- 1 **Title:**
- 2 Inspiratory muscle training reduces blood lactate concentration during volitional hyperphoea
- 3
- 4

5 **Corresponding author:**

- 6 Peter I. Brown (\boxtimes)
- 7 School of Science and Technology, Nottingham Trent University, Office 204 Erasmus Darwin,
- 8 Nottingham, NG11 8NS
- 9 Telephone: +44 (0)115 848 6601
- 10 Fax: +44 (0)115 848 6636
- 11 Email: peter.brown@ntu.ac.uk
- 12
- 13
- 14 **Other Authors**
- 15 Graham R. Sharpe
- 16 Michael A. Johnson
- 17 School of Science and Technology, Nottingham Trent University, Nottingham, NG11 8NS
- 18
- 19
- 20
- 21 Key Words:
- 22 Respiratory muscle training, diaphragm, intercostal muscles, blood lactate concentration,
- 23 hyperventilation.
- 24
- 25

1 Abstract

2 Intense volitional hyperphoea can increase blood lactate concentration ($[lac]_B$), however, 3 whether this is reduced following pressure-threshold inspiratory muscle training (IMT) is 4 unknown. We hypothesised that volitional hyperphoea at a breathing pattern specific to intense 5 endurance exercise would increase [lac]_B and that specific IMT attenuate such a response. 22 physically active males were matched for 85% maximal exercise minute ventilation (\dot{V}_E max) 6 7 and divided equally into an IMT or a control group. Prior to and following a 6 week intervention, 8 participants performed 10 min of volitional hyperphoea at the breathing pattern commensurate with 85% \dot{V}_{E} max . The IMT group performed 6 weeks of IMT; the control group performed no 9 10 IMT. Maximal inspiratory mouth pressure increased (mean \pm SD) 31 \pm 22% following IMT and was unchanged in the control group. Prior to the intervention in the control group, [lac]_B 11 increased from 0.76 ± 0.24 mmol·L⁻¹ at rest to 1.50 ± 0.60 mmol·L⁻¹ and in the IMT group from 12 $0.85 \pm 0.40 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ at rest to $2.02 \pm 0.85 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ following 10 min volitional hyperphoea 13 14 (P < 0.05). Following the intervention the $[lac]_B$ response to volitional hyperphoea was 15 unchanged in the control group. Conversely, following IMT, $[lac]_B$ was reduced by $17 \pm 37\%$ and 25 \pm 34% following 8 and 10 min, respectively (P<0.05). In conclusion, increases in [lac⁻]_B 16 during volitional hyperphoea at 85% \dot{V}_{E} max were attenuated following IMT. These findings 17 18 suggest that the inspiratory muscles were the source of at least part of this reduction, and provide 19 a possible explanation for some of the IMT-mediated reductions in [lac⁻]_B often observed during 20 whole-body exercise.

- 21
- 22
- 23
- 24

1 Introduction

2 Specific respiratory muscle training (RMT) can be performed using either voluntary 3 isocapnic hyperphoea (VIH), flow-resistive loading, or pressure-threshold loading; with the 4 exception of VIH, these are commonly referred to as inspiratory muscle training (IMT). 5 Ventilatory endurance is enhanced with all three techniques, whereas IMT also increases 6 diaphragm thickness (Downey et al. 2007; Enright et al. 2006) and the maximal strength, 7 shortening velocity and power of the inspiratory muscles (for a full review see McConnell and 8 Romer 2004). Furthermore, well controlled studies have shown improvements in endurance 9 exercise performance following both IMT (Gething et al. 2004; Griffiths and McConnell 2007; 10 Johnson et al. 2007; Romer et al. 2002a; Volianitis et al. 2001) and VIH (Leddy et al. 2007).

11 The mechanisms underlying such performance improvements remain speculative but may 12 include reduced perception of effort (Downey et al. 2007; Gething et al. 2004; Griffiths and 13 McConnell 2007; Romer et al. 2002a; Verges et al. 2007; Volianitis et al. 2001) and possibly 14 reductions in both diaphragm fatigue (Verges et al. 2007) and an associated metaboreflex that 15 attenuates limb blood flow (McConnell and Lomax 2006; Witt et al. 2007). The notion that genuine physiological adaptation explains, in part, RMT-mediated improvements in endurance 16 17 exercise performance is further supported by the frequently observed reduction in blood lactate 18 concentration ([lac]_B) during whole-body exercise following both IMT (Griffiths and 19 McConnell 2007; McConnell and Sharpe 2005; Romer et al. 2002b; Volianitis et al. 2001) and 20 VIH (Leddy et al. 2007; Spengler et al. 1999). Furthermore, correlations have been reported 21 between reductions in [lac]_B and performance improvements following RMT (Romer et al. 22 2002b; Spengler et al. 1999), with up to 52% of the variation in performance being attributed to 23 the reduced $[lac]_B$ (Romer et al. 2002b).

24 The mechanism(s) by which RMT reduces $[lac]_B$ remains equivocal. An RMT-mediated 25 change in minute ventilation (\dot{V}_E), which may conceivably alter both the work of breathing and acid base balance, is an unlikely mechanism since reductions in $[lac^-]_B$ following RMT have been observed irrespective of whether \dot{V}_E is lower (Leddy et al. 2007), unchanged (McConnell and Sharpe 2005; Spengler et al. 1999; Volianitis et al. 2001), or increased (Kohl et al. 1997). It thus appears that the specific, targeted nature of RMT elicits respiratory muscle adaptations that result in the respiratory muscles being the source of at least part of the reductions observed in $[lac^-]_B$.

Modest increases in [lac]_B are observed under resting conditions when \dot{V}_E is increased 7 for 5 min at 72 % maximal voluntary ventilation (MVV) (Martin et al. 1984), or sustained to 8 9 volitional tolerance at ~70 %MVV (Verges et al. 2007). This increase is reduced during an 10 exhaustive breathing endurance test following VIH training although the reductions observed 11 following RMT failed to exceed a control and the authors neglect to explain their findings 12 (Verges et al. 2007). Notwithstanding these findings, previous studies that have employed a 13 breathing challenge at a given %MVV have little ecological validity with respect to intense 14 endurance exercise since the breathing pattern adopted during volitional hyperphoea can 15 significantly influence the work of breathing (Coast et al. 1993). Thus for volitional hyperphoea to reflect the demands of exercise hyperphoea, \dot{V}_E , respiratory frequency (f_R), tidal volume (V_T) 16 17 and duty cycle (T_I/T_{TOT}) must be rigourously controlled to that of exercise which has not been achieved in previous studies. Furthermore, despite VIH reducing [lac]_B during an intense 18 19 respiratory endurance test to volitional tolerance, it is unknown whether strength based 20 inspiratory muscle training may also reduce systemic [lac]_B given the discrete differences in 21 training mode.

Therefore, to investigate this issue further the present study examined two hypothesese: firstly that mimicking at rest the breathing pattern observed during high-intensity endurance exercise would significantly increase $[lac^-]_B$, and secondly that 6 weeks of IMT would attenuate such a response.

1 Methods

2 Subjects

Following approval from Nottingham Trent University's ethics committee, 22 nonsmoking, recreationally active males provided written informed consent to participate in the study. Throughout the study subjects were instructed to adhere to their usual training regimen and not to engage in strenuous exercise the day before test days, during which subjects refrained from ingesting caffeine and arrived at the laboratory 2 h post-prandial. Descriptive characteristics of the subjects are presented in Table 1.

9

10 Experimental procedure

11 Baseline pulmonary function and maximum inspiratory mouth pressure (MIP) were 12 measured during the first laboratory visit. On a separate occasion, subjects then performed a 13 maximal incremental cycling test, and two 10 min isocapnic volitional hyperphoea tests (the first 14 being a familiarisation test); all of these tests were separated by a minimum of 48 hours. The volitional hyperphoea tests were performed at the \dot{V}_E , tidal volume (V_T), breathing frequency 15 ($f_{\rm R}$) and duty cycle (TI/T_{TOT}) associated with 85% maximal exercise $\dot{\rm V}_{\rm E}$ ($\dot{\rm V}_{\rm E}$ max) since pilot 16 17 work showed that this was the maximal exercise breathing pattern that could be maintained for 18 10 min. During the experimental volitional hyperphoea test expired respiratory and pulmonary 19 variables were measured breath by breath from min 0 to 10 inclusive and arterialised venous 20 blood gases, pH and [lac]_B was measured at rest and every 2 min thereafter. Subjects were subsequently matched for 85% \dot{V}_{E} max and divided into an IMT group (n=11) or a control group 21 22 (no IMT; n=11). No more than 1 week following a 6 week intervention MIP was measured and 23 at least 48 hours following this, subjects repeated the volitional hyperphoea test. Each subject 24 completed a 24 h diet record prior to the criterion pre-intervention volitional hyperphoea test and 25 this was then replicated during the 24 h prior to the post-intervention volitional hyperphoea test.

1 Pulmonary function, maximal inspiratory pressure, and respiratory measurements

2 Pulmonary function was assessed using a pneumotachograph (ZAN 600USB, Nspire 3 Health, Oberthulba, Germany) calibrated using a 3 L syringe. Each measurement was repeated 3 4 times and the highest recorded value was used for subsequent analysis (Quanjer et al. 1993). A 5 hand-held mouth pressure meter (Ferraris Respiratory Europe, Hertford, UK) measured MIP as 6 an index of global inspiratory muscle strength. The mouthpiece assembly incorporated a 1 mm 7 orifice to prevent glottic closure during inspiratory efforts. Manoeuvres were performed in an 8 upright standing posture, were initiated from residual volume, and sustained for at least 1 s. 9 Repeat measurements separated by 30 s were taken until 3 values within 5 cmH₂O of each other 10 were produced (McConnell 2007). The highest recorded value was used for subsequent analysis. 11 Throughout hyperphoea trials and the \dot{VO}_2 max test, respiratory variables were measured breath 12 by breath (ZAN 600USB, Nspire Health, Oberthulba, Germany). Subjects wore a facemask 13 (model 7940, Hans Rudolph, Kansas City, Missouri) connected to a pneumotachograph, and 14 during volitional hyperphoea tests, a two-way non-rebreathing valve (model 2730, Hans 15 Rudolph, Kansas City, Missouri) was attached distally to the pneumotachograph allowing 16 additional CO_2 to be added to the inspirate.

17

18 Blood sampling and analysis

Arterialised venous blood was sampled from a dorsal hand vein via an indwelling cannula (Forster et al. 1972; McLoughlin et al. 1992). Arterialisation was ensured by immersing the hand in water at ~40°C for 10 min prior to cannulation and by warming the hand during volitional hyperpnoea tests using an infrared lamp. Blood samples were drawn into a 2 ml preheparinsed syringe (PICO 50, Radiometer, Copenhagen, Denmark) and analysed immediately for blood gases (ABL520, Radiometer, Copenhagen, Denmark), including the partial pressure of carbon dioxide (*P*CO₂) and pH, and [lac⁻]_B (Biosen C_line Sport, EKF Diagnostics, Barleben, Germany). Plasma bicarbonate concentration ([HCO₃⁻]) was calculated from *P*CO₂ and pH
values using the Henderson Hasselbalch equation:

3
$$pH = pK + \log \frac{[HCO_3^-]}{0.03 \times PCO_2}$$

4

5 [HCO₃⁻] was then subsequently incorporated into the Siggaard-Anderson equation to calculate
6 base excess of the extracellular fluid (BE_{ECF}) (Siggaard-Anderson and Fogh-Anderson, 1995):

7

8
$$BE_{ECF} = 0.93 \times ([HCO_3^{-}] - 24.4 + 14.83 \times (pH - 7.40))$$

9

10 Maximal exercise test

11 Subjects performed a maximal incremental cycling test on an electromagnetically-braked 12 cycle ergometer (Excalibur Sport, Lode, Groningen, The Netherlands). At the onset of the 13 exercise test, cycling power was 0 W and subsequently increased by 10 W every 15 s in order to 14 result in exercise intolerance within approximately 10 min. This rapid incremental protocol was selected to maximise \dot{V}_{E} at the cessation of exercise and reflect intense endurance exercise. The 15 power at which exercise intolerance ensued defined maximal power output (Wmax), and the 16 highest oxygen uptake ($\dot{V}O_2$) and $\dot{V}_{_E}$ recorded in any 30 s period defined $\dot{V}O_2$ max and 17 \dot{V}_{E} max, respectively. 18

19

20 Volitional hyperphoea

Volitional hyperphoea was performed whilst seated on the cycle ergometer in an identical body position to that adopted during the maximal exercise test. Subjects were instructed to increase \dot{V}_E and f_R in a square wave manner to a level commensurate with 85 % \dot{V}_E max. An

audio metronome paced $f_{\rm R}$ and real-time visual feedback of $\dot{\rm V}_{\rm E}$ was provided throughout the 1 2 test. In order to provide a breathing challenge representative of the work of breathing of intense exercise hyperphoea, the volitional hyperphoea tests was performed at the \dot{V}_{E} , V_{T} , f_{R} and 3 T_I/T_{TOT} associated with 85% \dot{V}_E max since pilot work showed that this was the maximum square 4 5 wave response that could be maintained for 10 min. This methodology is deemed superior to an 6 arbitrary %MVV as it reflects the work of breathing of intense endurance exercise as for a given \dot{V}_{E} greater than approximately 60 L·min⁻¹ the work of breathing of exercise hyperphoea can 7 8 overestimated by as much as 25 % when a spontaneous breathing pattern is adopted during 9 volitional hyperphoea (Coast et al. 1993). Isocapnia was maintained during volitional 10 hyperphoea by adding CO₂ into the inspiratory circuit in order to maintain resting PCO₂. Blood 11 was sampled at rest and at 2 min intervals.

12

13 Intervention

14 IMT was performed using an inspiratory pressure-threshold device (POWERbreathe®, 15 Gaiam, UK). The IMT group performed 30 dynamic inspiratory efforts twice daily for 6 weeks against a pressure-threshold load of ~50% MIP. Thereafter, subjects periodically increased the 16 17 load to a level that would permit them to only just complete 30 manoeuvres. Each inspiratory 18 manoeuvre was initiated from residual volume and subjects strove to maximise V_T. This protocol 19 is known to be effective in eliciting an adaptive response (Johnson et al. 2007; McConnell and 20 Lomax 2006; McConnell and Sharpe 2005; Romer et al. 2002a,b; Volianitis et al. 2001). 21 Subjects completed a training diary to record IMT adherence and habitual training, which the 22 control group also recorded. The control group performed no IMT during the 6 week 23 intervention since the duration and breathing pattern of the volitional hyperphoea test was fixed 24 pre and post-intervention (i.e. no measures of performance) and therefore the responses between 25 groups were not influenced by either motivation or expectation.

2 Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS for Windows (SPSS, Chicago, Illinois, USA). Pre- and post-intervention results, differences over time during volitional hyperphoea and group interactions were compared using one-way or two-way ANOVA for repeated measures and Tukey's HSD post-hoc analysis. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to assess the relationship between selected variables. Statistical significance was set at $P \le 0.05$. Results are presented as mean \pm SD.

9

10 Results

11 Pulmonary function and maximal inspiratory pressure

Baseline pulmonary function and MIP were all within normal limits (Table 1). The IMT group demonstrated excellent training compliance (91% adherence) and subjects' habitual training remained unchanged in both IMT and control groups. MIP increased from 147 \pm 27 to 189 \pm 27 cmH₂O (+31 \pm 22%) following IMT (*P*<0.01). No change was observed in the control group (pre- vs. post-: 163 \pm 19 vs. 166 \pm 20 cmH₂O).

17

18 Responses to volitional hyperphoea

19 Ventilatory and acid base responses to volitional hyperphoea pre- and post-intervention 20 for the control and IMT groups are shown in Table 2. Throughout hyperphoea pre- and post-21 intervention (min 0 to min 10) there were no differences in breathing pattern and acid base 22 balance between groups (Table 2). \dot{V}_E during volitional hyperphoea represented 72 ± 8% and 81 23 ± 19% of MVV₁₀ in control and IMT groups, respectively. *P*CO₂ was maintained at resting 24 levels throughout hyperphoea and was not different between groups (Figure 1).

1	Prior to the intervention in the control group, $[lac^-]_B$ increased from 0.76 ± 0.24 mmol·L ⁻¹
2	at rest to $1.50 \pm 0.60 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ and in the IMT group from $0.85 \pm 0.40 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ at rest to $2.02 \pm$
3	0.85 mmol·L ⁻¹ following 10 min volitional hyperphoea (P <0.05) (Figure 2). The non-significant
4	difference in the absolute increase in $[lac]_B$ between groups is likely due to the different relative
5	loads of the imposed hyperphoea (control: 72 %MVV; IMT: 81 %MVV). The [lac ⁻] _B response to
6	volitional hyperphoea was unchanged in the control group following the intervention.
7	Conversely, $[lac]_B$ during volitional hyperphoea was reduced following IMT, with significant 17
8	\pm 37% and 25 \pm 34% reductions being observed at 8 and 10 min, respectively. These changes
9	were different between groups (significant group \times time \times trial interaction effect, <i>P</i> <0.05).

11 Correlations amongst variables

Prior to the intervention, increases in $[lac]_B$ during volitional hyperphoea were not correlated with any measure of pulmonary function, MIP, endurance training status (\dot{VO}_2 max, \dot{VM} where \dot{VO}_2 max, \dot{VM} or ventilatory responses to volitional hyperphoea. However, baseline MIP was negatively correlated with relative IMT-induced increases in MIP (*r*=-0.70, *P*<0.05).

16

17 **Discussion**

18 Main findings

The main findings of this study were that 10 min of volitional hyperphoea approximately doubled resting $[lac^-]_B$, and that 6 weeks of pressure threshold IMT attenuated this increase by 25%. These findings strongly support the notion that the respiratory muscles are capable of increasing $[lac^-]_B$ and are the first to show that this can be attenuated through specific IMT. This observation may help to explain some of the RMT-mediated reductions in $[lac^-]_B$ previously observed during whole-body exercise.

1 Volitional hyperphoea and blood lactate concentration

We report an increased [lac⁻]_B from rest of 0.96 \pm 0.58 mmol·L⁻¹ (n=22; range: 0.20 – 2 2.50 mmol·L⁻¹) during 10 min of intense volitional hyperphoea at 85% $\dot{V}_{\rm E}$ max (131 ± 4.36 3 L·min⁻¹; n=22). These findings contrast those of Spengler et al. (2000) who reported unchanged 4 $[lac^{-}]_{B}$ during volitional hyperphoea at a lower relative \dot{V}_{E} (~62 %MVV; 122.4 L·min⁻¹), 5 6 however, are similar to others with a similar relative breathing challenge (72 % MVV, Martin et 7 al. 1984; 70 %MVV, Verges et al. 2007). These data confirm that increases in [lac⁻]_B during volitional hyperphoea are positively related to the ratio of \dot{V}_{E} to MVV (Martin et al. 1984; 8 9 Johnson et al. 2006) and may, in part, explain the different [lac]_B responses observed in previous 10 studies in response to volitional hyperphoea and between groups in this study. This study 11 provides novel data that the work of breathing of volitional hyperphoea when rigorously matched 12 to high-intensity exercise hyperphoea is sufficient to result in net lactate release from the 13 respiratory muscles.

The potential for respiratory alkalosis to elevate $[lac^-]_B$ is well documented (Davies et al. 15 1986; LeBlanc et al. 2002). Consequently we were careful to maintain, with considerable 16 accuracy, resting *P*CO₂ throughout the 10 min of volitional hyperpnoea (see Figure 1). Other 17 measures of acid base status also remained unchanged from rest during volitional hyperpnoea in 18 both groups pre- and post-intervention. We are thus confident that the increase in $[lac^-]_B$ during 19 volitional hyperpnoea was not a consequence of respiratory alkalosis and we attribute the 20 increase in $[lac^-]_B$ to lactate efflux from the respiratory muscles

21

22 Inspiratory muscle training and blood lactate concentration

The attenuated increase in $[lac]_B$ during volitional hyperphoea following IMT is similar to that observed in healthy subjects performing an exhaustive respiratory endurance test at ~70 %MVV following VIH training, although, this reduction did not exceed that of a control (Verges

1 et al. 2007). However, the authors fail to report their attempts to maintain end tidal CO_2 and / or 2 PCO₂ during the respiratory endurance test, furthermore, subjects were prescribed a pre-3 determined arbitrary breathing pattern, of which has been criticised previously for failing to 4 accurately represent the work of breathing of exercise hyperphoea (Coast et al. 1993). The IMTmediated reduction in [lac-]B observed in the present study is also similar to the reduction often 5 6 observed during submaximal, whole-body exercise following both IMT (Griffiths and 7 McConnell 2007; McConnell and Sharpe 2005; Romer et al. 2002b; Volianitis et al. 2001) and 8 VIH (Leddy et al. 2007; Spengler et al. 1999), however, whether these observations during 9 volitional hyperphoea and exercise share a common mechanistic explanation is unclear.

10 RMT-mediated reductions in $[lac]_B$ at submaximal exercise intensities occur (Leddy et 11 al. 2007; McConnell and Sharpe 2005) when lactate production and release from the respiratory muscles is probably negligible given the relative ventilatory demand and the reduced activation 12 13 of less efficient accessory muscles (Martin et al. 1984; Johnson et al. 2006). Hence, under such 14 conditions it seems more likely that reductions in [lac]_B result from increased metabolism of 15 lactate by the trained respiratory muscles (Spengler et al. 1999) rather than a decrease in net lactate release. Conversely, during high-intensity exercise where \dot{V}_{E} is increased above that of 16 sub-maximal exercise similar to the \dot{V}_{E} of volitional hyperphoea in this study (Kohl et al. 1997: 17 130.9 L·min⁻¹; Spengler et al. 1999; 147.3 L·min⁻¹), it is possible that IMT-mediated inspiratory 18 19 muscle adaptation contributed to lowering [lac⁻]_B through affecting both lactate clearance by and 20 efflux from the trained inspiratory muscles.

The plasticity of the inspiratory muscles has been well documented (McConnell and Romer 2004; Powers et al. 1997). It is thus attractive to suggest that changes in inspiratory muscle morphology may explain, in part, the attenuated hyperphoea-mediated increase in [lac⁻]_B following IMT.. An increase in the content of inspiratory muscle monocarboxylate transport (MCT) proteins (McConnell and Sharpe 2005), which facilitate inter- and intra-cellular lactate shuttling in sarcolemmal and mitochondrial membranes, respectively (Brooks et al. 1999;
Dubouchaud et al. 2000) have been reported following endurance (Baker et al. 1998;
Burgomaster et al. 2007) and strength (Juel et al. 2004) based training regimens. It is possible
that similar adaptations would occur following both IMT (strength-orientated) and VIH
(endurance-orientated) training and may explain, in part, the decrease in [lac⁻]_B observed during
whole-body exercise and volitional hyperpnoea.

7 Diaphragm hypertrophy has been reported with an approximate 10% increase in 8 diaphragm thickness (Downey et al. 2007; Enright et al. 2006) and 21 % increase in the size of 9 type II muscle fibres (Ramírez-Sarmiento et al. 2002) occurring after 6 and 5 weeks of IMT, 10 respectively. Increasing inspiratory muscle fibre cross-sectional area and subsequently strength 11 decreases the relative intensity for a given absolute work load, which may reduce/delay fast 12 twitch fibre recruitment and thus lactate production (Marcinik et al. 1991). A decrease in relative 13 workload per muscle fibre may also decrease blood flow occlusion, which may influence lactate 14 production and/or clearance (Marcinik et al. 1991).

15 Finally, the attenuated [lac]_B response to volitional hyperphoea following IMT may also 16 reside in a training-induced increase in the oxidative capacity of the inspiratory muscles. In 17 support of this notion, Ramírez-Sarmiento et al. (2002) reported 38% increases in the number of 18 type I muscle fibres in the external intercostals following 5 weeks IMT. Moderate intensity, high 19 repetitions strength training, similar to the IMT protocol used in the this study can increase 20 oxidative enzyme activity (Costill et al. 1979; Sale et al. 1990) and reduce [lac]_B via an increase 21 in mitochondria derived ATP and lactate oxidation (Holloszy and Coyle 1984). Since it is 22 probable that similar oxidative adaptations would also occur following VIH (endurance-23 orientated) training (Kohl et al. 1997; Leddy et al. 2007; Spengler et al. 1999), this offers an 24 attractive explanation for the decrease in [lac]_B observed during whole body exercise (Griffiths 25 and McConnell 2007; Kohl et al. 1997; Leddy et al. 2007; McConnell and Sharpe 2005; Romer et al. 2002b; Spengler et al. 1999; Volianitis et al. 2001) and volitional hyperphoea (present
 study; Verges et al. 2007) following these dissimilar training stimuli.

3

4 Inspiratory muscle strength

5 The 32% increase in MIP following 6 weeks of IMT is consistent with previous studies 6 (Downey et al. 2007; Edwards and Cooke 2004; Gething et al. 2004; Griffiths and McConnell 7 2007; McConnell and Sharpe 2005; Romer et al. 2002a,b; Williams et al. 2002). The suggestion 8 that IMT-mediated increases in MIP are partly dependent upon baseline MIP (Johnson et al. 9 2007) was substantiated in the present study by the negative correlation (r=-0.70) observed 10 between these variables. These novel data lend credence to the concept that resistance training-11 induced increases in strength are partly dependent upon baseline status (Kraemer and Ratamess 12 2004). However, the significance of our observation is unclear since IMT-mediated increases in 13 MIP were not related to the reduction in $[lac]_B$, suggesting that an increase in inspiratory muscle 14 strength *per-se* is not an important determinant of the physiological adaptations following-IMT.

15

16 Conclusions

In summary, the present study provides novel evidence that increases in $[lac]_B$ during volitional hyperphoea can be attenuated following IMT. These data thus suggest that the inspiratory muscles were the source of at least part of this reduction, and provide a possible explanation for at least some of the IMT-mediated reductions in $[lac]_B$ previously observed during whole-body exercise. The precise mechanisms that underpin these changes remain unknown, but an IMT-mediated increase in the oxidative and/or lactate transport capacity of the inspiratory muscles is an attractive possibility that merits further investigation.

24

2	None
3	
4	References
5	Babcock MA, Pegelow DF, McClaran SR, et al (1995) Contribution of diaphragmatic power
6	output to exercise-induced diaphragm fatigue. J Appl Physiol 78:1710-1719.
7	
8	Baker SK, McCullagh KJ, Bonen A (1998) Training intensity-dependent and tissue-specific
9	increases in lactate uptake and MCT-1 in heart and muscle. J Appl Physiol 84:987-994.
10	
11	Brooks GA, Brown M, Butz CE, et al (1999) Cardiac and skeletal muscle mitochondria have a
12	monocarboxylate transporter MCT1. J Appl Physiol 87:1713-1718.
13	
14	Burgomaster KA, Cermak NM, Phillips SM, et al (2007) Divergent response of metabolite
15	transport proteins in human skeletal muscle after sprint interval training and detraining. Am J
16	Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol 292:R1970-R1976.
17	
18	Costill DL, Coyle EF, Fink WF, et al (1979) Adaptations in skeletal muscle following strength
19	training. J Appl Physiol 46:96-99.
20	
21	Davies SF, Iber C, Keene SA, et al (1986) Effect of respiratory alkalosis during exercise on
22	blood lactate. J Appl Physiol 61:948-952.
23	
24	Downey AE, Chenoweth LM, Townsend DK, et al (2007) Effects of inspiratory muscle training
25	on exercise responses in normoxia and hypoxia. Respir Physiol Neurobiol 156:137-146.

Acknowledgements

1	
2	Dubouchaud H, Butterfield GE, Wolfel EE, et al (2000) Endurance training, expression, and
3	physiology of LDH, MCT1, and MCT4 in human skeletal muscle. Am J Physiol Endocrinol
4	Metab 278:E571-E579.
5	
6	Edwards AM, Cooke CB (2004) Oxygen uptake kinetics and maximal aerobic power are
7	unaffected by inspiratory muscle training in healthy subjects where time to exhaustion is
8	extended. Eur J Appl Physiol 93:139-144.
9	
10	Enright SJ, Unnithan VB, Heward C, et al (2006) Effect of high-intensity inspiratory muscle
11	training on lung volumes, diaphragm thickness, and exercise capacity in subjects who are
12	healthy. Phys Ther 86:345-454.
13	
14	Forster HV, Dempsey JA, Thomson J, et al (1972) Estimation of arterial PO ₂ , PCO ₂ , pH, and
15	lactate from arterialized venous blood. J Appl Physiol 32:134-137.
16	
17	Freedman S, Cooke NT, Moxham J (1983) Production of lactic acid by respiratory muscles.
18	Thorax 38:50-54.
19	
20	Fregosi RF, Dempsey JA (1986). Effects of exercise in normoxia and acute hypoxia on
21	respiratory muscle metabolites. J Appl Physiol 60:1274-1283.
22	
23	Gething AD, Williams M, Davies B (2004) Inspiratory resistive loading improves cycling
24	capacity: a placebo controlled trial. Br J Sports Med 38:730-736.
25	

1	Green H, Halestrap A, Mockett C, et al (2002) Increases in muscle MCT are associated with
2	reductions in muscle lactate after a single exercise session in humans. Am J Physiol Endocrinol
3	Metab 282:E154-E160.
4	
5	Griffiths LA, McConnell AK (2007) The influence of inspiratory and expiratory muscle training
6	upon rowing performance. Eur J Appl Physiol 99:457-466.
7	
8	Harms CA, Babcock MA, McClaran SR, et al (1997). Respiratory muscle work compromises leg
9	blood flow during maximal exercise. J Appl Physiol 82:1573-1583.
10	
11	Holloszy JO, Coyle EF (1984) Adaptations of skeletal muscles to endurance exercise and their
12	metabolic consequences. J Appl Physiol 56: 831-838.
13	
14	Johnson MA, Sharpe GR, Brown PI (2007) Inspiratory muscle training improves cycling time
15	trial performance and anaerobic work capacity but not critical power. Eur J Appl Physiol
16	101:761-770.
17	
18	Johnson MA, Sharpe GR, McConnell AK (2006) Maximal voluntary hyperpnoea increases blood
19	lactate concentration during exercise. Eur J Appl Physiol 96:600-608.
20	
21	Juel C, Holten MK, Dela F (2004) Effects of strength training on muscle lactate release and
22	MCT1 and MCT4 content in healthy and type 2 diabetic humans. J Physiol 556:297-304.
23	
24	Kohl J, Koller EA, Brandenberger M, et al (1997) Effect of exercise-induced hyperventilation on
25	airway resistance and cycling endurance. Eur J Appl Physiol 75:305-311.

1	Kraemer WJ, Ratamess NA (2004) Fundamentals of resistance training: progression and exercise
2	prescription. Med Sci Sports Exerc 36:674-688.
3	
4	LeBlanc PJ, Parolin ML, Jones NL, et al (2002) Effects of respiratory alkalosis on human
5	skeletal muscle metabolism at the onset of submaximal exercise. J Physiol 544:303-313.
6	
7	Leddy JJ, Limprasertkul A, Patel S, et al (2007) Isocapnic hyperpnea training improves
8	performance in competitive male runners. Eur J Appl Physiol 99:556-676.
9	
10	Marcinik EJ, Potts J, Schlabach G, et al (1991) Effects of strength training on lactate threshold
11	and endurance performance. Med Sci Sports Exerc 23:739-743.
12	
13	Martin BJ, Chen HI, Kolka MA (1984) Anaerobic metabolism of the respiratory muscles during
14	exercise. Med Sci Sports Exerc 16:82-86.
15	
16	McConnell AK (2007) Lung and respiratory muscle function. In: Winter EM, Jones AM,
17	Davison RCR. et al (eds) Sport and Exercise Physiology Testing Guidelines, the British
18	Association of Sport and Exercise Sciences Guide. Oxford, UK: Routledge.
19	
20	McConnell AK, Lomax M (2006) The influence of inspiratory muscle work history and specific
21	inspiratory muscle training upon human limb muscle fatigue. J Physiol 577:445-457.
22	
23	McConnell AK, Romer LM (2004) Respiratory muscle training in healthy humans: resolving the
24	controversy. Int J Sports Med 25:284-293.

1	McConnell AK, Sharpe GR (2005) The effect of inspiratory muscle training upon maximum
2	lactate steady-state and blood lactate concentration. Eur J Appl Physiol 94:277-284.
3	
4	McLoughlin P, Popham P, Linton RA, et al (1992) Use of arterialized venous blood sampling
5	during incremental exercise tests. J Appl Physiol 73:937-940.
6	
7	Powers SK, Coombes J, Demirel H (1997) Exercise training-induced changes in respiratory
8	muscles. Sports Med 24:120-131.
9	
10	Quanjer PH, Tammeling GJ, Cotes JE, et al (1993) Lung volumes and forced ventilatory flows.
11	Report working party standardization of lung function tests, European community for steel and
12	coal. Official statement of the European respiratory society. Eur Respir J 16:5-40.
13	
14	Ramírez-Sarmiento A, Orozco-Levi M, Güell R, et al (2002) Inspiratory muscle training in
15	patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: structural adaptation and physiologic
16	outcomes. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 166:1491-1497.
17	
18	Romer LM, McConnell AK (2003) Specificity and reversibility of inspiratory muscle training.
19	Med Sci Sports Exerc 35:237-244.
20	
21	Romer LM, McConnell AK, Jones DA (2002a) Effects of inspiratory muscle training on time-
22	trial performance in trained cyclists. J Sports Sci 20:547-562.
23	
24	Romer LM, McConnell AK, Jones DA (2002b) Effects of inspiratory muscle training upon
25	recovery time during high-intensity, repetitive sprint activity. Int J Sports Med 23:353-360.

2	Appl Physiol 68:260-270.
3	
4	Siggaard-Anderson O, Fogh-Anderson N (1995) Base excess or buffer base (strong ion
5	difference) as a measure of non-respiratory acid-base disturbance. Acta Anaesthesiol Scand
6	107:267-271.
7	
8	Spengler CM, Knöpfli-Lenzin C, Birchler K, et al (2000) Breathing pattern and exercise
9	endurance time after exhausting cycling or breathing. Eur J Appl Physiol 81:368-374.
10	
11	Spengler CM, Roos M, Laube SM, et al (1999) Decreased exercise blood lactate concentrations
12	after respiratory endurance training in humans. Eur J Appl Physiol 79:299-305.
13	
14	Tesch PA and Alkner BA (2003) Acute and chronic metabolic adaptations to strength training.
15	In: Strength and Power in Sport, Komi PV (ed), Oxford, UK: Blackwell publishing.
16	
17	Verges S, Lenherr O, Haner AC, et al (2007) Increased fatigue resistance of respiratory muscles
18	during exercise after respiratory muscle endurance training. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp
19	Physiol 292:R1246-R1253.
20	
21	Volianitis S, McConnell AK, Koutedakis Y, et al (2001) Inspiratory muscle training improves
22	rowing performance. Med Sci Sports Exerc 33:803-809.
23	
24	Williams JS, Wongsathikun J, Boon SM, et al (2002) Inspiratory muscle training fails to improve
25	endurance capacity in athletes. Med Sci Sports Exerc 34:1194-1198.

Sale DG, Macdougall JI, Garner S (1990) Interaction between strength and endurance training. J

1	Wilson SH, Cooke NT, Edwards RHT, et al (1984) Predicted normal values for maximal
2	respiratory pressures in Caucasian adults and children. Thorax 39:535-538.
3	
4	Witt JD, Guenette JA, Rupert JL, et al (2007) Inspiratory muscle training attenuates the human
5	respiratory muscle metaboreflex. J Physiol 584:1019-1028.
6	
7	
8	
9	
10	
11	
12	
13	
14	
15	
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	
22	
23	
24	
25	

	Control (n=11)	IMT (n=11)
Age (years)	28.5 ± 4.1	22.4 ± 4.5 *
Body mass (kg)	75.5 ± 5.6	78.6 ± 9.7
Height (cm)	176.9 ± 7.4	181.6 ± 7.6
FVC (L)	$5.32 \pm 0.55 \; (104 \pm 8)$	$5.67 \pm 0.92 \; (106 \pm 12)$
FEV_1 (L)	$4.28 \pm 0.62 \ (99 \pm 11)$	$4.93 \pm 0.67 \; (109 \pm 11)$
FEV ₁ /FVC (%)	80.3 ± 7.1 (96 ± 9)	87.7 ± 8.3 (103 ± 9) *
MVV ₁₀ (L·min ⁻¹)	$176.3 \pm 15.0 \ (102.3 \pm 10.9)$	173.4 ± 53.7 (122.4±30.3))
MIP (cmH ₂ O)	163 ± 19 (113 ± 4)	147 ± 27 (119 ± 5)
\dot{VO}_2 max (L·min ⁻¹)	3.75 ± 0.55	3.77 ± 0.75
Wmax (W)	353 ± 44	362 ± 38

Table 1. Descriptive characteristics of the subjects (mean \pm SD).

FVC, forced vital capacity; FEV₁, forced expiratory volume in 1 s; MVV_{10} , maximum voluntary ventilation in 10 s. Values in parenthesis represent the percent of predicted values (Quanjer et al. 1993; Wilson et al. 1984). *, P<0.05.

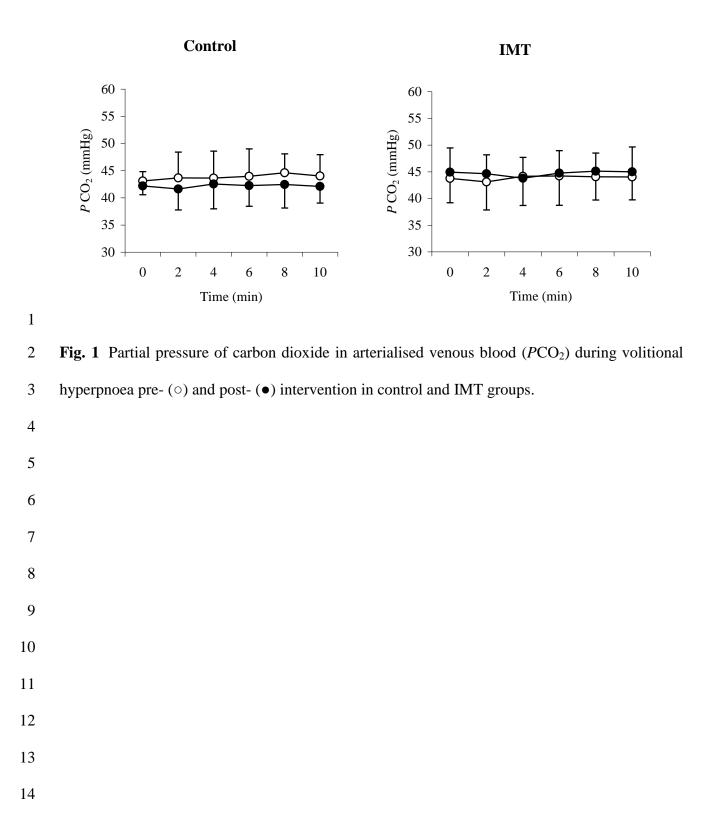
	Control (n=11)		IMT (n=11)	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
\dot{V}_{E} (L·min ⁻¹)	127.1 ± 2.3	128.7 ± 2.4	132.9 ± 9.6	136.8 ± 3.2
$V_T(L)$	2.62 ± 0.04	2.64 ± 0.07	2.60 ± 0.03	2.66 ± 0.06
$f_{\rm R}$ (breaths min ⁻¹)	50 ± 0	50 ± 0	52 ± 0	52 ± 0
T_{I}/T_{TOT}	0.44 ± 0.00	0.44 ± 0.00	0.52 ± 0.00	0.49 ± 0.00
рН	7.392 ± 0.031	7.406 ± 0.024	7.397 ± 0.023	7.395 ± 0.014
$[\mathrm{H}^+]$ (nmol·L ⁻¹)	40.6 ± 2.9	39.4 ± 2.2	40.2 ± 2.2	40.3 ± 1.0
$[HCO_3^-] (mmol \cdot L^{-1})$	26.0 ± 0.9	26.9 ± 2.5	26.5 ± 1.4	27.0 ± 1.3
BE_{ECF} (mEq·L ⁻¹)	1.38 ± 0.91	1.72 ± 2.04	1.52 ± 1.11	2.35 ± 1.23

1	Table 2. Ventilatory	and acid-base	responses to	o volitional	hyperpnoea	prior to	and fol	lowing	th
---	----------------------	---------------	--------------	--------------	------------	----------	---------	--------	----

	T_{I}/T_{TOT}	0.44 ± 0.00	0.44 ± 0.00	
	рН	7.392 ± 0.031	7.406 ± 0.024	7
	$[\mathrm{H}^+]$ (nmol·L ⁻¹)	40.6 ± 2.9	39.4 ± 2.2	
	$[\mathrm{HCO}_{3}^{-}] (\mathrm{mmol} \cdot \mathrm{L}^{-1})$	26.0 ± 0.9	26.9 ± 2.5	
	BE_{ECF} (mEq·L ⁻¹)	1.38 ± 0.91	1.72 ± 2.04	
3	\dot{V}_{E} , minute ventilation	n; V _T , tidal volum	ne; $f_{\rm R}$, respiratory fr	equ

intervention. Data are mean of min 2 to 10 during volitional hyperphoea (mean \pm SD).

uency; T_I/T_{TOT} , duty cycle; $[H^+]$, hydrogen ion concentration; $[HCO_3^-]$, plasma bicarbonate concentration; BE_{ECF} , base excess of the extracellular fluid.



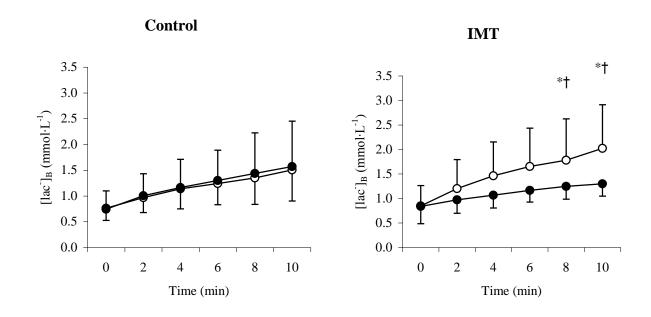


Fig. 2 Blood lactate concentration ([lac⁻]_B) during volitional hyperphoea pre- (○) and post- (●)
intervention in control and IMT groups. *Significant difference from pre-IMT (P<0.05).
[†]Significant group × time interaction effect (P<0.05).