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#### 1 Equine Veterinary Education Clinical Commentary

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### 3 Active or Passive Laryngeal Closure

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- 9 Keywords: horse; larynx; glottic; closure; exercise
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- 11 The intrinsic laryngeal musculature regulates the size of the glottic opening (or rima glottidis) by
- 12 controlling the position of the corniculate processes of the arytenoid cartilages and the vocal folds.
- 13 Contraction of the cricoarytenoideus dorsalis muscle widens the glottic opening by abducting the
- 14 corniculate process of the arytenoid cartilage and tensing the vocal folds. The thyroarytenoideus,
- 15 arytenoid transversus and cricoarytenoideus lateralis adduct the corniculate process of the
- 16 arytenoid cartilage, thereby narrowing the glottic opening. The glottic opening is widened during
- 17 exercise, to permit the increased ventilation required for exercise and is closed during swallowing to

18 prevent aspiration of food.

The purpose of this clinical commentary is to describe glottic closure that occurs during exercise and
which is evident during an exercising endoscopy procedure.

21 Laryngeal hemiplegia or arytenoid cartilage collapse is well described in the horse, where recurrent

22 laryngeal neuropathy results in progressive atrophy of the cricoarytenoideus dorsalis muscle, and

failure of, usually the left, arytenoid cartilage to fully abduct during exercise. Bilateral laryngeal

24 paralysis also occasionally occurs in the horse, most commonly secondary to hepatopathy or toxins,

resulting in almost complete obstruction of the rima glottidis. These forms of arytenoid cartilage

26 collapse are a 'passive' form of glottic closure, due to failure of the abductor muscles to maintain

27 patency in the face of high pressures during exercise.

28 Also evident during exercise in some horses, is an 'active' closure, i.e. the horse is capable of

29 arytenoid abduction but there are times when the glottis is closed, presumably resulting from

30 contraction of the adductor muscles rather than failure of the abductor muscles. They are often

- 31 quick closure manoeuvres. These active glottic closures can be seen during swallowing, before
- 32 snorting, jumping, sprint start and often a change of pace -an example would be a horse doing an
- 33 extended canter down the long side of the arena. Often a 'grunting' sound can be heard at the time

34 of the glottic closure. For activities such as jumping, riders will often associate the 'grunting' noise 35 when the horse is putting in extra effort at take-off. Active glottic closure appears to occur more 36 frequently at lower levels of exercise (walk/ trot) or at the start of a pace, it is uncommon to see it 37 during established high-intensity exercise. It is also interesting to note that active glottic closure 38 (aside from swallowing) is less often seen during treadmill endoscopy and is more commonly seen 39 during overground endoscopy. Whether this difference relates to differences in the exercise being undertaken or whether the presence of the rider is the cause is at yet unknown. However, it has 40 41 been noted that if a rider kicks the horse during ridden exercise, a glottic closure may be observed, 42 presumably as the horse tries to protect the thorax.

43 Humans can also develop forms of exercise-induced laryngeal obstruction (EILO). Whereas, currently 44 these forms of obstruction or collapse are considered passive in horses, there is controversy 45 surrounding whether they are active or passive in human patients (Hull et al. 2016). In humans, 46 active adduction is key in activities such as vocalisation, swallowing and coughing. Complete or 47 partial active glottic closure also occurs during breath holds, typical when a person is straining or 48 performing a Valsalva manoeuvre (Mendelsohn and Martin 1993, Orlikoff 2008). In this situation 49 brief glottic closure allows entrapment and subsequent pressurisation of air that helps stabilise the 50 chest wall. Restraining the collapse of the ribcage, this supportive closure allows the muscles of the 51 trunk and limbs to perform with greater effectiveness. The maintenance of alveolar (and thus intra-52 truncal) pressure during lifting has been shown to not only assist the support of the pectoral girdle 53 but also to alleviate part of the load on the vertebral column. Even moderate levels of physical 54 exertion may be associated with this type of adductory bias (Orlikoff 2008). Laryngeal closure is seen in a variety of activities during maximal effort in humans. One study investigating upper limb power, 55 56 showed that all the people assessed could achieve greater power when the larynx was closed. There 57 was an average of 20% power loss when the larynx remained patent (Naito and Niimi 2000).

It seems likely that active glottic closure, as is observed in the horse during sprint starts, jumping and pace change could also be an adaptive process; acting to generate force +/- to provide a stabilising mechanism to create intrathoracic pressure and support during these movements. Accordingly, the data from humans, raises the question as to whether laryngeal surgery (e.g. in the form of tie-back and hobday, which prevents complete glottic closure) could be detrimental for some activities, most likely those requiring generation of explosive power such as jumping.

A further example, of how laryngeal closure may be functionally helpful or 'adaptive' is provided in
human studies evaluating expiratory phase laryngeal closure. Specifically, in addition to breath-hold
manoeuvres, active contraction of the adductor muscles during expiration is thought to provide

67 expiratory 'braking'. There is close neurophysiological coupling between the larynx and diaphragm, 68 and vocal fold adduction is thought to play a role in regulating the time constraints of lung emptying 69 and thus controlling end-expiratory lung volume (Brancatisano et al. 1985). This strategy appears to 70 be prominent in conditions such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). In the later, a 71 chronic relatively fixed impairment in expiratory airflow often leads patients to utilize a 'pursed-lip' 72 expiratory breathing pattern. It is assumed that this acts to generate a degree of auto positive end-73 expiratory pressure (PEEP) and thus to optimize intra-thoracic pressure and provide flow generation. 74 It is now apparent that this process also occurs at the level of the laryngeal inlet, with the degree of 75 active glottic narrowing directly relating to the severity of COPD (Baz et al. 2015, Hull et al. 2019). 76 Intervention to increase laryngeal patency, in this setting, has been shown to be associated with a 77 deleterious outcome (Lillie and Fowler 2013).

78 Likewise, in severe asthma excessive laryngeal closure was apparent in the expiratory phase in 40% 79 of patients, the inspiratory phase in 47% and in both phases in 13% (Hull et al. 2019). Laryngeal 80 closure during expiration is proposed to modulate intra-thoracic pressure, however excessive 81 closure particularly during inspiration is considered maladaptive and likely to increase work of 82 breathing (Hull et al. 2019). Certainly, these and other studies appear to show that, in humans, 83 closure of the laryngeal inlet during exertion can involve different anatomical structures / levels of 84 the larynx. It is thus apparent that the most common form of EILO in humans involves inspiratory 85 closure of the supra-glottic / arytenoid structures (>80% of cases) whereas in inducible laryngeal 86 obstruction or vocal cord-dysfunction the closure almost exclusively occurs at the glottic level.

An emerging concept in human respiratory medicine is that laryngeal hyperresponsiveness or hypersensitivity may play a role in the development of exercise—induced laryngeal obstruction in some people (Hull et al. 2016, Nordang et al. 2018). As the glottic closure reflex serves to protect the lower airways against aspiration, laryngeal hypersensitivity could lead to an exaggerated tendency to inappropriate reflex closure, that becomes amplified / prominent during exercise. It seems likely that the hyperpnoea of exercise and the heightened upper airway flow may trigger a defensive closure reflex.

In summary, in the exercising horse, laryngeal closure can be passive or active, physiologic or
pathologic. Brief episodes of apparent active glottic closure are not uncommon during light ridden
exercise. They are less commonly seen during high-intensity exercise. When they occur frequently
during ridden exercise the significance is less clear. It is important not to assume that adaptive
processes that are amplified are necessarily deleterious. The associated case report is an unusual
presentation as the findings were also associated with an obvious respiratory distress. When

- 100 observed during an overground endoscopy procedure the veterinary surgeon can at that time, work
- 101 with the rider to understand whether alterations in how the horse is ridden influences their
- 102 occurrence. Veterinary surgeons must also be cautious reviewing exercising endoscopy recordings as
- 103 interpretation of their significance is likely to be harder without information obtained when
- 104 observing the horse such as the actions of the rider, change in pace etc. Like humans, an
- 105 association with equine asthma is also a potential explanation and further investigations of the
- 106 lower airways should always be considered and evaluated.
- 107

HUMAN	Adaptive behaviour	Maladaptive behaviour
	Vocalisation Swallowing Coughing Expiratory closure during airflow obstruction	Exercise-induced laryngeal obstruction Inspiratory paradoxical closure Laryngeal hypersensitivity
HORSE	Swallowing Coughing Closure on jumping, change of pace, sprint start Asthma?	Arytenoid cartilage collapse Vocal cord collapse Laryngeal dyskinesia

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- 109 Schematic outlining proposed adaptive and maladaptive responses resulting in laryngeal closure
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- 111
- 112 **Supplementary item:** Endoscopic recording during exercise of a horse with left-side arytenoid
- 113 cartilage collapse. Also evident during the recording are multiple 'active' glottic closures.
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#### 121 Author's declaration of interests

122 No conflicts of interest have been declared

#### 123 Ethical animal research

- 124 Not applicable to this clinical commentary which represents a review of the literature and personal
- 125 clinical experience.

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