Is resistance exercise with controlled frequency breathing superior to training of the same program with normal breathing? – future challenges

Takashi Abe, Jeremy P. Loenneke, Kosuke Kojima, Hsuan-Yu Wan, Robert S. Thiebaud, Joel M. Stager

- The specific internal environment in the body during exercise can influence the muscle hypertrophy and strength response. Unlike chronic hypoxic exposure, exercise training under intermittent hypoxia may lead to muscle hypertrophy with relatively low workloads.
- *Objectives*: The purpose of this brief review is to discuss how a hypoxic condition can be attained without providing ambient inspiratory hypoxic gases or inducing hypobaric hypoxia.

Design and Methods: Evidence-based implications and future challenges.

- *Results*: Pulse oximetry is a simple method that measures percutaneous oxygen saturation (SpO₂). Several studies reported that hypoxia is produced with increasing duration of apnea, especially in the last half of the breath-hold, with SpO₂ reaching levels as low as 80%. Similarly, studies have reported changes in SpO₂ during dynamic exercise at various workloads with controlled frequency breathing.
- **Conclusions and future challenges**: These results suggest a possibility that moderate- or high-intensity exercise combined with controlled frequency breathing may produce a low level of SpO_2 , which may be a model for muscle hypertrophy by moderate- or high-intensity exercise training with hypoxia. However, there are no published studies on the effects of resistance exercise with controlled frequency breathing on muscle size and function. Additionally, it is unclear the magnitude change in SpO_2 during resistance exercise with a combination of different frequencies of breathing and various workloads. Furthermore, the safety of such a technique, particularly with respect to hypercapnia and the possible elevation of arterial pressures, is also unknown and should be investigated further.

(Journal of Trainology 2013;2:6-9)

Key words: hypoxia ■ muscle hypertrophy ■ apnea ■ breath holding

Introduction

The specific internal environment in the body during exercise can influence the muscle hypertrophy and strength response. High altitude mediated hypobaric hypoxia creates many morphological and physiological changes. One study reported that thigh muscle cross-sectional area (CSA) decreased by 10% after sojourn at high altitude (Himalayas, greater than 5000 m for over 56 days), although whether changes in physical activity and food intake occurred is not clear. In that study, the loss of thigh muscle size was mainly due to a decrease in myofibrillar proteins.1 Mizuno et al2 also reported that muscle fiber CSA decreased at an average of 15% in the vastus lateralis and biceps brachii muscles in both active and less active men after 75 days of altitude (greater than 5250 m) exposure. Tanner and Stager found that energy intake, in part, accounts for changes in body composition variables during a 21-day expedition between 2200 m and 4300 m altitude.³ However, some studies have reported that no significant changes occur in muscle fiber CSA following ~8 weeks of high altitude exposure.^{4,5} In the study by Lundby et al⁴, subjects had free access to physical activities such as jogging, hiking, and soccer, which may have counteracted the acute disuse muscle atrophy. In addition, a recent study investigated the effects of chronic hypobaric hypoxia on muscle protein metabolism and suggested that whole body amino acid flux is increased due to an elevated protein turnover. Furthermore, the myocontractile protein synthesis rate is elevated following chronic hypobaric hypoxia.⁶ Therefore, the large increase in protein degradation is the underlying mechanism for the loss of skeletal muscle mass under high altitude mediated hypobaric hypoxia;^{6,7} although total time of exposure, the degree of hypoxia, food intake, and physical activity levels may all be influencing factors.

In contrast to chronic hypobaric hypoxia, one study found that muscle fiber size increased after exposure to intermittent normobaric hypoxia. In this study, subjects performed bicycle ergometer exercise (70-80% of VO_{2max}; VO_{2max} was measured in an ambient fractional oxygen concentration [FIO₂] of 11.6%, equivalent to an altitude of 4800 m) for 3 weeks under normobaric hypoxia (ambient FIO₂ decreasing from 12.7% to a final level of 10%) with recovery in normoxia.⁸ Furthermore, a recent study found that intermittent systemic

Received March 11, 2013; accepted April 12, 2013

From the Department of Kinesiology, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN, USA (T.A., K.K., H-Y.W., J.M.S.), and Department of Health and Exercise Science, University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK, USA (J.P.L., R.S.T.).

Communicated by Futoshi Ogita, PhD

Correspondence to Dr. Takashi Abe, Department of Kinesiology, School of Public Health, Indiana University, 1025 East 7th Street, Room 104, Bloomington, IN 47405, USA. E-mail: t12abe@gmail.com

Journal of Trainology 2013:2:6-9 ©2012 The Active Aging Research Center http://trainology.org/

hypoxia high-intensity (70% 1RM) resistance training increases muscle hypertrophic responses more than that of a normoxia condition in young men.9 However, Friedmann et al¹⁰ reported low-intensity (30% 1RM) resistance training combined with hypoxia (FIO₂ 12%) did not promote either muscle hypertrophy or strength gains. Despite these findings, the influence of more severe hypoxia (arterial oxygen saturation ~80% during exercise sessions) combined with low-intensity exercise has been tested and contrasting results have been reported.¹¹ The authors examined the effects of a 5-week low-load resistance exercise training program (20% 1RM, 3 days per week) combined with severe normobaric hypoxia upon muscle morphology and function in young women athletes. The authors concluded that substantial increases in strength and muscle CSA are observed following low load resistance training under hypoxia.¹¹ One reason for the different results as compared to other studies may be the duration of exercise as the duration of hypoxic exposure during the exercise session was relatively shorter (12-13 min) than previous studies (Table 1). However, potential effects of the menstrual cycle were not controlled for in this study and it is possible that premenustral fluid retention may have affected muscle hypertrophy.¹² Mechanistically, it has been demonstrated that lower levels of oxygen may cause an accelerated recruitment of type 2 fibers,¹³ which is superior for increasing muscle size when compared with an exercise intensity matched to the normoxic condition. These findings suggest that exercise training under intermittent hypoxia may lead to muscle hypertrophy even with relatively low training workloads. The purpose of this brief review is to discuss how hypoxic conditions may be attained without providing ambient inspiratory hypoxic gases or inducing hypobaric hypoxia.

Arterial oxygen saturation during breath-hold exercise

Pulse oximetry is a simple method that measures percutaneous oxygen saturation (SpO₂). Lindholm et al¹⁴ investigated changes in SpO₂ using both ear lobe and finger probes. Seven healthy young men performed a submaximum breath-hold for 60 s while performing cycle ergometer exercise at 50W. They found that SpO_2 at the end of the 60 s breath-hold was lower in ear lobe probe (78%) than the finger probe (84%). The average time delay between the two probes was 15 s. When the ear probes were at their nadir (SpO₂ 78%), the finger probes showed an SpO_2 of 95% (nadir 84%). The authors concluded that finger probe pulse oximetry is probably not valid for apneic studies. Another study investigated cardiac and ventilatory responses to apneic exercise (upright cycling exercise with 40W, 80W and 120W) in young trained breath-holding divers.¹⁵ They found that mean breath-hold times decreased from 152 s for resting apneas to 85 s for 40W, 69 s for 80W and 62 s for 120W. SpO₂ (ear lobe probe) began to decrease slowly at one minute after the start of the resting apnea and reached a minimum of 84% at the end of apnea. During apnea with exercise, SpO₂ began to decrease 45 s after the start of the apnea and declined rapidly towards the end of the apnea. Minimum values of SpO₂ are around 82% for each exercise intensity.¹⁵ In addition, a recent study investigated cardiovascular changes during resting apnea and dynamic apneic dives (swimming while submerged) in elite breath-hold divers and reported that on average the divers endured about 4 min for resting apnea and 82 s for dynamic apneic dives (average swimming length was 74 m).¹⁶ During the apneas, SpO₂ began to decrease toward the end of apnea and reached similar levels of SpO₂ in

Authors	Sex/Age	Number of subjects	1	Hypoxia/ Normoxia	Duration of exposure*	Period Frequency	Training program	Muscle	e size	Strength	
Desplanches et al. (1993)	M/22 M/23	5 5	Nor T Hyp T	Normoxia FIO ₂ 12.7-10%	1 hr/session twice a day	3 weeks 6 days/wk	Bicycle ergometer 70-80% VO _{2max}		NS 10%	DNM	
Friedmann et al.(2003)	M/24 M/25	9 10	Nor T Hyp T	Normoxia FIO ₂ 12% SpO ₂ >70%	40 min	4 weeks 3 days/wk	Knee EXT 30% 1RM 6 sets × 25 reps	qCSA	NS NS	Isok KE	NS NS
Nishimura et al. (2010)	M/22 M/23	7 7	Nor T Hyp T	Normoxia FIO ₂ 16% SpO ₂ 94-95%	73 min¶	6 weeks 2 days/wk	Elbow EXT/FLX 70% 1RM 4 sets × 10 reps	bCSA	3% 10%	1RM EF	39% 62%
Manimmanakor et al. (2013)	n W/20 W/20	10 10	Nor T Hyp T	Normoxia SpO ₂ ~80%	12-13 min	5 weeks 3 days/wk	Knee EXT/FLX 20% 1RM, 6 sets 28 to 22 reps for K 36 to 26 reps for K		3% 6%	Isom KE	NS 15%

Table 1 Summary of the effects of intermittent hypoxia training on muscle size and strength

* Approximate duration. ¶ Duration includes 30 min resting recovery before and after the exercise session. M, men; W, women; Nor T, normoxia training; Hyp T, hypoxia training; FIO₂, ambient fractional oxygen concentration; SpO₂, percutaneous oxygen saturation; EXT, extension; FLX, flexion; 1RM, one repetition maximum; fCSA, fiber cross-sectional area; qCSA, quadriceps muscle cross-sectional area; bCSA, biceps muscle cross-sectional area; tCSA, thigh muscle cross-sectional area; KE, knee extension; EF, elbow flexion; NS, non-significant; DNM, did not measure

resting apnea (78%) and dynamic apneic dives (77%). The average slope representing the speed of reduction in SpO₂ is \sim 2.5 time steeper in the dynamic apneic dives compared with resting apnea.¹⁶ These previous studies suggest that hypoxia is produced with increasing duration of apnea, especially in the last half of the breath-hold, and SpO₂ reached a minimum value around 80%. Values of SpO₂ measured via pulse oximetry have been shown to be similar to arterial oxygen saturation (SaO₂) obtained from the radial artery during a breath-hold dive.¹⁷

Arterial oxygen saturation during exercise with controlled frequency breathing

Several studies reported changes in SpO₂ during dynamic exercise at various workloads with controlled frequency breathing (intermittent breath holding lasting from ~10 sec between breaths). For instance, Matheson and McKenzie¹⁸ investigated changes in arterial blood gases during intense exercise with breath-hold. The endurance-trained runners repeated five intervals of a 15-s treadmill run (at 125% of VO_{2max}) with and without breath-holding, with 30-s of unrestricted breathing at rest between the runs. They found that arterial O_2 pressure (~70 mmHg) and SpO₂ (~92%) decreased immediately after each of the 15-s breath-holding runs, although there were no changes in arterial O₂ pressure (105 mmHg) and SpO₂ (97%) immediately after the 15-s free breathing runs. Another study by Yamamoto et al¹⁹ examined the change in arterial oxygen saturation (SaO₂) during intermittent exercise (ten 30 s cycle exercise with 30 s rest intervals) in young men. During exercise (workload of 210W), the subjects breathed with two different patterns: 1) continuous breathing with 1-s each for inspiration and for expiration, and 2) non-continuous breathing, a 4-s period of breath-holding at functional residual capacity, followed by 2-s of same breathing pattern as continuous breathing (1-s each for inspiration and expiration). This was followed again by 4-s breath-holding, which repeated until the end of the 30 s exercise period. Breathing was uncontrolled during the rest periods. They reported that a marked increase in alveolararterial O_2 pressure difference $(P_AO_2 - P_aO_2)$ with the breathholding trial as compared to the continuous breathing trial. SpO₂ decreased to 89% on average. Regarding different frequencies of breathing, Stager et al²⁰ observed changes in SpO₂ during arm crank exercise (5 min at 80% VO_{2max}) with three different breathing frequencies (30, 20, and 15 breaths/ min). These frequencies were chosen to approximate the breathing frequency used by competitive swimmers during normal (30 breaths/min) and hypoxic training (20 and 15 breaths/min) work bouts. The authors reported that SpO₂ (ear lobe probe) began to decrease after the start of the exercise in 20 and 15 breaths/min while SpO₂ was relatively constant during exercise in 30 breaths/min. Because the study was conducted in moderate altitude (Fort Collins, Colorado; 1520 m) baseline SpO₂ averaged 93%. The drop in SpO₂ was 9% (84%) in 15 breaths/min and 6% (87%) in 20 breaths/min. The subjects were able to compensate for the reduced breathing

frequency by increasing tidal volume at 20 breaths/min, but not at 15 breaths/min.

Conclusions and future challenges

The results of previous studies suggest a possibility that moderate- or high-intensity exercise combined with controlled frequency breathing may produce a low level of SpO_2 , which may be a model for muscle hypertrophy by moderate- or high-intensity exercise training with hypoxia. However, there are no published studies on the acute and chronic effects of resistance exercise with controlled frequency breathing on muscle/tissue oxygenation, muscle size and function. Additionally, it is unclear the magnitude of change in SpO₂ during resistance exercise with a combination of different frequencies of breathing (e.g., one breath every 3 repetitions) and various workloads (exercise intensity and tempo). Furthermore, a person who is less sensitive to increased levels of CO2 (hypercapnia) may perform exercise when SpO_2 is reaching a lower level. Although the effects of hypercapnia on human health are not completely understood, hypercapnia may have deleterious effects in the lung.²¹ Thus, the safety of such a technique, particularly with respect to hypercapnia and the possible elevation of arterial pressures, should be investigated further.

References

- Hoppeler H, Kleinert E, Schlegel C et al. Morphological adaptations of human skeletal muscle to chronic hypoxia. *Int J Sports Med.* 1990; 11: S3-S9.
- Mizuno M, Savard GK, Areskog NH et al. Skeletal muscle adaptations to prolonged exposure to extreme altitude: a role of physical activity? *High Altitude Med Biol.* 2008; 9: 311-317.
- Tanner DA, Stager JM. Partitioned weight loss and body composition changes during a mountaineering expedition: a field study. *Wilderness Environ Med* 1998; 9: 143-152.
- Lundby C, Pilegaard H, Andersen JL et al. Acclimatization to 4100 m does not change capillary density or mRNA expression of potential angiogenesis regulatory factors in human skeletal muscle. *J Exp Biol* 2004; 207: 3865-3871.
- Green H, Roy B, Grant S et al. Downregulation in muscle Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase following a 21-day expedition to 6194 m. *J Appl Physiol* 2000; 88: 634-640.
- Holm L, Haslund ML, Robach P et al. Skeletal muscle myofibrillar and sarcoplasmic protein synthesis are affected differently by altitudeinduced hypoxia in native lowlanders. *PLoS One* 2010; 5: e15606.
- Chaudhary P, Suryakumar G, Prasad R et al. Chronic hypobaric hypoxia mediated skeletal muscle atrophy: role of ubiquitin-proteasome pathway and calpains. *Mol Cell Biochem* 2012; 364: 101-113.
- Desplanches D, Hoppeler H, Linossier MT et al. Effects of training in normoxia and normobaric hypoxia on human muscle ultrastructure. *Pflugers Arch* 1993; 425: 263-267.
- Nishimura A, Sugita M, Kato K et al. Hypoxia increases muscle hypertrophy indiced by resistance training. *Int J Sports Physiol Perform* 2010; 5: 497-508.
- Friedmann B, Kinscherf R, Borisch S et al. Effects of low-resistance/ high-repetition strength training in hypoxia on muscle structure and gene expression. *Pflugers Arch* 2003; 446: 742-751.
- 11. Manimmanakorn A, Manimmanakorn N, Taylor R et al. Effects of resistance training combined with vascular occlusion or hypoxia on

neuromuscular function in athletes. Eur J Appl Physiol 2013; in press.

- Bunt JC, Lohman TG, Boileau RA. Impact of total body water fluctuations on estimation of body fat from body density. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 1989; 21: 96-100.
- 13. Moritani T, Sherman WM, Shibata M et al. Oxygen availability and motor unit activity in humans. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 1992; 64: 552-556.
- Lindholm P, Blogg SL, Gennser M. Pulse oximetry to detect hypoxemia during apnea: comparison of finger and ear probes. *Aviat Space Environ Med* 2007; 78: 770-773.
- 15. Wein J, Andersson JP, Erdeus J. Cardiac and ventilatory responses to apneic exercise. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 2007; 100: 637-644.
- Breskovic T, Uglesic L, Zubin P et al. Cardiovascular changes during underwater static and dynamic breath-hold dives in trained divers. J Appl Physiol 2011; 111: 673-678.

- Stanek KS, Guyton GP, Hurford WE et al. Continuous pulse oximetry in the breath-hold diving women of Korea and Japan. Undersea Hyperbaric Med 1993; 20: 297-307.
- Matheson GO, McKenzie DC. Breath holding during intense exercise: arterial blood gases, pH, and lactate. J Appl Physiol 1988; 64: 1947-1952.
- Yamamoto Y, Mutoh Y, Kobayashi H et al. Effects of reduced frequency breathing on arterial hypoxemia during exercise. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 1987; 56: 522-527.
- Stager JM, Cordain L, Malley J et al. Arterial desaturation during arm exercise with controlled frequency breathing. *J Swimming Res* 1989; 5: 5-10.
- 21. Vadasz I, Hubmayr RD, Nin N et al. Hypercapnia: a nonpermissive environment for the lung. *Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol* 2012; 46: 417-421.