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1 **Differences in respiratory muscle responses to hyperpnea or loaded breathing in COPD**

2

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23 **Abstract**

24 **Introduction:** To compare acute mechanical and metabolic responses of the diaphragm and rib
25 cage inspiratory muscle during two different types of respiratory loading in patients with COPD.

26 **Methods:** In 16 patients (age:65±13, 56% male, FEV₁:60±6%pred, Pimax:82±5%pred)
27 assessments of respiratory muscle electromyography (EMG), esophageal (Pes) and gastric (Pga)
28 pressures, breathing pattern, and noninvasive assessments of systemic (VO₂, cardiac output,
29 oxygen delivery and extraction) and respiratory muscle hemodynamic and oxygenation
30 responses (blood flow index [BFI], oxygen delivery index, deoxyhemoglobin concentration
31 [HHb] and tissues oxygen saturation [StiO₂]), were performed under two different conditions of
32 respiratory muscle loading (hyperpnea and loaded breathing).

33 **Results:** During hyperpnea, breathing frequency, minute ventilation, esophageal and diaphragm
34 pressure-time product (PTP)/min, cardiac output and VO₂ were higher than during loaded
35 breathing ($P<0.05$). Average inspiratory Pes and Pdi per breath scalene (SCA),
36 sternocleidomastoid (SCM), and intercostal muscle activation was higher during loading
37 breathing ($P<0.05$). Higher Pdi during loaded breathing compared to hyperpnea was due to
38 higher Pes ($P<0.05$). Diaphragm activation, inspiratory and expiratory Pga and expiratory
39 abdominal muscle activation did not differ between the two conditions ($P>0.05$). SCA-BFI and
40 oxygen delivery index were lower and SCA-HHb was higher during loaded breathing.
41 Furthermore, SCA and intercostal muscle StiO₂ were lower during loaded breathing compared to
42 hyperpnea ($P<0.05$).

43 **Conclusion:** Greater inspiratory muscle effort during loaded breathing evoked larger ribcage and
44 neck muscle activation compared to hyperpnea. In addition, lower SCA and intercostal muscles

45 StiO_2 during loading breathing than during hyperpnea might indicates a mismatch between
46 inspiratory muscle oxygen delivery and utilization.

47 **Key Words:** RESPIRATORY MUSCLE ACTIVATION, RESPIRATORY MUSCLE
48 LOADING, RESPIRATORY MUSCLE METABOLISM, RESPIRATORY MUSCLE
49 TRAINING.

50 INTRODUCTION

51 Improvements in both respiratory muscle endurance and strength can be observed in
52 patients with COPD after either whole-body, or specific respiratory muscle endurance
53 training.(1-3) The improvements in respiratory muscle function in response to endurance training
54 are probably mainly due to the increased ventilatory demands induced by (exercise) hyperpnea.
55 Hyperpneic training provides a high respiratory flow / low resistance stimulus to the respiratory
56 muscles during a high number of consecutive repetitions.(2, 3) It has also been demonstrated that
57 adding specific hyperpneic (i.e. endurance) respiratory muscle training can enhance the effects of
58 whole body endurance training on respiratory muscle endurance. However, larger improvements
59 in inspiratory muscle strength (i.e., pressure generating capacity) have been reported after
60 specific inspiratory muscle strength training (IMT) in comparison with whole body endurance
61 training (i.e. average increases of 16 vs 6 cmH₂O in maximal inspiratory mouth pressure [MIP]
62 respectively).(4, 5) During inspiratory muscle strength training loading is induced by
63 overcoming a “high external resistance” during a limited number of breathing cycles per session
64 (e.g. 30-40 full vital capacity breaths against loads equaling about 30-50% of MIP).(4)
65 Therefore, as much as limb muscles respond distinctively to endurance and strengthening
66 stimuli,(6, 7) it can also be expected that different responses are induced when the respiratory
67 muscles are exposed to “endurance” (i.e., hyperpnea) or “strengthening” (i.e., loaded breathing)
68 stimuli. Differences in acute responses to either endurance or strengthening stimuli imposed on
69 the respiratory muscle in terms of muscle recruitment and activation patterns as well as local and
70 systemic oxygenation responses have however, to the best of our knowledge, never been
71 comprehensively characterized. Therefore, we aimed to explore and compare the acute responses

72 of a number of physiological variables during these two different types of inspiratory muscle
73 loading in patients with COPD..

74 **METHODS**

75 **Subjects.** Sixteen symptomatic patients (Baseline Dyspnea Index 6 ± 1),(8) with a clinical
76 diagnosis of COPD according to the Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary
77 Disease (GOLD),(9) aged between 55 and 74 years (see online supplement) were included in the
78 study. The study was approved by the local hospital ethics committee (reference number:
79 S58513). Before participation in the study, all patients were informed about potential risks and
80 discomforts associated with performing the experiments and provided written informed consent.

81 **Study design.** Experiments were performed on two visits. During the first visit (i.e.,
82 initial testing) patients performed comprehensive pulmonary function testing.(10, 11) Maximal
83 inspiratory muscle strength was measured by maximum inspiratory mouth pressures (MIP).(12,
84 13) An incremental cardiopulmonary exercise test (CPET),(14) and a constant work rate cycle
85 endurance test (CWRT),(14) were also performed during this visit (see supplemental online
86 material for more details). During the second visit, patients performed, in random order, both a
87 Normocapnic Hyperpnea trial (hyperpnea),(13, 15) reproducing the ventilatory responses (i.e.,
88 mean tidal volume, breathing frequency and minute ventilation) recorded for each patient during
89 the CWRT,(15) and a Tapered Flow Resistive Loading task (loaded breathing) reproducing
90 ventilator loading during a high-intensity IMT session.(13, 16) Both tasks were performed for
91 five minutes. Breathlessness was measured by the modified Borg scale at rest and at the end of
92 each task.(17) Additionally, during the final 60 seconds of both the hyperpnea and loaded
93 breathing tasks, respiratory muscle perfusion,(18) oxygen delivery,(19) respiratory muscle
94 activation (root mean square EMG%max) and respiratory effort were assessed.(13, 20-23)

95 Metabolic and ventilatory variables were also assessed breath by breath during both tasks by a
96 metabolic cart (Vmax 229; Sensor Medics, Anaheim, CA, USA).

97 **Hyperpnea.** Patients were requested to maintain tidal volume, breathing frequency and
98 minute ventilation reproducing their own breathing responses recorded during the CWRT for
99 five minutes.(15) Thus, during the test investigators provided continuous verbal guidance aiming
100 to maintain a maximum variation in minute ventilation of 5% throughout the test.(15) Visual
101 feedback on breathing parameters was also provided on a screen displayed in front of the patient
102 so as to adjust his/her breathing frequency and tidal volume to the level required by the
103 investigator. Normocapnia was maintained by having subjects inspire from a Douglas bag
104 containing 5% CO₂, 21% O₂ and 74% N₂ for balance, connected to a two-way non-rebreathing
105 valve (model 2700, Hans Rudolph) by a piece of tubing.(15)

106 **Loaded breathing.** The loaded breathing training session was performed in accordance
107 with previously published protocols of IMT using the electronic POWERbreathe KH2
108 device.(16) Subjects were requested to breathe out completely (i.e., until residual volume)
109 through a loaded breathing device (POWERbreathe KH2) followed by full vital capacity
110 inspirations against an external resistance of ~50% of patients MIP for 30 breaths or for a
111 minimum of five minutes.(16) Thereby loading the inspiratory muscles throughout their full
112 range of motion in accordance with a previously published method.(16)

113 **Respiratory muscle pressures, work of breathing and activation during hyperpnea**
114 **and loaded breathing.** Respiratory muscle pressures and diaphragm activation (EMGdi) were
115 measured by a combined multipair esophageal electrode catheter with esophageal- and gastric-
116 balloons (Yinghui Medical Equipment Technology Co. Ltd., Guangzhou, China) nasally inserted
117 after topical anesthesia. Procedures for optimal positioning of the catheter and signal processing

118 have already been published.(20) EMGdi was converted into root mean square (RMS),
119 normalized by its maximum activation during inspiratory capacity maneuvers (ICs) and reported
120 as percentage of maximum activation (EMGdi, %max). Continuous measurements of esophageal
121 (Pes), gastric (Pga) and transdiaphragmatic (Pdi, i.e., Pga - Pes) pressures and its derivatives
122 were performed. Inspiratory Pes, Pga and Pdi max were obtained during inspiratory sniff
123 maneuvers.(20) Expiratory Pga max, however, was obtained during forced expiratory capacity
124 maneuvers (see online supplement) . Ribcage, i.e., scalene (SCA), sternocleidomastoid (SCM),
125 parasternal intercostal and 7th intercostal (ICM and 7thICM, respectively), and abdominal (ABD)
126 muscle activation was measured by surface electromyography (sEMG) (Desktop Direct
127 Transmission (DTS), NORAXON, Scottsdale, USA).(21) Electrodes were placed (1) on the
128 posterior left triangle of neck at the level of cricoid process for scalene muscle measurements
129 (EMGsca), (2) at the midpoint along the long axis of the right sternocleidomastoid muscle
130 between the mastoid process and the medial clavicle for sternocleidomastoid muscle
131 measurement (EMGscm), (3) at the right parasternal space of the 2nd and 3rd rib 3 cm lateral to
132 the sternum for parasternal intercostal muscle measurements (EMGpicm), (4) at the line between
133 the 7th and 8th intercostal space at mid axillary line for 7th intercostal muscle measurements
134 (EMG 7th icm), (5) over upper 1/3 of rectus abdominis under costal cartilage level (EMGabd)
135 (see online supplement)..

136 **Systemic hemodynamic and vascular responses during loaded breathing and**
137 **hyperpnea.** Cardiac output, heart rate and stroke volume were continuously measured by a
138 commercial impedance cardiography device (PhysioFlowPF50; Manatec Biomedical, Macheren,
139 France) previously validated for COPD patients (see online supplement).(24) Estimated systemic
140 oxygen delivery was calculated by the product of cardiac output and arterial oxygen content. The

141 latter was calculated as the product of $1.39 \times$ hemoglobin concentration [Hb] and %SpO₂.[\(25\)](#)
142 Arterio-venous oxygen content (i.e., a-vO₂ diff) difference was calculated by dividing oxygen
143 uptake by cardiac output. The systemic oxygen extraction ratio was calculated as the ratio of the
144 a-vO₂ diff to arterial oxygen content. In addition, systemic vascular conductance was calculated
145 by dividing cardiac output by mean arterial blood pressure.

146 **Respiratory muscles perfusion and oxygenation responses.** SCA, SCM and 7thICM,
147 and ABD blood flow indices (BFI) were calculated by using two commercial Near-Infrared
148 Spectroscopy (NIRS; NIRO-200 and a NIRO-200NX; HAMAMATSU Photonics KK) devices in
149 combination with light-absorbing indocyanine green dye (ICG) that was injected through a
150 peripheral venous catheter as previously described and validated for patients with COPD (see
151 online supplement). For the above-mentioned respiratory muscles oxygen delivery index was
152 calculated by the product of BFI and arterial oxygen content. NIRS optodes were placed at the
153 right posterior triangle of the neck, the left 7th intercostal space and over the upper 1/3 of rectus
154 abdominis below costal cartilage level to respectively measure SCA, 7thICM and rectus
155 abdominis muscle perfusion. ICG injections for calculating BFI were performed during the last 5
156 breaths during loaded breathing and during the last 30 seconds of the hyperpnea trial.

157 NIRS-derived changes in respiratory muscle deoxyhemoglobin concentration ([HHb])
158 was used as an index of respiratory muscle oxygen extraction.[\(26\)](#) NIRS-derived tissue oxygen
159 saturation index (i.e., St_iO₂) was considered as a measure of the dynamic balance between local
160 tissue oxygen delivery and utilization [\(27\)](#) and, therefore, local muscle capacity to match oxygen
161 supply relative to its metabolic demand (see online supplement)).

162 **Statistical analysis.** A power >0.99 was found based on the difference between SCM
163 muscle activation (EMG_{scm},%max) between the three tasks (i.e., rest, hyperpnea and loaded

164 breathing, see *Data analysis section* in the online supplement). Data are expressed as mean \pm SE
165 or mean difference (95% confidence interval). Mean respiratory muscle activation, respiratory
166 pressures and its derivatives, breathing pattern variables and central hemodynamic and metabolic
167 variables during the last 60 seconds of rest, hyperpnea and loaded breathing were compared by
168 one-way repeated measures ANOVA when normal distribution was not violated. Otherwise, the
169 Friedman test was used. When statistical significance was met ($P<0.05$) pairwise comparisons
170 with Holm correction were performed as post-hoc analyses. Changes in respiratory muscle
171 perfusion and oxygenation responses from rest to hyperpnea versus rest to loaded breathing were
172 compared by paired t-tests when normally distributed, or by Mann-Whitney tests if normal
173 distribution assumptions were not met (see online supplement).

174 **RESULTS**

175 **Subjects characteristics.** Subjects' characteristics are described in detail in Table 1. The
176 sample was well balanced regarding sex and composed by patients classified as having mild to
177 very severe COPD presenting resting lung hyperinflation (i.e., increased RV/TLC) (see *Subjects*
178 *characteristics* in the supplemental material for more details). Six out of the sixteen included
179 were not willing (n= 5) or able (n= 1) to undergo measurements of EMGdi, Pes and Pga with the
180 esophageal catheter system. Three patients did not have respiratory muscle perfusion measured
181 due to either technical reasons (n=1) or because of contraindications regarding ICG injections
182 (n=2). Hence, nine out of the sixteen patients had concurrent measurements of EMGdi,
183 respiratory pressures and respiratory muscle perfusion. There were no differences regarding
184 pulmonary function, peak exercise and inspiratory muscle capacity between subjects with
185 EMGdi and respiratory pressures measurements versus those subjects not able or not willing to
186 undergo these specific experimental procedures.

187 **Respiratory symptoms during hyperpnea and loaded breathing tasks.** Neither
188 breathlessness nor respiratory effort sensations were statistically different between hyperpnea
189 and loaded breathing (5 ± 1 vs. 4 ± 1 , $P=0.15$ and 5 ± 1 vs. 5 ± 1 , $P=0.93$, respectively).

190 **Respiratory muscle activation.** We observed similar levels of diaphragm activation
191 (EMGdi%max) (Figure 1a) between hyperpnea and loaded breathing ($P= 0.35$). SCM, SCA and
192 both intercostals muscle activation (i.e., parasternal and 7th intercostal) were significantly higher
193 during loaded breathing as compared to hyperpnea (Figures 1b – 1e). There were no significant
194 differences between expiratory activation of the abdominal muscle between hyperpnea and
195 loaded breathing (EMGabd, %max: 33 ± 4 vs. 30 ± 6 , respectively; $P=0.27$).

196 **Respiratory pressures and work of breathing.** Diaphragmatic and esophageal pressures
197 per breath were significantly higher during loaded breathing in comparison to hyperpnea, gastric
198 pressure, however, was similar between the two conditions ($P= 0.64$; Table 2). Pes PTP and Pes
199 WOB/b were significantly higher during loaded breathing in comparison to hyperpnea (Table 2).
200 Inspiratory Pga and Pdi WOB/b were significantly greater during loaded breathing as compared
201 to hyperpnea (Table 2). Pes WOB/min, and Pdi WOB/min tended to be higher during loaded
202 breathing in comparison to hyperpnea ($P=0.06$ and $P=0.08$ respectively), but Pga WOB/min was
203 similar ($P= 0.96$) between the two conditions. Pes, Pga and Pdi PTP/min responses during
204 hyperpnea were significantly higher as compared to loaded breathing (Table 2). There were no
205 significant differences in expiratory Pga between hyperpnea and loaded breathing ($P= 0.83$;
206 Table 2).

207 **Breathing pattern.** In comparison to hyperpnea, absolute and relative inspiratory
208 volumes were significantly higher during loaded breathing. Respiratory rate and minute
209 ventilation however, was significantly lower during loading breathing compared to hyperpnea

210 ($P < 0.05$; Table 2). Peak inspiratory flow was similar ($P = 0.20$) and accompanied by longer
211 inspiratory time and lower duty cycle during loaded breathing in comparison to hyperpnea
212 ($P < 0.05$; Table 2). During hyperpnea, end-inspiratory lung volume (EILV) achieved $81 \pm 2\%$ of
213 the vital capacity and during loaded breathing achieved $59 \pm 4\%$ of the vital capacity.
214 Representing an end-inspiratory reserve volume of 1.76 ± 0.12 L during hyperpnea and $2.90 \pm$
215 0.24 during loaded breathing ($P < 0.001$).

216 **Systemic hemodynamic, metabolic and cardiovascular responses.** Cardiac output,
217 VO_2 , a-vO₂ diff and systemic vascular conductance responses were significantly greater during
218 hyperpnea than during loaded breathing ($P < 0.05$; Table 3). Mean arterial blood pressure did not
219 significantly differ between the two conditions (Table 3).

220 **Respiratory muscle perfusion and oxygenation responses.** Increases from rest in
221 SCABFI and oxygen delivery index were significantly less during loaded breathing as compared
222 to hyperpnea ($P < 0.05$; Table 4). The change from rest in SCA oxygen extraction (i.e., [HHb])
223 was significantly higher during loading breathing as compared to hyperpnea ($P < 0.05$; Table 4).
224 During loading breathing SCA-StiO₂ decreased from rest whilst during hyperpnea SCA-StiO₂
225 increased leading to a significant difference in SCA-StiO₂ between the two conditions ($P < 0.05$;
226 Table 4). Increases from rest in 7thICMBFI and oxygen delivery index were less (but not
227 significant $P = 0.27$ and $P = 0.26$, respectively) during loaded breathing as compared to hyperpnea.
228 The change from rest in 7thICM-HHB tended to be higher during loaded breathing as compared
229 to hyperpnea ($P = 0.06$). During loading breathing 7thICM -StiO₂ decreased from rest whilst during
230 hyperpnea 7thICM -StiO₂ increased leading to a significant difference in 7thICM -StiO₂ between
231 the two conditions ($P < 0.05$; Table 4). No significant changes in BFI ($P = 0.09$), oxygen delivery

232 ($P= 0.10$), [HHB] ($P= 0.11$), and StiO_2 ($P= 0.50$) were observed for the ABDs between loaded
233 breathing and hyperpnea.

234 **DISCUSSION**

235 ***Main findings.*** Our key findings are that by engaging either in hyperpnea (endurance
236 stimulus) or loaded breathing (strength stimulus) differences in both local (i.e., respiratory
237 muscle) and systemic responses are evoked in patients COPD. In both conditions the increase in
238 systemic and respiratory muscle hemodynamics from rest seems to increase in association with
239 the increase in VO_2 , (Tables 3 and 4). Loaded breathing elicited greater activation of the SCA,
240 SCM ICM and 7^{th} ICM and inspiratory muscle and reduction in SCA and 7^{th} ICM- StiO_2 (Figure 1
241 and Table 4, respectively) compared to hyperpnea, thus reflecting the additional burden imposed
242 on these muscles by a strengthening stimulus in comparison to an endurance loading stimulus
243 (Table 2). In addition, increases in diaphragmatic activation during hyperpnea and loaded
244 breathing relative to resting breathing were of similar magnitude in both conditions (Figure 1).

245 ***Respiratory muscle activation during loaded breathing and hyperpnea.*** The
246 contribution of SCA, SCM and intercostal muscles to the act of breathing is known to be
247 amplified with increased ventilatory demands.(28-30) Additionally, increased lung volumes are
248 known to impact on the length-tension relationship of the diaphragm, by moving it away from its
249 optimal length to generate pressure.(31-33).(31). Notably, as compared to diaphragm, increased
250 lung volumes ensuing less length-tension impairment of SCA, SCM and intercostal muscles.
251 These muscle undergo less severe length changes resulting in “less” sub-optimal length at higher
252 volumes,(34-36) thereby relatively preserved pressure generating capacity.(36) Thus, SCA,
253 SCM and intercostal muscles recruitment enables the respiratory system to compensate for the
254 lost efficiency of the diaphragm by increasing lateral, dorsoventral (i.e., intercostals), and cranial

255 (i.e., SCA and SCM) displacement of the rib cage.(31), SCA, SCM and intercostal muscles
256 recruitment serves as a reserve to overcome increasing demands imposed on the respiratory
257 system under these conditions (i.e., performing faster and deeper inspiratory maneuvers as well
258 as against higher loads).(34, 35) In our study, the recruitment of SCA, SCM and both intercostal
259 muscles was further amplified during loaded breathing (Figure 1) when an additional external
260 load was imposed on the respiratory system in addition to higher inspiratory volumes and flow
261 rates. This resulted in further increases in respiratory demands (i.e., increased inspiratory
262 pressures, WOB and PTP; Table 2). Furthermore, increases in inspiratory Pdi during loaded
263 breathing (in comparison with hyperpnea) were mostly due to more negative inspiratory Pes but
264 not more positive Pga (Table 2; see online supplement). These findings suggest that SCA, SCM
265 and intercostal muscles were preferably recruited to perform the additional work imposed on the
266 inspiratory muscles during loaded breathing.

267 ***Systemic and respiratory muscle metabolism during loaded breathing and hyperpnea.***

268 It is know that during exercise systemic responses such as cardiac output and VO_2 increases
269 proportionally to the work being performed by the working muscles per unit time.(37-39) Our
270 study further supports these relations by demonstrating that increases in both VO_2 and cardiac
271 output during hyperpnea and loaded breathing appeared to have strong associations with PTP
272 expressed per minute rather than per breath (Figure 2). Highlighting that increases in respiratory
273 muscle oxygen requirements (i.e., cost of breathing) seems to be associated with the cumulative
274 respiratory muscle effort that is developed during a given task rather than the respiratory muscle
275 effort of each breath of a given task (figure 2).

276 The higher levels of both systemic and respiratory muscle oxygen extraction (i.e., $a-vO_2$
277 difference and oxygen extraction and [HHb], respectively) during hyperpnea in comparison to

278 loaded breathing were accompanied by sufficient increase in both systemic and respiratory
279 muscle oxygen delivery (Tables 3 and 4), thereby preserving the balance between respiratory
280 muscle oxygen delivery and utilization (i.e., $StiO_2$; Table 4). During loaded breathing, however,
281 despite higher respiratory pressure swings and PTP per breath (Table 2), PTP/min was lower
282 than during hyperpnea (Table 3). Likewise, increases in VO_2 and in cardiac output were less
283 during loaded breathing in comparison to hyperpnea (Table 3). The lower “systemic” oxygen
284 requirements (i.e., VO_2 and a- vO_2 diff, Table 3) during loaded breathing were accompanied by a
285 smaller increase in respiratory muscle blood flow and oxygen delivery in comparison to
286 hyperpnea (Table 4). These responses observed during loading breathing resulted in a mismatch
287 between SCA and 7thICM muscles oxygen delivery and utilization (Table 4), resulting in greater
288 increases in muscle oxygen extraction (i.e., HHB) and lower $StiO_2$ as compared to hyperpnea
289 (Table 4). Higher intramuscular tensions imposed during loading breathing, might have
290 contributed to limiting increased in muscle blood flow and oxygen delivery as compared to
291 hyperpnea (Table 4).[\(40\)](#) The evidence of high intramuscular pressures during loading breathing
292 is supported by the results demonstrating that mean arterial pressure did not statistically differ
293 between the two conditions (Table 3) even that during loading breathing central hemodynamic
294 responses were significantly lower compared to hyperpnea (Table 3). Indeed, studies have shown
295 that increases in intramuscular pressure during dynamic exercise can reflexively increase mean
296 arterial blood pressure (via the activation of the mechanoreceptor-mediated reflex within the
297 skeletal muscle), the latter increases can be maintained throughout the exercise period.[\(41\)](#)

298 ***General considerations.*** Collectively, these results seem to support the notion that
299 additional inspiratory pressures generated during loaded breathing are mainly a consequence of
300 increased loading and activation of SCA, SCM and both intercostal muscles. The behavior of the

301 “respiratory effort-recruitment” ratio,(42) i.e., the “matching” between respiratory muscle effort
302 (e.g., Pes, %max) and the recruitment of different inspiratory muscles (EMG, %max), is
303 noteworthy. While during resting breathing a higher ratio indicates a “predominantly diaphragm
304 contribution to breathing”, with increasing load (i.e., hyperpnea and loaded breathing), the ratio
305 becomes similar between diaphragm and SCA, SCM and both intercostal muscles, thereby
306 indicating that SCA, SCM and both intercostal muscles contribution to breathing becomes
307 equally important as that of the diaphragm (supplemental material Figure E1).

308 The observed acute increases in load and work being performed by the inspiratory
309 muscles during both tasks (Table 2) are known to be important determinants of muscle
310 improvements after exercise programs.(43) Furthermore, according to the specificity and
311 overload principles of training,(43) in response to a low load (i.e., pressures), high repetition
312 (i.e., breathing frequency and duration) and high exercise-volume (i.e., PTP cmH₂O/s/min)
313 (Table 2) stimulus as hyperpnea, an endurance benefit would be expected. While after loaded
314 breathing, improvements in strength would be anticipated as consequence of the high load (i.e.,
315 pressures), low repetition (i.e., breathing frequency and duration) and high contraction-volume
316 (PTP cmH₂O/s/b) stimulus imposed by this regimen (Table 2). Noteworthy the additional
317 recruitment of only SCA, SCM and both intercostal muscles (Figure 1) as the strategy to
318 overcome the load imposed during loaded breathing in comparison to hyperpnea (Table 2) was
319 accompanied by an increased metabolic burden (Table 3) It is therefore likely these inspiratory
320 muscles will mostly benefit from this additional stimulus (i.e., increased load).(43) It has
321 previously been observed that a period of high intensity inspiratory muscle strength training
322 resulted in increases in specific hypertrophy of intercostal muscle fibers.(44)

323 *Implications.* The differences in physiological responses evoked by these different types
324 (and intensities) of respiratory muscles loading support observations that had previously been
325 done in clinical practice. It has long been assumed that while exercise hyperpnea constitutes a
326 training load to the respiratory muscles a larger stimulus might be applied with specific
327 respiratory muscle training.(45) This is supported by data from RCTs showing that adding
328 specific inspiratory muscle strength training resulted in larger improvements in respiratory
329 muscle function (strength and endurance), exercise capacity (cycling endurance time) and
330 reduction in dyspnea(1) than standard endurance exercise training alone.(2, 4) The stimulus
331 imposed during loaded breathing in this study (resembling a specific type of inspiratory muscle
332 strength training) seems to be a good complimentary training stimulus for the respiratory
333 muscles in addition to whole body exercise training.(46) Based on our data it provides a different
334 additional load to the respiratory muscles in comparison to exercise hyperpnea. In contrast with
335 earlier hypotheses this additional load did not result in stimulating the diaphragm in exceeding a
336 plateau in motor unit recruitment that is typically observed early during exercise hyperpnea,(47)
337 but by further stimulating SCA, SCM and intercostal muscle recruitment above levels observed
338 during exercise breathing. Nevertheless, it is important to stress that the hyperpnea used herein
339 resembles the load imposed to the respiratory system during exercise hyperpnea (i.e., 70% MVV
340 for several minutes) and not necessarily loads imposed during specific respiratory muscle
341 endurance training (i.e., 50 - 70% MVV for 15-30 minutes).(4) Whether higher volumes and
342 longer durations of specific respiratory muscle endurance training might also lead to differential
343 activation and recruitment patterns of respiratory muscles in comparison to the relatively short
344 exercise hyperpnea stimulus provided in our study remains to be investigated.

345 *Strengths, limitations and technical considerations.* The multitude of variables
346 simultaneously collected is a strength of the study. It allows the concurrent investigation of the
347 behavior of respiratory muscles activation, pressure generation and metabolism under the same
348 stimulus. Unfortunately, however, assessments of blood flow and oxygen requirements of the
349 diaphragm could not be performed due to methodological and safety issues. A limitation of our
350 study is the small sample size due to the complexity and the invasiveness of its methods and the
351 fact that not all subjects were able or willing to undergo all experimental procedures. However,
352 the sample was powered sufficiently (see *Data analysis* in the supplemental material for more
353 details) to detect differences in a wide variety of physiological markers. Moreover, while
354 reproducing the ventilatory pattern of exercise hyperpnea (i.e., breathing frequency, tidal volume
355 and ventilation), there were also no statistically significant differences between the expiratory
356 gastric pressures and expiratory ABD activation that were generated during cycling exercise in
357 comparison to hyperpnea (P_{ga} cycling 20 ± 3 vs P_{ga} hyperpnea 25 ± 5 , cmH₂O; $P=0.3$; EMG_{abd}
358 cycling 23 ± 4 vs EMG_{abd} hyperpnea 33 ± 4 , %max; $P=0.10$, respectively). Thus, providing an
359 adequate reproducibility between exercise hyperpnea and the hyperpnea task used in our study.
360 Arterial oxygen content, $a\text{-VO}_2$ diff and systemic oxygen extraction were estimated using
361 continuous SpO₂ measurements at the expense of acceptable reduced accuracy in the hypoxemic
362 patients compared with invasive arterial blood sampling. In addition, it is known that the EMG
363 signal from the costal diaphragm can generate noise on the activation of the 7thICM we measured
364 herein. However, the different pattern of diaphragm and 7thICM activation between loaded
365 breathing and hyperpnea suggested that this was not the case in our data. Nevertheless, it is
366 possible that the EMG signal measured at these muscles as well as at SCA and SCM could be, at
367 least in part, contaminated from nearby activity due to the use of superficial electrodes. In our

368 patients, the contribution of diaphragmatic blood flow to the overall NIRS signal on the 7th
369 intercostal space is probably limited considering that adipose tissue thickness (fat + skin layer)
370 (measurements were performed using a Harpenden skinfold caliper) indicated a mean value of
371 8.2 ± 3.7 mm. Therefore, the maximum penetration depth of NIRS light to the muscle tissue was
372 reduced to approximately 12 mm. Taking into account the substantial distance between the
373 sampling point of NIRS on the skin and the diaphragmatic appositional area compared with the
374 shorter distance to the intercostals we believe that perfusion and oxygenation measures in our
375 study at this site reflected mostly the external and internal intercostal muscles.

376 **CONCLUSION**

377 During loaded breathing there was greater respiratory muscle effort compare to
378 hyperpnea which ensued larger ribcage and neck muscle activation during inspirations. This
379 response reflects the additional burden imposed on these muscles by a strengthening stimulus in
380 comparison to an endurance loading stimulus. In addition, the decrease in ribcage and neck
381 muscle tissue oxygen saturation during loading breathing compared to hyperpnea might indicates
382 a mismatch between inspiratory muscle oxygen delivery and utilization .

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385

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392

393 **Conflict of interest**

394 The authors have no conflict of interest to disclose. The results presented herein do not
395 constitute endorsement by ACSM and are presented clearly, honestly, and without fabrication,
396 falsification, or inappropriate data manipulation.

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553 **Figure 1.** Comparisons between the EMG activation among the different tasks. EMGdi, %max:
554 relative diaphragmatic activation; EMGsca, %max: relative scalenes activation; EMGscm,
555 %max: relative sternocleidomastoid activation; EMGicm, %max: relative parasternal intercostal
556 activation; EMG 7th icm, %max: relative 7th intercostal activation. Boxplots shows median at
557 central line, first and third quantiles for lower and upper box's limits, respectively, and minimum
558 and maximum values for lower and upper limits. Dots are single patients' values. Dots outside
559 the limits are outliers' values. * $P < 0.05$; NS; $P > 0.05$. EMGdi: $n = 10$; sEMG $n = 16$.

560

561 **Figure 2.** Relationship between work of breathing (WOB) and pressure-time product (PTP) with
562 oxygen consumption (VO_2 ; a and d, respectively) and cardiac output (CO; b and e, respectively);
563 and between systemic oxygen delivery (O_2 del) and oxygen consumption (VO_2) and vascular
564 conductance (Vasc. cond.; c and f, respectively). r: Pearson coefficient correlations; R^2 : Adjusted
565 R squared (univariate linear regression); NA: not applicable; NS: $P > 0.05$ (non-significant). Lines
566 are the best-fitting line and shadow areas are 95% confidence interval. Circles: rest; triangles:
567 normocapnic hyperpnea; cross: tapered flow resistive loading.

568 **Table 1.** Subjects characteristics, pulmonary function and peak exercise and inspiratory muscle
 569 capacity data

	n: 16
Demographics / Anthropometrics	
Sex, male/female	9 / 7
Age, yrs	65 ± 13
BMI, kg/m²	27 ± 1.6
Pulmonary function	
FEV₁, L	1.44 ± 0.15
FEV₁, %pred	60 ± 6
FVC, L	3.23 ± 0.22
FVC, %pred	99 ± 8
FEV₁/FVC, %	44 ± 3
MVV, L/min	52 ± 5
MVV, %pred	65 ± 8
TLC, L	6.4 ± 0.46
TLC, %pred	118 ± 5
RV, L	3.45 ± 0.33
RV, %pred	155 ± 12
RV/TLC, %	54 ± 2
VC, L	2.9 ± 0.2
TLCO, mmol/min/kpa	4.3 ± 0.4
TLCO, %pred	56 ± 4

Peak exercise data and inspiratory muscle capacity

W_{peak}, W	81±7
W_{peak}, %max	71±5
VO₂, peak, L/min	1.371±0.116
VO₂, peak, %max	87±8
CO_{peak}, L/min	12.0±0.5
MIP, cmH₂O	74±4
MIP, %pred	82±5
MIP <LLN, n(%)	9(56)
Hb, g/dl	14.5±0.3

570 Data are mean ± SE or n (%). FEV₁: forced expiratory volume in the first second; FVC: forced -
571 vital capacity; MVV: maximum voluntary ventilation; TLC: total lung capacity; RV: residual
572 volume; TLCO: transfer factor for carbon monoxide; MIP: maximal inspiratory pressure; Insp.
573 mm. weakness: maximum inspiratory pressure bellow the lower limit of normality; W_{peak}; peak
574 exercise capacity; VO_{2peak}: peak oxygen consumption; CO_{peak}; peak cardiac output; LLN:
575 lower limit of normality.
576

577 **Table 2.** Respiratory pressures and work of breathing and breathing pattern data during hyperpnea and loaded breathing

	Mean diff (95% CI)					
	Rest	Hyperpnea	Loaded breathing	Hyperpnea - Rest	Loaded breathing - Rest	Loaded breathing - Hyperpnea
Respiratory pressures and work of breathing (n= 10)						
Pes, cmH₂O	-9±1	-15±1	-35±2	-6(-11 - -2)*	-26(-30 - -21)*	-19(-24 - -15)*
Pes, %max	14±2	23±2	54±5	10(-2 - 21)*	40(27 - 51)*	30(18 - 41)*
inspPga, cmH₂O	10±2	12±2	15±4	1(-9 - 12)	5(-5 - 15)	3(-7 - 13)
expPga, cmH₂O	10±1	21±4	21±4	10(-1 - 21)	11(0 - 22)	1(-10 - 12)
inspPga, %max	21±	22±4	26±6	1(-15 - 17)	5(-11 - 21)	4(-12 - 20)
Pdi, cmH₂O	19±1	27±2	50±4	7(17 - -2)*	30(40 - 20)*	22(32 - 12)*
Pdi, %max	21±2	28±1	53±4	7(-2 - 16)*	32(22 - 41)*	24(15 - 34)*
Pes WOB, L/cmH₂O	6±1	16±2	113±16	10(-22 - 42)*	108(75 - 140)*	97(65 - 130)*
inspPga WOB, L/cmH₂O	3±1	9±2	33±5	6(-6 - 17)	30(18 - 41)*	24(13 - 36)*
Pdi WOB, L/cmH₂O	7±2	14±4	104±15	7(-25 - 39)*	97(65 - 128)*	90(58 - 122)*
PTPPes, cmH₂O/s/b	4±0	6±0	8±1	2(0 - 4)*	4(-2 - 4)*	2(0 - 4)*
inspPTPPga, cmH₂O/s/b	4±1	4±1	3±1	0(-3 - 3)	-1(4 - 2)	-1(-4 - 2)

PTPPdi, cmH₂O/s/b	8±1	10±1	11±1	2(0–6)	3(0–6)	1(-2–4)
Pes WOB, L/cmH₂O/min	95±11	495±62	624±71	400(209–591)*	529(337–720)*	129(-62–320)
inspPga WOB, L/cmH₂O/min	52±7	276±58	198±38	224(83–365)*	147(6–288)*	-77(-218–64)
Pdi WOB, L/cmH₂O/min	109±16	430±107	567±66	321(64–578)*	458(200–715)*	136(-120–394)
PTPPes, cmH₂O/s/min	71±12	184±16	49±9	112(69–157)*	-21(-66–22)	-135(-179–91)*
inspPTPPga, cmH₂O/s/min	84±18	142±28	21±7	58(-12–127)*	-62(-132–7)*	-120(-190–51)*
PTPPdi, cmH₂O/s/min	154±26	325±35	68±13	171(79–262)*	-85(-177–6)*	-256(-348–-1654.73)*

Breathing pattern (n= 16)

	Rest	hyperpnea	loaded breathing	hyperpnea - Rest	loaded breathing - Rest	loaded breathing - hyperpnea
VE, L	13±1	38±3	12±1	25(18–32)*	-1(-8–5)	-26(-33–-19)*
Insp. vol., L	0.74±0.06	1.17±0.11	1.9±0.21	0.43(-0.05–0.91)*	1.16(0.68–1.64)*	0.73(0.25–1.21)*
Bf, b/min	20±1	34±1	7±1	14(10–18)*	-13(-17–-8)*	-27(-31–-22)*
Insp. peak flow, L/sec	0.91±0.05	2.47±0.18	2.23±0.2	1.56(1.03–2.09)*	1.32(0.80–1.85)*	-0.24(-0.77–0.28)
Insp. time, s	1.27±0.1	0.67±0.04	2.26±0.22	-0.60(-1.09–0.11)*	0.99(0.50–1.47)*	1.58(1.10–2.07)*
Ti/Ttot, %	38±1	37±1	24±2	-2(-6–4)	-14(-19–-8)*	-12(-18–-7)*

578 Data are mean \pm SE or mean difference (95% confidence interval). Ti/Ttot: duty cycle of respiration; Bf: breathing frequency; Pes:
579 Esophageal pressure; Pdi: Transdiaphragmatic pressure; WOB: work of breathing; PTP: Pressure Time Product. * $P < 0.05$.
580

581 **Table 3.** Central hemodynamic and metabolic responses

	Rest	hyperpnea	loaded breathing	Mean diff (95% CI)		
				hyperpnea - Rest	loaded breathing - Rest	loaded breathing - hyperpnea
HR,bpm	76±3	90±4	89±4	14(2–26)*	13(1–25)*	-1(-13–11)
SV,ml	70±4	84±6	73±4	15(-1–31)*	4(-13–20)	-11(-27–5)*
CO,L/min	5.2±0.3	7.5±0.5	6.5±0.4	2.3(0.9–3.7)*	1.1(0.2–2.6)*	-1.1(-0.4–0.3)*
CO,%max	44±3	62±4	54±4	19(6–32)	10(-3–23)	-8(-21–5)
VO₂,ml/min	283±20	625±42	443±34	342(229–454)*	161(46–275)*	-181(-296–-67)*
VO₂,%max	25±4	54±7	39±5	29(10–48)*	13(-6–32)*	-16(-34–3)*
VCO₂,ml/min	224±14	412±69	409±32	188(35–341)*	185(29–340)*	-4(-159–151)
CaO₂,mlO₂/100ml	189±0.5	192±0.5	192±0.4	0.3(-1.2–1.9)	0.3(-1.2–1.9)	0(-1.5–1.6)
O₂ delivery, LO₂/min	0.98±0.05	1.42±0.1	1.23±0.07	0.44(0.17–0.71)*	0.25(-0.01–0.52)*	-0.18(-0.45–0.08)*
O₂ extraction, %	29±2	46±4	38±3	16(6–26)*	8(-2–19)*	-8(-18–3)*
a-vO₂ difference, mlO₂/100ml	5.6±0.3	8.73±0.75	7.3±0.7	3.2(1.1–5.3)*	1.7(-0.4–3.9)*	-1.4(-3.5–0.7)*
SVC, ml/min/mmHg	56±3	74±5	63±4	18(5–32)*	7(-7–21)*	-11(-26–3)*
SpO₂, %	94±1	95±1	94±1	2(-1–4)	0(-2–3)	-1(-4–1)

SBP,mmHg	120±3	139±6	133±5	19(4–33)*	13(-3–28)*	-5.9(-22–10)
DBP,mmHg	80±2	88±2	90±4	8(-1–17)	10(1–20)*	2(-8–12)
MAP	93±2	105±3	104±4	12(2–22)*	11(1–21)*	-1(-11–10)

582 Data are mean ± SE or mean difference (95% confidence interval). HR: heart rate; SV: stroke volume; CO: cardiac output; VO₂:
583 oxygen consumption; VCO₂: carbon dioxide production; CaO₂: arterial oxygen content; a-vO₂ difference: arterio-venous oxygen
584 difference; SVC: systemic vascular conductance SpO₂: peripheral oxygen saturation; SBP: systolic blood pressure; DBP: diastolic
585 blood pressure; Vasc. Cond.: systemic vascular conductance. **P* <0.05.

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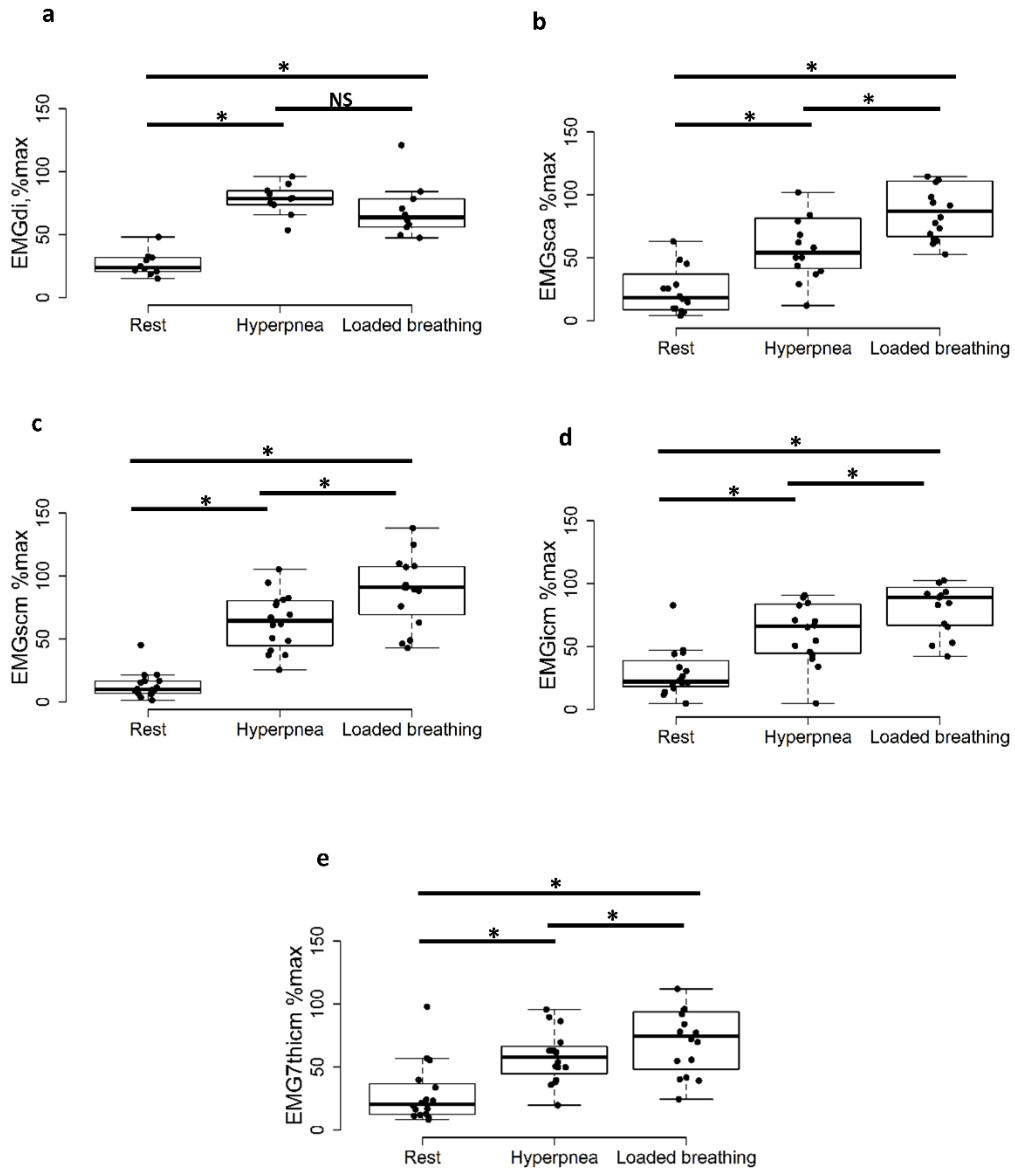
588 **Table 4.** Respiratory muscles perfusion and oxygenation responses during hyperpnea and loaded
 589 breathing

	Mean diff (95% CI)		
	hyperpnea	loaded breathing	loaded breathing - hyperpnea
Respiratory muscle perfusion, n= 13			
Δ SCA BFI, nmol/L	4.67 ± 1.3	2.81 ± 1.17	-1.86 (-3.2 - -0.5)*
Δ 7 th IC BFI, nmol/L	0.76 ± 0.2	0.5 ± 0.2	0.27 (-0.78 - 0.2)
Δ ABD BFI, nmol/L	1.2 ± 0.5	0.4 ± 0.3	-0.8 (-1.7 - 0.2)
Respiratory muscle O₂ delivery			
Δ SCA O ₂ del, au	90 ± 24	54 ± 22	-36 (-11 - -62)*
Δ 7 th IC O ₂ del, au	14 ± 4	10 ± 5	-5 (4 - -14)
Δ ABD O ₂ del, au	23 ± 10	8 ± 6	-14 (3 - -33)
Respiratory muscle oxygen saturation, n= 15			
Δ SCA St <i>i</i> O ₂ , %	1.25 ± 0.9	-2.84 ± 1.27	-4.1 (-6 - -2.1)*
Δ 7 th IC St <i>i</i> O ₂ , %	1.5 ± 0.71	-1.52 ± 0.86	-3 (-4.9 - -1.3)*
Δ ABD St <i>i</i> O ₂ , %	1.00 ± 1.00	-0.40 ± 1.52	-1.38 (-3.6 - 0.9)
Respiratory muscle oxygen extraction, n= 15			
Δ SCA [HHb], μ mol/L	2.94 ± 1.33	7.68 ± 2.08	4.73 (1.88 - 7.58)*
Δ 7 th IC [HHb], μ mol/L	0.42 ± 0.61	1.9 ± 0.87	1.48 (-0.05 - 3)
Δ ABD [HHb], μ mol/L	-1.67 ± 0.86	0.03 ± 1.1	1.70 (-0.82 - 3.48)

590 Data are mean ± SE or mean difference (95% confidence interval). Δ : changes from rest; SCA:
 591 Scalenes; 7th IC: 7th Intercostal; ABD: Rectus Abdominis; [HHb]: deoxyhemoglobin
 592 concentration; St*i*O₂: Tissue oxygen saturation index; BFI: blood flow index. **P* <0.05.

593 Figure 1

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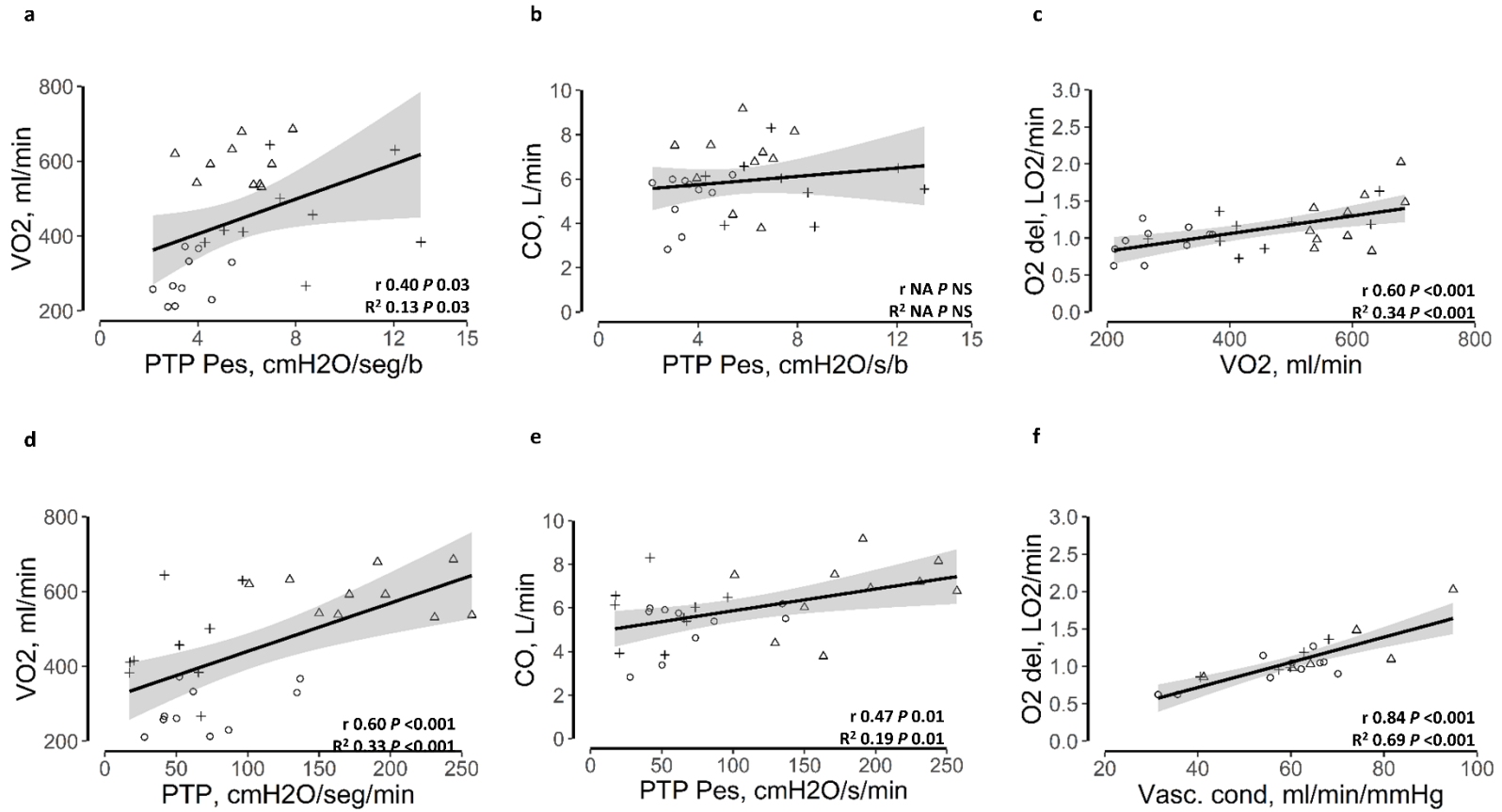


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597 Figure 2.

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