

000 001 SLEEP2VEC: UNIFIED CROSS-MODAL ALIGNMENT 002 FOR HETEROGENEOUS NOCTURNAL BIOSIGNALS 003 004

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007 008 ABSTRACT 009

011 Tasks ranging from sleep staging to clinical diagnosis traditionally rely on stan-
012 dard polysomnography (PSG) devices, bedside monitors and wearable devices,
013 which capture diverse nocturnal biosignals (e.g., EEG, EOG, ECG, SpO₂). How-
014 ever, heterogeneity across devices and frequent sensor dropout pose signifi-
015 cant challenges for unified modelling of these multimodal signals. We present
016 *sleep2vec*, a foundation model for diverse and incomplete nocturnal biosig-
017 nals that learns a shared representation via cross-modal alignment. *sleep2vec*
018 is contrastively pre-trained on 42,249 overnight recordings spanning nine modal-
019 ities using a *Demography, Age, Site & History-aware InfoNCE* objective that in-
020 corporates physiological and acquisition metadata (e.g., age, gender, recording
021 site) to dynamically weight negatives and mitigate cohort-specific shortcuts. On
022 downstream sleep staging and clinical outcome assessment, *sleep2vec* consis-
023 tently outperforms strong baselines and remains robust to any subset of available
024 modalities and sensor dropout. We further characterize, to our knowledge for the
025 first time, scaling laws for nocturnal biosignals with respect to modality diversity
026 and model capacity. Together, these results show that unified cross-modal align-
027 ment, coupled with principled scaling, enables label-efficient, general-purpose
028 modelling of real-world nocturnal biosignals.

029 1 INTRODUCTION 030

031 Sleep is a central determinant of human health, it shapes cognition, metabolism, cardiovascular func-
032 tion, and mental well-being, and its disruption both signals and drives disease (Irwin, 2015; Mukher-
033 jee et al., 2015; Leng et al., 2019; Lim et al., 2023). Sleep is clinically assessed with polysomnogra-
034 phy (PSG) (Bloch, 1997; Boulos et al., 2019), which is a gold standard multi-sensor recording that
035 jointly measures neural and ocular electrophysiology, muscle tone, cardiorespiratory dynamics, and
036 oxygen saturation. Outside the clinical facilities, a growing range of bedside monitors and wearable
037 devices captures subsets of these PSG modalities, creating a fragmented landscape across devices
038 and care settings (Paalasmaa et al., 2012; Sadek et al., 2020; Birrer et al., 2024; Yu et al., 2025; Pillai
039 et al., 2025). This reality motivates the question:

040 “ Can cross-modal alignment of nocturnal biosignals enable a unified physiological representation
041 that generalizes robustly across heterogeneous sensor sets in sleep medicine? ”

042 Physiological signal pre-training offers a promising paradigm by learning generalized representa-
043 tions from diverse biosignals with minimal supervision (Thapa et al., 2024; 2025; Pillai et al., 2025;
044 Fox et al., 2025). Yet real-world data bring hard constraints, sensor montages vary across centers and
045 devices, sampling rates differ, entire channels are often missing, and large-scale expert annotation
046 remains costly, making such a foundation both necessary and challenging.

047 We posit that concurrent nocturnal signals represent multiple perspectives of the same latent phys-
048 iological state (Rechtschaffen & Kales, 1968; Berry et al., 2012; 2017). A proper alignment of
049 these heterogeneous views into a unified representation space enables downstream tasks to flexibly
050 operate on arbitrary modalities without retraining specialized pipelines. Such a space must yield
051 modality-agnostic representations robust enough to ensure reliable inference even when modality
052 missing occurs. This leads to a scaling hypothesis, suggesting that increasing modality diversity and
053 model capacity can enrich semantic coverage and regularize modality-specific nuances. Although
scaling laws have been extensively studied in language and vision, their implications remain largely

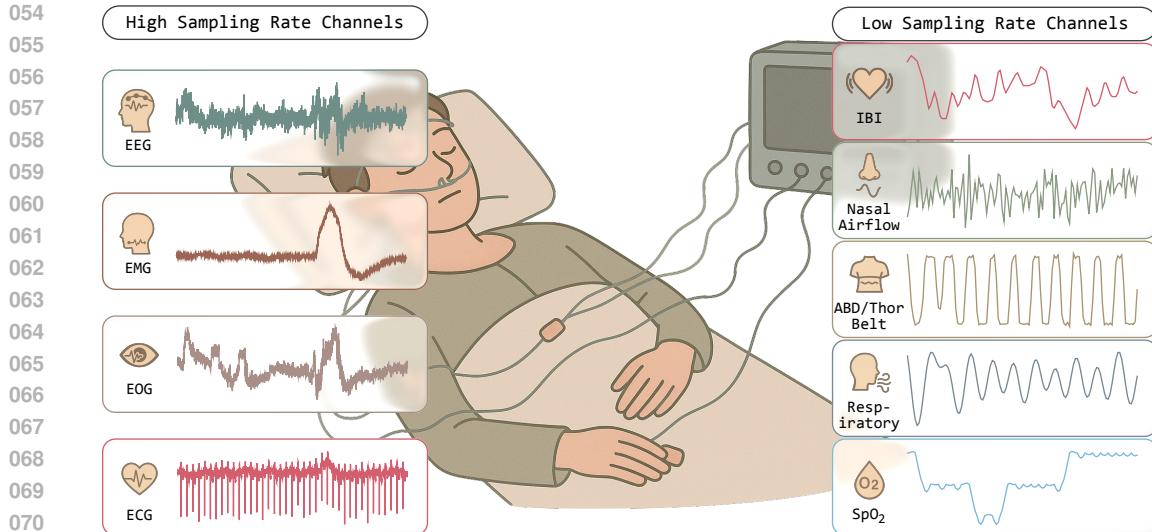


Figure 1: Polysomnography (PSG) captures diverse physiological signals, illustrated here as 30-second segments for each modality. High sampling rate electrophysiological channels include EEG, EMG, EOG, and ECG, while lower sampling rate cardiopulmonary and oximetry channels encompass Nasal Airflow, Abdominal/Thoracic Belt (ABD/Thor Belt), and SpO₂. Inter-Beat Interval (IBI) and Respiratory effort (RESP) signals, although not directly recorded by PSG, are derived from ECG and ABD/Thor Belt signals, respectively, and can also be measured via wearable devices. Together, these concurrent nocturnal signals provide complementary perspectives on a shared latent physiological state, highlighting the multimodal complexity inherent to sleep monitoring.

unexplored in physiological signal contexts. We therefore propose and evaluate a framework demonstrating predictable benefits of scaling PSG foundation models along both modality and parameter axes, especially for cross-center generalization where variations in sensor montage, demographics, and acquisition protocols are prevalent.

Prior work only partially addresses these needs. Existing models are typically trained for a specific downstream task (Wang et al., 2024; Shen et al., 2024; Carter et al., 2024; Pan et al., 2024; Shen et al., 2024; Lee et al., 2025; Ma et al.; Fox et al., 2025), lacking the generality required of a foundation model capable of supporting multiple tasks. Contrastive pre-training has shown promise on limited sets of physiological, typically one to three channels (*e.g.*, EEG and ECG) (Wang et al., 2024; Mathew et al., 2024; Thapa et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2025; Thapa et al., 2025), but has not scaled to the full palette of PSG sensors. When more modalities are involved, objectives often prioritize reconstruction (Narayanswamy et al., 2024; Luo et al., 2024; Mathew et al., 2024; Nie et al., 2025) rather than explicit cross-modal alignment. Reconstruction encourages fidelity to modality-specific details but does not enforce that heterogeneous inputs map to a shared semantic manifold. As a result, inference typically assumes access to the same modality set used in training, degrading under realistic sensor missing scenarios. Moreover, systematic analyses of how performance scales with modalities and parameters are scarce.

We address these gaps with `sleep2vec`, a PSG foundation model that aligns heterogeneous nocturnal signals into a unified embedding space. Our framework jointly leverages nine modalities, waveform channels including EEG, EOG, EMG, ECG, Nasal airflow, Abdominal/Thoracic Belt (ABD/Thor Belt) and SpO₂; and interval-derived features including Inter-beat Interval (IBI) and Respiratory effort, from 42,249 nights of physiological recordings. A context-aware InfoNCE objective, explicitly modelling physiological similarity (age, gender, recording center) to dynamically weight samples, effectively distinguishes hard from easy negatives, mitigating overfitting to dataset-specific nuances.

Our work makes the following contributions:

108 (i) Unified multimodal PSG pre-training: We propose, to our knowledge, the largest scale multi-
 109 modal contrastive pre-training framework for PSG foundation models, jointly aligning waveform
 110 and interval-based modalities, uncovering comprehensive inter-modal physiological correlations.
 111
 112 (ii) Scaling law investigation: We systematically explore scaling PSG foundation models along
 113 modality diversity and parameter dimensions, demonstrating predictable improvements in cross-
 114 cohort generalization with minimal task-specific labels.
 115
 116 (iii) Cross-modal training objective: We propose *Demography, Age, Site & History-aware InfoNCE*
 117 (DASH-InfoNCE), a context-aware contrastive objective that conditions negative-sample weighting
 118 on demographic, age, acquisition-site, and recording-history metadata. This metadata-guided
 119 weighting suppresses cohort-specific shortcuts and improves robustness and cross-site generaliza-
 120 tion across heterogeneous PSG sensor montages.
 121
 122 (iv) Comprehensive downstream evaluation: We extensively evaluate sleep2vec on both SHHS and
 123 WSC datasets, spanning tasks such as sleep staging, demographic prediction, and diagnostic out-
 124 comes, representing the broadest evaluation of a PSG foundation model to date.
 125

2 RELATED WORK

126 **Multimodal alignment for flexible inference.** Contrastive alignment maps heterogeneous inputs
 127 into a shared embedding space, enabling zero-shot transfer, retrieval, and robustness to input per-
 128 mutations. In vision–language, CLIP popularized large-scale image–text alignment (Radford et al.,
 129 2021), and many-to-one binding across six modalities in ImageBind (Girdhar et al., 2023). *In par-
 130 ticular, PSG contains tens of synchronized channels (EEG, EOG, EMG, ECG, Nasal airflow, Respi-
 131 ratory effort, SpO₂, etc.), yet prior multimodal alignment works seldom extend beyond EEG-only or
 132 a few paired channels, and rarely handle montage shifts at this scale.*

133 **Self-supervised learning for sleep and PSG data.** Self-supervised learning (SSL) for sleep data
 134 has evolved from early approaches targeting task-specific objectives such as sleep staging using
 135 fixed PSG montages (Supratak et al., 2017; Perslev et al., 2021), toward broader pre-training
 136 frameworks. Recent works emphasize constructing foundational models but typically remain limited by:
 137 (i) pre-training strategies narrowly tailored to single downstream tasks or restricted label sets (Fox
 138 et al., 2025), (ii) alignment restricted to selected subsets of PSG channels, thus failing to address
 139 comprehensive multimodal integration (Fang et al., 2024; Narayanswamy et al., 2024; Luo et al.,
 140 2024; Thapa et al., 2024; 2025), or (iii) employing cross-modal generative methods that priori-
 141 tize modality-specific signal fidelity rather than explicitly aligning heterogeneous modalities (Chen
 142 et al., 2024; Nie et al., 2025). *Consequently, cross-modal alignment covering the full PSG spectrum
 143 remains largely unexplored, with most pre-training focusing on fixed, small montages.*

144 **Scaling and generalization.** In language and vision, performance follows predictable trends as
 145 model and data scale. Despite rapid progress, systematic studies of scaling laws for physiological
 146 time series and PSG remain sparse. Existing PSG SSL studies seldom probe modality-diversity
 147 scaling or parameter scaling. *To our knowledge, systematic modality-diversity scaling has not been
 148 charted in sleep; existing studies also under-report parameter/data scaling for PSG SSL, leaving
 149 open how capability grows with both model size and channel count.*

3 METHOD

3.1 DATASET AND PREPROCESSING

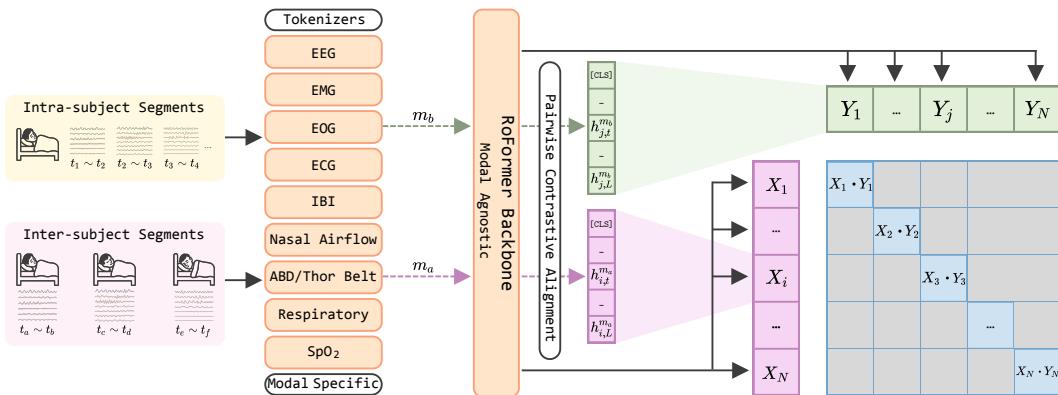
155 We leveraged publicly available PSG datasets for pre-training, including the Human Sleep Project
 156 (HSP) (Sun et al., 2023) and four cohorts obtained from the National Sleep Research Resource
 157 (NSRR) (Zhang et al., 2018): the Sleep Heart Health Study (SHHS) (Quan et al., 1997), Osteo-
 158 porotic Fractures in Men Study (MrOS) (Blackwell et al., 2011), Multi-Ethnic Study of Atheroscle-
 159 sis (MESA) (Chen et al., 2015), and Wisconsin Sleep Cohort (WSC) (Young et al., 2009), collec-
 160 tively encompassing multi-center, multi-device acquisitions from diverse demographic populations
 161 (age range: 1-109; recording span: 1995-present). Table 4 presents an overview of the five datasets
 involved. The five datasets were harmonized into a unified corpus comprising 42,249 overnight

162 recordings from 30,852 subjects, processed through a standardized pipeline to minimize cohort-
 163 specific biases and ensure symmetrical handling during batching and evaluation.
 164

165 A pool of nine PSG channels across cohorts was established as shown in Figure 1: comprising
 166 two groups of signals differentiated by sampling rates: higher sampling rate electrophysiological
 167 signals, including EEG, EOG, EMG, ECG uniformly resampled to 128 Hz, and lower sampling
 168 rate physiological signals, including Nasal airflow, ABD/Thor belt, SpO₂, Inter-Beat Interval (IBI)
 169 and respiratory signals uniformly resampled to 4 Hz. Only minimal preprocessing is applied to the
 170 higher sampling rate signals to preserve raw signal characteristics crucial for downstream physiolog-
 171 ical interpretation, involving temporal resampling to the target frequency and z-score normalization
 172 with cohort-invariant statistics. The IBI channel is derived from ECG R-peak detection, with raw
 173 inter-beat intervals cleaned for outliers and artifacts and then linearly interpolated to a continuous 4
 174 Hz sequence. The Respiratory effect reflects breathing cycles extracted from either Nasal Airflow
 175 or Abdominal Belt, standardized by band-limiting, and resampling to 4 Hz. Both IBI and Respira-
 176 tory effect can be captured not only by PSG but also using simpler, low-burden hardware such as
 177 ballistocardiography mats or other contactless sensors (Chen et al., 2025).

178 Participant information is retained when available, including age, gender, and recording site, to fa-
 179 cilitate cohort-aware analysis and difficulty estimation during pre-training. Participant-level data
 180 partitions are established to prevent data leakage across splits. A dedicated pre-training split
 181 ($N_{\text{pre-train}}=23,934$ participants) is exclusively reserved for foundation model learning, while down-
 182 stream splits follow an 8:1:1 ratio ($N_{\text{train}}/N_{\text{val}}/N_{\text{test}}=8,792/1,102/1,116$), ensuring no participant over-
 183 lap and identical modality coverage. For downstream evaluation, sleep staging labels on SHHS and
 184 WSC as well as clinical diagnosis labels on SHHS were aligned with the same participant-level
 185 splits as in pre-training, ensuring consistency and preventing any data leakage.

186 3.2 MODEL ARCHITECTURE



200 Figure 2: An illustration of the multimodal pre-training framework. Each overnight PSG record-
 201 ing is partitioned into intra-subject segments (different temporal slices from the same individual)
 202 and inter-subject segments (slices from different individuals), which are independently tokenized
 203 via modality-specific MLP tokenizers. A learnable [CLS] token is prepended to each masked se-
 204 quence before processing through a modality-agnostic RoFormer backbone. Hidden states from the
 205 backbone at each timestep are projected into a shared alignment space, enabling timestep-wise pair-
 206 wise contrastive alignment across modalities.
 207

208 A minimalistic tokenizer based on a multi-layer perceptron (MLP) was implemented, comprising
 209 two feed-forward layers and a residual connection. The tokenizer maps input 30-second fragments
 210 into embeddings of dimension D through an initial linear transformation that projects inputs into an
 211 intermediate hidden representation of dimension $2D$, activated by the SiLU nonlinearity (Elfwing
 212 et al., 2018) and regularized using dropout with a 0.1 probability. The choice of 30-second segments
 213 aligns with the standard epoch duration recommended by the American Academy of Sleep Medicine
 214 (AASM) guidelines (Berry et al., 2012; 2017) for polysomnographic analysis. Subsequently, this
 215 hidden representation is linearly transformed into the final embedding space (D). In parallel, a resid-
 216 ual linear transformation directly maps the inputs into the output embedding dimension, enhancing

gradient flow and training stability. A LayerNorm is further applied to the final embedding for normalization. Cross-modal sampling rate differences are resolved by encoding 30-second tokens into tokens of equal embedding dimension using modality-specific tokenizers, each operating directly on the original sampling rates, resulting in temporally aligned embeddings across modalities to be fed into the modality-agnostic backbone.

As shown in Figure 2, a simple yet effective sampling strategy is employed to maintain stable optimization as the number of modalities grows during pre-training: exactly two modalities (m_a, m_b) are randomly selected for each mini-batch, with one instance drawn from each modality, as shown in Figure 2. Independent time-step masking is then applied to these paired instances to enhance robustness and mitigate shortcut learning. Each 30-second token is of a 15% probability of being replaced by a learnable, modality-specific mask token, after which alignment is conducted exclusively between these masked segments. A dedicated learnable [CLS] token is prepended to the sequence, the resulting input is then processed through a modality-agnostic RoFormer backbone (Su et al., 2024). It is important to emphasize that the RoFormer backbone in sleep2vec should be viewed as one concrete instantiation of a generic modality-agnostic sequence encoder rather than a core contribution in isolation. The aim is not to advocate RoFormer as the uniquely optimal architecture for PSG, but to show that pairing a flexible backbone capable of ingesting arbitrary channel subsets with a metadata-aware contrastive alignment objective provides a simple and effective recipe for handling heterogeneous PSG montages. In principle, other Transformer style or state-space sequence encoders could be substituted without changing the overall framework, and we expect the benefits of unified cross-cohort pre-training and metadata-aware alignment to transfer across such choices. The backbone outputs hidden states for each timestep, as well as a global nocturnal representation at the [CLS] position. These hidden states are projected into a shared 128-dimensional alignment space via a shared three-layer MLP projection head, enabling the application of a cross-modal contrastive loss at each timestep.

During fine-tuning, both masking and the contrastive learning projection head are removed, and modal configurations remain fixed per downstream task. Task-specific heads directly operate on backbone features. Sequence-level tasks (e.g., sleep staging) use per-time-step hidden states, while aggregate tasks (e.g., gender, age, or clinical diagnosis) rely on the global nocturnal representation from the [CLS] position. When multiple modalities are available at inference, their representations are aggregated using simple fusion strategies such as averaging, concatenation, or a small gating module. Specific fusion methods employed per task are detailed in the experimental results section.

3.3 CROSS-MODAL ALIGNMENT OBJECTIVE: DASH-INFONCE

During pre-training, each mini-batch contains B paired segments, each of length L timesteps. For segment index $i \in \{1, \dots, B\}$, time index $t \in \{1, \dots, L\}$, and modality $m \in \{m_a, m_b\}$, denote $\mathbf{v}_{i,t}^{(m)} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ as the corresponding d -dimensional embedding. Given $\hat{\mathbf{v}}_{i,t}^{(m)}$ as its ℓ_2 normalized product given by $\hat{\mathbf{v}}_{i,t}^{(m)} = \mathbf{v}_{i,t}^{(m)} / \|\mathbf{v}_{i,t}^{(m)}\|_2$, the cosine similarity is

$$s_{i,j,t} = \langle \hat{\mathbf{v}}_{i,t}^{(m_a)}, \hat{\mathbf{v}}_{j,t}^{(m_b)} \rangle \in [-1, 1], \quad i, j \in \{1, \dots, B\}, t \in \{1, \dots, L\}, \quad (1)$$

where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ denotes the dot product. The index mapping $\pi : 1, \dots, B \rightarrow 1, \dots, B$ specifies the number of paired segments in modality m_b for an anchor in modality m_a , where batches are typically aligned such that $\pi(i) = i$. Demographic and acquisition metadata for segment i are denoted by (a_i, g_i, c_i, u_i) , where $a_i \in \mathbb{R}_+$, $g_i \in \mathcal{G}$, $c_i \in \mathcal{C}$, and u_i represent age, gender, acquisition site, and the subject-night identifier, respectively. These variables are used solely for weighting and modulation below and never as labels in the learning objective.

3.3.1 BASE FORMULATION: TEMPORAL INFONCE

With temperature $\tau > 0$, the baseline timestep InfoNCE loss aligning m_a to m_b is

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{base}}^{(t)} = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B \left[-\log \frac{\exp(s_{i,\pi(i),t}/\tau)}{\sum_{j=1}^B \exp(s_{i,j,t}/\tau)} \right]. \quad (2)$$

This objective encourages the similarity between the paired cross-modal embeddings $(i, \pi(i), t)$ to exceed the similarities to all in-batch, same-time candidates (i, j, t) with $j \neq \pi(i)$. The temperature coefficient τ controls the concentration of the induced softmax distribution.

270 3.3.2 PROPOSED DASH-INFONCE LOSS
271

272 A novel DASH-InfoNCE loss that reshapes the negative set by (i) metadata-driven sample weighting
273 and (ii) margin-based modulation of *pseudo-negatives* (*i.e.*, negatives from the same subject-night)
274 is introduced in this section. For anchor (i, t) , define

$$275 \ell_{\text{DASH}}(i, t) = -\log \frac{\exp(s_{i, \pi(i), t} / \tau)}{\sum_{j=1}^B \omega_{i,j} \exp([s_{i,j,t} - \gamma \psi(d_{i,j}, p_{i,j,t})] / \tau)}, \quad (3)$$

276 where $\omega_{i,j} \geq 0$ are segment-specific weights satisfying $\sum_{j=1}^B \omega_{i,j} = 1$, $\gamma \geq 0$ is a modulation
277 strength, and $\psi(\cdot, \cdot) \geq 0$ reduces the effective logit of designated pseudo-negatives before the soft-
278 max. The binary indicator $d_{i,j} \in \{0, 1\}$ selects which pairs are margin-modulated, with the convention
279 $d_{i, \pi(i)} = 0$ ensuring that positives are not penalized. The optional factor $p_{i,j,t} \in [0, 1]$ encodes time-
280 specific signals, and in our instantiation below, we set ψ to a fixed margin with $p_{i,j,t}$ absorbed into
281 that choice. Relative to Eq. (2), the numerator is unchanged while the denominator concentrates
282 probability mass on demographically similar, presumably harder negatives via $\omega_{i,j}$ and diminishes
283 the competitive strength of same-subject-night negatives through the subtractive margin $\gamma \psi$.
284

285 3.3.3 SAMPLE WEIGHTING MECHANISM
286

287 Let $\kappa : \mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ be a non-negative, symmetric kernel that decreases with the age difference
288 $|a_i - a_j|$. We further define similarity factors for gender and acquisition site as $s_{i,j}^{(g)} \in \{\gamma_{\text{same}}, \gamma_{\text{diff}}\}$
289 and $s_{i,j}^{(c)} \in \{\delta_{\text{same}}, \delta_{\text{diff}}\}$, with $\gamma_{\text{same}} > \gamma_{\text{diff}} \geq 0$ and $\delta_{\text{same}} > \delta_{\text{diff}} \geq 0$, where the value is chosen
290 according to whether $g_i = g_j$ and $c_i = c_j$, respectively.

291 Given the *pseudo-negative* indicator $h_{i,j} = \mathbb{I}[u_i = u_j \wedge j \neq \pi(i)] \in \{0, 1\}$, the unnormalized
292 weights are defined as $\alpha_{i,j} = \kappa(a_i, a_j) s_{i,j}^{(g)} s_{i,j}^{(c)} + \varepsilon h_{i,j}$, where $\varepsilon = 10^{-6}$. The normalized
293 weights are computed by

$$294 \omega_{i,j} = \frac{\alpha_{i,j}}{\sum_{k=1}^B \alpha_{i,k}}, \quad \sum_{j=1}^B \omega_{i,j} = 1. \quad (4)$$

295 This weighting scheme assigns higher values to negatives closely matched by age, gender, and
296 acquisition site. Constant ε ensures negatives from the same subject-night retain non-zero weights,
297 stabilizing the denominator in Eq. (3) when closely matched demographic negatives are rare.
298

300 3.3.4 PSEUDO-NEGATIVE MODULATION
301

302 We modulate only negatives drawn from the same subject-night. Let $d_{i,j} = h_{i,j}$ and take a margin-
303 only instantiation of ψ :

$$304 \psi(d_{i,j}, p_{i,j,t}) = \begin{cases} m, & d_{i,j} = 1, \\ 0, & d_{i,j} = 0, \end{cases} \quad m > 0. \quad (5)$$

305 By combining Eq. (5) and Eq. (3), the fixed margin γm is subtracted from the logits of same-subject-
306 night negatives prior to the softmax. This reduces the tendency to over-penalize semantically close
307 negatives originating from the same subject-night while preserving their presence in the denominator
308 through Eq. (4).
309

310 3.3.5 FINAL OBJECTIVE
311

312 The DASH-InfoNCE objective averages the per-anchor loss Eq. (3) over instances and time:

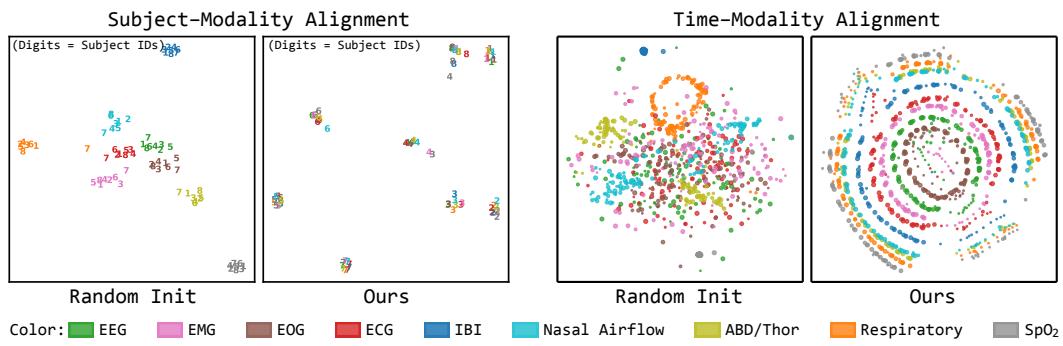
$$313 \mathcal{L}_{\text{DASH}}^{(t)} = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B \ell_{\text{DASH}}(i, t), \quad \mathcal{L}_{\text{DASH}} = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{t=1}^L \mathcal{L}_{\text{DASH}}^{(t)}. \quad (6)$$

314 Averaging across t enforces alignment at each timestep. Note that every component of Eq. (3)–Eq.
315 (6) depends only on demographic and acquisition metadata (a_i, g_i, c_i) and identifiers u_i via Eq. (4),
316 no downstream task labels are used during pre-training.
317

324 3.4 FEATURE FUSION
325

326 In multimodal physiological tasks, the way modality-specific features are fused/aggregated has a
327 direct impact on performance. A naïve **Concat** strategy (*i.e.* concatenating embeddings before clas-
328 sification) produces high-dimensional, sparse representations that inflate computation and sample
329 complexity, exacerbating overfitting. Conversely, **Mean** aggregation (*i.e.* element-wise averaging)
330 assumes equal informativeness and reliability across channels; in practice, physiological streams
331 differ in SNR and complementary content, so uniform averaging washes out modality-specific cues
332 and is brittle under missing sensors.

333 To address these limitations, we adopt the **Gating Mechanism**, which introduces learnable scalar
334 weights assigned to each modality. This approach adaptively emphasizes modalities based on their
335 informativeness, dynamically adjusting the contribution of each PSG channel. Consequently, it
336 yields a more expressive, compact, and task-oriented aggregated representation, enabling efficient
337 downstream learning.

340 4 EXPERIMENTS
341344 4.1 PRE-TRAINING DIAGNOSTICS: ALIGNMENT & RETRIEVAL
345

358
359 Figure 3: t-SNE visualization of encoder embeddings comparing random initialization and post-
360 pre-training results. **Left Panel (Subject-Modality Alignment):** Visualization of [CLS] token
361 embeddings shows that pre-training effectively clusters embeddings from different modalities into
362 distinct, subject-specific groups, indicating aligned subject-level physiological states. **Right Panel**
363 (**Time-Modality Alignment**): Visualization of timestep-level embeddings, dot sizes indicate tem-
364 poral ordering (larger → later). Pre-trained embeddings form structured trajectories, contrasting
365 with the scattered distribution observed prior to training.

366
367 To assess the effectiveness of multimodal alignment, Figure 3 (left panel) visualizes the [CLS] to-
368 ken embeddings using t-SNE both prior to and following pre-training. Initially, embeddings cluster
369 by modality, reflecting intrinsic modality-specific biases and heterogeneous signal characteristics.
370 After pre-training, embeddings from distinct modalities corresponding to the same subject are co-
371 herently grouped, indicating improved alignment and preservation of subject-specific structures.

372
373 Further analysis of timestep-level embeddings from a random subject (Figure 3, right panel) re-
374 veals structured trajectories emerging post-training, indicating an effective modality alignment at a
375 finer temporal resolution. The coordinated variation in dot sizes across concentric rings emphasizes
376 temporal consistency within the representations. Such consistency is beneficial for downstream se-
377 quential tasks like sleep staging, underscoring the practical advantages of the temporally aligned
378 sleep2vec embeddings.

378
 379 Table 1: Performance of five-class sleep staging (W/N1/N2/N3/REM) across PSG channel sets and
 380 models on **SHHS**. Reported metrics regarding overall performance including Accuracy (Acc., %),
 381 Cohen Kappa (κ), Macro-F1 (MF1, %), Sensitivity (Sens., %) and Specificity (Spec., %). Class-wise
 382 F1 (%) is also listed. Baselines reproduced by us for fair comparison are marked with \dagger . Note that
 383 these foundation model (FM) baselines were individually pre-trained for each PSG channel subset,
 384 whereas `sleep2vec` was pre-trained only once across all modalities. “FULL CHANNELS” refers
 385 to the fixed channel configuration that each model is designed for and individually pre-trained on.
 386 Underlined numbers indicate the best overall performance within each channel set; **bold numbers**
 387 denote the best performance among FMs; **bold-underlined numbers** indicate cases where the FM
 388 surpasses specialized models.

PSG Channel Set		Overall Performance (\uparrow)						Class-wise F1 (\uparrow)			
Inference Subset	Model	Acc.	κ	MF1	Sens.	Spec.	W	N1	N2	N3	REM
Specialized (non-FM) Model											
EEG	DeepSleepNet (Supratak et al., 2017)	81.0	0.73	—	—	73.9	85.4	40.5	82.5	79.3	81.9
	SleepEEGNet (Mousavi et al., 2019)	73.9	0.65	—	—	68.4	81.3	34.4	73.4	75.9	77.0
	AttnSleep (Eldele et al., 2021)	84.2	0.78	—	—	75.3	86.7	33.2	87.1	87.1	82.1
	XSleepNet1 (Phan et al., 2021)	87.6	<u>0.83</u>	80.7	79.7	<u>96.5</u>	91.6	<u>51.4</u>	<u>88.5</u>	85.0	88.4
	XSleepNet2 (Phan et al., 2021)	87.5	<u>0.83</u>	81.0	80.4	<u>96.5</u>	92.0	49.9	88.3	85.0	88.2
	L-SeqSleepNet (Phan et al., 2023)	87.6	<u>0.83</u>	80.3	79.4	<u>96.5</u>	92.4	48.6	88.2	83.9	88.5
	SleepTransformer (Phan et al., 2022)	87.7	0.83	80.1	78.7	<u>96.5</u>	92.2	46.1	88.3	<u>85.2</u>	88.6
Foundation Model											
EEG	SleepFM (Thapa et al., 2024; 2025) \dagger	86.3	0.81	76.3	75.3	96.1	93.2	36.6	86.3	77.3	88.1
	sleep2vec	87.4	0.82	77.3	76.2	96.1	92.4	40.1	86.5	77.7	88.7
Specialized (non-FM) Model											
IBI & RESP	Sun et al. (2019) \dagger	71.3	0.59	57.3	56.9	91.7	85.2	4.8	70.1	49.9	76.4
	Goldammer et al. (2022) \dagger	77.2	0.68	63.6	62.7	93.4	88.2	15.5	76.4	55.5	82.4
	Foundation Model										
	SleepFM (Thapa et al., 2024; 2025) \dagger	79.7	0.71	65.7	65.4	94.2	90.4	12.9	78.4	61.7	84.8
	SleepFounder (Nie et al., 2025) \dagger	80.9	0.73	68.3	67.0	94.5	91.3	22.3	80.0	61.1	85.9
	sleep2vec	83.0	0.75	65.9	65.8	95.1	86.6	5.3	80.3	60.9	84.9
	Foundation Model										
ECG & ABD	SleepFM (Thapa et al., 2024; 2025) \dagger	77.9	0.68	62.7	62.7	93.6	88.4	6.6	76.9	60.9	80.4
	sleep2vec	82.7	0.75	65.6	65.2	95.0	92.6	6.2	80.6	62.4	86.1
Specialized (non-FM) Model											
EEG & EOG & EMG	SeqSleepNet (Phan et al., 2019)	87.2	0.82	80.2	78.7	96.3	91.8	49.1	88.2	<u>83.5</u>	88.2
	XSleepNet1 (Phan et al., 2021)	<u>89.1</u>	<u>0.85</u>	82.3	81.2	<u>96.9</u>	—	—	—	—	—
	XSleepNet2 (Phan et al., 2021)	<u>89.1</u>	<u>0.85</u>	<u>82.2</u>	<u>81.4</u>	<u>96.9</u>	—	—	—	—	—
	Olesen et al. (2021)	85.8	0.79	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Foundation Model										
	SleepFM (Thapa et al., 2024; 2025) \dagger	87.0	0.82	78.0	77.8	96.4	93.6	40.7	86.8	77.8	90.9
	sleep2vec	88.3	0.83	78.7	77.9	96.8	94.5	40.6	87.8	79.8	89.0
Foundation Model											
FULL CHANNELS	SleepFM (Thapa et al., 2024; 2025) \dagger	86.7	0.81	77.3	76.9	96.3	93.4	39.2	86.7	77.1	90.3
	PFTSleep (Fox et al., 2025)	87.7	0.83	80.8	82.3	96.7	93.3	48.6	87.8	82.7	91.5
	sleep2vec (InfoNCE)	88.4	0.84	78.6	77.9	96.8	94.7	39.8	87.9	80.0	90.8
	sleep2vec	88.6	0.84	79.5	78.4	96.8	94.8	44.1	88.2	79.2	91.2

4.2 DOWNSTREAM FINE-TUNING RESULTS

4.2.1 SLEEP STAGING

We first assess the quality of the learned representations on sleep staging. Experiments are performed on the SHHS and WSC datasets, and the results are presented in Tables 1 and 15, respectively. Several trends can be observed from Table 1:

- (i) There remains a very limited number of comprehensive works on PSG data, as the majority of existing methods focus narrowly on single-channel EEG or small subsets of physiological signals. Specialized methods typically achieve top performance across available channel sets, setting a challenging baseline for foundation models.
- (ii) Foundation models generally exhibit lower performance compared to specialized sleep staging approaches optimized specifically for sleep data. This is evident in EEG-only scenarios, where specialized models consistently hold slight edges in overall metrics compared to baseline FM SleepFM (Acc. 86.6%) and sleep2vec (Acc. 87.4%). However, the gap is marginal, with sleep2vec nearly matching specialized models in certain metrics (κ of 0.82 vs. 0.83).

(iii) sleep2vec consistently outperforms baseline foundation models across all PSG channel subsets. Notable improvements appear in configurations such as “IBI & RESP”, where sleep2vec exceeds baseline FMs (Acc.: 83.0% vs. SleepFM 79.4% and SleepFounder 80.9%). sleep2vec can also achieve performance comparable to, and in certain cases surpassing, specialized models.

(iv) Increasing modality diversity appears beneficial, with sleep2vec consistently demonstrating performance gains when additional physiological signals are included. This trend highlights the scalability and utility of incorporating diverse modalities into foundational model frameworks, further underscoring the capability of sleep2vec to effectively leverage multimodal physiological signals.

To further assess cross-cohort generalization, we evaluate models fine-tuned on SHHS directly on the APPLES cohort, which is unseen during both pre-training and fine-tuning. As shown in Table 2, sleep2vec preserves strong robustness under distribution shift and consistently outperforms baseline methods.

Table 2: Cross-cohort evaluation of five-class sleep staging (W/N1/N2/N3/REM) across PSG channel sets and models on **unseen APPLES**. Models are fine-tuned on SHHS without seeing any data from APPLES during both pre-training and fine-tuning. “FULL CHANNELS” refers to the fixed channel configuration that each model is designed for and individually pre-trained on. Underlined numbers indicate the best overall performance within each channel set; **bold numbers** denote the best performance among FMs; **bold-underlined numbers** indicate cases where the FM surpasses specialized models.

PSG Channel Set		Model	Overall Performance (↑)					Class-wise F1 (↑)				
Inference Subset			Acc.	κ	MF1	Sens.	Spec.	W	N1	N2	N3	REM
Specialized (non-FM) Model												
		(Sun et al., 2019) †	63.6	0.46	48.8	56.4	89.0	78.6	1.7	68.5	20.2	75.2
		(Goldammer et al., 2022) †	67.7	0.53	53.1	61.2	90.4	79.9	7.5	72.6	25.8	79.5
Foundation Model												
IBI & RESP	SleepFM (Thapa et al., 2024; 2025) †	69.1	0.55	54.3	65.2	91.0	82.2	4.6	73.5	28.1	82.8	
	SleepFounder (Nie et al., 2025) †	68.8	0.55	55.6	67.3	91.0	85.5	8.8	71.9	27.2	84.6	
	sleep2vec (InfoNCE)	71.5	0.59	56.5	66.7	91.7	86.8	7.9	74.1	29.5	84.1	
	sleep2vec	73.2	0.61	57.8	66.2	92.1	86.5	10.2	76.5	31.5	84.2	
Foundation Model												
FULL CHANNELS	SleepFM (Thapa et al., 2024; 2025) †	71.4	0.59	60.0	58.9	91.6	85.5	24.5	75.8	32.0	81.5	
	sleep2vec (InfoNCE)	76.8	0.67	63.5	73.3	93.4	90.5	24.0	79.5	35.5	88.1	
	sleep2vec	78.4	0.69	65.2	72.0	93.8	89.6	27.3	81.8	39.0	88.2	

4.2.2 LEAVE-ONE-OUT ANALYSIS

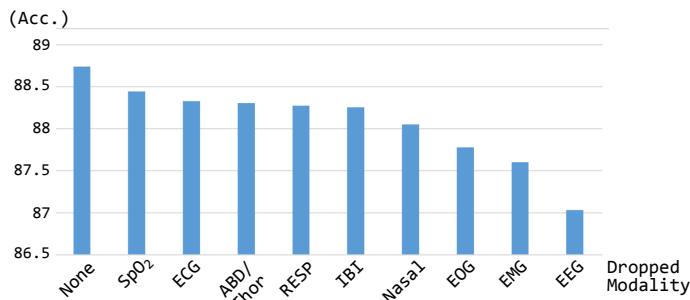
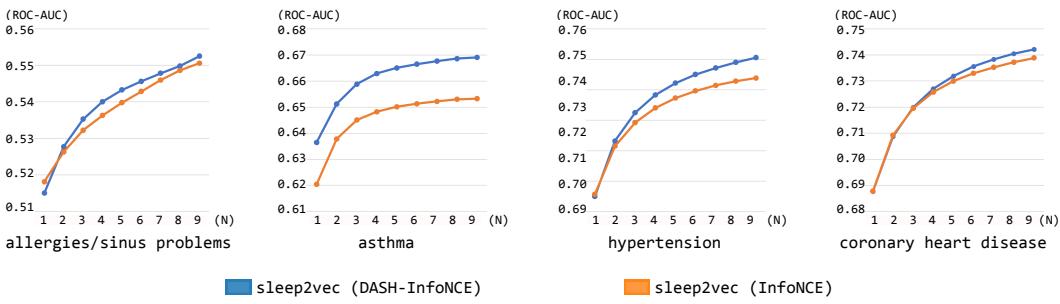


Figure 4: Leave-one-out analysis on the SHHS sleep staging task. Each bar represents model accuracy when one of the nine modalities is excluded during both pre-training and fine-tuning. The observed drop in accuracy relative to the full channels baseline (labeled “None”) reflects the contribution and relative importance of each individual modality to the overall model performance.

To further examine the role of individual modalities, we performed a leave-one-out (LOO) study, where one modality was excluded during both pre-training and fine-tuning. Using the same setup as in Section 4.2.1, we evaluated the model on the SHHS dataset. As shown in Figure 4, excluding modalities such as EEG or IBI leads to a substantial accuracy drop, while others (e.g., SpO₂, EOG) have relatively minor effects.

486 4.2.3 CLINICAL DISEASE PREDICTION AND MODALITY SCALING
487498 Figure 5: ROC-AUC scores for disease prediction tasks using varying numbers of modalities (N)
499 on the SHHS dataset. Results are averaged across all possible modality combinations of size N
500501 For clinical evaluation, four prevalent and clinically significant conditions are selected from the
502 SHHS dataset, including *allergies/sinus problems*, *asthma*, *hypertension* and *coronary heart disease*,
503 as shown in Figure 5. These conditions span two major physiological systems directly monitored by
504 PSG, the respiratory system and the cardiovascular system. By including these diverse clinical out-
505 comes, we explicitly test whether cross-modal embeddings generalize robustly across organ systems
506 and sensor subsets.507 Specifically, for a given number of modalities N , we enumerate all possible modality combinations,
508 build corresponding ensemble models, and report the average ROC-AUC. Results presented in Fig-
509 ure 5 demonstrate: (i) clear modality-scaling effects, as performance consistently improves as more
510 modalities are incorporated, suggesting a robust scaling law across clinical prediction tasks; (ii) the
511 proposed DASH-InfoNCE loss consistently outperforms the standard InfoNCE baseline, indicat-
512 ing its effectiveness in harnessing richer inter-modal physiological correlations. This performance
513 advantage of DASH-InfoNCE becomes increasingly pronounced with additional modalities, under-
514 scoring its efficacy in large-scale multimodal pre-training scenarios.515 5 CONCLUSION
516517 In this work, we introduced *sleep2vec*, a foundation model aligning multimodal polysomnogra-
518 phy (PSG) signals into a unified embedding space for robust physiological representation learning.
519 Leveraging over 42,000 overnight recordings and our novel DASH-InfoNCE loss, which accounts
520 for demographic, age, site, and history variations, we demonstrated significant performance im-
521 provements on sleep staging and clinical prediction tasks. Experiments confirmed *sleep2vec*'s
522 robustness to incomplete sensor data and revealed clear scaling laws with increased modality di-
523 versity and larger model sizes. Our results establish *sleep2vec* as a scalable and versatile tool,
524 enabling generalized physiological monitoring and clinical decision support in sleep medicine.
525526 6 ETHICS STATEMENT
527528 The datasets employed consist of anonymized PSG recordings from publicly available sources. Eth-
529 ical approval and informed consent for the original data collection were secured by the institutions
530 responsible for the individual studies. All subject identifiers were removed prior to dataset acquisi-
531 tion, ensuring complete anonymization and protecting participants' privacy.
532533 7 REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT
534535 To ensure the reproducibility of our research, we provide the following details. A comprehensive
536 description of our data processing pipeline is provided in Section 3.1. Details of the datasets involved
537 and the training configurations for the proposed model are presented in Appendices A.2 and A.3,
538 respectively. Furthermore, the specific configuration used for fine-tuning is provided in Appendix
539 A.7.

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 744 Pan. Personalized sleep staging leveraging source-free unsupervised domain adaptation. In *Proc.*
 745 *AAAI*, pp. 14529–14537, 2025.

746

747 **A APPENDIX**

748

749 **A.1 PHYSIOLOGICAL SIGNALS IN POLYSOMNOGRAPHY (PSG)**

750

751 Polysomnography (PSG) is a comprehensive overnight test performed using a polysomnograph that
 752 records multiple physiological signals during sleep, including brain activity, eye movements, muscle
 753 tone, heart rhythm, breathing patterns, and oxygen levels. An illustration of a subject wearing PSG
 754 device for nocturnal sleep recording is presented in Figure 1. It is used in clinical and research
 755 settings to diagnose and study sleep disorders, including but not limited to sleep apnea, narcolepsy,
 and insomnia, by providing an objective assessment of sleep stages and abnormalities.

756 Table 3: Polysomnography (PSG) channels and derived interval-based features used in this study.
 757 High sampling rate electrophysiological channels include EEG, EMG, EOG, and ECG; lower sam-
 758 pling rate cardiopulmonary and oximetry channels encompass Nasal airflow, Abdominal/Thoracic
 759 belt (ABD/Thor belt), and SpO₂. Respiratory effort (RESP) and Inter-Beat Interval (IBI) are
 760 interval-derived features, obtained from ABD/Thor belt and ECG channels, respectively, and can
 761 also be measured via wearable devices. *Sampling rate ranges summarize AASM Berry et al. (2012;*
 762 *2017) minimum recommended digital sampling rates, actual device settings may vary.*

763 Physiological Signals	764 Typical Placement	765 Sampling (Hz)	766 Common Usage
PSG Channel			
767 EEG	768 Scalp	769 200–500	770 Detecting sleep stages, brain activity patterns, and brief arousals
771 EOG	772 Around the eyes	773 200–500	774 Identifying eye movements, especially for REM sleep detection and stage transitions
775 Chin EMG	776 Under the chin	777 200–500	778 Measuring muscle tone, useful for distinguishing REM and detecting disorders such as bruxism
779 ECG	780 Chest leads	781 200–500	782 Heart activity and variability (HR/HRV), used to study arousals and cardiorespiratory patterns
783 Nasal airflow	784 Under the nose	785 25–100	786 Detecting apnoeas/hypopnoeas and breathing irregularities
787 ABD/Thor belt	788 Around abdomen & chest	789 25–100	790 Tracking breathing effort, helping to classify types of sleep-disordered breathing
791 SpO ₂	792 Finger probe	793 10–25	794 Monitoring blood oxygen drops during breathing events, used to measure severity
Interval-derived Feature			
795 Respiratory effort (RESP)	796 –	797 4–10	798 Breath-to-breath timing, used for variability analysis and detecting abnormal breathing cycles
800 Inter-Beat Interval (IBI)	801 –	802 4–10	803 Beat-to-beat timing, used to compute HRV and study autonomic regulation during sleep

784 Table 4: Overview of the PSG datasets used in this study.
 785

786 Dataset	787 Age Span¹	788 Duration	789 Recording Span	790 # Recordings	791 # Subjects	792 Total Hours
793 Sleep Heart Health Study (SHHS) (Quan et al., 1997)	794 39–90	795 8.9 ± 1.1	796 1995–2003	797 8,440	798 5,795	799 75,431
799 Wisconsin Sleep Cohort (WSC) (Young et al., 2009)	800 37–85	801 8.0 ± 0.8	802 2000–2015	803 2,570	804 1,123	805 20,520
805 Osteoporotic Fractures in Men Study (MrOS) (Blackwell et al., 2011)	806 67–90	807 11.5 ± 2.3	808 2000–2005	809 3,930	810 2,905	811 45,110
811 Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis (MESA) (Chen et al., 2015)	812 54–94	813 10.6 ± 1.6	814 2010–2012	815 2,056	816 2,056	817 21,745
817 Human Sleep Project (HSP) (Sun et al., 2023)	818 1–109	819 7.6 ± 1.1	820 2007–present	821 25,253	822 18,973	823 190,732
823 Apnea Positive Pressure Long-term Efficacy Study (APPLES) (Quan et al., 2011)	824 18–83	825 8.2 ± 1.2	826 2003–2004	827 1,096	828 1,096	829 8,955

793

A.2 OVERVIEW OF DATASETS

794 Table 4 compiles six large publicly available PSG cohorts spanning children to older-adult popula-
 795 tions (ages 1–109) and nearly three decades of acquisition (1995–present). As indicated by the Du-
 796 ration column in Table 4, all recordings correspond to full-night PSG studies. The corpus of training
 797 data comprises 42,249 overnight recordings from 30,852 subjects across these five cohorts (SHHS,
 798 WSC, MrOS, MESA, and HSP). In addition, the APPLES cohort, consisting of 1,096 recordings, is
 799 used as an external validation cohort. HSP contributes the broadest age range and largest share of
 800 data, while SHHS, WSC, MrOS, MESA and APPLES provide well-characterized adult cohorts. The
 801 diversity in demographics and collection periods enables robust pre-training and evaluation under
 802 heterogeneous sensors and montages.

803

A.3 PRE-TRAINING CONFIGURATIONS

804 During pre-training, we ensured consistency by using a fixed batch size of 320 across all models.
 805 Including the prepended [CLS] token, the maximum sequence length was capped at $L = 121$. For
 806 contrastive learning, the temperature parameter was set to $\tau = 0.2$. Optimization was performed

807 ¹In SHHS and MrOS, ages greater than 90 are top-coded and recorded as 90.

810 using AdamW (learning rate 5×10^{-5} , $\beta = (0.9, 0.95)$, $\epsilon = 10^{-8}$, and weight decay of 0.01 for
 811 non-normalization weights), with a linear warmup over 3% of steps followed by cosine decay.
 812

813 Table 5: Configurations of the `sleep2vec` model across different sizes.
 814

815 Configuration	816 Small	817 Medium	818 Large
817 Number of parameters	63.5M	133.7M	238.2M
818 Hidden dimension	512	768	1024
819 Number of layers	8	12	16
820 Attention heads	16	16	16
821 Segment duration (pre-training)	1 hour	1 hour	1 hour
822 Segment duration (fine-tuning)	Whole night	Whole night	Whole night

823 The architectural hyper-parameters are adjusted to yield `sleep2vec` variants with varying numbers
 824 of parameters, as detailed in Table 5. Unless otherwise stated, all experiments were conducted using
 825 the `sleep2vecmedium` variant.

826 For the sample-weighting mechanism introduced in Section 3.3.3, we employed a Laplace kernel
 827

$$828 \kappa(a_i, a_j) = \exp\left(-\frac{|a_i - a_j|}{\sigma_{\text{age}}}\right), \\ 829$$

830 with bandwidth $\sigma_{\text{age}} = 20.0$. This choice reflects clinical observations that sleep physiology and
 831 sleep-disordered breathing vary gradually with age rather than abruptly. A 20-year scale captures
 832 meaningful across-lifespan differences without over-penalizing small age gaps (Ohayon et al., 2004;
 833 Li et al., 2022).

834 Gender coefficients are set to $\gamma_{\text{same}} = 1.0$ and $\gamma_{\text{diff}} = 0.8$, acknowledging sex differences in
 835 sleep architecture and in the prevalence/severity of sleep-disordered breathing that are present but
 836 not dominant at the individual-record level (Peppard et al., 2013). The site coefficients were set
 837 to $\delta_{\text{same}} = 1.3$ and $\delta_{\text{diff}} = 0.8$ to account for systematic inter-site variation (device, montage,
 838 scoring protocol) that is frequently larger than gender effects in multi-center cohorts (Rosenberg &
 839 Van Hout, 2013; Kuna et al., 2013). We used $\varepsilon = 10^{-6}$ for numerical stability.

840 Finally, a fixed margin term $\gamma m = 0.1$ (Eq. 4 and Eq. 5 in Section 3) was applied when modulating
 841 pseudo-negatives from the same subject-night, reflecting the high correlation of repeated segments
 842 within a recording and discouraging them from being treated as fully independent negatives.

843 Each pre-training run used two high-memory GPUs, the largest configuration trained for up to 48
 844 hours.

845 We intentionally avoid any cross-modal reconstruction objective during pre-training. `sleep2vec`
 846 is trained solely with the InfoNCE and DASH-InfoNCE losses described above, which encour-
 847 age alignment between heterogeneous PSG montages and associated metadata without requiring an
 848 explicit generative decoder. In preliminary experiments, a variant that replaced the contrastive ob-
 849 jective with a generic cross-modal reconstruction module was implemented. Under matched data
 850 and compute budgets, this reconstruction-based variant was substantially harder to optimize and
 851 frequently failed to converge to competitive solutions. These observations, combined with the ad-
 852 dditional computational overhead of large reconstruction decoders, motivated our design choice to
 853 focus on contrastive alignment as a more stable and scalable route to robust missing-modality gen-
 854 eralization.

855 A.4 ABLATION STUDY

856 A.4.1 ABLATION OF FEATURE FUSION STRATEGIES

857 To further assess the influence of different feature-fusion strategies, we perform an ablation study
 858 comparing the three representative designs incorporated in our framework: Concatenation, Mean
 859 and the adopted Gating mechanism.

860 In practice, Concatenation rapidly becomes computationally prohibitive as the number of modalities
 861 increases, since it expands the hidden representation dimensionality and consequently inflates
 862

864
 865 Table 6: Ablation study of different feature-fusion strategies and their impact on five-class sleep-
 866 staging performance (W/N1/N2/N3/REM). The evaluated model is the medium-sized sleep2vec
 867 variant, fine-tuned on SHHS and evaluated on **unseen APPLES**. **Bold numbers** denote the best
 868 performance among FMs.

Feature Fusion	Overall Performance (\uparrow)						Class-wise F1 (\uparrow)			
	Acc.	κ	MF1	Sens.	Spec.	Wake	N1	N2	N3	REM
Concatenation	76.9	0.66	63.1	71.8	93.3	89.9	21.0	79.9	37.3	87.4
Mean	78.1	0.68	64.7	71.9	93.7	89.3	26.2	81.5	38.4	88.1
Gating	78.4	0.69	65.2	72.0	93.8	89.6	27.3	81.8	39.0	88.2

875
 876 both the parameter count and VRAM usage of subsequent layers. Additionally, it does not provide
 877 measurable performance benefits over the lightweight alternatives and is therefore not used as our
 878 default fusion approach.

879
 880 Our analysis thus focuses on Mean and Gating, two scalable and computationally efficient
 881 paradigms. Across representative downstream sleep staging tasks, both strategies achieve com-
 882 petitive performance. Nonetheless, the Gating mechanism consistently yields small but robust im-
 883 provements over Mean, and further offers enhanced interpretability through modality-specific gating
 884 coefficients that quantify the contribution of each input signal.

885 The results of this ablation study are reported in Table 6. Collectively, these findings justify our
 886 choice of Gating as the default fusion strategy, as it provides a balanced combination of scalability,
 887 empirical performance and interpretability.

888 A.4.2 ABLATION OF METADATA COMPONENTS IN DASH-INFO NCE

889
 890 Table 7: Ablation study of metadata-aware contrastive objectives. Four contrastive formulations
 891 are compared during pre-training: (i) vanilla InfoNCE, (ii) single-metadata-aware variants that in-
 892 incorporate one metadata factor at a time (Age-aware, Gender-aware, Site-aware InfoNCE), and (iii)
 893 the proposed DASH-InfoNCE. All medium-sized sleep2vec models are pre-trained on the full mul-
 894 timodal corpus and subsequently fine-tuned and evaluated on **SHHS** for five-class sleep staging.
 895 “Retrieval Acc.” corresponds to recall@1 in a cross-modal retrieval task, given a query embedding
 896 from one modality, the model must retrieve the correctly paired PSG segment from a pool of candi-
 897 dates drawn from other modalities, and Retrieval Acc. is the fraction of queries for which the true
 898 pair is ranked first. **Bold numbers** denote the best performance among FMs.

Method	Overall Performance (\uparrow)						Class-wise F1 (\uparrow)			Retrieval Acc. (\uparrow)	
	Acc.	κ	MF1	Sens.	Spec.	Wake	N1	N2	N3		
Vanilla InfoNCE	88.4	0.84	78.6	77.9	96.8	94.7	39.8	87.9	80.0	90.8	0.351
Age-aware	88.3	0.83	78.7	77.2	96.7	94.6	41.6	88.0	78.1	91.0	0.355
Gender-aware	88.5	0.84	79.2	78.1	96.8	94.7	43.0	88.1	79.3	91.1	0.356
Site-aware	88.1	0.83	78.0	75.9	96.6	94.6	39.9	87.8	76.8	90.9	0.363
DASH-InfoNCE	88.6	0.84	79.5	78.4	96.8	94.8	44.1	88.2	79.2	91.2	0.368

907
 908 To isolate the contribution of each metadata component within DASH-InfoNCE, an additional ab-
 909 lation study was conducted to examine the model’s generalization behavior under distribution shift.
 910 Specifically, the impact of incorporating individual metadata, age, gender, and site, on performance
 911 in the **unseen APPLES** cohort.

912
 913 For this analysis, models are pre-trained with only one metadata enabled at a time, followed by fine-
 914 tuning on SHHS and direct evaluation on APPLES without any further adaptation. Downstream
 915 sleep staging performance as well as cross-modal retrieval accuracy (Recall@1) are both reported,
 916 quantifying the quality of modality alignment in the shared embedding space.

917 Results presented in Table 7 and Table 8 suggest that activating any single metadata consistently
 918 improves performance over the vanilla InfoNCE baseline on the unseen cohort, either through higher

918
 919 Table 8: Ablation study of metadata-aware contrastive objectives. Four contrastive formulations are
 920 compared during pre-training: (i) vanilla InfoNCE, (ii) single-metadata-aware variants that incor-
 921 porate one metadata factor at a time (Age-aware, Gender-aware, Site-aware InfoNCE), and (iii) the
 922 proposed DASH-InfoNCE. All medium-sized sleep2vec models are pre-trained on the full multi-
 923 modal corpus and subsequently fine-tuned on SHHS and evaluated on **unseen APPLES** for five-
 924 class sleep staging. “Retrieval Acc.” corresponds to recall@1 in a cross-modal retrieval task, given
 925 a query embedding from one modality, the model must retrieve the correctly paired PSG segment
 926 from a pool of candidates drawn from other modalities, and Retrieval Acc. is the fraction of queries
 927 for which the true pair is ranked first. **Bold numbers** denote the best performance among FMs.
 928

Method	Overall Performance (\uparrow)						Class-wise F1 (\uparrow)			Retrieval Acc. (\uparrow)	
	Acc.	κ	MF1	Sens.	Spec.	Wake	N1	N2	N3		
Vanilla InfoNCE	76.8	0.67	63.5	73.3	93.4	90.5	24.0	79.5	35.5	88.1	0.351
Age-aware	78.3	0.68	64.9	72.0	93.7	89.5	26.6	81.7	39.0	88.0	0.355
Gender-aware	78.3	0.69	65.5	72.4	93.7	89.7	29.1	81.7	39.2	87.8	0.356
Site-aware	78.1	0.68	64.8	72.1	93.6	90.3	26.2	81.2	38.4	87.8	0.363
DASH-InfoNCE	78.4	0.69	65.2	72.0	93.8	89.6	27.3	81.8	39.0	88.2	0.368

934
 935 Macro-F1 (MF1) or improved retrieval alignment. Combining all three metadata factors in the full
 936 DASH-InfoNCE formulation provides the strongest overall performance.
 937

938 These findings demonstrate that age, gender and site information contribute complementary signals
 939 that enhance robustness under distribution shift. Together, they strengthen cross-modal alignment
 940 and cross-cohort generalization, highlighting DASH-InfoNCE as an effective strategy for improving
 941 model stability and transferability in unseen clinical cohorts.

942 A.4.3 ABLATION OF MASKING STRATEGIES

943
 944 Table 9: Ablation study on the effect of masking ratios during pre-training. All medium-sized
 945 sleep2vec models are fine-tuned and evaluated on **SHHS** for five-class sleep staging. **Bold numbers**
 946 denote the best performance among FMs.
 947

Mask Ratio	Overall Performance (\uparrow)						Class-wise F1 (\uparrow)			Retrieval Acc. (\uparrow)	
	Acc.	κ	MF1	Sens.	Spec.	Wake	N1	N2	N3		
0%	88.5	0.84	78.8	77.2	96.7	94.7	41.9	88.2	78.2	91.1	0.403
15%	88.6	0.84	79.5	78.4	96.8	94.8	44.1	88.2	79.2	91.2	0.368
30%	88.4	0.83	78.8	77.2	96.7	94.7	41.6	88.1	78.6	91.1	0.281

948
 949 Table 10: Ablation study on the effect of masking ratios during pre-training. All medium-sized
 950 sleep2vec models are fine-tuned on **SHHS** and evaluated on **unseen APPLES** for five-class sleep
 951 staging. **Bold numbers** denote the best performance among FMs.
 952

Mask Ratio	Overall Performance (\uparrow)						Class-wise F1 (\uparrow)			Retrieval Acc. (\uparrow)	
	Acc.	κ	MF1	Sens.	Spec.	Wake	N1	N2	N3		
0%	77.9	0.68	64.0	71.4	93.6	89.4	23.2	81.5	38.6	87.4	0.403
15%	78.4	0.69	65.2	72.0	93.8	89.6	27.3	81.8	39.0	88.2	0.368
30%	77.5	0.67	63.4	72.2	93.5	89.8	20.0	80.8	38.7	87.9	0.281

953
 954 The role of masking strength during contrastive pre-training is also investigated to assess how differ-
 955 ent corruption levels affect the robustness of the learned representations. Specifically, downstream
 956 sleep staging performance of three masking ratios (0%, 15% and 30%) is reported in Table 9 (in-
 957 domain SHHS) and Table 10 (cross-cohort APPLES).
 958

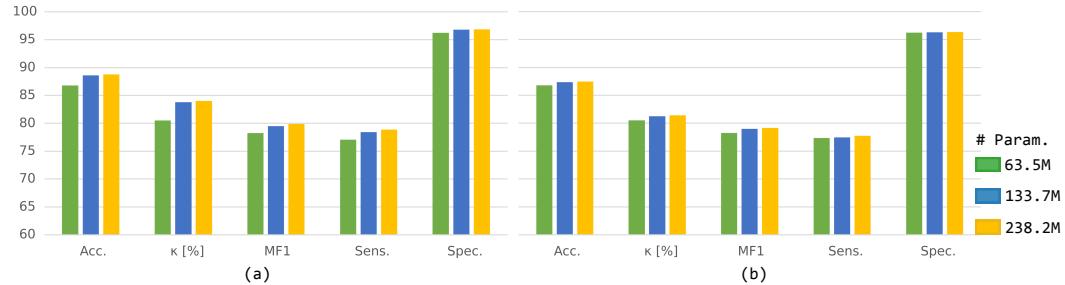
959 A moderate masking ratio of 15% yields the most favorable balance between representational ro-
 960 bustness and downstream accuracy. Compared to the no-masking condition, moderate masking leads
 961 to consistent improvements in Macro-F1 (MF1) and class-wise metrics across both evaluation set-
 962 tings. In contrast, increasing the masking ratio to 30% provides no additional generalization benefits,
 963

972 suggesting that overly aggressive masking may overly corrupt physiologically meaningful temporal
 973 structure. These results indicate that moderate masking functions as an effective regularizer during
 974 contrastive physiological pre-training.

975 We additionally note that retrieval accuracy is highest under the 0% masking configuration. This
 976 trend is likely driven by the closer match between the training objective and the retrieval evaluation
 977 when no corruption is applied, rather than reflecting superior generalization. Retrieval accuracy
 978 should therefore be interpreted jointly with downstream task performance when comparing masking
 979 strategies.

981 A.5 FURTHER INVESTIGATION OF ABLATION STUDY

983 A.5.1 SCALING LAW OF FOUNDATION MODEL PARAMETERS



995 Figure 6: Performance comparison across varying model sizes (63.5M, 133.7M and 238.2M parameters)
 996 for sleep staging on (a) SHHS and (b) WSC datasets. Results demonstrate a clear scaling law,
 997 where increasing the number of parameters consistently improves Accuracy (Acc.), Cohen’s Kappa
 998 (κ), Macro-F1 (MF1), Sensitivity (Sens.) and Specificity (Spec.), underscoring the effectiveness of
 999 scaling physiological foundation models in capturing complex sleep dynamics.

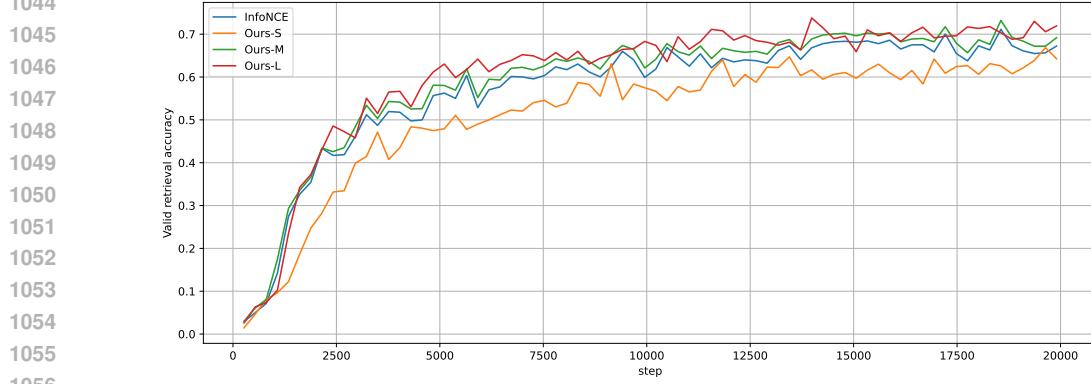
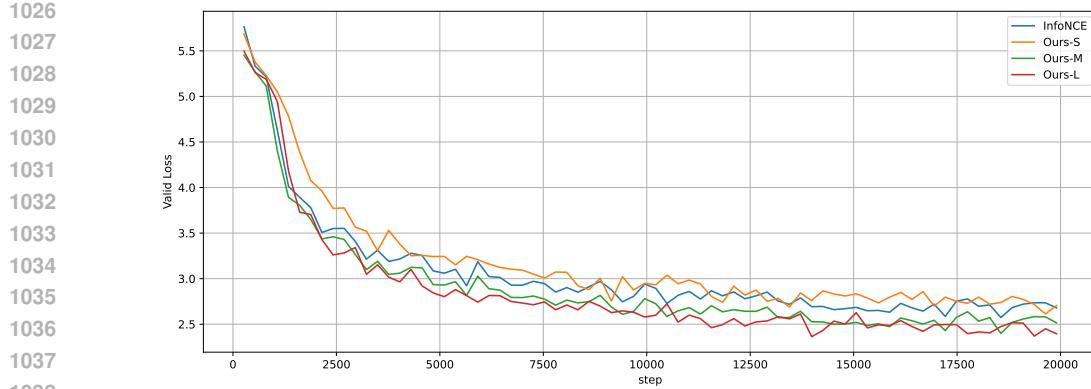
1000 The scaling behavior of `sleep2vec` concerning model parameters is presented in Figure 6. The
 1001 performance across two benchmark datasets, SHHS (a) and WSC (b), consistently improves as
 1002 the number of parameters increases from 63.5M to 238.2M. This improvement is evident in key
 1003 metrics such as Accuracy (Acc.), Cohen’s Kappa (κ), Macro-F1 (MF1), Sensitivity (Sens.) and
 1004 Specificity (Spec.). Notably, the scaling effect exhibits diminishing returns, suggesting that while
 1005 larger model sizes capture increasingly complex physiological patterns inherent in sleep data, the
 1006 incremental gains become smaller with each parameter increase. Overall, these results affirm the
 1007 robustness and scalability of the `sleep2vec` architecture, indicating its suitability for capturing
 1008 detailed, multimodal physiological dynamics in sleep studies.

1009 The training dynamics in Figure 7 and 8 indicate that increasing model capacity yields faster con-
 1010 vergence and higher asymptotic retrieval accuracy, albeit with diminishing marginal improvements
 1011 as model size grows.

1014 A.5.2 SCALING LAW OF PRE-TRAINING DATA SIZE

1016 Table 11: Effect of pre-training data size on cross-cohort sleep staging performance
 1017 (W/N1/N2/N3/REM). All medium-sized sleep2vec models are fine-tuned and evaluated on **SHHS**.
 1018 **Bold numbers** denote the best performance among FMs.

Data Fraction	Overall Performance (\uparrow)					Class-wise F1 (\uparrow)				Retrieval Acc. (\uparrow)	
	Acc.	κ	MF1	Sens.	Spec.	Wake	N1	N2	N3	REM	
25%	87.1	0.82	77.2	76.3	96.4	93.7	37.6	86.8	77.7	89.9	0.281
50%	88.0	0.83	77.9	76.8	96.6	94.3	38.5	87.5	78.8	90.6	0.295
75%	88.4	0.83	78.7	77.1	96.7	94.6	41.2	88.0	78.3	91.1	0.340
100%	88.6	0.84	79.5	78.4	96.8	94.8	44.1	88.2	79.2	91.2	0.368



1063 The impact of pre-training data scale on cross-cohort generalization is examined by varying the
1064 fraction of the pre-training corpus while keeping the downstream fine-tuning protocol fixed. Models
1065 are pre-trained using 25%, 50%, 75% and 100% of the available data and subsequently evaluated on
1066 an unseen cohort.

1067 As shown in Table 11 and Table 12, increasing the amount of pre-training data leads to consistent
1068 improvements in downstream performance, particularly in Macro-F1 (MF1) and Cohen’s κ . The
1069 performance improvements are most substantial when moving from low to intermediate-scale data
1070 regimes, with diminishing returns as the full dataset is utilized. This trend suggests that larger-
1071 scale physiological pre-training promotes more robust and transferable representations, which is
1072 especially valuable under distribution shift.

1073 Collectively, these findings indicate that the proposed framework benefits notably from increased
1074 data scale and exhibits stable generalization properties across cohorts.
1075

1076 A.5.3 SCALING LAW OF PRE-TRAINING MODALITY NUMBER

1077 The effect of pre-training modality count on downstream performance is examined by comparing
1078 four variants of the DASH-InfoNCE sleep2vec framework. The three curriculum stages differ only
1079 in the modality sets introduced during pre-training: **Stage 1** includes the most frequent and informa-

1080 Table 12: Effect of pre-training data size on cross-cohort sleep staging performance
 1081 (W/N1/N2/N3/REM). All medium-sized sleep2vec models are fine-tuned on **SHHS** and evaluated
 1082 on **unseen APPLES**. **Bold numbers** denote the best performance among FMs.

Data Fraction	Overall Performance (\uparrow)					Class-wise F1 (\uparrow)				Retrieval Acc. (\uparrow)
	Acc.	κ	MF1	Sens.	Spec.	Wake	N1	N2	N3	
25%	76.1	0.65	62.7	70.9	93.1	88.5	23.1	79.5	36.2	86.4
50%	76.8	0.66	63.0	71.7	93.3	89.5	21.6	80.0	36.2	87.7
75%	78.0	0.68	64.6	71.7	93.6	89.1	25.4	81.5	38.8	88.0
100%	78.4	0.69	65.2	72.0	93.8	89.6	27.3	81.8	39.0	88.2
										0.368

1090
 1091 Table 13: Effect of modality-scaling strategies on SHHS. “Single-stage” corresponds to the proposed
 1092 medium sized sleep2vec model pre-trained from scratch using all available modalities. “Stage 1/2/3”
 1093 implement a curriculum in which training begins with the most frequent and informative channels
 1094 (EEG, RESP, and IBI in Stage 1), followed by the addition of EOG, ECG, and nasal airflow in Stage
 1095 2, and finally EMG, abdominal/thoracic belts, and SpO₂ in Stage 3, with each stage continuing from
 1096 the previous checkpoint. All models are fine-tuned and evaluated on **SHHS** under identical EEG
 1097 only and RESP+IBI downstream settings. **Bold numbers** indicate the best performance among
 1098 FMs.

PSG Channel Set	Overall Performance (\uparrow)					Class-wise F1 (\uparrow)						
	Inference Subset	Curriculum	Acc.	κ	MF1	Sens.	Spec.	Wake	N1	N2	N3	REM
EEG	Stage 1		86.9	0.81	77.4	76.3	96.3	93.5	41.0	86.7	77.2	88.6
	Stage 2		87.0	0.82	77.7	76.5	96.3	93.6	42.5	86.7	76.8	88.8
	Stage 3		87.3	0.82	77.2	75.7	96.4	93.7	38.9	87.0	77.6	88.9
	Single-stage		87.4	0.82	77.3	76.6	96.5	94.2	40.1	86.5	77.7	88.3
RESP+IBI	Stage 1		82.1	0.74	67.5	66.6	94.8	91.9	15.2	80.5	63.7	86.3
	Stage 2		82.2	0.75	66.3	66.9	94.9	91.8	6.6	80.2	66.2	86.6
	Stage 3		82.5	0.75	68.2	67.3	95.0	92.3	17.1	80.9	63.7	86.8
	Single-stage		83.0	0.75	65.9	65.8	95.1	86.6	5.3	80.9	64.3	86.6

1109
 1110 Table 14: Effect of modality-scaling strategies. “Single-stage” corresponds to the proposed medium
 1111 sized sleep2vec model pre-trained from scratch using all available modalities. “Stage 1/2/3” imple-
 1112 ment a curriculum in which training begins with the most frequent and informative channels (EEG,
 1113 RESP, and IBI in Stage 1), followed by the addition of EOG, ECG, and nasal airflow in Stage 2, and
 1114 finally EMG, abdominal/thoracic belts, and SpO₂ in Stage 3, with each stage continuing from the
 1115 previous checkpoint. All models are fine-tuned on **SHHS** and evaluated on **unseen APPLES** under
 1116 identical EEG only and RESP+IBI downstream settings. **Bold numbers** indicate the best perfor-
 1117 mance among FMs.

PSG Channel Set	Overall Performance (\uparrow)					Class-wise F1 (\uparrow)						
	Inference Subset	Curriculum	Acc.	κ	MF1	Sens.	Spec.	Wake	N1	N2	N3	REM
EEG	Stage 1		76.6	0.66	63.6	72.8	93.3	89.4	25.4	79.8	36.7	86.5
	Stage 2		77.4	0.67	64.3	72.5	93.5	89.6	26.8	80.8	37.6	86.9
	Stage 3		77.2	0.67	63.2	72.1	93.4	89.1	20.8	80.8	37.8	87.3
	Single-stage		76.7	0.66	62.5	71.9	93.3	89.6	19.1	80.0	37.3	86.7
RESP+IBI	Stage 1		72.3	0.60	56.8	66.4	91.9	86.7	7.1	75.3	31.0	83.8
	Stage 2		71.2	0.59	55.4	66.7	91.7	86.8	3.1	73.9	29.0	83.9
	Stage 3		72.3	0.60	57.1	67.0	91.9	87.6	7.8	74.8	30.1	85.0
	Single-stage		73.2	0.61	57.8	66.2	92.1	86.5	10.2	76.5	31.5	84.2

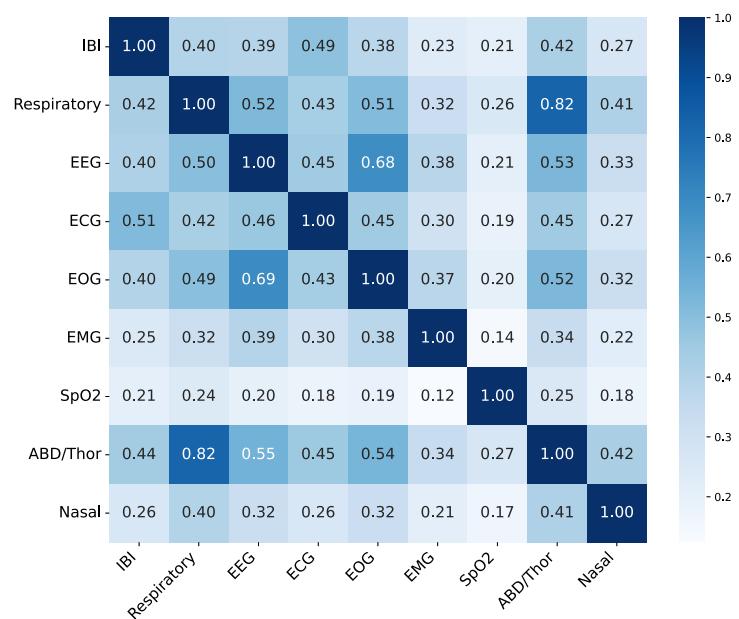
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 1130
 1131 tive channels (EEG, RESP, and IBI); **Stage 2** resumes from the Stage 1 checkpoint and adds EOG,
 1132 ECG, and nasal airflow; **Stage 3** incorporates the remaining, less frequent channels (EMG, abdo-
 1133 minal/thoracic belts, and SpO₂). By contrast, the Single-stage model is trained from scratch using all
 modalities simultaneously.

1134 All variants are fine-tuned using identical protocols on SHHS with either EEG or RESP+IBI as
 1135 downstream inputs, and are evaluated both in-domain on SHHS and cross-cohort on APPLES. As
 1136 reported in Table 13 and Table 14, expanding the modality set during pre-training yields small
 1137 but consistent gains over the Stage 1 baseline, with the Single-stage model generally attaining the
 1138 strongest or near-strongest performance. Importantly, the addition of rarer modalities in Stage 3
 1139 does not degrade performance, and all variants fall within a narrow accuracy and Macro-F1 (MF1)
 1140 range. This stability indicates that sleep2vec scales predictably and robustly with respect to both
 1141 modality number and modality diversity.

1142 Moreover, as the number of pre-training modalities increases, the model retains, and often enhances,
 1143 its performance when fine-tuned using only the originally available modalities, providing greater
 1144 flexibility in downstream modality selection without sacrificing accuracy.

1146 A.6 RETRIEVAL ACCURACY MATRIX

1148 The alignment quality is qualitatively validated using average recall@1 metrics computed across
 1149 modalities on a test set comprising 10,109 samples. sleep2vec achieves a recall@1 of 36.8%,
 1150 significantly surpassing the baseline with the original InfoNCE loss, which achieves 35.1%. This
 1151 highlights the representational quality and discriminative capacity of the obtained embeddings.



1173 Figure 9: Recall@1 retrieval accuracy matrix of the learned representations. Rows correspond to
 1174 the query modality, while columns indicate the retrieved modality.

1176 The Recall@1 cross-modal retrieval accuracy matrix visualized in Figure 9 demonstrates distinct
 1177 modality-specific alignment patterns. Notably, Respiratory and ABD/Thor exhibit exceptionally
 1178 high mutual retrieval accuracy (0.82), aligning well with their known physiological coupling. EEG
 1179 also demonstrates strong alignment with EOG (0.69). Conversely, modalities such as SpO₂ and
 1180 EMG generally yield lower retrieval accuracies (≈ 0.2 –0.4), reflecting comparatively weaker phys-
 1181 iological correlations.

1182 A.7 COMPLEMENTARY DOWNSTREAM FINE-TUNING RESULTS

1184 A.7.1 SLEEP STAGING CONFIGURATIONS

1186 For fine-tuning the transformer backbone in the sleep staging task, we utilized Low-Rank Adaptation
 1187 (LoRA) to achieve parameter-efficient adaptation. Specifically, LoRA adapters were integrated into
 the query, key and value projections of every transformer layer, while keeping the original

backbone parameters frozen. Unless specified otherwise, we set the rank to $r = 8$, scaling factor $\alpha = 16$, dropout probability $p = 0.05$, without incorporating additional biases. For multimodal fine-tuning scenarios, the same set of LoRA adapters was shared across all modalities. Instead of relying on a special classification token, transformer output embeddings from the final layer at each time step were individually projected through a two-layer MLP classifier, whose hidden dimension matched that of the backbone output. Optimization was performed using the AdamW optimizer with a learning rate of 1×10^{-4} and a weight decay of 1×10^{-5} .

Baseline models are reproduced using their original hyperparameters as reported in the corresponding publications.

A.7.2 PERFORMANCE ON WSC DATASET

Table 15: Performance of five-class sleep staging (W/N1/N2/N3/REM) across PSG channel sets and models on **WSC**. Reported metrics regarding overall performance including Accuracy (Acc., %), Cohen Kappa (κ), Macro-F1 (MF1, %), Sensitivity (Sens., %) and Specificity (Spec., %). Class-wise F1 (%) is also listed. Baselines reproduced by us for fair comparison are marked with \dagger . Note that these foundation model baselines were individually pre-trained for each PSG channel subset, whereas `sleep2vec` was pre-trained only once across all modalities. “FULL CHANNELS” refers to the fixed channel configuration that each model is designed for and individually pre-trained on. Other naming conventions follow the one adopted in Table 1. Underlined numbers indicate the best overall performance within each channel set; **bold numbers** denote the best performance among FMs; **bold-underlined numbers** indicate cases where the FM surpasses specialized models.

PSG Channel Set		Overall Performance (\uparrow)						Class-wise F1 (\uparrow)			
Inference Subset	Model	Acc.	κ	MF1	Sens.	Spec.	W	N1	N2	N3	REM
Foundation Model											
EEG	SleepFM (Thapa et al., 2024; 2025) \dagger	84.3	0.76	73.6	72.4	95.2	90.1	40.4	89.4	62.5	85.4
	<u>sleep2vec</u>	<u>86.3</u>	<u>0.80</u>	<u>74.8</u>	<u>73.5</u>	<u>96.1</u>	<u>93.8</u>	<u>45.2</u>	89.1	60.1	<u>85.7</u>
Specialized (non-FM) Model											
EEG	Sun et al. (2019) \dagger	74.7	0.59	56.6	55.9	91.5	79.6	15.4	81.1	26.6	80.4
	Goldammer et al. (2022)	73.0	0.57	52.0	52.7	91.0	74.3	13.9	80.5	14.8	75.7
IBI & RESP											
Foundation Model											
IBI & RESP	SleepFM (Thapa et al., 2024; 2025) \dagger	77.7	0.65	56.7	57.0	92.5	83.8	10.6	83.9	24.5	81.0
	SleepFounder (Nie et al., 2025) \dagger	79.8	0.69	65.5	64.8	93.7	86.8	28.0	85.2	43.5	84.2
	<u>sleep2vec</u>	<u>81.6</u>	<u>0.72</u>	<u>66.4</u>	<u>65.1</u>	<u>94.6</u>	<u>91.6</u>	<u>29.1</u>	84.0	<u>44.4</u>	82.9
Specialized (non-FM) Model											
EEG & EOG & EMG	Olesen et al. (2021)	77.6	0.66	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Foundation Model											
EEG & EOG & EMG	SleepFM (Thapa et al., 2024; 2025) \dagger	84.5	0.77	75.1	74.9	95.4	90.0	44.3	89.3	63.8	87.9
	<u>sleep2vec</u>	<u>86.8</u>	<u>0.80</u>	<u>77.4</u>	<u>75.5</u>	<u>96.1</u>	<u>92.8</u>	<u>51.2</u>	<u>90.1</u>	<u>63.9</u>	<u>88.8</u>
FULL CHANNELS											
Foundation Model											
FULL CHANNELS	SleepFM (Thapa et al., 2024; 2025) \dagger	84.6	0.77	75.4	75.0	95.4	90.0	45.2	89.4	64.1	88.1
	PFTSleep (Fox et al., 2025)	85.5	0.78	73.8	74.4	95.5	90.0	33.8	90.1	65.2	89.7
	sleep2vec (InfoNCE)	87.1	0.81	78.2	76.7	96.2	93.1	50.7	90.5	67.3	89.5
	<u>sleep2vec</u>	<u>87.3</u>	<u>0.81</u>	<u>79.0</u>	<u>77.5</u>	<u>96.3</u>	<u>93.3</u>	<u>53.8</u>	<u>90.7</u>	<u>67.5</u>	<u>89.7</u>

Several trends emerge from Table 15:

(i) Comprehensive research on PSG data remains limited, as existing methods commonly focus on single-channel EEG or small subsets of physiological signals. Specialized models typically provide established benchmarks, particularly in cardiorespiratory modality configurations, presenting significant evaluation standards for generalized foundation models.

(ii) Foundation models consistently exhibit strong performance, often surpassing specialized sleep staging methods. This is evident in the EEG configuration, where `sleep2vec` notably achieves the best overall performance among foundation models (Accuracy: 86.3%, κ : 0.80), outperforming baseline FM SleepFM (Accuracy: 84.3%, κ : 0.76).

(iii) `sleep2vec` consistently demonstrates superior performance across various PSG channel subsets. Specifically, in the “IBI & RESP” channel configuration, `sleep2vec` substantially surpasses both specialized and baseline foundation models (Accuracy: 81.6% compared to SleepFounder’s 79.8% and SleepFM’s 77.2%). Similarly, in the “EEG & EOG & EMG” subset, `sleep2vec` outperforms baseline foundation models (Accuracy: 86.8% vs. 84.5%) and considerably surpasses specialized methods (Accuracy: 86.8% vs. 77.6%). In the Full Channels configuration, `sleep2vec` achieves the highest

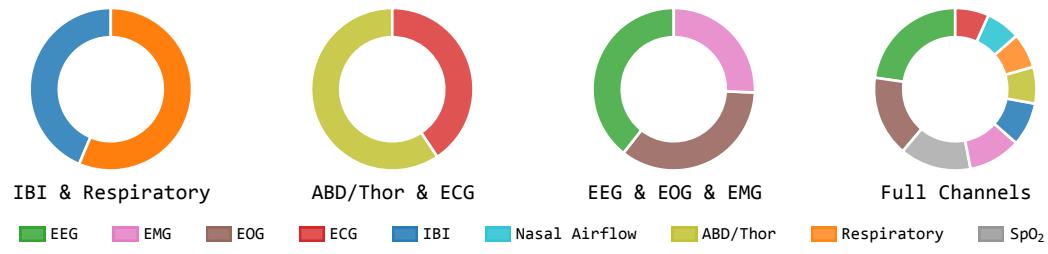
1242 performance across multiple metrics (Accuracy: 87.4%, κ : 0.81), underscoring the effectiveness of
 1243 leveraging comprehensive modality combinations.
 1244

1245 Table 16: Cross-cohort evaluation of five-class sleep staging (W/N1/N2/N3/REM) across PSG
 1246 channel sets and models on **unseen APPLES**. Models are fine-tuned on WSC without seeing
 1247 any data from APPLES during both pre-training and fine-tuning. “FULL CHANNELS” refers to
 1248 the fixed channel configuration that each model is designed for and individually pre-trained on.
 1249 Underlined numbers indicate the best overall performance within each channel set; **bold numbers**
 1250 denote the best performance among FMs; **bold-underlined numbers** indicate cases where the FM
 1251 surpasses specialized models.

PSG Channel Set		Overall Performance (\uparrow)						Class-wise F1 (\uparrow)			
Inference Subset	Model	Acc.	κ	MF1	Sens.	Spec.	W	N1	N2	N3	REM
Specialized (non-FM) Model											
IBI & RESP	(Sun et al., 2019) \dagger	69.9	0.54	51.6	53.3	90.4	78.6	8.9	76.2	17.1	77.2
	(Goldammer et al., 2022) \dagger	68.6	0.52	48.6	50.3	90.2	74.3	8.1	76.7	14.6	69.5
	Foundation Model										
	SleepFM (Thapa et al., 2024; 2025) \dagger	74.4	0.61	56.3	56.5	91.9	81.8	17.0	81.1	20.2	81.3
	SleepFounder (Nie et al., 2025) \dagger	74.0	0.61	59.4	64.0	92.1	84.7	17.9	79.2	31.7	83.5
FULL CHANNELS	sleep2vec (InfoNCE)	76.1	0.64	55.9	55.5	92.4	85.4	16.8	81.5	14.4	81.5
	sleep2vec	76.4	0.64	57.7	57.7	92.7	85.7	19.2	81.8	19.5	82.5
	Foundation Model										
	SleepFM (Thapa et al., 2024; 2025) \dagger	78.7	0.68	63.5	62.1	93.4	86.0	30.7	85.4	32.3	83.1
	sleep2vec (InfoNCE)	77.5	0.68	64.8	70.5	93.7	87.5	30.8	82.4	37.5	86.0
	sleep2vec	80.1	0.71	66.3	66.5	94.1	89.1	33.0	85.3	38.9	85.2

1264 To further assess cross-cohort generalization, we evaluate models fine-tuned on WSC directly on
 1265 the APPLES cohort, which is unseen during both pre-training and fine-tuning. A similar trend is
 1266 observed in Table 16, mirroring the cross-cohort generalization results reported in Table 2.
 1267

1269 A.7.3 INTERPRETABILITY OF CHANNEL-WISE CONTRIBUTION



1280 Figure 10: Visualization of modality-specific weights learned by the Gating Mechanism based fea-
 1281 ture fusion for the four SHHS sleep staging configurations in Table 1.
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1283 Beyond performance of sleep staging, the Gated scalar fusion used during fine-tuning provides a
 1284 transparent, modality-level attribution of the downstream decision. Concretely, the learned scalars
 1285 quantify each modality’s contribution to the task-specific representation.
 1286

1287 To illustrate, we analyze SHHS sleep staging under the four modality configurations in Table 1.
 1288 Figure 10 presents the normalized fusion weights (visualized with a sharpening factor $T = 0.4$ that
 1289 clarifies display while preserving relative ratios). Across tasks, EEG receives the largest weight,
 1290 consistent with sleep staging being primarily annotated from EEG. EOG and EMG provide sub-
 1291 stantial complementary signal, while cardiorespiratory channels (e.g., airflow, ABD/Thor belt, IBI)
 1292 carry smaller weights and SpO₂ contributes the least.
 1293

1294 These weights are global, task-level attributions rather than per 30-second explanations, and they
 1295 do not capture higher-order interactions between modalities. Nevertheless, these weights offer an
 1296 interpretable summary of channel contribution that aligns with domain expectations and can inform
 1297 sensor selection in channel-limited deployments.
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A.7.4 CLINICAL DIAGNOSIS CONFIGURATIONS

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For clinical diagnosis tasks, the backbone parameters were kept frozen without applying LoRA adapters. Predictions were derived from the [CLS] token output of the final transformer layer, subsequently passed through a two-layer MLP classifier whose hidden dimension matched the backbone’s output dimension. Training utilized the AdamW optimizer with a learning rate of 1×10^{-4} and a weight decay of 1×10^{-5} , maintaining consistency with the sleep staging experimental setup. Note that site information is not used as a covariate during the fine-tuning process.

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A.8 LLM USAGE

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We use LLMs to correct grammatical errors.

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Some elements in Figure 1 (an illustration of a participant wearing a PSG device for sleep recording, along with icons representing each physiological signal modality) and Figure 2 (participant icons in bed) were generated using LLMs.

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A.9 ACKNOWLEDGMENT ON RESOURCE USAGE

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