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Kleinnibbelink, G, van Dijk, APJ, Fornasiero, A, Speretta, GF, Johnson, C, Sculthorpe, N, George, KP, Somauroo, JD, Thijssen, DHJ and Oxborough, D

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1 **Acute Exercise-Induced Changes in Cardiac Function Relates to Right**
2 **Ventricular Remodeling Following 12-weeks Hypoxic Exercise Training**

3 **Short title: Acute Cardiac Responses vs. Cardiac Remodeling**

4
5 Geert Kleinnibbelink MD^{1,2,3}(G.Kleinnibbelink@radboudumc.nl)

6 Arie P.J. van Dijk MD PhD¹(Arie.vanDijk@radboudumc.nl)

7 Alessandro Fornasiero MSc^{3,4}(Alessandro.Fornasiero@gmail.com)

8 Guilherme F. Speretta PhD^{3,5}(Guilherme.Speretta@ufsc.br)

9 Christopher Johnson MSc³(C.S.Johnson@2018.ljmu.ac.uk)

10 Nicholas Sculthorpe PhD⁴(Nicholas.Sculthorpe@uws.ac.uk)

11 Keith P. George PhD³(K.George@ljmu.ac.uk)

12 John D. Somauroo BMedSci(Hons)³(J.D.Somauroo@ljmu.ac.uk)

13 Dick H.J. Thijssen PhD^{1,3}(Dick.Thijssen@radboudumc.nl)

14 David L. Oxborough PhD³(D.L.Oxborough@ljmu.ac.uk)

15
16 Research Institute for Health Sciences, Departments of Physiology¹ and Cardiology²,
17 Radboud University Medical Center, Nijmegen, The Netherlands

18 ³Research Institute for Sport and Exercise Sciences, Liverpool John Moores University,
19 Liverpool, United Kingdom

20 ⁴CeRiSM Sport Mountain and Health Research Centre, University of Verona, Rovereto, Italy

21 ⁵Department of Physiological Sciences, Federal University of Santa Catarina, Florianópolis,
22 Brazil

23 ⁶Institute of Clinical Exercise and Health Science, School of Health and Life Sciences,
24 University of the West of Scotland, Hamilton, United Kingdom

25
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28 **Author for correspondence:** Dr. David L. Oxborough, Research Institute for Sport and
29 Exercise Sciences (RISES), Liverpool John Moores University, 3 Byrom street, L3 3AF
30 Liverpool, United Kingdom. Email: D.L.Oxborough@ljmu.ac.uk, Tel: (+44)1519046231

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40 **NEW & NOTEWORTHY**

41 During exercise the right ventricle is exposed to a disproportionately higher wall stress than the
42 left ventricle, which is further exaggerated under hypoxia. In this study, we showed that 12-
43 week high-intensity running hypoxic exercise training induced right-sided structural
44 remodeling, which was, in part, related to baseline cardiac increase in RV fractional area change
45 to acute exercise. These data suggest that acute RV responses to exercise are related to
46 subsequent right ventricular remodeling in healthy individuals upon hypoxic training.

47 **ABSTRACT**

48 Repeated ventricular exposure to alterations in workload may relate to subsequent cardiac
49 remodeling. We examined whether baseline acute changes in right (RV) and left ventricular
50 (LV) function relate to chronic cardiac adaptation to 12-week exercise training. Twenty-one
51 healthy individuals performed 12-week high-intensity endurance running training under
52 hypoxia (fraction of inspired oxygen: 14.5%). Resting transthoracic echocardiography was
53 performed before and after the training programme to assess ventricular structure, function and
54 mechanics (including strain-area/volume loops). In addition, we examined systolic cardiac
55 function during recumbent exercise under hypoxia at baseline (heart rate of 110-120 bpm,
56 'stress echocardiography'). Fifteen individuals completed training (22.0 ± 2.4 y, 10 male).
57 Hypoxic exercise training increased RV size, including diameter and area (all $p < 0.05$). With
58 exception of an increase in RV fractional area change ($p = 0.03$), RV function did not change
59 post-training (all $p > 0.05$). Regarding the RV strain-area loop, lower systolic and diastolic slopes
60 were found post-training ($p < 0.05$). No adaptation in LV structure, function or mechanics were
61 observed (all $p > 0.05$). To answer our primary aim, we found that a greater increase in RV
62 fractional area change during baseline stress echocardiography ($r = -0.67$, $P = 0.01$) inversely
63 correlated with adaptation in RV basal diameter following 12-week training. In conclusion, 12-
64 week high-intensity running hypoxic exercise training induced right-sided structural
65 remodeling, which was, in part, related to baseline increase in RV fractional area change to
66 acute exercise. These data suggest that acute cardiac responses to exercise may relate to
67 subsequent RV remodeling after exercise training in healthy individuals.

68

69 **Keywords:** athlete's heart; endurance exercise; hypoxia; echocardiography; speckle tracking
70 echocardiography

71 INTRODUCTION

72 Exercise training results in remodeling of the heart, including chamber enlargement and
73 hypertrophy.(33) Studies examining the impact of exercise training on cardiac remodeling have
74 predominantly focused on left ventricular (LV) adaptation, with few studies revealing right
75 ventricle (RV) changes to training.(8, 9, 18) To better understand the effects of exercise on RV
76 and LV function, recent studies suggest a relative larger increase in wall stress for the RV *versus*
77 LV during exercise.(22) These acute effects of exercise on cardiac function may be of
78 importance. Indeed, cardiac remodeling seems mechanistically related to the repeated exposure
79 to acute changes in wall stress. Therefore, in-exercise echocardiographic indices of cardiac
80 function may (partly) relate to the presence of subsequent cardiac remodeling. However, no
81 study directly examined this hypothesis in relation to exercise training and remodeling in
82 humans.

83 Recently, the strain-area/volume loop has been introduced to allow for the assessment of
84 simultaneous structure and strain across the cardiac cycle providing mechanical insight into
85 cardiac function.(28) We found that post-surgery changes in LV strain-volume loop
86 characteristics relate to subsequent cardiac remodeling in patients with aortic stenosis.(17)
87 Therefore, these changes may serve as a proxy of changes in wall stress. Furthermore, we
88 observed different RV loop characteristics in the ‘four cornerstones’ of the Mitchell
89 classification of sports potentially due to their difference in cardiac structure and function.(28)
90 Possibly, these differences in strain-area/volume loops may relate to cardiac remodeling to
91 exercise training. Therefore, the strain-area loop, in conjunction with other measures of cardiac
92 function, may provide insight into cardiac adaptation to exercise training.

93 The aim of this study was to relate pre-training changes in cardiac function during low-to-
94 moderate-intensity exercise to subsequent adaptations to a 12-week hypoxic endurance exercise
95 training program on cardiac structure, function and mechanics (i.e. longitudinal strain and

96 strain-area/volume loops) in healthy individuals. We specifically choose hypoxic exercise
97 since, due to a smaller reduction in pulmonary vascular resistance compared to normoxic
98 exercise(27), this type of exercise causes a higher RV afterload.(10, 11, 24, 26) Indeed, we
99 showed that 45 minutes high-intensity running exercise under hypoxia lowers pulmonary
100 acceleration time, increases right atrial size and lowers the late diastolic uncoupling of the RV
101 strain-area loop compared to exercise under normoxia.(21) These echocardiographic markers
102 support indirectly the presence of an increase in pulmonary artery pressure, and therefore, RV
103 afterload. Accordingly, hypoxic exercise may exaggerate the disproportionate elevation in wall
104 stress for the RV *versus* LV during exercise and may therefore lead to more rapid adaptations
105 in the RV to exercise training allowing us to further explore our hypothesis.

106

107 **METHODS**

108 **Study population**

109 Twenty-one healthy individuals (fourteen males) were recruited for the study. Participants were
110 eligible to take part in this study if they were able to run on a treadmill and that they did not
111 engage in sport-related exercise for more than two hours a week at moderate-to-high intensity
112 for the last six months. Exclusion criteria were a body mass index (BMI) <18 or >30 kg/m²,
113 any possibility of pregnancy, personal history of cardiovascular disease, a family history of
114 cardiovascular death (<55y), exercise-limiting respiratory disease, physical (i.e.
115 musculoskeletal) complaints making completion of the 12-week training program impossible,
116 abnormal resting 12-lead electrocardiogram (ECG) and abnormalities observed on resting
117 transthoracic echocardiography. The procedures were performed in accordance with
118 institutional guidelines and conformed to the declaration of Helsinki. The study was approved
119 by the Ethics Research Committee of the Liverpool John Moores University (18/SPS/065).
120 Participants gave full written and verbal informed consent before participation.

121 **Study design**

122 In this prospective study, participants attended the laboratory on 35 separate occasions, see
123 **Figure 1**. During the first visit, a medical screening was performed to determine eligibility of
124 the potential participants. After signing informed consent, baseline measurements including
125 echocardiographic assessment at rest were performed under normoxic conditions (FiO_2 20.9%).
126 During visit 2, after 30 minutes of acclimation echocardiographic assessments at rest and during
127 stress under hypoxic conditions (FiO_2 14.5%) were performed. These assessments were
128 obtained in order to relate acute RV functional responses to exercise to chronic RV adaptation
129 after 12 weeks of hypoxic training. Visit 3 to 34 comprised the individual sessions of the
130 hypoxic training program. Visit 35 comprised follow-up measurements, including
131 echocardiographic assessment at rest and were performed under normoxic conditions.

132 *Baseline and follow-up measurements.* Participants were examined for height (SECA
133 stadiometer, SECA GmbH, Germany), weight (SECA scale, SECA GmbH, Germany), oxygen
134 saturation (SpO_2 , pulse oximetry; Ana Pulse 100, Ana Wiz Ltd., UK), 12-lead ECG (Cardiovit
135 MS-2010, Schiller, Switzerland) and maximal oxygen consumption (VO_{2max}). Resting heart
136 rate (HR, Polar, Kempele, Finland) and resting blood pressure (BP, Dinamap V100, GE
137 Medical, Norway) were determined at the end of ten minutes of quiet rest in supine position. A
138 standardized maximal cardiopulmonary exercise test (CPET, Oxycon pro, CareFusion, VS) for
139 VO_{2max} assessment was conducted on a motorized treadmill (HP Cosmos, Nussdorf,
140 Germany) after familiarization and a 10-min warm-up. VO_{2max} was defined as the highest
141 value of a 30-s average(31), and attainment was verified according to previous recommend
142 criteria.(13)

143 *Training program.* Participants took part in a 12-week normobaric hypoxic endurance exercise
144 training program consisting of 2x45 minute sessions a week in the first four weeks and 3x45
145 minute sessions in the last eight weeks. This running exercise was performed on a motorized

146 treadmill at 3,000m simulated altitude (equivalent to FiO_2 14.5%) at high-intensity (85% of
147 maximal heart rate).

148 *Environmental chamber and safety.* All training sessions were conducted in an environmental
149 chamber (TISS, Alton, UK; Sportingedge, Bastingstoke, UK), which was set-up by a qualified
150 technician. Normobaric hypoxia was achieved by a nitrogen dilution technique. Ambient
151 temperature, carbon dioxide (CO_2) and oxygen (O_2) levels were controlled in all sessions (20°C ;
152 FiO_2 14.5%; CO_2 0.03%), whilst a Servomex gas analysis system (Servomex MiniMP 5200,
153 Servomex Group Ltd., UK) was used inside the chamber to provide the researcher continuous
154 information regarding O_2 and CO_2 levels. Acute mountain sickness symptoms (AMS, measured
155 by Lake Louise Score (LLS)(30)) were monitored during testing and training sessions every 20
156 minutes. Subjects were removed from the environmental chamber if oxygen saturation levels
157 dropped below 75% or severe AMS was suspected ($\text{LLS} \geq 6$).

158 **Echocardiographic measurements**

159 Echocardiographic assessments, prior to and post training program, were performed at rest
160 ('rest') and during recumbent cycling to elevate heart rate allowing direct assessment of cardiac
161 function during exercise ('stress', target HR 110-120 bpm). Rest and stress echocardiography
162 were performed in the left lateral decubitus position on a supine cycle ergometer (Lode B.V.;
163 Groningen, The Netherlands). For stress echocardiography, low-to-moderate-intensity exercise
164 consisted of recumbent cycling at a cadence of ~60 revolutions per minute. All examinations
165 were performed by one highly experienced sonographer (DO) using a Vivid E95 ultrasound
166 machine (GE Medical, Horton, Norway), equipped with a 1.5-4.5 MHz transducer. Images were
167 stored in raw digital imaging and communication in medicine (DICOM) format and were
168 exported to an offline workstation (EchoPAC, version 203, GE Medical, Horton, Norway).
169 Data-analysis was performed by a single observer with experience in echocardiography (GK)
170 using three consecutive stored cycles with exception of strain-volume loops which were

171 analyzed from a single cardiac cycle. The observer was blinded for the timing (pre vs. post)
172 under which echocardiography was performed.

173 *Conventional measurements.* Cardiac structural and functional measurements at rest and during
174 low-to-moderate exercise were made according to the current guidelines for cardiac chamber
175 quantification.(23) Regarding the right heart, we examined the following structural and
176 functional indices: basal and mid-cavity end-diastolic diameters, RV end-diastolic area
177 (RVEDA), RV end-systolic area (RVESA), RV outflow tract (RVOT) diameter at the proximal
178 level in the parasternal long-axis (RVOT PLAX) and the proximal and distal portion in the
179 parasternal short-axis (PSAX) view (RVOT1 and RVOT2, respectively), right atrial (RA) area,
180 RV fractional area change (RVFAC), tricuspid annular plane systolic excursion (TAPSE) and
181 tissue doppler imaging (TDI) of the tricuspid annulus ('s, e', a'). Regarding the left heart, the
182 following structural and functional indices were determined: biplane LV end-diastolic volume
183 (LVEDV), biplane LV end-systolic volume (LVESV), LV mass, relative wall thickness (RWT),
184 LV wall thickness (IVSd, septal; PWd, posterior), LV internal diameter (LVIDd), LA diameter,
185 LA volume, modified Simpson's left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF), tissue Doppler
186 imaging (TDI) of the mitral annulus (s', e' and a'), trans-mitral Doppler (E, A and E/A ratio).
187 All RV and LV structural indices were allometrically scaled to body surface area (BSA)
188 according to the laws of geometric similarity.(5)

189 *Mechanics.* Images were acquired specifically for offline speckle tracking analysis. This
190 involved the optimization of frame rates between 40 and 90 frames s⁻¹, depth to ensure adequate
191 imaging of the chamber of interest and compression and reject to ensure endocardial
192 delineation. The RV focused and the apical two-chamber, four-chamber and long-axis view
193 were utilized for the RV free wall (RVFWS) and LV global longitudinal strain (LVGLS),
194 respectively. Valve closure times were determined from the respective pulsed wave Doppler
195 signals. For both the RV and LV the myocardium was manually traced to include the septum

196 and adjusted so that the region of interest (ROI) incorporated all of the wall thickness, while
197 avoiding the pericardium.(4, 35) The region of interest was divided into six myocardial
198 segments, providing segmental strain curves. LV global longitudinal strain was obtained by
199 averaging the 18 segments of the three separate apical LV views and global RV strain from
200 three segments of the RV free wall. Where inappropriate tracking of segments was observed
201 visually or detected by the system, retracing was performed until all segments were considered
202 acceptable.

203 *RV strain-area and LV strain-volume loops.* The longitudinal strain-area/volume relationship
204 (for methodology of derivation, see Supplemental 1, Oxborough *et al.*(28) and Hulshof *et*
205 *al.*(14)) was assessed using the following parameters (**Figure 2**): (a) early linear slope during
206 first 5% of volume ejection in systole (EarlySslope), (b) the overall linear slope during systole
207 (Sslope) and (c) end-systolic peak global longitudinal strain (peak strain). In addition
208 (un)coupling was termed to describe the relationship between systolic and diastolic strain for
209 any given area/volume. By subtracting diastolic from systolic strain, the difference at any given
210 area/volume was calculated. Uncoupling was assessed as the mean of the differences during (d)
211 early diastole (early 2/3 of diastole [Uncoupling EarlyD]), (e) late diastole (late 1/3 of diastole
212 [Uncoupling LateD]) and (f) overall (complete cardiac cycle). Furthermore, (g) the early linear
213 slope during first 5% (EarlyDslope) and (h) late linear slope (LateDslope) during last 5% of
214 volume increase in diastole.

215 In order to obtain intra-observer variability, 10 randomly selected echocardiograms were re-
216 analyzed. Intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC) analysis was performed for the following
217 measures: RV strain-area loop characteristics, RVEDA, RVESA, RVFAC, RV basal diameter,
218 RV mid-cavity diameter, RVOT PLAX, RA area, IVSd, PWd, LVIDd.

219

220 **Statistical measurements**

221 Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS Statistics 25 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, VS). All
222 parameters were visually inspected for normality and tested with Shapiro-Wilk normality tests.
223 Continuous variables were reported as mean \pm standard deviation (SD) and categorical variables
224 were presented as proportions. Paired-sampled T-tests were used to compare baseline and
225 follow-up measurements, including echocardiographic indices, and to determine acute RV
226 functional responses to exercise (augmentation in cardiac function between stress and rest
227 echocardiography). Associations between acute RV functional responses to exercise (TDI s',
228 RVFWS, TAPSE, RVFAC) and chronic RV adaptation (RV basal diameter, RV mid-cavity
229 diameter, RVEDA) were analyzed by Pearson's correlation coefficient, in which 'acute' is
230 defined as the change in RV function from rest to exercise and 'chronic' as change in structure
231 pre- versus post-training program. For all tests, we assumed statistical significance at $p < 0.05$.

232

233 **RESULTS**

234 Twenty-one participants were initially included in the study, of which six dropped-out
235 (motivational issues $n=4$; health problems unrelated to the study $n=2$). Participants completed
236 on average 30 ± 2 training sessions (94% adherence) at an average 83.5% of their maximum HR.
237 The fifteen participants who completed the study (22.0 ± 2.4 years, ten men, 24.0 ± 3.0 kg/m²)
238 showed a significant increase in VO_{2max}/kg (52 ± 7 to 56 ± 7 mL/min/kg, $p < 0.001$) (**Table 1**).
239 BMI and BSA did not significantly change ($p > 0.05$) (**Table 1**). Mean SpO₂ during the
240 individual 45 minutes high-intensity running exercise sessions of the hypoxic training program
241 was $81 \pm 4\%$. At baseline, both right and left heart had normal geometry and all structural
242 measurements were within normal ranges (**Table 2**). There were no abnormal 12-lead ECG
243 findings.

244

245 **Cardiac adaptations to hypoxic exercise training**

246 There was a significant increase in RV and RA size following the training intervention (all
 247 $p < 0.05$) (**Table 2**). Exercise training caused an increase in RVFAC ($p = 0.03$), whilst no other
 248 significant changes in RV function were observed (all $p > 0.05$) (**Table 2**). In addition to a
 249 rightward shift of the strain-area loop (increased RVEDA), exercise training significantly
 250 decreased uncoupling and slopes of the RV strain-area loop (**Table 2, Figure 3A**). In contrast
 251 to the structural adaptation of the RV, exercise training did not alter LV structure (**Table 2**).
 252 Systolic LV function and mechanics, including LV loops, did not change following training (all
 253 $p > 0.05$) (**Figure 3B**). Regarding diastolic function, A velocity decreased ($p = 0.002$), resulting
 254 in an increased E/A ratio ($p = 0.005$).

255

256 **Acute exercise-induced changes in cardiac responses *versus* structural adaptation**

257 Prior to training, all systolic indices for RV function (RVFWS, TDI s', RVFAC, TAPSE)
 258 significantly increased with acute exercise (all $p < 0.05$) (**Table 3**). The RV strain-area loop
 259 characteristics did not significantly change with acute exercise (all $p > 0.05$) (**Table 3**). The
 260 change in RVFAC with acute exercise showed a significant inverse correlation with changes in
 261 basal diameter post-training ($r = -0.66$, $p = 0.01$) (**Figure 4**). The inverse relation indicates that a
 262 lesser increase in RVFAC with acute exercise is associated with greater RV structural
 263 adaptation to training. Changes in RVFWS, TDI s' and TAPSE with acute exercise did not
 264 correlate with RV structural indices (data in Supplemental 2). As strain-area loop characteristics
 265 did not significantly change with acute exercise, we did not perform correlations analysis on
 266 these data.

267 *Intra-observer variability.* ICC were as follows: RV free wall strain 0.96 (0.84-0.99), Sslope
 268 0.92 (0.70-0.98), EarlySslope 0.84 (0.48-0.96), EarlyDslope 0.94 (0.79-0.99), LateDslope 0.95
 269 (0.80-0.99), Uncoupling 0.87 (0.56-0.97), Uncoupling_EarlyD 0.86 (0.52-0.96),
 270 Uncoupling_LateD 0.88 (0.58-0.97), RVEDA 0.96 (0.87-0.99), RVESA 0.94 (0.78-0.99),

271 RVFAC 0.92 (0.72-0.98), RV basal diameter 0.91 (0.68-0.98), RV mid-cavity diameter 0.80
272 (0.38-0.95), RVOT PLAX 0.75 (0.27-0.93), RA area 0.99 (0.97-0.99), IVSd 0.67 (0.12-91),
273 PWd 0.74 (0.25-0.93), LVIDd 0.79 (0.35-0.94).

274

275

276 **DISCUSSION**

277 The aim of our study was to relate pre-training changes in cardiac function during acute hypoxic
278 exercise to subsequent adaptations to a 12-week hypoxic endurance exercise training program
279 on RV cardiac structure, function and mechanics in healthy individuals. We present the
280 following findings. First, hypoxic exercise training increased RV size, including diameter and
281 area. Whereas measures of RV function remained largely unchanged, exercise training resulted
282 in adaptations in RV mechanics, with less uncoupling and lessening of the systolic and diastolic
283 slopes of the RV strain-area loop. Second, no adaptation in LV structure, function or mechanics
284 were observed. Third, pre-training augmentation in RV fractional area change to acute hypoxic
285 exercise was inversely related to cardiac remodeling of the RV following 12 weeks of hypoxic
286 endurance training in healthy individuals. Taken together, our results demonstrate that acute
287 cardiac responses of the RV to hypoxic exercise are related to subsequent RV remodeling upon
288 12-weeks of hypoxic exercise training in healthy, relatively untrained individuals.

289

290 **Acute exercise-induced changes in cardiac responses *versus* structural adaptation**

291 In this study, we tested the assumption that any potential disproportionate ventricular wall stress
292 contributes to RV remodeling. Since assessment of cardiac wall stress during exercise is highly
293 challenging and invasive, we examined cardiac (systolic) function during hypoxic exercise and
294 explored whether these changes related to structural adaptation post-training. We found that
295 augmentation in RV fractional area change to acute exercise is inversely related to RV size

296 following exercise training. In other words, small-to-modest (but not moderate-to-large)
297 increases in RV systolic function during acute exercise relate to subsequent increases in RV
298 structure post-training. One potential explanation for this observation may be that those
299 individuals who had a blunted exercise-induced increase in RV fractional area change, were
300 working at a higher afterload and hence received a greater stimulus for cardiac adaptation.
301 Another potential explanation for this observation may relate to the structure of the RV. A
302 smaller sized RV is less able to elevate measures of systolic RV function during exercise, and
303 are therefore more susceptible for subsequent adaptation. Somewhat in line with this
304 assumption, additional analysis revealed a positive relation between exercise-induced increases
305 in RV fractional area change and RV size at baseline ($r=0.52$, $p=0.03$), indicating that
306 individuals with smaller RV cavity size show a smaller elevations in RV systolic function
307 during exercise. In contrast to RVFAC, other measures did not significantly correlate with
308 adaptation to exercise training. A possible explanation for this may be that RVFWS, TAPSE
309 and TDI s' respond differently to alterations in load compared to RVFAC.(32) These elevations
310 in load may be central as a stimulus for subsequent cardiac adaptation to exercise. Moreover,
311 RVFAC takes into account both radial and longitudinal functional whereas the other systolic
312 functional indices only take the latter into account. The stress received by the RV may therefore
313 better reflected by the augmentation in RVFAC to acute exercise compared to RVFWS, TAPSE
314 and TDI s'.

315

316 **Right ventricular adaptations to hypoxic exercise training**

317 After 12 weeks of hypoxic exercise training, the right side of the heart showed structural
318 adaptation concomitant with altered mechanics in the strain-area loop. Our observation of RV
319 remodeling contrasts with others, who report the absence of RV adaption after an increase in
320 training volume.(1, 7) Importantly, the lack of structural RV remodeling observed in these

321 previous studies is mainly observed when examining elite athlete populations, who already had
322 a high level of training at baseline evaluation (e.g. they were not detrained for example during
323 pre-season evaluation). Interestingly, the LV showed no evidence for adaptation after training.
324 This agrees with a study by Arbab-Zadeh *et al.* (3) where they showed that after 12 months
325 progressive and intensive marathon training in 12 previously sedentary subjects (mean age,
326 29±6 years), that RV size increased during the initial 3-month training period, but the LV only
327 started to remodel after 6 months of training. The hypoxic exercise stimulus mainly effects RV
328 afterload, and to a lesser extent LV afterload (10, 11, 24, 26, 27). Moreover, it may be that LV
329 afterload is reduced during hypoxic exercise as a result of hypoxic induced peripheral
330 vasodilation (12, 20). This may have amplified the disproportionate RV remodeling. However,
331 due to the lack of a control group this remains speculative. Based on the lack of structural
332 adaptation in the LV in this study, this may suggest that RV remodeling precedes LV
333 remodeling in relatively untrained individuals. Future work, however, is required to better
334 understand this phenomenon.

335 Previously, we have demonstrated changes in the strain-area loop in acute exercise settings (21,
336 28) but also marked differences in pulmonary hypertension populations (15, 16, 19) likely due
337 to variation in loading conditions. We also demonstrated that 24-weeks of endurance exercise
338 induced a modest rightward shift with a somewhat stronger coupling of the LV strain-volume
339 loop (29). This is the first study, to our knowledge, that assessed RV strain-area loops following
340 an exercise training in humans. We showed that training induced changes in RV mechanics
341 concomitant to right-side structural adaptations. Specifically, lessening of the systolic and
342 diastolic slope of the RV strain-area loop fits with the change in geometry of the RV, where the
343 cavity size became larger. This is challenging to interpret but may be explained by the larger
344 RV having greater unit area of myocardium requiring less deformation/contractility to facilitate
345 the same stroke volume. Furthermore, we observed stronger coupling following training,

346 potentially suggesting the presence of a more dominant longitudinal contribution to area change
347 in diastole compared to systole. This adaptation fits with previous cross-sectional findings, in
348 that we previously observed that athletes with a sports discipline with low-static and high-
349 dynamic components (IIIA Mitchell classification(25); e.g. high-intensity exercise as adopted
350 in our study), showed more coupling in RV strain-area loops compared to other Mitchell
351 classifications sports.(28) This could be suggestive for a sport discipline specific adaptation and
352 the significant influence of variable loading conditions across disciplines on RV physiology.
353 Moreover, the resemblance between the improved systolic-diastolic coupling following
354 endurance training in the RV (this study) and LV (study by Oxborough *et al.* (29)) with
355 increasing cavity sizes may indicate that a change in cardiac mechanics is not an isolated
356 process but merely a consequence of cardiac structural remodeling due to exercise training.
357 Future work, in larger cohorts assessing both RV and LV, is required to better understand this
358 topic.

359

360 **Perspectives**

361 Challenging the cardiac system, e.g. through exercise, may be relevant in better understanding
362 (patho)physiology. Indeed, exercise-induced troponin I elevation, independent from resting
363 troponin I, predicts mortality and cardiovascular morbidity.(2, 6) In the present study, we found
364 that exercise-induced changes in RV function relate to chronic RV adaptation. This concept,
365 i.e. exploring cardiac responses to exercise, may be a potential strategy for future studies aiming
366 to better understand cardiac (patho)physiology.

367

368 *Limitations.* We did not include a control group(s) who either; did not perform exercise or
369 performed exercise under normoxic conditions. Whilst this may have provided additional
370 insight into the role of hypoxia in mediating cardiovascular adaptations, we believe this does

371 not impact the primary finding of our study, that exercise training may lead to RV structural
372 adaptation, which seems to relate, at least partly, to acute baseline exercise-induced changes in
373 cardiac function. Another limitation is that we did not derive direct measures of pulmonary and
374 systemic vascular resistance as this would require invasive procedures. This would have
375 improved insight between the impact of hypoxia on RV and LV function in more detail. A
376 further limitation is that we did not collect blood samples to assess hematocrit and hemoglobin.
377 Although, the participants were exposed to very short durations of intermittent hypoxic exercise
378 training session (maximum of 1 hour including acclimation), this may have led to a change in
379 hematocrit and hemoglobin(34). In addition, the RV loop is based on area while volume would
380 be more suitable given the complex RV geometry. However, the technique to derive the RV
381 volume loops is not yet validated and will require 3D echocardiography. Finally, LV strain-
382 volume loops were only constructed from an A4C view and not in the A2C and APLAX views.

383

384

385 **CONCLUSION**

386 12-week high-intensity running hypoxic exercise training induced right-sided structural
387 remodeling, which was, in part, related to baseline cardiac increase in RV fractional area change
388 to acute exercise. These data suggest that acute RV responses to exercise are related to
389 subsequent right ventricular remodeling in healthy individuals upon hypoxic training.

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497

498 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

499 **Figure 1.** Overview of study design. Longitudinal data assessment (baseline and follow-up
500 measurements including echocardiography) were performed under normoxic conditions
501 whereas the training program was performed under hypoxic conditions. Additionally, during
502 visit 2, an echocardiographic assessment was performed (after 30 minutes of acclimation) to
503 obtain acute exercise induced changes in cardiac function to relate to chronic structural
504 remodeling to hypoxic training.

505
506 **Figure 2.** Schematic overview of the RV strain-area loop and the derived characteristics. The
507 black line represents the strain-area loop; the thick part represents the systolic phase and the
508 thin part the systolic phase. ED, End-diastolic, EDA, end-diastolic area; ESA, end-systolic area;
509 LD, late diastolic.

510
511 **Figure 3.** A) mean RV strain-area loops and B) mean LV strain-volume loops prior to ('Pre
512 Systolic': black lines, 'Pre Diastolic': black dotted lines) and post ('Post Systolic': red lines,
513 'Post Diastolic': red dotted lines) 12-week hypoxic high-intensity running exercise training
514 program. Error bars represent standard error of the mean.

515
516 **Figure 4.** Correlation between acute increase in RV fractional area change during first exercise
517 session under hypoxia (visit 2) and increase in resting RV basal diameter at completion of the
518 training protocol.

519 **APPENDICES**

520 **Supplemental 1. Strain-Area Loop – methods of derivation**

521 Private link: <https://figshare.com/s/50feea09258bf0ed3377>

522 DOI (public link, becomes active when manuscript is accepted):

523 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13379885.v2>

524

525 **Supplemental 2. Table Associations between acute functional responses to exercise and**
526 **chronic RV adaption**

527 Private link: <https://figshare.com/s/47d96c3f89279238afce>

528 DOI (public link, becomes active when manuscript is accepted):

529 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13379894.v1>

530