiently than the other architectures.

In contrast, MobileNet V2 yielded the lowest performance among the evaluated models, with an accuracy of 84.48% and an F1-score of 87.21%. The

confusion matrix in Fig. 3b reveals an increase in false positives and false negatives, indicating that the model struggles to generalize well on unseen data. Fig. 4b also shows a lower AUC on the ROC curve, reflecting a decline in sensitivity and specificity. This could be attributed to the lightweight nature of MobileNet V2, which trades off representational computational efficiency, making it less suitable for biomedical signal classification complex DenseNet performed relatively well, achieving an accuracy of 88.36% and Feffi an F1-score of 90.47%. Its confusion matrix in Fig. 3c shows a strong ability to correctly classify both normal and apnea events, though some misclassifications still occur. Fig. 4c illustrates a stable ROC curve with an AUC close to EfficientNet, which reinforces DenseNet's strong feature extraction capabilities. The dense connectivity mechanism in DenseNet, which facilitates feature reuse across layers, likely enhances its performance in learning subtle variations present in the spectrograms.

AlexNet, while being one of the older architectures, achieved an accuracy of 89.04% and an F1-score of 91.01%, which is competitive with more modern models. The confusion matrix in Fig. 3d reveals a well-balanced prediction with relatively low false positives and false negatives. Its ROC curve in Fig. 4d also suggests high classification confidence, with an AUC nearing that of DenseNet. This performance highlights that, with appropriate modifications, classical CNN models like AlexNet can still be effective for biomedical classification tasks, particularly when the input images are rich in spatial patterns. VGG16 showed moderate performance with an accuracy of 85.98% and an F1-score of 88.41%. As depicted in Fig. 3e, the confusion matrix reflects more frequent misclassifications. Fig. 4e displays a flatter ROC curve with a lower AUC, indicating limited discriminative power between apnea and normal conditions. Despite its deeper architecture, the lack of advanced optimization strategies such as regularization or fine-tuning may have hindered VGG16's ability to generalize, especially when applied to spectrogram data

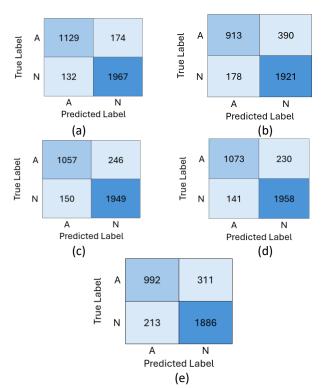


Fig. 3. Confusion matrix results (a) EfficientNet, (b) MobineNet V2, (c) DenseNet, (d) Alexnet, (e) VGG16.

derived from physiological signals. The inclusion of 95% confidence intervals offers a statistical perspective on model performance stability and comparability.

EfficientNet exhibits consistently narrow CIs across all metrics, indicating low variability and high reliability in classification results. For accuracy, EfficientNet's CI does not overlap with that of MobileNet V2 or VGG16, suggesting a statistically meaningful advantage over these models. However, its CI overlaps with those of DenseNet and AlexNet, indicating that the observed differences in accuracy with these two models may not be statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. Therefore, to determine the best-performing model, further statistical analysis should be conducted using the AUC values. EfficientNet achieved the highest AUC (0.97), with no confidence interval overlap with other models. This indicates stronger evidence of its superior discriminative ability. The ROC curves further support this, showing a sharper rise and larger enclosed area for EfficientNet.

## IV. Discussion

EfficientNet achieved the highest overall performance with 91.01% accuracy, 90.70% precision, 95.76% recall, and an F1-score of 92.61%. These results demonstrate its ability to balance sensitivity and specificity more effectively than the other CNNs. Importantly, its recall of

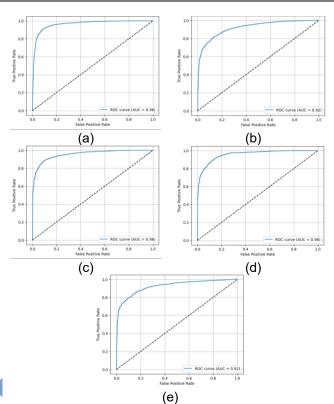


Fig. 4. Receiver Operating Curve (ROC): (a) EfficientNet, (b) MobineNet V2, (c) DenseNet, (d) Alexnet, (e) VGG16.

95.76% indicates that almost all apnea events were correctly detected, minimizing the risk of missed diagnoses, while maintaining high precision ensures that false positives are kept low.

Compared to MobileNet V2 (84.48% accuracy, 85.76% recall) and VGG16 (85.98% accuracy, 86.66% recall), EfficientNet shows a clear advantage in identifying subtle time—frequency variations. DenseNet (88.36% accuracy, 91.33% recall) and AlexNet (89.04% accuracy, 89.90% recall) performed reasonably well, but EfficientNet's superior balance across all metrics resulted in the best F1-score, highlighting its reliability as a decision-support tool. Although AlexNet achieved slightly higher precision (92.14%), its recall was lower than EfficientNet's, meaning it missed more true apnea cases. In clinical contexts, EfficientNet's higher recall is more valuable, since under-diagnosis is riskier than occasional false alarms.

From a clinical perspective, the reported performance metrics also carry significant implications. The high recall (95.76%) achieved by EfficientNet suggests a strong ability to correctly identify apnea events, which is critical in medical diagnostics where missing true positive cases could lead to untreated sleep disorders and subsequent health risks. Conversely, maintaining a high precision (90.70%) ensures that false

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Table 6 Comparison of previous studies			
Ref	Dataset	Classifier	Result
[13]	Physionet	AlexNet, GoogleNet and	Scalograms
-	•	ResNet18 models	Accuracy:82.30%
			Sensitivity: 83.22%
			Specificity: 82.27%
			Spectrograms
			Accuracy: 80.13%
			Sensitivity: 81.99%
[16]	-	Squeeze-Net, Res-Net50, and	Accuracy: 94.81%
-		OSACN-Net	•
[55]	-	FASSNet	Accuracy: 87.09% Sensitivity: 77.96%
			Specificity: 91.74%, F1 score: 81.61%
[56]	Physionet	Lightweight CNN	Accuracy: 94.30% Sensitivity: 94.30%
	•		Specificity 94.51%
[57]	Physionet	2D-CNN	Accuracy: 92.4%, Recall: 92.3%
-	•		Specificity: 92.6%,
Proposed	Physionet	EfficientNet	Accuracy: 91.01%
Method	-		Precision: 90.70%
			Recall: 90.18%
			F1-score: 90.48%

alarms are minimized, preventing unnecessary stress or further diagnostic procedures for patients wrongly identified as having sleep apnea. In real-world scenarios, balancing sensitivity and specificity is essential to ensure reliable screening tools. A model with high sensitivity ensures that most apnea cases are detected, which aligns with clinical priorities of minimizing missed diagnoses [44], [53], [54]. Meanwhile, adequate specificity reduces the chance of overdiagnosis of false-positive results. The performance demonstrated by EfficientNet across all four metrics, reflects not only strong technical performance but also potential clinical viability as a decision-support tool in sleep apnea detection.

EfficientNet demonstrates significant advantages in its ability to outperform certain models compared to the previous studies listed in Table 6. Compared to the studies in [13] and [55], EfficientNet achieves higher test accuracy by leveraging its scalable architecture and improved feature extraction capabilities. While [13] mployed AlexNet, GoogleNet, and ResNet18 for OSA prediction from ECG spectrograms and scalograms, their best spectrogram-based result was 80.13% accuracy, notably lower than our 91.01%. Similarly, [55] proposed the lightweight FASSNet model for wearablebased SA detection, which achieved 87.09% accuracy, still below the performance of EfficientNet in this study. These differences may be attributed to EfficientNet's compound scaling strategy, which balances network depth, width, and resolution to capture discriminative time-frequency patterns more effectively without excessive computational cost.

However, despite these advantages, EfficientNet surpass does not some recent state-of-the-art approaches such as OSACN-Net [16], the hybrid scalogram-spectrogram method in [56], and the fused time-frequency image model in [57], which were optimized for higher accuracy, which reported segmentlevel accuracies exceeding 92%. These higher performances can be linked to specialized optimizations such as combining complementary time-frequency representations, integrating noise-robust preprocessing, or employing hybrid deep learning modules that were not implemented in our approach. In contrast, our method focuses solely on spectrogram images from single-lead ECG data without data fusion or multi-modal integration, which may limit absolute accuracy in comparison to such enhanced methods.

The primary limitation of this study lies in computational constraints, as the large number of spectrogram images processed during training resulted in only 20 epochs being used. This explains why the performance plateaued at an accuracy of 91.01% and F1-score of 92.61%, rather than approaching the >94% accuracy reported by some state-of-the-art models in Table 6. The relatively short training duration likely limited EfficientNet's ability to progressively refine deeper feature hierarchies, especially when dealing with spectrograms that encode intricate time-frequency patterns of ECG signals, where learning subtle temporal variations and frequency shifts is essential for accurate apnea detection.

Extending the training duration could have facilitated better convergence and potentially improved the model's ability to generalize to unseen data. Under-optimized

models risk overlooking critical features that distinguish pathological from normal patterns, especially in biomedical contexts where minor signal deviations may carry diagnostic importance. The constrained training may therefore have impacted the depth and richness of the learned representations, possibly capping the model's full potential. More prolonged training or staged finetuning could allow the network to reach a more stable convergence and extract more discriminative features, ultimately improving diagnostic reliability. In addition, applying fine-tuning techniques or incorporating early stopping based on validation loss could help determine whether the model had reached performance saturation or still had room for improvement [13]. Exploring these strategies in future work would enhance the robustness and scalability of the proposed method. However, given the computational limitations in this study, such extensions were not feasible. Nonetheless, certain optimization techniques such as early stopping could be explored to partially address training limitations without incurring significant additional computational cost. By monitoring validation loss or accuracy during training, early stopping can help identify the optimal point where further training would not yield meaningful improvement, thereby improving model generalization without requiring more epochs. This approach may serve as a practical compromise in resource-constrained settings.

While the results obtained from the PhysioNet dataset are promising [56], assessing the model's performance across diverse datasets and real-world scenarios remains an important consideration. In clinical practice, ECG signals may vary substantially due to differences in patient demographics, recording environments, or device specifications. Such heterogeneity can affect classification performance, particularly if the model has become too specialized to the training distribution. Broader evaluation across heterogeneous data sources would provide deeper insight into the model's robustness and its readiness for clinical deployment.

Another methodological limitation concerns the potential influence of class imbalance in the dataset, with a higher number of normal segments compared to apnea segments. This imbalance may have contributed to the observed gap between recall (95.76%) and precision (90.70%), indicating that while the model was highly sensitive to apnea events, it also produced more false positives than ideal. Although stratified splitting [56] was used to maintain proportional distribution during training, imbalance may still affect classification performance, particularly metrics such as precision and recall. In such scenarios, models may become biased toward the majority class. Techniques such as class-weighted loss functions, oversampling of the minority class, or synthetic data generation could be explored to improve sensitivity

to underrepresented classes without altering the overall dataset composition.

Transfer learning using pre-trained models on related domains could significantly reduce training time while maintaining high accuracy. Transfer learning allows a model to leverage pre-trained weights from large-scale datasets, enabling more efficient feature extraction even when domain-specific data is limited [58]. Fine-tuning selected layers of these pre-trained models can adapt them to the unique characteristics of ECG spectrograms, thereby improving sensitivity to subtle apnea-related patterns without requiring excessively large training datasets [13], [58]. Exploring these methods will not only improve performance but also ensure scalability when applied to larger or more heterogeneous datasets.

# IV. Conclusion

Study about computer based sleep apnea diagnosis system based on deep learning method has been widely used. Most of the methods have limitation in the quality of the features that leads to the shallow analysis of the obtained results. Time-frequency analysis has been explored in some prior works and it can present an optimal the information for deep learning architectures. This study reinforces the potential of deep learning applied to spectrogram transformed ECG signals as a viable solution for automated sleep apnea detection. By utilizing time-frequency representations of ECG signals, the proposed method enables meaningful feature extraction that supports accurate classification of sleep apnea conditions. EfficientNet demonstrated notable advantages due to its compound scaling strategy by obtaining accuracy, precision, recall and F1-score of 91.01%, 90.70%, 90.18%, and 90.48%, respectively. This method is able to balance the depth, width, and resolution to enhance learning efficiency. Its ability to process spectrogram features effectively underlines the importance of model scalability and architectural optimization in biomedical signal classification tasks. Despite these strengths, the study was limited by computational constraints, particularly the short training duration, which may have hindered the model's full optimization. Future studies should consider extending training duration and applying fine-tuning techniques to enhance feature learning and generalization capability. To address computational limitations and improve model efficiency in future studies, several strategies can be explored.

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#### **Conflict of Interest Statement**

The authors declare that they have no competing interests. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

#### **Author Contribution**

Sugondo Hadiyoso conceptualized and designed the study, and participated in data analysis and interpretation. Inung Wijayanto contributed simulation and editing of the manuscript. Ayu Sekar Safitri performed the classification simulation, interpretation, and analysis. Thalita Dewi Rahmaniar compared the performance and assisted with the analysis. Achmad Rizal collected the dataset and . Suman Lata Tripathi provided critical feedback on the manuscript. All authors have read and approved the final version of the manuscript and agree to its publication.

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## **Data Availability**

The dataset supporting the findings of this study is publicly available on: https://www.physionet.org/content/apnea-ecg/1.0.0/.

# Declarations Ethical Approval

This study used existing, publicly available datasets. The original data collection was conducted in accordance with ethical standards and was approved by the appropriate institutional review boards.

### **Competing Interests**

The authors have no competing interests to disclose.

# Declaration of Generalif Al and Al-assisted technologies in the writing process

Authors declare that during the preparation of this study, the author used ChatGPT (GPT-5.0) to improve the language and readability of the manuscript. After the use of this tool/service, the author(s) reviewed the result and edited the content as needed and take(s) full responsibility for the content of the publications

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# **Author Biography**



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