

1 Title: Breathlessness and the body: Neuroimaging evidence for the inferential leap

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20 **Abstract**

21 Breathlessness debilitates millions of people with chronic illness. Mismatch between
22 breathlessness severity and objective disease markers is common and poorly
23 understood. Traditionally, sensory perception was conceptualised as a stimulus-
24 response relationship, although this cannot explain how conditioned symptoms may
25 occur in the absence of physiological signals from the lungs or airways. A Bayesian
26 model is now proposed in which the brain generates sensations based on expectations
27 learned from past experiences (priors), which are then checked against incoming
28 afferent signals. In this model, psychological factors may act as moderators. They may
29 either alter priors, or change the relative attention towards incoming sensory
30 information, leading to more variable interpretation of an equivalent afferent input.

31 In the present study we conducted a preliminary test of this model in a
32 supplementary analysis of previously published data (Hayen 2017). We hypothesised
33 that individual differences in psychological traits (anxiety, depression, anxiety sensitivity)
34 would correlate with the variability of subjective evaluation of equivalent breathlessness
35 challenges. To better understand the resulting inferential leap in the brain, we explored
36 whether these behavioural measures correlated with activity in areas governing either
37 prior generation or sensory afferent input.

38 Behaviorally, anxiety sensitivity was found to positively correlate with each
39 subject's variability of intensity and unpleasantness during mild breathlessness, and
40 with unpleasantness during strong breathlessness. In the brain, anxiety sensitivity was
41 found to positively correlate with activity in the anterior insula during mild
42 breathlessness, and negatively correlate with parietal sensorimotor areas during strong
43 breathlessness.

44 Our findings suggest that anxiety sensitivity may reduce the robustness of this
45 Bayesian sensory perception system, increasing the variability of breathlessness
46 perception and possibly susceptibility to symptom misinterpretation. These preliminary
47 findings in healthy individuals demonstrate how differences in psychological function
48 influence the way we experience bodily sensations, which might direct us towards better
49 understanding of symptom mismatch in clinical populations.

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51 Key words: fMRI, breathlessness, symptoms, anxiety

52 **Introduction**

53

54 *“If the doors of perception were cleansed everything would appear to man as it is,*
55 *infinite.*

56 *For man has closed himself up till he sees all things thro’ narrow chinks of his cavern.”*

57 WILLIAM BLAKE, *The Marriage of Heaven and Hell*

58

59 The perception of bodily sensation is integral to the management of self within the
60 environment. One frightening and debilitating perception is that of breathlessness, when
61 breathing is perceived as inadequate and a threat to life. Breathlessness is experienced
62 across a range of illnesses ^{1,2}, including lung disease, heart disease and cancer.
63 Breathlessness is notorious in that symptoms often are out of proportion to objective
64 markers of disease ³⁻⁷. While perceptual systems have traditionally been considered to
65 encompass a stimulus followed by the brain’s response, this relationship cannot explain
66 the often-observed dissociation between perception and symptom extent, with extreme
67 cases manifesting as medically unexplained symptoms ^{8,9}. As it is the perception of
68 symptoms that leads to their debilitating consequences, an overhaul is required in the
69 way we consider the brain’s interaction with incoming sensory information. This would
70 lead to better ways to understand and then treat unpleasant perceptions such as
71 breathlessness.

72 With a launch into the Bayesian tidal wave of modern neuroscience ¹⁰⁻¹⁵, recent
73 theories have proposed a comprehensive model of symptom perception ^{16,17}. An
74 important development of this model is the inclusion of a set of perceptual expectations,
75 or ‘doors of perception’ in the words of William Blake. These perceptual ‘priors’ are
76 neural representations of a distribution of expected values, which may be separated
77 from the afferent neural inputs. Both priors and afferent sensory information can
78 influence perception, which encompasses a range of probable perceptions (posterior
79 distribution). Enhanced confidence in expectations (narrow, sharp priors) can increase
80 their weight in the model, pulling the resulting perception away from the physiology and
81 towards the prior. Furthermore, perceptual moderators exist within this system, such as

82 anxiety¹⁸⁻²⁰, attention²¹⁻²³ or interoceptive ability²⁴⁻²⁷, which may adjust either the prior
83 expectations or incoming sensory information to influence perception. For instance,
84 perception may be shifted to be higher or lower than the sensation, or there may be a
85 greater range of possible perception values (widened distribution), which increases their
86 ambiguity and susceptibility to misinterpretation and misclassification as a potential
87 threat.

88 The 'inferential leap' to reconcile expectation and neural sensory information and
89 form conscious perception occurs in the brain¹⁷. One seductive theory consists of a
90 division between agranular cortices (such as the anterior cingulate cortex and anterior
91 insula) that generate prediction signals, and granular cortices (such as the primary
92 sensory cortex and posterior insula), which compare afferent signals with predictions to
93 generate prediction errors^{16,28,29}. It is hypothesized that behavioural factors such as
94 decreased or redirected attention could also reduce the gain of sensory information
95 within granular cortices³⁰, thereby diminishing the prediction error by increasing the
96 relative weight of the priors in the model^{16,30}. Alternatively, behavioural influences may
97 reduce the gain of the prior within agranular cortices¹⁶ to reduce prediction errors and
98 influence perception.

99 In this short report we have firstly investigated whether behavioural scores of
100 anxiety, depression and anxiety sensitivity relate to the distribution of subjective scores
101 (posterior perceptual distribution) of experimentally induced breathlessness. Mild and
102 strong breathlessness were indicated by a conditioned stimulus (a shape presented on
103 a screen), and implemented after a short anticipation period. Both levels of
104 breathlessness were considered, as sensory afferents may be more vague or indefinite
105 during mild breathlessness stimuli and might thus rely more heavily on priors. To do this
106 we have undertaken a supplementary analysis on previously unreported aspects of a
107 recently published study³¹, to explore where in the brain these perceptual moderators
108 act to alter perception.

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112 **Materials and Methods**

113 This study aimed to characterise functional brain activity during perception of a
114 conditioned mild and strong breathlessness stimuli in 19 healthy participants (10
115 females, mean age \pm SD, 24 ± 7 years). An account of conditioned responses to strong
116 breathlessness has been published previously³¹, while the mild breathlessness stimulus
117 was not considered due to its large between-subject variability. In the current report we
118 have undertaken a more detailed evaluation of how behavioural measures relate to
119 subjective stimulus perceptions in the mild condition, and where in the brain these
120 perceptions may be modulated. Please see Hayen et al. (2017)³¹ for a complete
121 description of data acquisition and the lower level functional magnetic resonance
122 imaging (fMRI) analysis. The study of Hayen et al. was a double-blinded placebo-
123 controlled study of the effect of an opioid (remifentanil) on breathlessness, but in the
124 present paper we are only considering the placebo condition (infusion of 0.9% saline).

125

126 *Behavioural questionnaires*

127 The Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D³²) was used to identify
128 (and exclude) participants with clinical depression. The trait scale of the Spielberger
129 State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI³³) was used to characterize general participant
130 anxiety. The Anxiety Sensitivity Index (ASI³⁴) was used to differentiate sensitivity to
131 symptoms of anxiety in the form of bodily perceptions.

132

133 *Conditioned breathlessness and functional brain scanning*

134 Scanning was conducted using a 3 Tesla Siemens Trio scanner, with physiological
135 monitoring and control of end-tidal gases (see Hayen et al., 2017³¹). Briefly, an
136 aversive delay-conditioning session was performed outside of the scanner, followed by
137 two fMRI sessions on consecutive days (remifentanil or saline placebo, counterbalanced
138 across participants). Participants learned associations between three visual cues and
139 three respiratory sensations during the conditioning session, which were mild
140 breathlessness, strong breathlessness or no breathlessness (unloaded breathing). The
141 breathlessness stimulus used in this study was intermittent resistive inspiratory loading

142 for 30 to 60 seconds, administered via an MRI compatible breathing system ³¹.
143 Expiration was unrestricted via a one-way valve (Hans Rudolph, Shawnee, Kansas,
144 USA). The stimuli were each presented four times during the scanning session in a
145 semi-randomised, counterbalanced order, with a preceding anticipation period followed
146 by a resistive loading stimulus (where appropriate). Immediately following each
147 stimulus, participants were asked to rate both the intensity and unpleasantness of the
148 preceding load on a visual analogue scale (VAS: 0-100%).

149

150 *Behavioural and fMRI analysis*

151 In this short report we will only consider the fMRI session with the saline infusion. Full
152 details on analysis procedures have been previously reported ³¹, and involved robust
153 physiological noise correction of fMRI images. Whilst former analyses examined mean
154 brain responses to anticipation and breathlessness (and the changes induced by
155 remifentanyl), the focus of this analysis was to explore how behavioural measures relate
156 to the mean and variability of breathlessness perceptions in each subject, and to any
157 corresponding changes in brain activity.

158 Mean and variability (standard deviation) of mouth pressure, subjective intensity
159 and unpleasantness during scanning for both mild and strong loading were calculated
160 for each subject. A full correlation matrix was then created on all behavioural and
161 physiological variables, including questionnaires, mouth pressure and subjective
162 breathlessness scores for each level of loading. As the behavioural variable of ASI
163 score was shown to significantly correlate with trial-by-trial variation (standard deviation)
164 of subjective scores, the group fMRI analysis previously reported ³¹ was adjusted to
165 include a group mean and ASI score regressor. This analysis aimed to identify where
166 functional brain activity correlates with differences in ASI score and thus extent of
167 perceptual variability across subjects during saline administration, using whole-brain
168 correction for multiple comparisons in FSL (FMRIB's Software Library,
169 www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl).

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172 **Results**

173

174 *Behavioural correlation matrix*

175 Trait anxiety and depression were highly correlated across subjects, but neither
176 correlated with ASI score (Figure 1). No behavioural scores (depression, trait anxiety or
177 anxiety sensitivity) were found to significantly correlate with mean inspiratory pressure
178 or subjective breathlessness VAS scores of intensity or unpleasantness for either mild
179 or strong breathlessness conditions (Figure 1). When behavioural scores were
180 compared to variability (standard deviation) in physiology and subjective scores, ASI
181 was found to significantly correlate with variation in unpleasantness during both mild
182 and strong breathlessness, and intensity with mild breathlessness (Figures 1 and 3).
183 Both trait anxiety and depression were strongly correlated with the variation in pressure
184 trace during strong (but not mild) breathlessness, but not subjective scores.

185 When mean subjective breathlessness scores and physiology were compared,
186 average pressure, subjective intensity and unpleasantness were all strongly correlated
187 during mild breathlessness (Figure 1). However, during strong breathlessness, intensity
188 and unpleasantness scores became even more strongly correlated while ‘de-coupling’
189 from measures of inspiratory pressure. Lastly, while variation in intensity and
190 unpleasantness scores were correlated during mild breathlessness, neither was
191 reflective of variation in inspiratory pressure for either level of breathlessness.

192

193 *Average brain activity during anticipation and breathlessness*

194 Conditioned associations between visual stimuli and breathlessness stimuli were
195 confirmed prior to scanning in all subjects. Group mean brain activity during strong
196 anticipation and breathlessness have been previously reported³¹. No significant mean
197 activity was observed during anticipation of mild breathlessness, and brain activity
198 during mild and strong breathlessness is illustrated in Figure 2.

199

200 *Perceptual variation during mild breathlessness*

201 During mild breathlessness, the extent of perceptual variation in subjective scores of
202 both breathlessness intensity ($r = 0.406$, $p = 0.048$) and unpleasantness ($r = 0.547$, $p =$
203 0.010) were correlated with ASI score. When ASI score was subsequently investigated
204 as a modulator of brain activity during mild breathlessness, it was found to correlate with
205 brain activity in the left anterior insula only (Figure 3). No significant activity was found to
206 correlate with ASI score during anticipation of mild breathlessness.

207

208 *Perceptual variation during strong breathlessness*

209 During strong breathlessness, the extent of perceptual variation in subjective scores of
210 breathlessness unpleasantness was correlated with ASI score ($r = 0.528$, $p = 0.012$).
211 Variation in breathlessness intensity no longer correlated with ASI score ($r = 0.001$, $p =$
212 0.443). ASI score was found to negatively correlate with activity in the posterior insula
213 cortex, primary and secondary somatosensory cortices, primary motor cortex, dorsal
214 anterior cingulate cortex, lateral occipital cortex and the precuneus cortex (Figure 3). No
215 significant brain activity was found to correlate with ASI score during anticipation of
216 strong breathlessness.

217

218 **Discussion**

219 In this study we have shown that the greater an individual's anxiety sensitivity index
220 (ASI) score, the greater the variability in breathlessness scores to a set of standardised
221 breathlessness challenges. Furthermore, during mild breathlessness, ASI score was
222 found to correlate with brain activity in the anterior insula. Conversely, during strong
223 breathlessness, ASI score was inversely correlated with activity in parietal primary
224 sensorimotor cortices.

225 The extent of negative emotions such as anxiety and depression have long been
226 considered potential modulators of perception^{18,19,21,23,25,35}. However, in healthy
227 populations these scores may not be sensitive enough to identify a potential role in the
228 interoceptive sensations of breathlessness. In contrast, anxiety sensitivity is a measure
229 of alertness or sensitivity to bodily sensations of anxiety, and worry about the
230 consequences of those sensations³⁴. Interestingly, in this report we have shown that it

231 is an individual's anxiety sensitivity that correlates with the extent of their variability in
232 perceived breathlessness, and not generalized trait anxiety or depression. This attention
233 and vigilance towards bodily sensations might thus render symptoms more ambiguous
234 and susceptible to misinterpretation. Comparatively, trait anxiety and depression instead
235 correlated with mouth pressure variability during strong breathlessness, indicating that
236 participants with high trait anxiety might have modulated their breathing to avert
237 negative sensations, and actively mediate the relationship between symptoms and
238 expected perception.

239 Numerous previous studies have used a range of breathlessness stimuli to
240 investigate where breathlessness symptoms are processed in the brain^{31,36-41}. What we
241 have learned is that an extensive network of sensorimotor, affective and stimulus
242 valuation areas are all highly active during breathlessness, as it is such a multi-
243 dimensional experience^{6,7,42,43}. Moving forward, the challenge involves teasing apart
244 where expectations (priors) and neural sensory information meet within this network to
245 allow inference and perception. While studies using conditioned breathlessness cues
246 can help us to understand the generation of priors⁴⁴, in this report we additionally
247 investigated the perceptual variability around a repeated stimulus to probe how
248 behavioural measures of anxiety, depression and anxiety sensitivity may be influencing
249 the distribution of breathlessness scores, and where in the brain this may occur.

250 Within the Bayesian framework, the final perception of symptoms such as
251 breathlessness is represented by a set of probable breathlessness values (posterior
252 distribution). Psychological traits such as anxiety sensitivity could either interact with
253 expectations, or with incoming sensory information to alter this posterior distribution¹⁷.
254 As this Bayesian system strives for efficiency, it aims to minimize the differences
255 between prior expectations and afferent sensory information (prediction errors)²⁸. This
256 could occur either by changing prior expectations, or reducing the importance (gain) of
257 sensory neural information to lessen prediction errors. It has been elegantly
258 hypothesized that aspects of this Bayesian framework may be somewhat anatomically
259 distinct within the brain. Specifically, prior generation and predictions occur within the
260 deep layers of agranular cortices such as anterior cingulate cortex and anterior insula

261 ^{16,17,28,29}, which are comprised of many projection neurons connected to granular
262 cortices ^{29,45-47}. Granular cortices, such as the primary sensory cortex and posterior
263 insula, consist of well-differentiated layers including granule cells in layer IV that amplify
264 thalamic sensory inputs ⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰.

265 In the current study, participants were conditioned to associate an abstract cue
266 with upcoming mild or strong breathlessness. This learnt association allows the
267 generation of breathlessness expectations, and we were then able to investigate where
268 in the brain the behavioural anxiety sensitivity interacts with brain activity. During mild
269 breathlessness, we observed a correlation with activity in the anterior insula (agranular),
270 which has been previously implicated in prior generation within an interoceptive
271 prediction system ¹⁶. Conversely, during strong breathlessness, anxiety sensitivity was
272 inversely correlated with granular cortices such as the posterior insula and primary
273 sensory cortex ^{29,51,52}. Therefore, it is possible that anxiety sensitivity interacts within
274 this Bayesian framework at either the level of the prior or at the level of receiving
275 afferent inputs to the system, depending on the level of intensity of the stimulus. As
276 anxiety sensitivity represents attention towards bodily sensations, it is possible that
277 down-weighting priors and concentrating attention towards afferent sensation makes
278 this system less robust, and as a result creates a wider posterior perceptual distribution.
279 Comparatively, during stronger (and less ambiguous) breathlessness, anxiety sensitivity
280 correlates only with perceptual variation of unpleasantness, but no longer intensity. The
281 corresponding changes in granular cortex may represent modulation of the gain of
282 afferent information, attempting to bring sensations closer to priors to reduce prediction
283 errors.

284

285 *Clinical Relevance*

286 The current study has been carried out in healthy volunteers with no history of
287 respiratory disease. Studying healthy populations can aid us in understanding normal
288 variants in physiology, psychology and perception. Still, the challenge remains to apply
289 these concepts to clinical populations. If an individual suffers from chronic
290 breathlessness, they may (over time) alter their priors and thus change their perception.

291 This may result in a shift of the prior further from the neural sensory information (a
292 leftward or rightward shift of the prior illustration in Figure 4). It remains to be
293 investigated how this change in expectation within the course of chronic disease may be
294 influenced by pre-existing behavioural levels of anxiety, depression and anxiety
295 sensitivity. This could help to explain how treatment options such as pulmonary
296 rehabilitation for chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) may be addressing
297 these expectations of breathlessness⁵³ and determine in which populations and under
298 what conditions such measures would be expected to work best. Using the Bayesian
299 framework to link relevant baseline measures of anxiety and interoceptive sensitivity to
300 neural activation within clinical populations could also help to understand and address
301 maladaptive perceptual differences, e.g. dangerous ‘under-’ and ‘over-’ perception of
302 symptoms in asthma sufferers.

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304

305 *Limitations*

306 This study is a supplementary analysis of previously published work, representing
307 preliminary pilot data in healthy volunteers with small study numbers ($n = 19$) and
308 limited stimulus repetitions ($n = 4$ each for mild and strong breathlessness). Whilst
309 previously published research has demonstrated both improved⁵⁴ and worsened⁵⁵
310 respiratory perceptual accuracy with greater anxiety, the current results showed no
311 effect of trait anxiety on perception. Rather, we have observed a relationship between
312 anxiety sensitivity and perceptual variation. While anxiety sensitivity represents a
313 separate facet of anxiety constrained to bodily sensations³⁴, numerous other variables
314 may also contribute to differences with previously published results. These factors may
315 include the continuous ratings used in this study compared to categorical ratings used
316 previously⁵⁶, the relatively low trait anxiety values of the study subjects (mean 34 ± 9
317 (SD), compared to previous classifications of low (29) and high (55) trait anxiety⁵⁷),
318 and/or the small subject numbers and repeats employed.

319 This study was also unable to determine the location and shape of the prior in
320 relation to both the sensory observation and resulting perceptual (posterior) distribution.

321 It is possible that anxiety sensitivity, anxiety and / or depression induce a lateral shift of
322 the prior, and our assumed changes in prior shape are inferred from the resulting
323 changes in perceptual variation. It is clear that further work is required to explore the
324 relationship between anxiety sensitivity and prior generation, and how this may change
325 across a broad spectrum of generalized anxiety, to determine its place within the
326 Bayesian symptom perception framework.

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330 **Conclusions and future directions**

331 This short report is a preliminary insight into potential mechanisms of perceptual
332 modulation of breathlessness within the Bayesian framework. Within this framework, the
333 brain integrates prior expectations with afferent sensory information to create
334 breathlessness perception. Behavioral modulators could potentially alter this
335 relationship and influence subsequent perceptual distributions. Here, we have shown
336 that level of anxiety sensitivity explains variations in breathlessness perception between
337 healthy volunteers, possibly modifying both priors and afferent sensations, which are
338 processed in distinct brain areas. Therefore, attention to bodily sensations (ASI) may
339 reduce the robustness of this system in healthy individuals, and increase susceptibility
340 to misinterpretation of breathlessness. Future work on larger cohorts needs to address
341 the relationship between anxiety sensitivity, interoceptive accuracy/confidence and
342 breathlessness perceptions, to investigate how both attention to bodily sensations and
343 interoceptive abilities may interact to adjust the doors of symptom perception.

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359 **Competing interests**

360 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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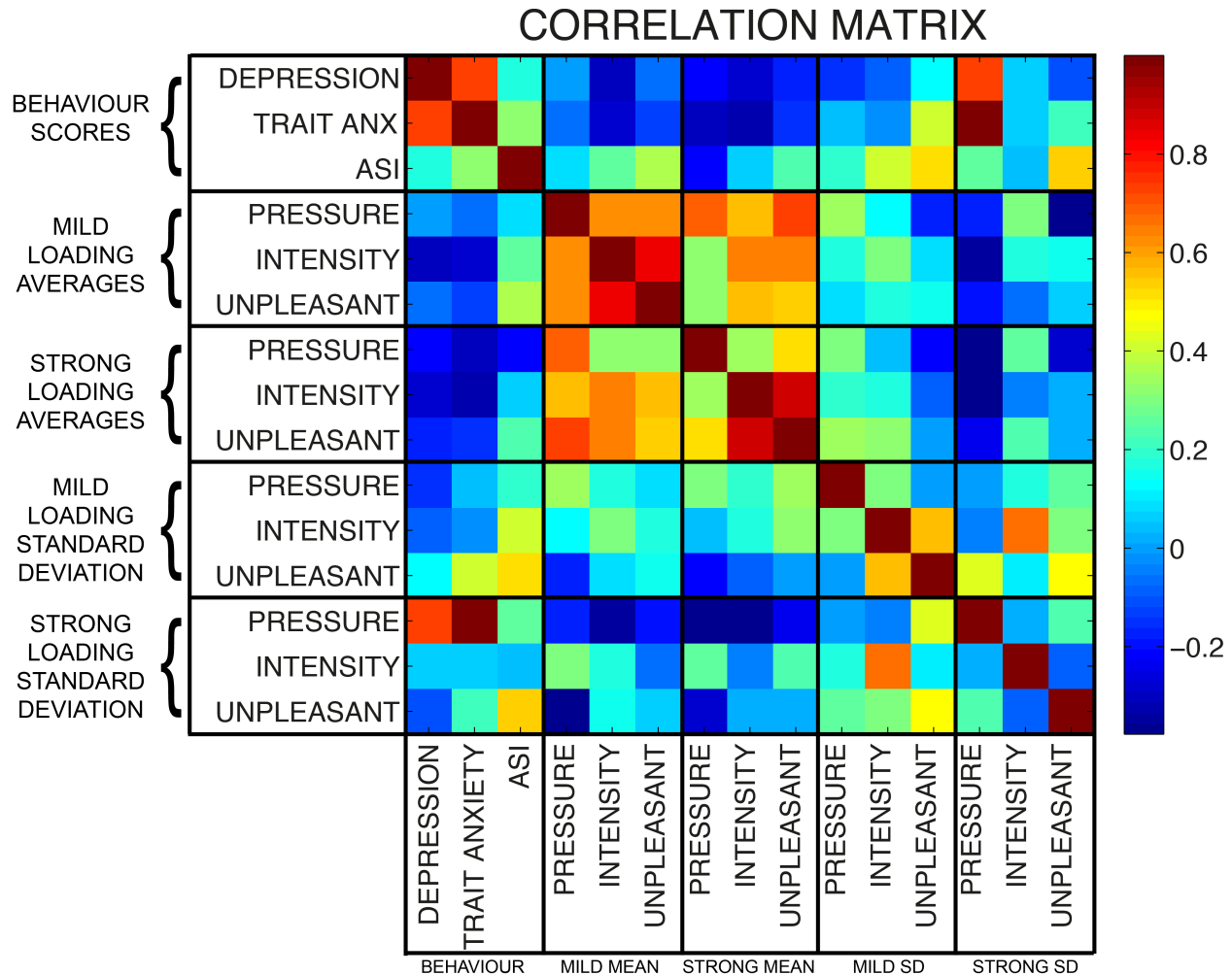
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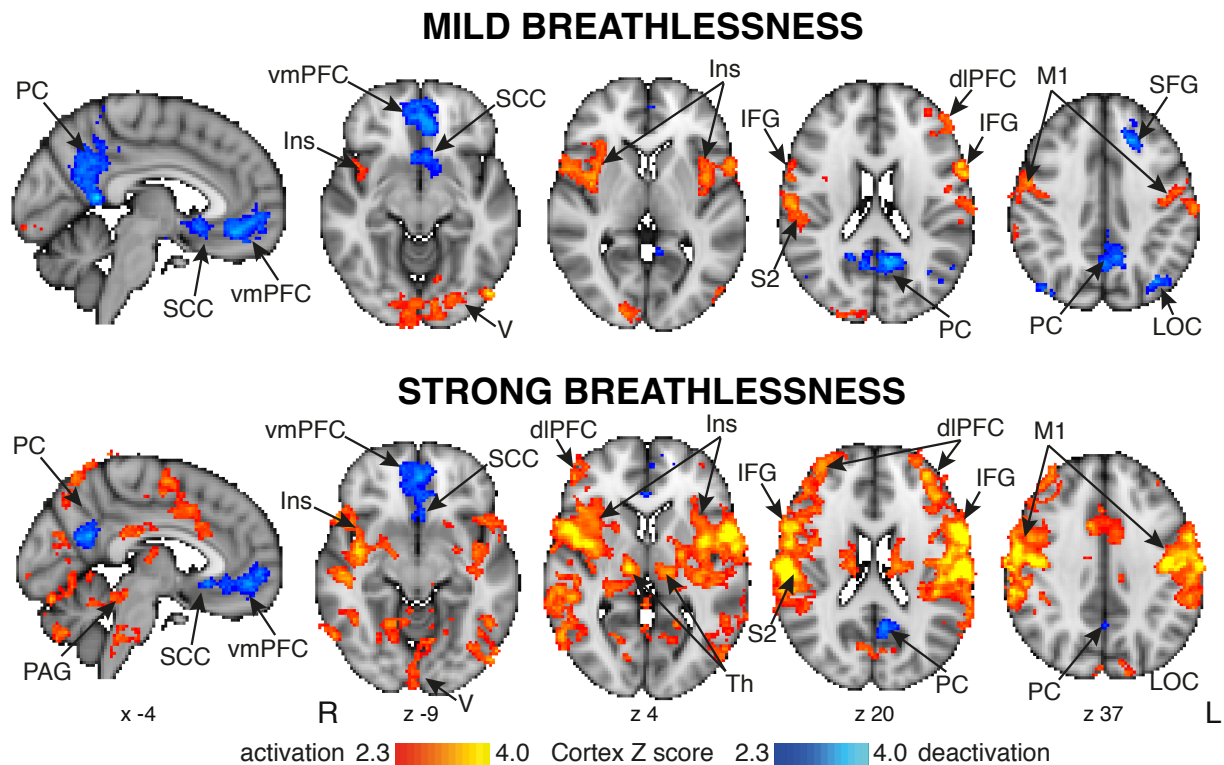
Figures



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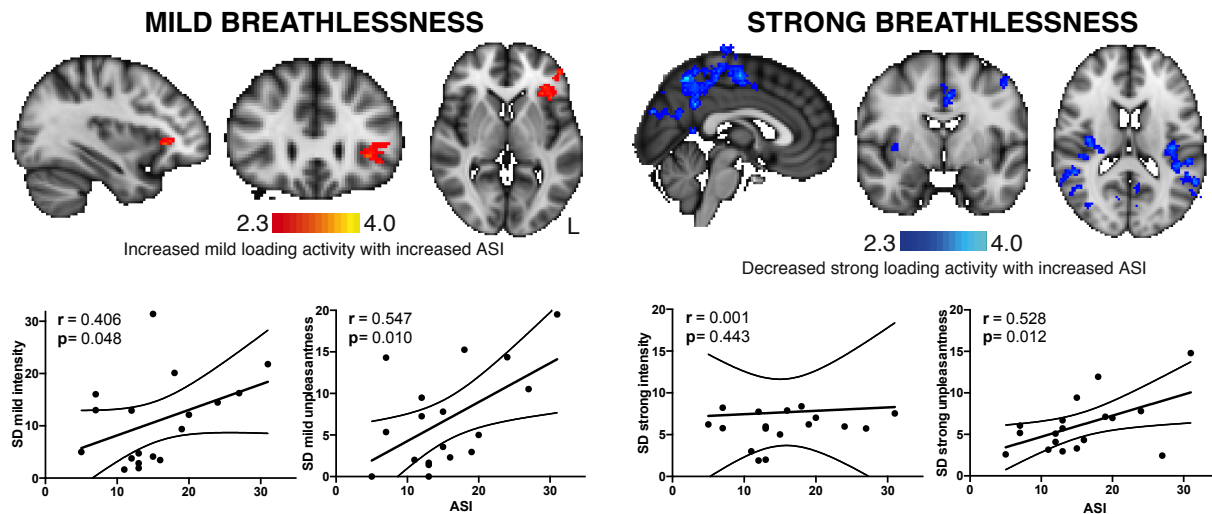
Figure 1. Full correlation matrix of all measured behavioural and physiological variables. Behavioural scores consisted of measures of depression, trait anxiety and anxiety sensitivity index (ASI). Mean and standard deviation measures of mouth pressure, intensity and unpleasantness scores are included for mild and strong resistive loading (breathlessness).

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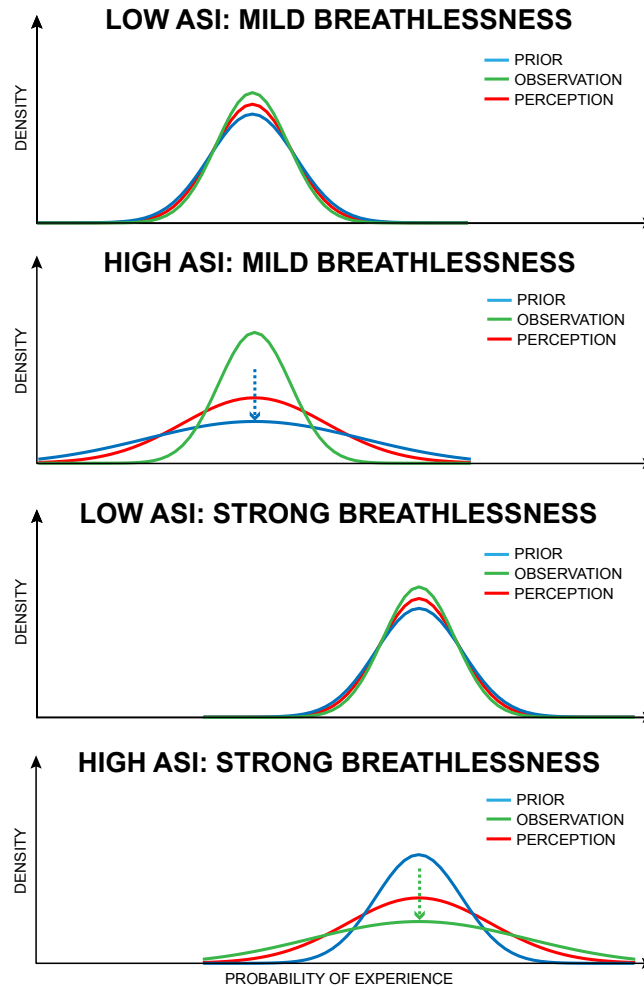
545 **Figure 2.** Mean BOLD changes identified during mild and strong breathlessness stimuli.
546 The images consist of a colour-rendered statistical map superimposed on a standard
547 (MNI 2x2x2 mm) brain. Significant regions are displayed with a threshold $Z > 2.3$, with a
548 cluster probability threshold of $p < 0.05$ (corrected for multiple comparisons).
549 Abbreviations: vmPFC, ventromedial prefrontal cortex; dlPFC, dorsolateral prefrontal
550 cortex; SCC, subcingulate cortex; Ins, insula; IFG, inferior frontal gyrus; SFG, superior
551 frontal gyrus; M1, primary motor cortex; S2, secondary somatosensory cortex; PC,
552 precuneus; Th, thalamus; LOC, lateral occipital cortex; PAG, periaqueductal gray.
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Figure 3. Relationship between perceptual variation, behavioural ASI score and brain activity. Left: (Top) Brain activity in the anterior insula that correlates with ASI score, and (bottom) significant correlations between ASI score and variation (standard deviation) in both intensity and unpleasantness during mild breathlessness. Right: (Top) Brain activity in the posterior insula, primary motor and sensory cortices, precuneus and posterior cingulate cortex that negatively correlates with ASI score, and (bottom) significant correlation between ASI score and unpleasantness, but not intensity during strong breathlessness.



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Figure 4. Theoretical possible relationships between ASI and posterior distribution of breathlessness perception using a Bayesian framework. Top two panels: Minimal influence of priors and sensory input (observation) on posterior distribution with low ASI, but flattened prior may widen posterior perceptual distribution with high ASI during mild breathlessness. Bottom two panels: Minimal influence of priors and sensory input (observation) on posterior distribution with low ASI, but flattened observation may widen posterior perceptual distribution with high ASI during strong breathlessness. Figure adapted from Van den Bergh et al. (2017).

583 Table 1. Effects of loading on respiratory parameters. $P_{ET}CO_2$ =partial pressure of end-
 584 tidal carbon dioxide. $P_{ET}O_2$ =partial pressure of end-tidal oxygen. Values are presented
 585 as mean (SD). N=19. Complete heart rate data in each epoch only available for 15
 586 subjects.

587 * = significantly different from saline unloaded breathing at $p<0.001$.

588 ¶ = significantly different from saline anticipation unloaded breathing at $p<0.05$

| Variable | Anticipation unloaded | Unloaded breathing | Anticipation mild | Mild loading | Anticipation strong | Strong loading |
|---|-----------------------|--------------------|-------------------|--------------|---------------------|----------------|
| Mouth pressure amplitude [cmH ₂ O] | 2.7 (0.7) | 2.4 (0.5) | 2.6 (0.7) | 4.0 (0.8) | 3.5 (1.7)¶ | 12.7 (4.1)* |
| $P_{ET}CO_2$ [kPa] | 5.5 (0.6) | 5.6 (0.6) | 5.6 (0.5) | 5.5 (0.5) | 5.5 (0.5) | 5.5 (0.6) |
| $P_{ET}O_2$ [kPa] | 20.0 (0.9) | 19.8 (0.8) | 19.8 (0.7) | 20.2 (0.9) | 19.9 (0.7) | 20.2 (0.8) |
| Intensity rating [%VAS] | | 12 (16) | | 32 (21) | | 71 (20)* |
| Unpleasantness rating [%VAS] | | 10 (18) | | 25 (25) | | 61 (32)* |
| Heart rate [min ⁻¹] (N=15) | 68 (11) | 67 (10) | 69 (9) | 67 (12) | 68 (11) | 69 (11) |