CONTINUOUS MEASUREMENTS OF INSTANTANEOUS HEART RATE AND ITS FLUCTUATIONS BEFORE AND AFTER HATCHING IN CHICKENS

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Accepted 30 December 1999; published on WWW 10 February 2000

Summary

There has been considerable interest in heart rate (fH) fluctuations in relation to cardiovascular control systems and foetal conditions during pregnancy in mammals. Prominent fluctuations in fH also occur in avian embryos, which are an important experimental model for studying developmental physiology. The present study determined the instantaneous fH of seven chick embryos continuously from the last stage of prenatal development (day 18), throughout the pipping (perinatal) period (days 19–21) until hatching and, subsequently, of newly hatched chicks (up to day 2).

The distinctive patterns of instantaneous fH fluctuations took the form of specific changes within a broad mean fH baseline. Cyclic oscillations (ultradian rhythm) occurred until an early stage of the perinatal period, when the fH baseline started rising. Subsequently, the baseline dropped and respiratory arrhythmia began to appear concomitant with external pipping. During the final stage of external pipping, when the fH baseline rose again prior to hatching, three unique patterns of instantaneous fH fluctuations were evident: relatively long-lasting cyclic small accelerations, irregular intermittent large accelerations and short-term repeated large accelerations. Furthermore, repeated

Introduction

Heart rate (fH) has long been recognized as a general, easily measured indicator of cardiovascular performance, as demonstrated in a recent special issue of *Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology* devoted to the topic of fH and the information derived from it (Tazawa et al., 1999a). Beat-tobeat fH (i.e. instantaneous fH) fluctuations have been subject to considerable attention in relation to autonomic nervous function and cardiovascular status in mammalian adults and foetuses (Akselrod et al., 1981; Ferrazzi et al., 1989; Fleisher, 1996; Groome et al., 1994; Lindecrantz et al., 1993; Moser et al., 1994; Pagani et al., 1986). The patterns of fH fluctuations have also been studied in foetuses to evaluate their relationships with foetal movements and with conditions alternate occurrences of the latter two types of acceleration formed an additional oscillating pattern with a period of 10–15 min.

During the early period after hatching, when the $f_{\rm H}$ baseline reached its maximum, instantaneous $f_{\rm H}$ changed relatively slowly accompanied by transient rapid decelerations, probably due to augmented vagal tone. Subsequently, the mean $f_{\rm H}$ baseline dropped to its minimum, and a circadian rhythm and three types of previously reported $f_{\rm H}$ fluctuations (types I–III) appeared.

Developmental patterns of mean fH and the appearance of distinctive patterns of instantaneous fluctuations in fHand circadian rhythms were not influenced by an ultimate failure of hatching after a normal development.

The demonstration of complex, repeatable patterns of $f_{\rm H}$ fluctuation that change during development suggests that the avian embryo model should be useful in studying the phenomenon of $f_{\rm H}$ fluctuation and its underlying causes.

Key words: circadian rhythm, developmental pattern, heart rate fluctuation, instantaneous heart rate, mean heart rate, prenatal embryo, perinatal embryo, postnatal chick, ultradian rhythm, *Gallus gallus domesticus*.

during pregnancy (Aladjem et al., 1977; Brubaker and Garite, 1988; Hammacher et al., 1968; Pillai and James, 1990; Sorokin et al., 1982; Wheeler and Murrills, 1978). The prominent fluctuations in fH are substantial phenomena not only in mammalian foetuses but also in avian embryos. Avian embryos develop within the confines of an eggshell independently of the maternal body, and their physiological functions are not influenced by maternal functions. The patterns of fluctuation in fH recorded from embryos originate in their own cardiac pacing activities uninfluenced by maternal conditions and are characteristic of developing embryos. We have measured instantaneous fH in avian embryos, while maintaining adequate gas exchange through the eggshell, and also in hatchlings (Akiyama et al., 1997, 1999; Höchel et al., 1998; Pearson et al., 1998; Pearson and Tazawa, 1999; Moriya et al., 1999; Tazawa et al., 1999b). Among eggs of altricial and precocial birds in which *f*H fluctuations have been measured, those of the chicken (*Gallus gallus* var. *domesticus*) have been the most frequently used for experimentation because of their easy availability and relatively large size. In addition, a thorough investigation of chicken eggs and hatchlings is needed to elucidate the development and origins of fluctuations in *f*H because they provide an experimental model for understanding *f*H fluctuations in other avian species and in mammalian foetuses.

In chickens, instantaneous fH has been determined both by acoustocardiography (Akiyama et al., 1997, 1999; Rahn et al., 1990; Wang et al., 1990) and using a catheterization method (Höchel et al., 1998; Tazawa, 1981; Tazawa et al., 1980) for prenatal embryos during the last half of incubation and by electrocardiography for postnatal chicks (Moriya et al., 1999). For continuity of investigation of fH fluctuations from prenatal embryos to postnatal chicks, the instantaneous fH of perinatal (pipped) embryos during the internal and external pipping period (perinatal period) was measured by electrocardiography using wire electrodes inserted into the egg (Tazawa et al., 1999b). Three unique acceleration patterns of instantaneous fH were found during the external pipping period. Respiratory arrhythmia with a period of 1-1.5 s was also observed during the external pipping period, and additional oscillating patterns with a period of 10-15 min were found in some perinatal embryos (Tazawa et al., 1999b). Generally, the electrocardiogram (ECG) was disturbed frequently by embryonic activity, rendering impossible continuous measurements of instantaneous fH for a period of hours or a few days (Akiyama et al., 1997; Tazawa et al., 1999b). In the experiments described above with perinatal embryos, the electrodes were pushed into the egg contents through the eggshell and chorioallantoic membrane so as to touch the embryonic body and therefore to measure the ECG directly from the body and thus minimize disturbance. This method made it possible to measure additional patterns of fH fluctuations (Tazawa et al., 1999b). However, it was still difficult to measure instantaneous fH continuously throughout the hatching period, because the embryo moved in the egg during hatching and the electrodes thus became detached from the body or pierced it. The present study was designed to cope with these difficulties and to elucidate developmental patterns of fH and changes in instantaneous fH fluctuations from the last stages of prenatal incubation to the postnatal period. The resulting data were used to elucidate the unexplored perinatal period and the patterns of fH fluctuation that typify it.

Materials and methods

Eggs and their incubation

Fertile eggs of broiler chickens (Gallus gallus) were purchased from the local hatchery that had provided us with the broiler eggs used in our previous experiments (Akiyama et al., 1997, 1999; Höchel et al., 1998; Moriya et al., 1999; Tazawa et al., 1999b). The eggs were incubated in a forced draught incubator at 38 °C and at a relative humidity of approximately 60%. The first day of incubation was designated day 0. Eggs were turned automatically every hour for 16 days to avoid the known adverse effects of lack of turning on embryonic oxygen consumption, growth and *f*H (New, 1957; Tazawa, 1980; Deeming, 1989a,b; Pearson et al., 1996).

Electrode preparation and experimental protocol

Eggs were candled on day 17 of incubation to confirm normal development of the embryo and to mark the air cell. ECG electrodes formed from three silver wires, 3 cm long and 0.6 mm in diameter, were then implanted. One end of the wire was wound round a rod (3 mm in diameter) to make a one-turn spiral, and the tip of the wire was bent into a 'fish hook barb'. The distance between the tip and end of the spiral was approximately 1-2 mm. Three locations were marked on the eggshell, forming a triangle around the egg. Two sites were on the under side of the egg between the air cell and the equator of the egg and made up the bottom of a triangle when the egg was placed in the horizontal position. The third site was marked on the top of the egg. A tiny piece of eggshell (<2 mm across) was removed by a sharp blow with the tip of a 20 gauge hypodermic needle, which pierced the shell membranes and the chorioallantoic membrane. The tip of the spiral electrode was inserted into the hole, and the electrode was rotated by 360° so that the spiral part was screwed in and embedded in the egg. The electrodes were then fixed onto the eggshell using epoxy glue.

The egg with implanted electrodes was placed in a still-air incubator at 38 °C, and the electrodes were connected to shield wires passing through a small hole in the incubator to a polygraph amplifier. The ECG was recorded continuously from day 18 until hatching in the still-air incubator at 38 °C. To avoid external disturbances affecting measurements, the egg was not touched and the incubator doors were not opened. The egg in the incubator was viewed through glass windows (10 cm wide and 30 cm long) in the doors.

When a chick hatched, it was removed briefly (for less than 20 min) from the incubator for the connection of new electrodes. Three flexible Ag/AgCl electrodes were attached to the skin of the chick using adhesive gel on the lateral thoracic wall under both wings and on the ventral abdomen caudal to the sternum (Moriya et al., 1999). The chick was then returned to the incubator, which was reset at 35 °C. The first day after hatching was designated day 0. Measurements of the ECG were continued for three more days after hatching in the same incubator at 35 °C. Throughout the period of measurement from day 18 of incubation to day 2 of postnatal life, only natural light was allowed to enter the incubator.

Signal processing

Instantaneous fH was determined from the amplified and

bandpass-filtered ECG signals with the aid of a computer (Moriya et al., 1999). In brief, ECG signals were sampled at 4000 Hz by an analog-to-digital converter. The sampled signals were compared with a threshold level set on the computer above background noise levels to detect the rising deflection of the QRS complex. The times at which the magnitude of sampled QRS waves exceeded the threshold for the first time were stored in sequential order in data files. Instantaneous *f*H (beats min⁻¹) was then calculated from the time between adjacent QRS complexes.

To determine the oscillatory period of cyclic *f*H fluctuations, power spectrum analysis of instantaneous *f*H was made using a fast Fourier transform (FFT; Moriya et al., 1999). When the cyclic *f*H fluctuations contained discrete changes, the oscillatory period could not always be calculated using FFT. In these instances, the number of cyclic changes (*n* beats) was counted during the period when they appeared (*T* min), and the approximate period of the cyclic change was then calculated as 60T/n. To present the developmental patterns of *f*H from day 18 of incubation to day 2 of postnatal life, mean *f*H over a 1 min period (referred to as fH_{1min}) was calculated from instantaneous *f*H data every 1 min and plotted in sequence in a single graph.

Results

Developmental patterns of heart rate in eggs that hatched

Continuous measurements of instantaneous fH were made in seven chicken eggs, but one failed to escape from the egg even on day 24 of incubation. The developmental patterns of fH and changes in instantaneous fH fluctuations with time were similar among the six eggs that hatched, although the time and duration of individual changes in the developmental patterns and the hatching time were different. Fig. 1 presents the developmental pattern of $f_{\rm H_{1min}}$, before and after hatching, of a single representative individual. Measurements were started at 12:00 h on day 18 of incubation. $\overline{H}_{1\min}$ fluctuated with time, producing a wide baseline (i.e. a wide fluctuation in $f_{\rm H}$). The $f\overline{H}_{1\min}$ baseline tended to fall towards the end of prenatal development and then rose during the second half of day 19 (12:00–00:00 h, marked as segment B), with a subsequent fall. Following the fall, which lasted for approximately the first half of day 20, the $f\overline{H}_{1\min}$ baseline rose sharply at around 12:00 h, and an elevated $f_{\rm H_{1min}}$ baseline was maintained until hatching.

The embryo depicted in Fig. 1 hatched at approximately 18:00 h on day 20. The $f\overline{H}_{1\text{min}}$ baseline of the newly hatched chick, which was initially low after the electrodes had been



Fig. 1. Developmental pattern of mean heart rate (fH) of a single chick before and after hatching; this example is typical of the chicks observed. Each point indicates the mean fH over a 1 min period determined from the continuous recording of instantaneous fH. The time between 06:00 and 18:00 h is conventionally termed the daytime phase and is shown by open rectangles, and that from 18:00 to 06:00 h of the following day is termed the night-time phase (filled rectangles). Actual daytime was from approximately 04:50 to 18:20 h in this experiment. The downward-pointing arrow indicates the time of hatching. The upward-pointing arrows labelled with letters show the time of 10 min recordings of instantaneous fH presented in the following figures.

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positioned, rose to a peak that was similar to the maximal perinatal level. Although the $f\overline{H}_{1\min}$ baseline then dropped to some extent, the high level of the baseline was maintained for the first half of the following daytime phase (06:00–12:00 h on day 0), with a subsequent fall during the remaining daytime phase (12:00–18:00 h). The $f\overline{H}_{1\min}$ baseline dropped further during the next night phase (18:00–06:00 h). The $f\overline{H}_{1\min}$ baseline during the first half of the daytime phase (06:00–12:00 h) on day 1 dropped after transiently rising in the early morning. It then exhibited a prominent rise during the remaining half of the daytime phase (12:00–18:00 h) on day 1), dropped during the following night phase (18:00–06:00 h) and subsequently rose during the daytime phase (06:00–18:00 h) on day 2. A prominent circadian rhythm of fH began to occur.

Changes in heart rate fluctuations over time in eggs that hatched

The baseline of the developmental pattern of $f\bar{H}_{1min}$ was very wide as a result of various types of $f\bar{H}$ fluctuations. Fig. 2 presents two 12 h recordings of $f\bar{H}_{1min}$. Fig. 2A and Fig. 2B correspond to segments A and B in Fig. 1 and cover 24 consecutive hours of recording on day 19. $f\bar{H}_{1min}$ fluctuated cyclically during the first 12 h (Fig. 2A) and over the next 5 h period (Fig. 2B) and was independent of diurnal phase. Spectral analysis of instantaneous fH data corresponding to Fig. 2A indicated that the fluctuation was cyclic with an oscillatory period of 42 min, i.e. that there was an ultradian rhythm that oscillated with a period of less than 24 h.

Instantaneous $f_{\rm H}$ fluctuations consisted of various distinctive patterns before and after hatching. Fig. 3 presents examples of instantaneous $f_{\rm H}$ fluctuations recorded for the 10 min period before hatching. Fig. 3A–E corresponds to the periods indicated by C, D, E, F₁ and F₂, respectively, in Fig. 1. During the ultradian rhythm and the following increase in



Fig. 2. (A,B) Recordings over periods of 12h of heart rate for segments A and B in Fig. 1. Each point is the heart rate averaged over a 1 min period.



Fig. 3. 10 min periods of instantaneous heart rate fluctuations recorded before hatching. Panels A–E correspond to the times indicated by segments $C-F_2$ in Fig. 1.

fH shown in Fig. 2, rapid transient decelerations and accelerations occurred frequently (Fig. 3A,B). When fH decreased prior to the final increase during the last stage of the perinatal period, the instantaneous fH baseline occasionally became wide (Fig. 3C). After this, the instantaneous fH began to oscillate, and the fH baseline rose again to the final maximal level (Fig. 3D). Because fH accelerations occurred rapidly, and thus discretely, the oscillatory period could not be determined by spectrum analysis, and it was therefore approximated by counting the oscillations. The peaks of oscillation appeared 37 times during the 10 min period, corresponding to an oscillatory period of approximately 16s. During the last stage of the perinatal period when fH peaked, the distinctive acceleration patterns of *f*H appeared (Fig. 3E); the pattern consisted of intermittent irregular accelerations and large accelerations that were repeated for short periods no longer than 5 min. These distinct acceleration patterns signalled imminent hatching not only in this embryo but also in the other five embryos that hatched.

Distinctive patterns of instantaneous *f*H fluctuations continued after hatching. Fig. 4A–E presents 10 min recordings of instantaneous *f*H during the periods indicated by G, H, I, J and K in Fig. 1. Instantaneous *f*H fluctuations (Fig. 4A,B) were recorded while *f*H remained high during the early period after hatching. The instantaneous *f*H baseline changed irregularly and slowly compared with other periods, and the intermittent decelerations were predominant. When *f*H decreased, the baseline broadened (Fig. 4C). Irregular acclerations and oscillations of *f*H occurred (Fig. 4D,E), widening further the fH_{1min} baseline on day 2 (see Fig. 1).



Fig. 4. 10 min periods of instantaneous heart rate fluctuations recorded after hatching. Panels A–E correspond to the times indicated by segments G–K in Fig. 1.

Developmental patterns of heart rate and heart rate fluctuations in an embryo that failed to hatch

Among the seven eggs investigated in the present study, one embryo failed to hatch fully after pipping the eggshell on day 21 and remained in the egg. Fig. 5 shows the developmental pattern of $f\bar{H}_{1min}$ in this unhatched embryo. The pattern was essentially similar to that of the hatched embryo shown in Fig. 1, although the time and duration of *f*H changes were different and the $f\bar{H}_{1min}$ baseline dropped on days 23–24. The $f\bar{H}_{1min}$ baseline tended to fall from day 18 of incubation and then began to rise at approximately 12:00 h on day 20 with a subsequent drop during the first half of day 21. The $f\bar{H}_{1min}$ baseline then rose sharply at approximately 12:00 h of day 21 and remained at a high level.

This embryo was supposed to hatch at approximately 18:00 h on day 21 (marked by a downward-pointing arrow in Fig. 5), judging from changes in the distinctive patterns of instantaneous *f*H fluctuations, as shown below. *f*H remained high during the early period soon after the predicted hatching time (18:00–00:00 h on day 21) and the first half of day 22, with a subsequent drop at approximately 14:00 h. The low level of the fH_{1min} baseline was maintained for approximately the next half day until *f*H increased again at around 02:00–03:00 h on day 23. Although the fH_{1min} baseline dropped gradually during the daytime phase on day 23, it dropped further, remained at the lowest level during the night phase, and then rose again in the early morning of day 24. Interestingly, a circadian rhythm occurred in this unhatched embryo as in the hatched embryos.

The wide fH baseline during the last stage of the prenatal

period was also due to *f*H oscillations, just as in hatched embryos. Fig. 6A,B presents the changes in the $f_{H_{1min}}$ baseline during the periods shown by segments A and B in Fig. 5. Spectrum analysis of instantaneous fH data during segment A indicated that the oscillatory period was 40 min, i.e. an ultradian rhythm. The changes in instantaneous fH fluctuations of this unhatched embryo were also similar to those of hatched embryos. Fig. 7A-E shows instantaneous fH fluctuations recorded for 10 min periods at the times indicated by C, D, E, F₁ and F₂ in Fig. 5. During the period when the $f\overline{H}_{1\min}$ baseline oscillated with a period of 40 min, rapid decelerations of instantaneous fH were predominant (Fig. 7A). When the fH baseline rose (Fig. 7B), fH accelerations with intermittent decelerations occurred. The fH baseline then dropped, during which time the baseline of instantaneous fH broadened (Fig. 7C). The fH_{1min} baseline then rose sharply, during which time instantaneous fH began to oscillate with a period of approximately 10s (Fig. 7D) and distinctive patterns of instantaneous fH accelerations occurred (Fig. 7E). The other embryos hatched after these typical acceleration patterns had appeared repeatedly for several hours, and the hatching time of this embryo was therefore assumed to be close. Approximately 4h later, the pattern of instantaneous fH fluctuations changed to that shown in Fig. 8A. Each panel of Fig. 8A-E corresponds to instantaneous fH recorded for a 10 min period indicated by G, H, I, J and K in Fig. 5. The large irregular accelerations occurred continuously for approximately half a day when the fH baseline stayed high after the predicted hatching time (Fig. 8B). When the fH baseline subsequently dropped, the baseline of instantaneous fH broadened (Fig. 8C). Subsequently, cyclic oscillations (Fig. 8D) and irregular accelerations (Fig. 8E) occurred.

Discussion

Previous measurements of daily changes in mean $fH(\overline{fH})$ of late chick embryos and hatchlings indicated that \overline{fH} decreased towards the end of prenatal incubation, increased markedly during the external pipping period and then decreased after hatching, with subsequent daily increases (Tazawa et al., 1991, 1992). These previous studies of changes in \overline{fH} in embryos and hatchlings, which comprised brief periods of recordings, led us to determine continuously the developmental patterns of fHbefore and after hatching. The present study reveals for the first time the developmental patterns of fH and changes in instantaneous fH fluctuations with time during hatching.

One embryo in the present study failed to hatch. This anomalous occurrence was instructive in many ways when the results were compared with those of the other six embryos that hatched. In hatched chicks, fH immediately after hatching was initially low but increased swiftly with time (Fig. 1). Newly hatched chicks were temporarily removed from the incubator and briefly exposed to a lower temperature (approximately 25 °C) during the placement of ECG electrodes. The feathers were still wet, and heat loss from the chick must have decreased the body temperature because of the incomplete capacity for thermoregulation in precocial birds (Tazawa and



Fig. 5. Developmental pattern of mean heart rate (*f*H) of an embryo that failed to escape from the egg before the end of recording on day 24. Open and filled rectangles on the abscissa represent the day and night phases, as in Fig. 1. Actual daytime was from approximately 04:50 to 18:27 h in this experiment. The downward-pointing arrow indicates the predicted time of hatching, which was judged from the specific changes in instantaneous *f*H fluctuation patterns.

Rahn, 1987; Whittow and Tazawa, 1991). fH must presumably have decreased in accordance with lowered body temperature. Interestingly, however, the unhatched embryo was kept in the incubator, and its fH remained at the same level as the perinatal fH even after the predicted hatching time (Fig. 5). This suggests that hatching may not change the $f\overline{H}$ baseline as long as the environmental temperature does not change, although evaporative cooling of the wet chick is considered to be another possibility that could provide the stimulus for a change in fH. Another difference between hatched chicks and the embryo that failed to hatch was the level of the $f\overline{H}$ baseline 1–2 days after actual or predicted hatching (23-24 days in the unhatched embryo). The unhatched embryo was restrained from normal development in the egg and became weak, as reflected in a low $f\overline{H}_{1min}$. Nevertheless, a circadian rhythm of fH appeared in the unhatched embryo just as in hatched chicks. In addition, changes in fH fluctuations after the predicted hatching time were similar to those of hatched chicks (segments I, J and K in Figs 4C-E, 8C-E). These similarities between the hatched chicks and the unhatched embryo suggest that the development of patterns of fH was not influenced by the failure to hatch, but was related to incubation time and probably to the development and maturity of the embyro. The development of thermoregulatory capacity was not influenced by the failure to hatch (Tazawa et al., 1988).

Because our fH measurements were made without interruption, including opening of incubator doors, neither internal nor external pipping was confirmed directly. However, it can be inferred that changes in patterns of $f\overline{H}_{1\min}$ are related to internal and external pipping events. In prenatal embryos, the cyclic oscillations in fH with a period of 40-90 min were found to appear at approximately day 16-17 of incubation, and their magnitude increased with time (Akiyama et al., 1999). However, in that study, these fH ultradian rhythms could not be measured continuously after day 18-19 because of signal disturbances caused by embryonic activity. The present measurements showed that these ultradian rhythms continued until internal pipping, which probably occurred at the time of the increase in fH shown in segment B in Figs 1 and 5. If the subsequent decrease in fH were initiated by the hatching activities of the embryo, then external pipping might be a possible factor initiating this decrease, because respiratory arrhythmia occurred during this period in both hatched and unhatched embryos (Figs 3C, 7C). The wide baseline of instantaneous fH in these figures was a result of respiratory arrhythmia. Previous experiments with newly hatched chicks have shown that the broad baseline of instantaneous fH was caused by lung ventilation and consisted of cyclic oscillations with a frequency of 0.4-1.2 Hz, which was the same as that of ventilatory movements (Moriya et al., 1999). It has also been

confirmed previously that the wide baseline of instantaneous $f_{\rm H}$, signalling respiratory arrhythmia, occurred in external pipping embryos (Tazawa et al., 1999b). Thus, the external pipping period seemed to consist of two phases; the first was the period when the $f_{\rm H_{1min}}$ baseline dropped, and this was followed by the second phase which began with a sharp rise in the $f_{\rm H_{1min}}$ baseline.

During the second phase of external pipping, instantaneous fH began to accelerate cyclically with a period of approximately 16s in the hatched embryo (Fig. 3D) and of approximately 10s in the unhatched embryo (Fig. 7D). The increase in fH was approximately 50 beats min⁻¹ in the former and 30 beats min^{-1} in the latter. In other hatched embryos, the increase was also no more than 50 beats min⁻¹, and the period of these cyclic acceleration patterns ranged from 10 to 24 s. The cyclic accelerations lasted for several tens of minutes with a rise of fH baseline and subsequent plateau. The instantaneous fH baseline then dropped, and irregular intermittent large accelerations occurred. With time, irregular intermittent large accelerations occasionally turned into repeated acceleration patterns lasting for a short period, no longer than 5 min (referred to as short-term repeated large accelerations; Figs 3E, 7E). When the irregular intermittent large accelerations occurred, the baseline tended to fall for several minutes. During the period of short-term repeated large accelerations. the baseline tended to rise. Thus, the repeated occurrences of irregular accelerations and repeated accelerations formed additional oscillatory patterns with a period of 10-15 min (top panel in Fig. 5 of Tazawa et al., 1999b). As a result, three patterns of instantaneous fH accelerations characterized the last phase of external pipping period: relatively long-lasting cyclic small accelerations, which appeared first (Figs 3D, 7D), irregular intermittent large accelerations and short-term repeated large accelerations (Figs 3E, 7E). The appearance of the latter two patterns was an indication of imminent hatching.

The $f\overline{H}_{1\min}$ baseline widened further after hatching because of augmented fluctuations in *f*H. During the period when the



Fig. 6. (A,B) Recordings over periods of 12 h of mean heart rates averaged over 1 min periods, corresponding to segments A and B in Fig. 5.



Fig. 7. 10 min periods of instantaneous heart rate fluctuations recorded before the predicted time of hatching. Panels A–E correspond to the times indicated by segments $C-F_2$ in Fig. 5.

 $f\overline{H}_{1\min}$ baseline reached a peak soon after hatching, the instantaneous fH baseline changed relatively slowly, and intermittent fH decelerations dominated (Fig. 4A). With the passage of time, the changes in instantaneous fH baseline became fast and augmented, but fH decelerations were still dominant (Fig. 4B). These fH fluctuations with marked intermittent decelerations were similar in all chicks. When the $f\overline{H}_{1\min}$ baseline reached a minimum, respiratory arrhythmia became apparent (Fig. 4C). Subsequently, the instantaneous fH fluctuations were increasingly augmented by irregular accelerations (Fig. 4D) and cyclic accelerations (Fig. 4E). The fluctuations in fH shown in Fig. 4C, D and E correspond to those grouped into three types (types I, III and II, respectively) categorized in the previous report (Moriya et al., 1999): type I is categorized as a widespread baseline $f_{\rm H}$ (20–50 beats min⁻¹) due to respiratory arrhythmia with a mean oscillatory frequency of 0.74 Hz (range 0.4-1.2 Hz); type III is categorized as non-cyclic irregularities, dominated by frequent transient accelerations; and type II is categorized as low-frequency oscillations of the instantaneous fH baseline at a mean frequency of 0.07 Hz (range 0.04–0.1 Hz).

The development of instantaneous fluctuations in fH after the predicted hatching time in the unhatched embryo was substantially the same as that in hatched eggs except for the period soon after the predicted hatching time (segments G and H in Figs 1, 5). During this period, while the intermittent decelerations were dominant and instantaneous fH baseline changes were relatively slow and small in hatchlings (segments G and H in Fig. 1), in the unhatched embryo the fH baseline changed swiftly and frequently, forming large and wide



Fig. 8. 10 min periods of instantaneous heart rate (*f*H) fluctuations recorded after the predicted time of hatching. Panels A–E correspond to the times indicated by segments G–K in Fig. 5. The instantaneous *f*H baseline in D (segment J) oscillates with a period of 15 s, and mean *f*H during the 10 min period is approximately 260 beats min⁻¹.

irregular accelerations, although decelerations also occurred. It has previously been shown that fH decelerations disappeared in response to venous administration of atropine in prenatal embryos and were therefore mediated by parasympathetic nervous function (Höchel et al., 1998). This mechanism may also operate in newly hatched chicks. During the period soon after hatching when the fH baseline was elevated and accompanied by intermittent fH decelerations, parasympathetic nerve function may dominate sympathetic nerve function. In the unhatched embryo, augmentation of parasympathetic function during this period may be small compared with that in hatchlings, allowing accelerations in fH. With the passage of time, the fH baseline dropped and three types of fH fluctuation appeared, as in the hatchlings (Fig. 8C,D,E). Respiratory arrhythmia in this embryo, which was confined inside the eggshell, was dominant not only during the period when the fH baseline was lowered (Fig. 8C), but also during the period of type II (Fig. 8D) and type III (Fig. 8E) fluctuations in $f_{\rm H}$. The combined patterns of types I and II and types I and III have been reported previously in developing chick hatchlings (Moriya et al., 1999). The low-frequency oscillations of instantaneous fH baseline (0.09 Hz on average) were also found in young and adult quail (Pearson et al., 1998). Type II fH fluctuations may be due to baroreflexes, as suggested in mammals (Sayers, 1973), but this seems unlikely, since the response time is too slow to be effective (e.g. in Fig. 8D, a period of 15 s for a mean fH of 260 beats min⁻¹ is equivalent to every sixty-fifth heart beat). Non-cyclic irregularities,

dominated by frequent transient accelerations (type III), may be mediated by sympathetic nervous function, although venous administration of sympathomimetic and sympathetic blocking agents in prenatal chick embryos did not show a clear relationship with type III fluctuations (Höchel et al., 1998). Another possibility is a transient decline in parasympathetic nervous function resulting from an antagonistic balance with sympathetic nervous function. The origins of types II and III fluctuations in *f*H remain to be studied.

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