

1 **Title:** Comprehensive data integration – towards a more personalized assessment of diastolic function

2 **Running head:** Towards a personalised approach in diastology

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4 **Authors:**

5 Filip Loncaric¹, MD, Maja Cikes², MD, PhD, Marta Sitges^{1,3}, MD, PhD, Bart Bijnens^{1,4,5}, PhD

6
7 **Affiliations:**

8 1-Institute of Biomedical Research August Pi Sunyer (IDIBAPS), Barcelona, Spain. CERCA Programme
9 / Generalitat de Catalunya.

10 2- University of Zagreb School of Medicine, University Hospital Centre Zagreb, Department of
11 Cardiovascular Diseases, Zagreb, Croatia

12 3- Institut Clínic Cardiovascular, Hospital Clínic, Universitat de Barcelona; CIBERCV, Instituto de Salud
13 Carlos III (CB16/11/00354)

14 4- ICREA, Barcelona, Spain

15 5- KULeuven, Leuven, Belgium

16
17 **Correspondence:**

18 Filip Loncaric, MD

19 IDIBAPS-Institut d'Investigacions Biomèdiques August Pi i Sunyer

20 Carrer del Rosselló, 149, 08036 Barcelona

21 Phone: +385912220480

22 E-mail: loncaric.filip@gmail.com

23
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1 **Abstract**

2 **Background and aim:** The main challenge of assessing diastolic function is the balance between clinical
3 utility, in the sense of usability and time-efficiency, and overall applicability, in the sense of precision for
4 the patient under investigation. In this review, we aim to explore the challenges of integrating data in the
5 assessment of diastolic function and discuss the perspectives of a more comprehensive data integration
6 approach.

7 **Methods:** Review of traditional and novel approaches regarding data integration in the assessment of
8 diastolic function.

9 **Results:** Comprehensive data integration can lead to improved understanding of disease phenotypes and
10 better relation of these phenotypes to underlying pathophysiological processes - which may help affirm
11 diagnostic reasoning, guide treatment options, and reduce limitations related to previously unaddressed
12 confounders. The optimal assessment of diastolic function should ideally integrate all relevant clinical
13 information with all available structural and functional whole cardiac cycle echocardiographic data –
14 envisioning a personalized approach to patient care, a high-reaching future goal in medicine.

15 **Conclusion:** Complete data integration seems to be a long-lasting goal, the way forward in diastology,
16 and machine learning seems to be one of the tools suited for the challenge. With perpetual evidence that
17 traditional approaches to complex problems may not be the optimal solution, there is room for a steady and
18 cautious, and inherently very exciting paradigm shift towards novel diagnostic tools and workflows to
19 reach a more personalized, comprehensive and integrated assessment of cardiac function.

20

21 **Keywords:** diastolic function, diastolic dysfunction

1 **Introduction**

2 The task to non-invasively assess left ventricular (LV) diastolic function and filling pressures
3 has been an ongoing challenge since the emergence of cardiac ultrasound imaging. The tension lies in the
4 complexity of diastolic dysfunction as a pathology opposed to a very real-life clinical need to assess it in
5 a fast and simple workflow. Besides the difficult task of balancing specificity and sensitivity in the
6 assessment, various proposed guidelines and algorithms also face the challenge of linking arbitrarily
7 separated grades of dysfunction with clinical outcomes and treatment indications. Oversimplification of
8 such algorithms has resulted in misclassifications of a large proportion of patients, whereas more complex
9 algorithms, incorporating increased decision points and parameters, have proved to have low clinical
10 utility in the real-world practical setting. Achieving a universal approach to the assessment of diastolic
11 function therefore seems to be an intricate task that can hardly be approached with traditional algorithms,
12 either simplified or complex. The optimal assessment of diastolic function and filling pressures should
13 ideally integrate all relevant clinical information with all available structural and functional
14 echocardiographic data, not a pre-selected set of parameters. The described assessment envisions a
15 personalized approach to patient care, a high-reaching future goal in medicine.

16 In this review, we aim to explore the challenges of integrating data in the assessment of diastolic
17 function and discuss the perspectives of a more comprehensive data integration approach.

18

19 **Assessing diastolic function – the quest for a universal approach**

20 The majority of current ideas and pitfalls surrounding non-invasive assessment of diastolic
21 function were recognized and defined in the seminal work from Appleton, Hatle and Popp [1], relating
22 distinct transmitral flow velocity patterns to LV diastolic function. The observed flow patterns were more
23 related to myocardial dysfunction and hemodynamic status than the type of underlying disease, setting
24 ground for future classification of diastolic dysfunction into grades (**Figure 1**). Although these grades are
25 pathophysiologically interpretable, the patterns of mitral inflow represent a dynamic continuum, changing
26 with regard to disease progression, medical therapy or alterations in hemodynamic status. Ongoing
27 research showed that the correlation of mitral inflow parameters and pressure measurements is influenced
28 by overall cardiac function, resulting in the fact that transmitral flow parameters do not correlate with LV
29 filling pressures in patients with preserved ejection fraction, whereas they do in reduced LV function [2].
30 Interpreting any surrogate diastolic parameter is inherently complex, as most Doppler patterns

1 demonstrate varying dependency on the inotropic state, volume loading, ventricular relaxation, chamber
2 compliance and left atrial pressure, as well as on additional factors such as age, heart rate, blood pressure,
3 mitral valve pathology, amongst others [3–6]. Therefore, to correctly interpret findings and assess
4 function, it is crucial to recognize a wider pattern including clinical history, diagnostic data,
5 echocardiographic patterns and their dynamic changes.

6 To address these challenges and resolve the ambiguity of the pseudonormalisation pattern,
7 various additional tests and parameters were suggested over time – the alteration of loading conditions
8 with a Valsalva test [7], the addition of pulmonary venous velocity curves [8–10] or tissue Doppler
9 imaging (TDI) [2,11,12] – ultimately resulting in more complex algorithms. As an example, with the
10 addition of the ratio between early diastolic transmitral flow and TDI velocities of the mitral ring (i.e.
11 E/e') the assessment of diastolic function in patients with preserved EF was somewhat simplified.
12 However, this addition ultimately created a new grayzone in the intermediate range of the ratio, where
13 further assessment and parameters were mandatory to assess underlying diastolic function (e.g.
14 pulmonary flow velocities or the Valsalva manoeuvre). [2] This need for a wide combination of
15 parameters in non-invasive diastolic function assessment, together with alterations of algorithms in
16 specific patient populations, was thus emphasised in the ASE/EACVI 2009 guidelines for diastolic
17 assessment [13]. Besides parameters of diastolic function and associated measurements (i.e. mitral inflow
18 velocities, Valsalva manoeuvre, pulmonary venous flow, TDI velocities etc.), morphologic and functional
19 correlates of diastolic dysfunction (i.e. LV hypertrophy, left atrial (LA) volume, LA function and
20 pulmonary artery systolic and diastolic pressures) were also considered. However, the incorporation of
21 complexity backfired, resulting in a burdensome, sophisticated and multipart algorithm reflective of the
22 complex underlying pathology, but nevertheless with limited applicability in the clinical setting. The
23 revised 2016 guidelines [14] hence aimed to reduce and simplify the required measurements for diastolic
24 dysfunction assessment, selecting only four diastolic function and diastolic function-influenced
25 parameters for the task (i.e. E/A , E/e' , tricuspid regurgitation velocity and LA indexed volume). The
26 algorithm flow was modified offering a two-step decision tree now classifying a new subset of patients
27 with indeterminate function, thus increasing specificity and reducing the diagnosis of first grade
28 dysfunction [15]. A major limitation of the guidelines was still the lack of consideration of age – where
29 age influences the findings of diastolic parameters. [16] Recent efforts have been made in addressing the
30 challenges of age-appropriate interpretation of diastolic patterns by applying age-specific multivariate

1 reference regions for echocardiographic parameters commonly used in the evaluation of LV diastolic
2 function [17], or general population age-based normative values [18], demonstrating age-specific ranges
3 to be prognostically relevant and suggesting that such approaches in the classification of LV filling
4 patterns could lead to more consistent diagnostic algorithms. A further challenge can be found in
5 assessing diastolic function in atrial fibrillation, where the insights gained from the LA, normally used to
6 infer diastolic function, are of limited application. Doppler assessment of the LV is limited by the
7 variability in cycle length and the LA enlargement may be present regardless of filling pressures. Current
8 guidelines thus recommend measurements should be obtained from averaging at least three cardiac
9 cycles.

10 Several studies [19,20] demonstrated that the 2016 guidelines proved to have higher sensitivity
11 in estimating the filling pressures in patients with reduced EF as compared to the 2009 guidelines, while
12 the low sensitivity was still present in patients with normal EF and normal filling pressures. However,
13 more data integration - combining demographic and clinical variables with non-invasive
14 echocardiographic parameters - showed an incremental value when diagnosing elevated filling pressures.
15 [21] On the other hand, stratification into diastolic grades has been strained by the lack of relationship to
16 cardiovascular outcomes, complicating the clinical utility of undergoing complex algorithms to identify a
17 diastolic class. While various diastolic parameters proved predictive of clinical outcomes in studies [22–
18 26], combining parameters in classifications to define grades showed no consistent relation to outcomes
19 [27,28] – showing worse outcomes in moderate/severe compared to mild diastolic dysfunction [29], or
20 only in severe dysfunction [30]. A universal diastolic grading approach therefore evidently lacked clear
21 clinical value.

22 Novel imaging techniques like speckle tracking echocardiography (STE) are also increasingly in
23 focus, as they can offer a wealth of embedded information on the systolic and diastolic function, and
24 provide insight into patterns of myocardial mechanics that correlate with diastolic parameters and
25 cardiovascular outcomes. [14,31] The wealth of data that can be obtained using these techniques is still
26 under research and therefore clinically underused [32]. Analysis of single-beat STE based LV and LA
27 volume and strain peak velocity and timing measurements resulted in patient groups with increasing
28 severity of diastolic dysfunction and LV filling pressures (validated by invasive measurements), proving
29 that information derived from STE variables can indeed be useful for assessment of diastolic dysfunction.
30 [38]. Moreover, STE indices of diastolic function showed to be an important discriminator between heart

1 failure phenogroups [34]. Deformation data also carries immense information in exercise testing,
2 especially in the subset of patients with diastolic dysfunction that may have normal hemodynamic profile
3 at rest but symptoms of heart failure or dyspnoea in effort. Typically, the data from these exercise tests is
4 complex to integrate and therefore conclusions are reduced to the comparison of only selected
5 measurements at rest and exercise.

7 **Assessing function in challenging patients - the limitations of a universal approach**

8 The described overview of non-invasive diastolic function assessment shows, consistently and
9 somewhat paradoxically, that a universal approach is feasible only by sacrificing precise assessment in
10 special patient populations where non-invasive parameters and the corresponding patterns are influenced
11 by related comorbidities. For example, mitral valve disease or regional deformation impairment due to
12 ischemic disease or genetic-sarcomere mutations can alter the mitral inflow pattern, TDI velocity profile
13 and the related ratios, resulting in diastolic patterns not reflective of the level of diastolic dysfunction.
14 These pitfalls can be demonstrated through the comparison of the patients presented in **Figures 1-3**.
15 Patterns related to increasing grades of diastolic dysfunction are clearly defined using the guideline-
16 recommended echocardiographic measurements in four hypertensive patients shown in **Figure 1**. The
17 patient histories, signs and symptoms are supplemental, describing increased comorbidities, worse
18 symptoms and a need for more medical therapy in higher grade dysfunction. The STE LV and LA strain
19 parameters concur, showing overall decreased LV global longitudinal strain in grade I and II, and a more
20 heterogenic regional LV deformation with basal impairment in grade III. LA strain adds incremental
21 value to the finding of LA enlargement, reflecting underlying atrial functional dynamics [33]. The three
22 phases of the atrial cycle - reservoir, conduit and pump function - are reflected in corresponding LA strain
23 measures – reservoir, conduit and contractile strain. Atrial contraction was used as a zero-reference point
24 for the deformation assessment, as this analysis results in a more physiological, and easier to visually
25 assess strain curve, with negative values during LA contraction. Impaired LV relaxation in grade I
26 dysfunction results in a reduction of LA conduit strain, while the contractile function is augmented to
27 maintain to LV stroke volume. In more advanced diastolic dysfunction, we can observe a steady
28 reduction in all components of LA strain. The cases are more challenging in **Figure 2**. Patients present
29 with relatively similar guideline-defined patterns – $E/A < 0.8$ in the first two patients, similar septal e'
30 velocities and E/e' , lack of quantifiable tricuspid regurgitation and an enlarged LA. However, in these

1 individuals the clinical and STE data provide a crucial framework for interpreting underlying patient
2 phenotypes. The first case is a patient presenting with elevated blood pressure at examination, which can
3 influence the relaxation of the LV. This can be objectively quantified with the LV deformation curves,
4 showing a post-systolic motion in the basal septum (i.e. a pattern associated with elevated blood pressure
5 and reflecting delayed LV relaxation [33,34]); whereas the LA strain reflects a relatively preserved atrial
6 function. Integration of clinical and echo data in the second case reveals long-standing moderate primary
7 mitral regurgitation-related LV hypertrophy and preserved EF. Due to these confounders, the utility of the
8 E/A, E/E', and LA enlargement for diastolic assessment has to be taken with caution. STE imaging gives
9 some insight, showing a shift in atrial dynamics, with augmented contractile strain and decreased conduit
10 strain. Additional parameters are needed to assess cardiac function (e.g. IVRT and difference in
11 pulmonary and mitral A wave duration). Finally, in the last case, the clinical history and STE data provide
12 important insight – showing severe hypertrophy and severe regional deformation impairment of the
13 anterolateral wall related to the diagnosis of hypertrophic cardiomyopathy, which is paired with systolic
14 anterior motion and mild mitral regurgitation. In hypertrophic cardiomyopathy individual variables have
15 moderate correlation with LV filling pressures, and regional abnormalities in deformation can influence
16 mitral annulus motion [14]. LA strain again shows a signal of LV relaxation impairment, however
17 additional parameters are needed to assess the diastolic function.

18 The described clinical cases outline the challenges of a universal, algorithmic assessment of
19 diastolic dysfunction. These challenges can be approached either with numerous alterations to a general
20 algorithm in specific diseases, as suggested in the 2009 and 2016 guidelines, or with comprehensive data
21 integration that can incorporate and weigh all information relevant to the positioning of patients in the
22 spectrum of cardiac function abnormalities. The latter seems more attractive and intuitive, and is indeed,
23 as shown above, applied in everyday workflows using clinical reasoning and experience. Due to complex
24 relations of diastolic parameters, confidence in assessment of specific patients can only be achieved
25 through the integration of the complete clinical assessment and complete available data – from clinical to
26 echocardiographic (**Figure 3**).

27

1 **Moving towards more comprehensive data integration of the whole cardiac cycle in the assessment** 2 **of diastolic function**

3 The addition of whole cardiac cycle data extracted from echocardiographic images (e.g. volume,
4 blood-pool and myocardial velocity, strain or strain-rate curves) to the assessment of diastolic function
5 serves as a step towards a more sophisticated data integration strategy. Heterogeneity of diastolic
6 dysfunction is an appropriate challenge for machine learning (ML), especially unsupervised approaches
7 [31], which aim to extract hidden patterns in available data and naturally cluster patients regardless of a
8 priori knowledge or pre-defined clinical labels. Such algorithms have recently been used to approach
9 diastolic dysfunction classification. Using recommended parameters for diastolic assessment, an
10 unsupervised clustering approach identified unique patterns of diastolic dysfunction that showed a
11 relationship to clinical outcomes, as opposed to current grading schemes. [32] Importantly, patients
12 classified as indeterminate by guidelines were reclassified into an appropriate risk group. In other studies,
13 a combination of variables (i.e. demographic, clinical, laboratory, ECG and echo) have been used to
14 explore heart failure phenotypes that differ in outcomes and therapy response [35,36]; and also, to
15 investigate HF phenogroups with data on invasive hemodynamics, altogether showing that the severity of
16 diastolic dysfunction seems to be one of the main separating factors between these phenogroups [36,37].
17 Precise phenotyping of diastolic function inevitably influences patient care, for example, optimal patient
18 management requires differentiation between abnormal relaxation, when heart rate reduction is beneficial,
19 and decreased compliance, when the latter is not the case. [38] The distinction can be found through
20 comprehensive data assessment incorporating a wide set of parameters, stepping out of the scope of
21 simplified algorithms of classification. ML approaches can aid in standardizing echocardiographic
22 evaluation using unlabelled variables without a priori algorithms, isolating prognostic phenotypes not
23 visualized by guideline algorithms.

24 In disease exploration, both the traditional consensus-based and the described ML approaches
25 are constrained to a limited number of key disease markers and clinical variables, such as selected peak
26 value or timing measurements. These might not capture the full complexity, and subtle changes of the
27 underlying diseases. Specifically, spatiotemporal patterns of myocardial velocity curves, defined by peak
28 and timing values throughout the whole cardiac cycle, are reflective of regional and global dysfunction in
29 systole and diastole [39], and reveal intricate changes in myocardial mechanics in specific cardiac
30 pathologies [40]. Similarly to when a clinician integrates these data based on previous experience and

1 knowledge, novel machine learning techniques offer the possibility to incorporate information embedded
2 in the velocity data of the whole cardiac cycle, with the aim to extract the maximum amount of
3 information reflective of cardiac function and disease from cardiac images. This approach could also be
4 used to analyze the complex changes occurring between rest and exercise echocardiography. Moreover,
5 as atrial fibrillation still serves as an exclusion criterion in many ML algorithms looking at cardiac echo
6 measurements [41,42], a whole-cardiac cycle data approach incorporating multiple consecutive beats
7 could present a potential way forward in addressing this challenge [43]. Moreover, pathology related
8 information is contained not only in the amplitude and profile of a velocity curve, but likewise in the
9 timings and durations of different cardiac phases (e.g. isovolumic contraction or early diastole) [44].
10 Temporal differences, due to inter-patient variability in heart rate or intra-patient variability between rest
11 and exercise, result in a challenging interpretation of the relationship between cardiac phases (e.g. when
12 assessing a shift in the onset of systole/diastole due to dysfunction, see **Figure 4**). Since the timings of
13 cardiac phases can easily be defined with echocardiographic (valve flows) and ECG (onset of atrial
14 contraction) data, time alignment of echo data is feasible as part of the ML approach [39,43–45]. Velocity
15 data can be time aligned to a common temporal reference within a patient cohort and quantitatively
16 compared between patients. Data on the corrected differences in timings can be preserved, and used as an
17 additional parameter in later analysis.

18 An important matter to assess is if the theoretical advantage of whole-cardiac cycle data
19 integration adds any real advantages in disease exploration. To address this question, a ML approach
20 integrating spatiotemporal information from rest and exercise echocardiographic data (including velocity,
21 strain and strain rate curves, respectably) was used to create spatiotemporal-rest-exercise representations
22 of the LV function. [39] This comprehensive whole cardiac cycle data proved more successful than
23 traditional measurements (e.g. peak amplitudes of systolic and early diastolic velocities, selected peaks
24 and timings of strain and strain rate measurements, or echocardiographic variables such as LV end-
25 diastolic volumes and LA indexed size) in identifying HFpEF, objectively showing that indeed,
26 traditional measurements do not exploit all available diagnostic data and represent just a single value
27 from the information-filled cardiac cycle. Time-alignment also proved useful here and in other studies
28 [39], improving the characterization of a HFpEF population, showing that the largest variability of
29 cardiac data is found within the diastolic cardiac phase, especially during exercise.

1 A further illustration of the utility of the integration of whole cardiac cycle data, such as TDI
2 based velocity traces, lies in the valuable possibility of ML to provide patient membership probabilities,
3 in favour of categorical clinical diagnoses, to diseased (i.e. HF) or healthy groups. For example,
4 hypertensive and breathless patients have been categorized belonging to a transition zone of the HFpEF
5 spectrum, thus demonstrating possible culprits of clinical diagnostic algorithms, as well as the spectrum
6 of the heterogeneous HFpEF syndrome. [43] As part of this process, a pathophysiological interpretation
7 of TDI patterns related to distinct patient groups was possible, showing the ability of ML methods to
8 distinguish alterations in diastolic function in the diseased patient groups – more fusion of early and late
9 diastolic curves during exercise with similar heart rates, delayed early diastolic lengthening reflective of
10 relaxation/compliance abnormalities or early vs. late diastolic filling patterns, and increased variability in
11 the onset of atrial contraction and a failure of peak a' wave increase during exercise, suggestive of
12 increased filling pressure. Multi-feature analysis of rest and exercise data, as well as of regional data
13 opposed to only global, resulted in a better disease assessment than analysing the data independently.[42]
14 Unsupervised ML has also been used to combine whole-cycle data, specifically LV strain and volume
15 curves, extracted from standard acquisition protocols, with relevant heterogeneous clinical variables, such
16 as demographic, ECG and laboratory data, to form a meaningful representation of cardiac function in
17 each patient, relating it to therapy response[45]. These methods facilitate the fusion of heterogeneous
18 data, weighing the contribution of each input to the final result, allowing extraction of interpretable
19 physiological patterns from patient data without the influence of potentially incorrect clinical diagnostic
20 labels of borderline patients. [44] Indeed, the most controversial, and also the most interesting
21 contribution of such sophisticated spatiotemporal analysis, might be the way borderline patients are
22 classified, which may not concur with traditional diagnostic labels, potentially reflecting suboptimal
23 capability of diagnostic guidelines. [39,43,45]

24

25 **Challenges ahead**

26 Besides the time limitations and knowledge requirements, there are other relevant and inherent
27 challenges when integrating complex data in everyday clinical assessment – selection bias of patients in
28 analysis, missing data, embedded noise in imaging data, validation of used algorithms and
29 reproducibility, to name a few. The results of most studies mentioned above are confined to single-center
30 cohorts or cohorts from selected, well-defined populations [36,43,45]. One of the strongholds of ML

1 methods lies in the possibility to incorporate prospective patient data or in testing/validating the
2 algorithms on different datasets [17,46]. Missing patient data, a relevant problem in clinical practice and
3 research, has been previously addressed with the exclusion of patients with incomplete data [35,47],
4 which can heavily bias the conclusions of the analysis. Novel approaches have used data imputation
5 methods to resolve missing clinical parameters[36,45] or velocity curves [39], potentially increasing the
6 utility of complex data integration in a real-life setting. As in any deductive process, the quality of
7 conclusions depends on quality of used information. Complex approaches using imaging data are highly
8 dependent on image quality and reproducibility of measurements. Strain and strain-rate curves are
9 burdened with embedded noise. Here novel approaches can be used as noise filtering techniques [48] –
10 where the most important dimensions/ principal components of data variability capture the major
11 clinically interpretable patterns, whereas, less relevant ones capture the noise. In the future, data
12 extraction (e.g. deformation analysis on available echo images) as well as data preparation (e.g. time
13 alignment), needed for more complete analysis, could be automated [49,50], thus enabling standardization
14 through increased reproducibility. Finally, all novel algorithms are in need of being subjected to stringent
15 validation before incorporation into the clinical environment. A scheme showing the advantages and
16 challenges regarding a more comprehensive data integration are presented in **Figure 5**.

17

18 **Conclusion**

19

20 The balance between clinical utility, in the sense of usability and time-efficiency, and overall
21 applicability, in the sense of precision for the patient under investigation, represents the main challenge in
22 the assessment of diastolic (dys)function. The high-reaching aim of personalized medicine that could
23 resolve these tensions may be feasible through a more comprehensive integration of all relevant data –
24 from clinical to whole-cycle echocardiographic data. Complete data integration seems to be a long-lasting
25 goal, the way forward in diastology, and machine learning seems to be one of the tools suited for the
26 challenge. Each successful integration of heterogeneous data to patient assessment offers incremental
27 value to the goal of better understanding complex topics such as diastolic dysfunction or HFpEF. With
28 more comprehensive approaches we can see improved shaping of disease phenotypes and better relation
29 of these phenotypes to underlying pathophysiological processes - which may help affirm diagnostic
30 reasoning, guide treatment options, and reduce limitations related to previously unaddressed confounders.
31 The aim has slowly shifted from strict categorical classifications of disease/health towards the exploration

1 of disease as a continuous spectrum, ranging from health to dysfunction, with the novel goal being
2 personalized positioning of patients into a certain part of this spectrum. Finally, the main clinical value
3 can be harvested from relating newfound distinct phenotypes to long-term patient trajectories, a goal
4 consistently highlighted in contemporary publications. With perpetual proof that traditional approaches to
5 complex problems are not the optimal solution, there is room for a steady and cautious, and inherently
6 very exciting paradigm shift towards novel diagnostic tools and workflows to reach a more personalized,
7 comprehensive and integrated assessment of cardiac function.

8

9 **Author Contributions**

10 Filip Loncaric - Concept/design, Data collection, Data analysis/interpretation, Statistics, Drafting article,
11 Approval of article

12 Maja Cikes - Concept/design, Critical revision of article, Approval of article

13 Marta Sitges - Concept/design, Critical revision of article, Approval of article

14 Bart Bijmens - Concept/design, Critical revision of article, Approval of article

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4

1 **Figure descriptions**

2 **Figure 1 Diastolic assessment using the 2016 guidelines**

3 *(Rows)* Four hypertensive patients with varying degrees of diastolic dysfunction. *(Columns from left to*
4 *right)* The patient history, signs and symptoms, recommended echocardiographic parameters, and
5 diastolic grades assessed using the 2016 guidelines [14]. Diastolic dysfunction can be assessed in a
6 straightforward way using the four echocardiographic parameters proposed by the guidelines. The grade
7 of dysfunction concurs with the associated clinical picture. NT-proBNP levels were normal in the first
8 two patients (<14.34 pg/ml), and slightly elevated in the third and fourth (303 and 731 pg/ml,
9 respectively).

10 *(BMI – body mass index, EF - ejection fraction, DM – diabetes mellitus, ARB - Angiotensin II receptor*
11 *blocker, ACEi - Angiotensin-converting-enzyme inhibitors, FA- atrial fibrillation, PW TDI – pulsed wave*
12 *tissue Doppler imaging, LAVI – left atrial volume indexed to body surface area, LV GLS – left ventricular*
13 *global longitudinal strain, STE – speckle-tracking echocardiography)*

14

15 **Figure 2 Challenges of diastolic assessment using the 2016 guidelines**

16 *(Rows)* Three patients with various pathologies: arterial hypertension, moderate mitral insufficiency and
17 hypertrophic cardiomyopathy. Patient history lays out the framework for interpreting related
18 echocardiographic findings. Important echo findings are marked in yellow and red. Further discussion can
19 be found in the text.

20 *(abbreviations same as in Figure 1, CPAP – continuous positive airway pressure, MR – mitral*
21 *regurgitation, SAM – systolic anterior motion of the anterior leaflet, PSS – post-systolic shortening)*

22

23 **Figure 3 An example of data integration in the assessments of a complex patient**

24 A female with long-standing arterial hypertension and clinically diagnosed obstructive hypertrophic
25 cardiomyopathy. The posterior part of the mitral annulus is calcified, moderate mitral regurgitation is
26 present, and the basal septum is hypertrophied, measuring 17 mm. All of the latter influence traditional
27 interpretation of diastolic parameters. Additional investigation is needed. The patient had elevated blood
28 pressure at assessment, which can influence findings. The obstruction is highest in the midventricular
29 region, with the gradient reaching 51 mmHg during the Valsalva manoeuvre. During Valsalva, the
30 inversal of the pseudo-normal mitral inflow can be noted. The E/E' ratio indicates elevated filling

1 pressure, supported by the difference in the timings of the pulmonary vein and mitral inflow A wave
2 duration, LA is enlargement and tricuspid regurgitation velocity.

3 (*abbreviations same as in Figure 1, COPD – chronic obstructive pulmonary disease*)

4

5 **Figure 4 A scheme showing the utility of temporally aligning velocity traces**

6 (A) Temporal non-correspondence of the velocity traces can be due to inter-subject differences in heart
7 rate and in the timing of cardiac phases. (B) Temporal alignment can be used to express velocity traces
8 within a common temporal reference. (C) Temporally aligned velocity traces can be directly compared
9 between patients enabling the assessment of the onset and duration of cardiac phases. A later onset of
10 systolic LV ejection, and a prolonged LV ejection and isovolumic relaxation time can be seen in the
11 patient on the right. This concurs with the delayed and reduced peak aortic velocity and the fusions of the
12 early and late diastolic filling.

13

14 **Figure 5 An overview of data a more comprehensive approach to data integration**

15 A scheme showing the advantages and challenges of a more comprehensive data integration.

16