Multidirectional effect of low-intensity neuromuscular electrical stimulation on gene expression and

phenotype in thigh and calf muscles after one week of disuse

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Abstract

Purpose. This study investigated the effects of a one-week disuse, both with and without low-intensity

neuromuscular electrical stimulation – a safe (non-traumatic) approach to prevent the loss of muscle mass, on the

functional capacities and gene expression in thigh and calf muscles.

Methods. This study assessed the efficiency of low-intensity (~10% of maximal voluntary contraction)

electrical stimulation in preventing the negative effects of 7-day disuse (dry immersion without and with daily

stimulation) on the strength and aerobic performance of the ankle plantar flexors and knee extensors, mitochondrial

function in permeabilized muscle fibers, and the proteomic (quantitative mass spectrometry-based analysis) and

transcriptomic (RNA-sequencing) profiles of the soleus muscle and vastus lateralis muscle.

Results. Application of electrical stimulation during dry immersion prevented a decrease in the maximal

strength and a slight reduction in aerobic performance of the knee extensors, as well as a decrease in maximal

(intrinsic) ADP-stimulated mitochondrial respiration and changes in the expression of genes encoding

mitochondrial, extracellular matrix, and membrane proteins in the vastus lateralis muscle. In contrast, for the ankle

plantar flexors/soleus muscle, electrical stimulation had a positive effect only on maximal mitochondrial respiration,

but slightly accelerated the decline in the maximal strength and muscle fiber cross-sectional area, which appears to

be related to the activation of inflammatory genes.

Conclusion. The data obtained open up broad prospects for the use of low-intensity electrical stimulation to

prevent the negative effects of disuse for "mixed" muscles, meanwhile, the optimization of the stimulation protocol

is required for "slow" muscles.

Keywords: dry immersion, skeletal muscle, electromyostimulation, transcriptome, proteome, inflammation

Practitioner Points

• Low-intensity electrical myostimulation is often used as an alternative to exercise and high-intensity

electrical stimulation to prevent the loss of muscle mass and function in patients with severe chronic

diseases and in spaceflight. However, its effect on muscles with different functional capacities

remains uncertain.

• One week of disuse (dry immersion) lead to a comparable decrease in the maximal strength and

(intrinsic) mitochondrial respiration in both the ankle plantar flexors/soleus muscle and the knee

extensors/vastus lateralis muscle. Meanwhile changes in gene expression (transcriptome) were three

times more pronounced in the soleus muscle than in the vastus lateralis muscle.

•   Application of electrical stimulation during disuse prevented most of the negative effects of disuse in

50   the knee extensors/vastus lateralis muscle, but accelerated the decline in the maximal strength/muscle

51   fiber cross-sectional area in the ankle plantar flexors/soleus muscle, which may be related to the

52   activation of genes regulating the inflammatory response.

Introduction

The initial weeks of disuse (e.g., leg immobilization, bedrest, dry immersion), as well as spaceflight, cause

a decrease in leg muscle strength and mass (Narici and de Boer 2011; Hackney and Ploutz-Snyder 2012; Koryak

2020; Vikne et al. 2020; Marusic et al. 2021) at a rate of 0.4%–0.5% per day (Narici and de Boer 2011; Hackney

and Ploutz-Snyder 2012). Additionally, disuse leads to a reduction in the aerobic performance of the organism,

measured as the maximum oxygen consumption rate in an incremental test on a cycle ergometer or treadmill, at a

rate of 0.4%–1% per day (Ade et al. 2015; Ried-Larsen et al. 2017). Whole-body maximal aerobic performance is

influenced by "central" factors (cardiac output) and "peripheral" factors (muscle O_2 diffusion and oxidative

capacity). However, only a few studies have investigated the effect of disuse on aerobic performance using exercise

tests that involve small muscle mass – an approach eliminating the influence of "central" factors – such as tests

focused solely on the knee extensors (Ringholm et al. 2011; Salvadego et al. 2011; Salvadego et al. 2016; Salvadego

et al. 2018; Zuccarelli et al. 2021).

Low-intensity (<30% of maximal voluntary contraction) neuromuscular electrical stimulation (NMES) was

offered as a safe (non-traumatic) approach and alternative to exercise and high-intensity NMES to prevent the loss

of muscle mass, strength, and endurance in patients with severe chronic diseases (Quittan et al. 2001; Harris et al.

2003; Zanotti et al. 2003; Nuhr et al. 2004; Karavidas et al. 2010), as well as in spaceflight (Mayr et al. 1999; Shiba

et al. 2015; Yarmanova et al. 2015; Maffiuletti et al. 2019). Interestingly, some effects of disuse, especially during

dry immersion and spaceflight, manifest differently in leg muscles with different functional capacities. For instance,

the soleus muscle – a muscle with strong postural function, which consists predominantly of type I slow muscle

fibers, shows more pronounced effects than other leg muscles in terms of muscle strength, tone and mass, and

muscle fiber size (LeBlanc et al. 1992; Kozlovskaya et al. 2007; Fitts et al. 2010; Tomilovskaya et al. 2019; Casuso

et al. 2024). However, the effects of low-intensity NMES on strength and aerobic performance in various leg

muscles are poorly investigated. This study assessed, for the first time, the efficiency of low-intensity NMES in

preventing the negative effects of strict disuse on both the ankle plantar flexors/soleus muscle and the knee

extensors/vastus lateralis muscle, using a dry immersion model. Specifically, we investigated the effects of a one-

week dry immersion, both with and without NMES, on the strength and aerobic performance of leg muscles (test

involving small muscle mass), mitochondrial function in permeabilized muscle fibers, and the proteomic

(quantitative mass spectrometry-based analysis) and transcriptomic (RNA-sequencing) profiles of skeletal muscles.

Methods

Ethical approval

The studies were approved by the Committee on Biomedical Ethics of the Institute of Biomedical Problems

of the RAS (protocols № 594 of September 6, 2021, and № 620 of July 12, 2022) and complied with all the

principles set forth in the Declaration of Helsinki. All volunteers gave written informed consent to participate in the

study and to undergo skeletal muscle biopsy.

Study design

Ten males participated in a control 7-day dry immersion (DI, ages 25–38 years; median height 1.78 m

[interquartile range 1.71–1.79 m]; body mass 70 kg [64–74 kg]; and body mass index 24 kg/m² [21–24 kg/m²]). A

year later (at the same time of year), another ten males participated in a 7-day dry immersion with NMES

(DI+NMES, ages 26–39 years; height 1.74 m [1.70–1.76 m]; body mass 73 kg [70–79 kg]; and body mass index 24

kg/m² [23–26 kg/m²]). Study design and test protocols were similar in both experiments.

To evaluate the effects of NMES, changes induced by DI were compared with changes induced by

DI+NMES. After a familiarization session, one day before and 8–9 hours after the end of DI or DI+NMES, the

maximum isometric voluntary contraction (MVC) of the ankle plantar flexors and knee extensors of the right leg

and (after 10 minutes of rest) the aerobic performance of these muscles (maximum power in an incremental ramp

test till exhaustion, W_{max}) were examined (Fig. 1A). To evaluate markers of NMES-induced muscle damage the

venous blood was drawn from the *v. intermedia cubiti* 7 days before and 4 days after the start of disuse. Muscle

samples were taken using a Bergstrom needle with aspiration under local anesthesia (2 ml of 2% lidocaine) from the

medial part of the vastus lateralis (VL) and soleus (Sol) muscles of the left leg 14 days before and 6 days after the

start of disuse (DI and DI+NMES) at 10:00, 3 hours after a standardized very light breakfast (5.2 g protein, 2.7 g fat,

55 g carbohydrates, 1253 kJ). This biopsy time was chosen because various physiological tests were performed

immediately after the end of the 7-day dry immersion (not included in this study); this approach allowed us to study

the "pure" molecular response to 6 days of disuse, as well as the "relatively pure" physiological response to 7 days

of disuse. The samples were cleared of visible fragments of connective and adipose tissue; part of the fresh tissue

was used to assess mitochondrial function, another part was immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen to study the transcriptome and proteome profiles, and the last part was embedded in Tissue-Tek O.C.T. Compound (Sakura, USA) and frozen in liquid nitrogen to histological study; all frozen samples were stored at -80 ℃ until further analyses.

Fig. 1. Design of the study.

A – Dry immersion without (DI) and with neuromuscular electrical stimulation (DI+NMES).

B – Position of electrodes for NMES.

Dry immersion protocol

In both experiments during dry immersion subjects remained immersed in a bath with thermoneutral water (32.7±0.7 degrees C) in a supine position for all activities. Light-off period was set at 23:00-07:00. Daily hygiene and some measurements (not included in the paper) required to pull a person out from the bath. Average out-of-bath time was: 19.6±5.7 min (including 7.0±3.9 min in vertical position) on days 1-5; 51.5±8.8 min (including 7.5±1.7 min in vertical position) on day 6, and 73.5±7.0 min (including 5.9±1.7 min in vertical position), because of muscle biopsy, on day 7. Blood pressure, heart rate, and body temperature were measured three times per day (8:00, 15:00, and 21:00); subjects were constantly monitored with video. Dietary intake was controlled during the study; the menu composition was identical for all subjects.

Neuromuscular electrical stimulation

Motor neuron firing rate plays an important role in the activation of calcium-dependent signaling and the expression of muscle-specific genes. Therefore, in our study, both low (25 Hz) and high (50 Hz) stimulation frequencies were used during DI+NMES (in the first and second NMES daily session, respectively).

Every day at 11:00 (7 sessions in total), low-intensity low-frequency electrical stimulation was applied to

the calf and thigh muscles for 40–45 min (bipolar symmetrical rectangular pulses [1 ms, 25 Hz] for 1 s, followed by

a 2-s pause) using a stimulator Stimul-01 (Biophyspribor, Russia), as described elsewhere (Poltavskaya et al. 2021).

Every day at 17:00 (7 sessions in total), low-intensity high-frequency electrical stimulation was applied to

the calf and thigh muscles for 10 min (carrier frequency of 2-kHz bipolar symmetrical pulses [10 ms separated by

10-ms pause] with bursts of 50 Hz for 10 s, followed by a 50-s pause) using a stimulator Amplidin-EST (NTC UP

RAN, Russia), as described elsewhere (Amirova et al. 2022). The burst time during high-frequency NMES was

longer than that during low-frequency NMES (10 s *vs.* 1 s). Therefore, to increase the pain tolerance during high-

frequency NMES, the carrier frequency (2-kHz) was used (Ward and Shkuratova 2002).

Electrodes (13 cm × 5 cm, PG-901, Fiab, Italy) were placed on the proximal and distal thirds of the anterior

and posterior surface of the thigh. For the posterior calf muscles, one electrode (13 cm × 5 cm) was placed in the

proximal part of the calf, and another electrode (9 cm × 5 cm) – 5 cm distal to the gastrocnemius muscles. For the

anterior calf muscles, electrodes (9 cm × 5 cm) were placed on the proximal and distal thirds of the anterior surface

of the calf (Fig. 1B). NMES was performed in a bath: the subject was slightly raised to the surface of the water using

the bath lifting platform and lay in a supine position: the knee angle joint was 160-165 degrees (180 degree – knee

fully extended), the angle at the ankle joint was 110 degrees or 130 degrees during NMES-induced contraction of

the calf muscles (90 degree – foot perpendicular to the tibia, greater values represent plantar flexion angles).

This study focused on investigating the effects of low-intensity NMES, which does not cause significant

unpleasant sensations and, therefore, can potentially be used for patients with various diseases or healthy people to

countermeasure negative effect of strict disuse. Therefore, during DI+NMES, the intensity of stimulation was

individually adjusted to the point of causing unpleasant sensations. The mean voltage [standard deviation] of low-

frequency stimulation was 19.2 ± 4.2 V for the anterior thigh, 17.7 ± 4.6 V for the anterior calf, 17.6 ± 4.2 V for the

posterior thigh, and 18.2 ± 4.3 V for the posterior calf. The mean current during high-frequency stimulation was: for

both anterior and posterior surfaces of the thigh – 18.3 ± 5.2 mA and calf – 10.5 ± 2.5 mA. NMES caused visible

contractions of the stimulated muscles (~10% MVC for both knee extensors and ankle plantar flexors). Namely, the

NMES-induced relative force of the knee extensors (or ankle plantar flexors) at the stimulation intensity assessed as

"the point of causing unpleasant sensations" was examined in an additional experiment. Each subject involved in the

DI experiment sat on a Pro System 3 dynamometer (Biodex, USA): the knee joint was 135 degrees (180 degree –

knee fully extended). To investigate the NMES-induced relative force of the ankle plantar flexors the subjects were

lying in a supine position with one leg fixed on a homemade isometric ankle plantar flexors dynamometer: the ankle

joint was 90 degrees (foot perpendicular to the tibia) and the knee joint was 135 degrees. The stimulation intensity

of the knee extensors (or ankle plantar flexors) was gradually increased and the force (torque) was recorded, as well

as "the point of causing unpleasant sensations". Then, the isometric MVC at this position was examined (Supporting

information Fig. S1), as described in the next section.

Maximum voluntary contraction of the ankle plantar flexors and knee extensors

Isometric MVC of plantar flexors was assessed in a sitting position (Supporting information Fig. S2). To

reduce the contribution of the biarticular gastrocnemius muscles to force production (Cresswell et al. 1995; Niess et

al. 2018), MVC of the ankle plantar flexors was examined at a knee joint angle of 70 degrees, the upright position of

the calf, and the ankle joint 90 degrees using a CalfRaise-PRO dynamometer (AntexLab, Russia). A force

transducer was pressed down to the knee joint (200 N) and then reset to zero.

The isometric MVC of the knee extensors was examined in a sitting position on a Pro System 3

dynamometer (Biodex, USA) at a knee joint angle of 110 degrees.

In each test, the subject performed 5–7 attempts with a rest period of at least 30 s between attempts; the

best attempt was taken into account. Force/torque analog signal from both dynamometers was recorded using an

analog-to-digital converter E14-440 (L-CARD, Russia) and PowerGraph 3 software (Interoptica-c, Russia) with

sampling frequency 1 kHz (Supporting information Fig. S2 and S3).

Maximum aerobic performance of the ankle plantar flexors and knee extensors

Maximum aerobic power (W_{max}) of the ankle plantar flexors was assessed in an incremental ramp test to

exhaustion in a sitting position, as described above. Additionally, the distal part of the foot was placed on a 4 cm

high stand (Supporting information Fig. S2); the subject performed rhythmic extensions of the metatarsophalangeal

joint (raising the calf with 55% of the maximum amplitude): raising – 1.1 s, lowering – 0.3 s, rest – 0.6 s. The

rhythm and amplitude of movement were set using biofeedback (analog-to-digital converter E14-440 and

PowerGraph 3 software). The incremental test was carried out using the CalfRaise-PRO ergometer: the initial load

for raising the calf was 30 N, the load increment was 25 N/min, and the load during calf lowering was minimal. The

test was stopped when the subject was unable to maintain the full amplitude at the given rhythm for five cycles. The

power for each cycle was calculated as

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$$W_i = \frac{F_i \times A_i}{T_i} \qquad (1)$$

where i – cycle number, F_i – average load during muscle contraction in a cycle (N); A_i – amplitude of movement in a

cycle (m); T_i – cycle duration (s). The dependence "W_i – time" was smoothed (moving average with a window of 20

s), then W_{max} was defined as the maximum value (Supporting information Fig. S2).

The maximum aerobic power of the knee extensors was assessed using a modified Ergoselect 900 cycle

ergometer (Ergoline, Germany): each subject performed rhythmic knee extensions (from 80 to 160 degrees) in a

reclining sitting position (hip joint 35 degrees) (Supporting information Fig. S3). The extension frequency (1

cycle/s) was set by a sound command, the initial load – 0 W, the load increment – 5 W/min, and the load during

flexion was minimal. During the test, constant cadence (1 cycle/s) was simulated on the ergometer cadence

transducer. The amplitude of knee extension was ~80 degrees, but the frequency of extension could be different

from the specified (simulated) one (because of fatigue), therefore the power per cycle was calculated as

$$W_i = W_{Es;\, i} \times \frac{\varphi_i}{360} \times \frac{T}{T_i} \qquad (2)$$

where i – cycle number, $W_{Es;\, i}$ – power per cycle set on the Ergoselect 900 ergometer (W); φ_i – change in the knee

joint angle per cycle (degrees); T and T_i – specified and actual cycle duration, respectively (s). The knee joint angle

was recorded using the analog-to-digital converter E14-440 and PowerGraph 3 software. The test was stopped when

the subject was unable to maintain the full amplitude in the given rhythm for 5 cycles. The dependence "W_i – time"

was smoothed (moving average with a window of 20 s), and then W_{max} was defined as the maximum value

(Supporting information Fig. S3).

Serum creatine kinase (CK) activity and myoglobin level

CK activity was measured by an automatic analyzer Cobas c502, and myoglobin – a Cobas e601 (both

Roche Diagnostics, Germany) using standard reagents.

Muscle fiber cross-sectional area (CSA)

Muscle transverse sections (10 μm) were prepared using a cryotome (CM 1900, Leica Biosystems,

Germany), and immunostaining was performed using primary antibodies for slow (protein product of *MYH7*, 1:100,

M8421, RRID:AB_477248, Sigma, USA) and fast muscle fibers (protein product of both *MYH1* and *MYH2*, 1:100,

SC-75/ACC 232, RRID:AB_3106894, Leibniz Institute DSMZ, Germany), as well as secondary antibodies

AlexaFluor 488 and 546 (A32723, RRID:AB_2633275 and A11035 RRID:AB_2534093), respectively, all 1:400,

Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). Images were acquired using a fluorescent microscope Olympus IX83P2ZF3

(Olympus, Japan; 20× objective magnification) and analyzed by the ImageJ software. The median (range) number of

muscle fibers assessed was 101(54 – 121) for VL in DI+NMES, 89(20 – 134) for Sol in DI+NMES, 76(54 – 132)

for VL in DI, and 59(20 – 101) for Sol in DI.

Mitochondrial respiration in permeabilized muscle fibers

A piece of fresh tissue (~10 mg) was placed in ice-cold BIOPS relaxation buffer (10 mM Ca-EGTA buffer,

0.1 μM free calcium, 20 mM imidazole, 20 mM taurine, 50 mM K-MES, 0.5 mM DTT, 6.56 mM $MgCl_2$, 5.77 mM

ATP, 15 mM phosphocreatinine, pH 7.1) to remove connective and adipose tissue. Then a small piece (~2 mg) was

removed and the muscle fibers were separated using a pair of needles to form a bundle (two bundles for each biopsy

sample). The fibers were permeabilized in BIOPS buffer with saponin (50 μg/ml, 30 min) on ice with slow stirring,

then the tissue was washed 2 times for 10 min in MiRO5 buffer (0.5 mM EGTA, 3 mM $MgCl_2·6$ H_2O, 60 mM

lactobionic acid, 20 mM taurine, 10 mM KH_2PO_4, 20 mM HEPES, 110 mM D-sucrose, 1 g/l fatty acid-free bovine

serum albumin). The rate of mitochondrial respiration was assessed simultaneously on two channels on an Oxygraph

polarograph (Hansatech, United Kingdom) under hyperoxic conditions (Co_2 >200 μM) to avoid potential oxygen

limitation. Nonphosphorylating leak respiration was assessed by sequentially adding: malate (2 mM) + pyruvate (5

mM) + glutamate (10 mM). Maximal coupled (ADP-stimulated) respiration with convergent electron input to

complexes I and II of the electron transport system was achieved by adding ADP (5 mM) + $MgCl_2$ (3 mM),

followed by succinate (10 mM). The integrity of the outer mitochondrial membrane was tested by adding

cytochrome *c* (10 μM; if a respiration increase <10%, the quality of the mitochondria was considered sufficient).

Then the FCCP uncoupler was titrated (0.25 μM to 1.5 μM) to estimate the maximum capacity of the electron

transport chain (maximum uncoupled respiration). The respiration rate was normalized to the mass of permeabilized

muscle fibers, then, the average respiration rate for two channels was calculated.

RNA sequencing and data processing

A piece of frozen tissue (~15 mg) was homogenized at +4 °C in 500 μl of a lysis buffer (ExtractRNA,

Evrogen, Russia) using a plastic pestle and a drill. Total RNA was isolated using a spin column (RNeasy Mini Kit,

Qiagen, Germany). RNA concentration was assessed using a Qubit 4 fluorimeter (ThermoScientific, USA); RNA

integrity – using capillary gel electrophoresis (TapeStation, Agilent, USA). All samples had RNA integrity (RIN)

>7.8.

Strand-specific RNA libraries were prepared, as described previously (Kurochkina et al. 2024), using the

NEBNext Ultra II RNA kit (New England Biolabs, USA) according to the manufacturer's recommendations. Library

efficient concentration was evaluated by qPCR using 5X qPCRmix-HS SYBR kit (Evrogen, Russia); single-end

sequencing was done by a NextSeq 550 analyzer (Illumina, USA), according to the manufacturer's

recommendations, with a read length of 75 bp (~60 million reads/sample).

Sequencing quality was assessed using the FastQC tool (v.0.11.5, RRID:SCR_014583), and low-quality

reads were removed using Trimmomatic (v.0.36, RRID:SCR_011848). High-quality reads were mapped to the

human reference genome GRCh38.p13 primary assembly. The number of unique reads mapped to exons of each

gene was determined using the Rsubread package (R environment) and Ensembl annotation (GRCh38.101). The

DESeq2 method (paired sample analysis with Benjamini-Hochberg correction) was used to analyze differential gene

expression. Differentially expressed genes were defined as protein-coding genes (as well as polymorphic

pseudogenes and translated pseudogenes) with an expression level of TPM >1 (Transcripts Per Million, kallisto tool

v0.46.2), p_{adj}<0.01 and |fold change|≥1.25. A comparison of VL before DI *vs.* Sol before DI, as well as each muscle

after DI (or DI+NMES) *vs.* the same muscle before DI (or DI+NMES) was performed.

Quantitative mass spectrometry-based proteomic analysis

A piece of frozen tissue (~10 mg) was homogenized as described above in 140 µl of lysis buffer (4%

sodium dodecyl sulfate, 0.1 M Tris and 0.1 M dithiothreitol, pH 7.6). The lysate was boiled (95 ℃, 5 min),

transferred to an AFA microtube and sonicated (average power 20 W, 30 s × 4 using a ME220 sonicator (Covaris,

USA), and centrifuged (5 min, 30,000 g). The protein concentration in the supernatant was measured by a

fluorimeter Qubit 4.

The proteins (85 µg) were diluted in lysis buffer (final volume 24 µl), transferred to an S-Trap column

(ProtiFi, USA), alkylated (20 mM iodoacetamide, 15 min), and hydrolyzed into the S-Trap column using trypsin and

Lys-C (2 h at 47 ℃, 1:15 and 1:30, respectively, all Promega, USA) in 40 µl 50 mM triethylammonium bicarbonate

according to the manufacturer's recommendations. After elution, 20 µg of peptides (fluorimeter Qubit 4) were dried,

resuspended in 100 mM triethylammonium bicarbonate, and labeled with TMT 10-plex or 16-plex isobaric labels

(Thermo Scientific, USA) for 1.5 h according to the manufacturer's recommendations. The reaction was stopped

(0.3% hydroxylamine w/v, 15 min), and samples were pooled.

The mixture of labeled peptides was separated using high pH reverse-phase LC fractionation (HPLC 1200,

Agilent, USA). The peptides were concentrated on an analytical column (XBridge C18, particle size 5 µm, 4.6 x 250

mm, Waters, Ireland) in isocratic mode at a flow of 750 µl/min for 3 min in mobile phase A (15 mM ammonium

acetate, pH 9,0). Twenty-four fractions were collected from 3 min to 50 min (collection time 2 min, volume 1500

µL) using a gradient elution mode with mobile phase B (15 mM ammonium acetate, pH 9.0, 80% acetonitrile, pH

9.0). Each fraction was concentrated, and then fractions (1 and 13, etc.) were combined to obtain 12 fractions.

Each fraction was analyzed three times using an HPLC Ultimate 3000 RSLC nanosystem (Thermo

Scientific, USA) and a Q Exactive HF-X Hybrid Quadrupole-Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, USA)

by the nanoelectrospray ion source in the positive mode of ionization (Thermo Scientific) as previously described

(Kurochkina et al. 2024). The gradient (90 min) was formed by the mobile phase A (0.1% formic acid) and B (80%

acetonitrile, 0.1% formic acid) at a 0.4 μL/min flow. The ionizing voltage was 2.1 kV. MS spectra were acquired at

a resolution of 60,000 in the 390–1300 m/z range; fragment ions were mass scanned at a resolution of 60,000 at the

range from m/z 120 to the upper m/z value as assigned by the mass to charge state of the precursor ion. All tandem

MS scans were performed on ions with a charge state from $z = 2+$ to $z = 4+$. Synchronous precursor selection

facilitated the simultaneous isolation of up to 40 MS2 fragment ions. The maximum ion accumulation times were set

to 50 ms for precursor ions and 25 ms for fragment ions. AGC targets were set to 10^6 and 10^5 for precursor ions and

fragment ions, respectively.

Search and identification of peptides and proteins were performed using a MaxQuant platform (2.1.4.0;

Max Planck Institute for Biochemistry, RRID:SCR_014485) with default settings (FDR for peptides 1%, N-terminal

acetylation and oxidation of methionine as variable modifications and carbamidomethylation of cysteine, as fixed

modification) and the Isobaric much between runs and PSM-level weighted ratio normalization functions (Yu et al.

2020). Further analysis was performed using a Perseus platform (1.6.5; Max Planck Institute for Biochemistry,

RRID:SCR_015753). To avoid the batch effect associated with labeling with the TMT 10-plex and 16-plex kits, the

average reporter ion intensity of all samples labeled with 10-plex isobaric tags was normalized to the intensity of all

samples labeled with 16-plex tags, as previously described (Kurochkina et al. 2024). After filtration (potential

contaminants, reverse peptides, peptides identified by site only), proteins identified by more than one peptide

(unique+razor) and present in >70% of samples were taken for further analysis. Differentially expressed proteins

were determined using one-sample Wilcoxon signed tank test with q-value (Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value)

<0.05 and Tukey's *post-hoc* test ($p<0.05$). A comparison of VL before DI *vs.* Sol before DI, and each muscle after

DI *vs.* the same muscle before DI was performed.

Western blot analysis

The lysate samples were mixed with Laemmli buffer and loaded onto 10% polyacrylamide gels (15 μg

protein/lane), as described elsewhere (Popov et al. 2018). Electrophoresis (20 mA per gel) was performed using a

Mini-PROTEAN Tetra Cell system (Bio-Rad, USA). The proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose membranes

using a Trans-Blot Turbo system (Bio-Rad) in Towbin buffer for 30 min at 25 V. The membranes were stained with

Ponceau S to verify consistent loading of proteins, followed by washing and incubation for 1 h in 5% non-fat dry

milk (Applichem, Germany) in TBSt (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.6; 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% Tween 20). Next, the

membranes were incubated at 4°C overnight with antibodies specific oxidative phosphorylation proteins NDUFB8,

SDHB, UQCRC2, COX1 and ATP5A1 (1:2000; ab110413; Abcam) in 5% non-fat dry milk in TBST. Blots were

then incubated for 1 h at room temperature with an anti-mouse Ig secondary antibody (1:5000, Cell Signaling

Technology) in 5% non-fat dry milk in TBST. After each step, the membranes were washed three times for 5 min

with TBST. Finally, the membranes were incubated with SuperSignal West Femto Maximum Sensitivity Substrate

(Thermo Scientific, USA) and luminescent signals were captured using a ChemiDoc Imaging System (Bio-Rad).

Statistical analysis

Data are presented as median and interquartile range. A comparison of MVC, W_{max}, fiber CSA, and

mitochondrial respiration in each muscle group after DI (or DI+NMES) *vs.* the same muscle group before DI (or

DI+NMES) was performed using the nonparametric Wilcoxon test (Fig. 2). A comparison of changes in each of

these parameters caused by DI and DI+NMES was performed using the nonparametric Mann-Whitney test (Fig. 2).

A comparison of mitochondrial respiration in VL before DI *vs.* Sol before DI was performed using the

nonparametric Wilcoxon test (Fig. 3).

For transcriptomic and proteomic data, functional enrichment analysis for biological processes, cellular

components and pathways (UNIPROT KW BP/CC, GENE ONTOLOGY BP/CC DIRECT and KEGG PATHWAY

databases) was performed against all protein-coding genes (TPM >1, ~10,000 mRNA) or detected proteins using the

DAVID tool v2023q4 (RRID:SCR_001881) (p_{adj}<0.05, Fisher's exact test with Benjamini correction).

Results

Strength and endurance of the knee extensors and ankle plantar flexors

DI resulted in comparable reductions in the knee extensor and ankle plantar flexor MVC (-7(-11 – -2)% and

-4(-12 – -1)%, respectively, p<0.05; Fig. 2A). NMES had different effects on different muscles: it prevented the dry

immersion-induced decrease in MVC in the knee extensors (p = 0.9), but unexpectedly increased the drop in

strength in the ankle plantar flexors (up to -16(-18 – -9)%, p = 0.01). Moreover, a trend toward a difference was

found between the magnitude changes in these measures in DI and DI+NMES for both muscle groups (p = 0.06–

0.09), indicating the multidirectional effect of NMES on various muscle groups (Fig. 2A).

DI caused a very small decrease in aerobic performance in the knee extensors only (-3(-8 – 1)%, p = 0.049)

(Fig. 2B). In contrast, DI+NMES led to an increase in this measure (by 5(0 – 10)%, p = 0.039); moreover, the

magnitude of change in these measures after DI differed (p = 0.01) from that after DI+NMES, underlining the

positive effect of NMES on VL. Both DI and DI+NMES had no effect on the aerobic performance of the ankle

plantar flexors (Fig. 2B).

Markers of skeletal muscle membrane damage

CK activity after 4 days of DI was 2.5 time lower ($p = 0.03$) than at the baseline (41 IU/l and 109 IU/l,

respectively), meanwhile myoglobin level showed no changes (22.9 mg/l and 26.2 mg/l, respectively). DI+NMES

significantly increased skeletal muscle membrane damage: CK activity after 4 days of DI was 2 time greater ($p =$

0.01) than at baseline (347 IU/l and 166 IU/l, respectively), as well as the myoglobin level ($p = 0.002$; 64.6 mg/l and

39.1 mg/l, respectively).

Muscle fiber cross-sectional area and mitochondrial function in the vastus lateralis and soleus

muscles

The average proportion of type I and II muscle fibers in VL before DI was 43.4(32.7-46.9)% and 56.6(53.1-

67.3)%, respectively, and in Sol – 73.0(65.0-86.6)% and 21.5(10.4-25.4)%, respectively. Before DI+NMES, the

average proportion of type I and II muscle fibers in VL was 43.5(41.7-45.7)% and 61.9(60.4-63.7)%, respectively,

and in Sol – 79.9(74.4-88.7)% and 24.7(20.7-30.9)%, respectively. The myofiber distribution did not change

significantly in both experiments. After DI, a tendency to decrease in CSA was observed in type II fibers in VL (by -

8.5(-23 – 1)%, $p = 0.08$); no changes were found in type I fibers in VL and in both fiber types in Sol (Fig. 2C).

DI+NMES had no effect on both fiber types in VL and type I fibers in Sol, but reduced CSA in type II fibers in Sol

(by -15(-29 – -1)%, $p = 0.01$; Fig. 2C, which is consistent with the loss of MVC in the ankle plantar flexors; Fig.

2A). Interestingly, the magnitude of change in this measure after DI differed ($p = 0.04$) from that after DI+NMES,

underlining the negative effect of NMES on Sol.

DI reduced maximum ADP-stimulated mitochondrial respiration in permeabilized VL and Sol muscle

fibers by -20(-33 – -5 % and -17(-25 – -7)%, respectively ($p<0.03$). In contrast, DI+NMES increased this measure

by 42(3 – 90)% and 65(10 – 86)% ($p<0.04$), respectively (Fig. 2D). Moreover, in both muscles, the magnitude of

change in these parameters after DI differed ($p<0.01$) from that after DI+NMES, underlining a strong positive effect

of NMES on both muscles (Fig. 2D).

Fig. 2. Electrical stimulation prevented the dry immersion-induced decrease in maximal voluntary contraction (MVC) and a slight decrease in the endurance of the knee extensors, but increased the drop in both MVC and type II muscle fibers cross-sectional area (CSA) in the ankle plantar flexors/soleus muscle.

A and B – Changes in isometric maximum voluntary contraction (A) and aerobic performance (maximum power in the incremental ramp test, W_{max}) (B) in the knee extensors and ankle plantar flexors after dry immersion without (DI) and with neuromuscular electrical stimulation (DI+NMES); (n = 9–10 subjects in each group).

C and D – Changes in the cross-sectional area of type I and II muscle fibers (C, n = 6–10 in each group) and maximum ADP-stimulated mitochondrial respiration (Jo_2) in permeabilized fibers (D) in VL and Sol muscles; (n = 9 subjects in each group).

Median, interquartile range, and individual values are shown. The lower p-values refer to changes from the baseline (dashed line) (Wilcoxon signed-rank test), the upper ones refer to differences between the magnitude of changes in DI and DI+NMES (Mann-Whitney test).

Proteomic profile in the vastus lateralis and soleus muscles

A total 1890 proteins were detected in both muscles: mainly highly abundant myofibrillar, mitochondrial,

cytoskeletal, sarcomeric, and ribosomal proteins, as well as heat shock and sarcoplasmic reticulum proteins

(Supporting information Table S1). In VL, the relative content of 724 proteins was lower than in Sol (Fig. 3A); the

majority of them (399 proteins) enriched functional categories related to mitochondrial proteins and regulators of

fatty acid and carbohydrate metabolism (Fig. 3B, Supporting information Table S1 and S2). The relative content of

64 proteins was higher in VL than in Sol; these proteins were associated with calcium signaling (14 proteins),

sarcomere (12 proteins), glycolysis (12 proteins), and glycogen metabolism (4 proteins) (Fig. 3B, Supporting

information Table S1 and S2). In VL, the relative content of the "fast" myosin heavy chains 2X and 2A, encoded by

the *MYH1* and *MYH2* genes, was 1.7 and 1.8 times higher ($q<0.01$) than in Sol, respectively, meanwhile the "slow"

myosin heavy chain (*MYH7* gene) was 1.4 times less ($q<0.01$) (Supporting information Table S1). The marked

difference in the proteomic profiles of VL and Sol is consistent with differences in protein expression between type I

and type II muscle fibers showed in the human VL (Murgia et al. 2017; Murgia et al. 2021), as well as with

differences in the transcriptomic profiles of these muscles and in the maximum rate of mitochondrial respiration in

the baseline (Fig. 3A, C, and D and see below).

Further analysis showed that dry immersion had no effect on the relative content of detected proteins of

either muscle. The results of the Western blot analysis for five mitochondrial proteins related to various respiratory

complexes fully confirmed our proteomic data: *i*) at baseline the relative content of all mitochondrial proteins was

greater in Sol than in VL, *ii*) dry immersion DI did not affect the relative content of virtually all of these proteins in

either muscle (Supporting Information Fig. S4). It should be noted that, because of the high dynamic range of the

muscle proteome (Deshmukh et al. 2015), the proteomic profile in this study largely did not include low abundant

regulatory/signaling proteins. These proteins usually have a short half-life (Schwanhausser et al. 2011; Fornasiero et

al. 2018) and thereby potentially could significantly change their relative content after 6 days of disuse.

Fig. 3. Pronounced differences between the vastus lateralis (VL) and soleus (Sol) muscles in the baseline (prior to

dry immersion) for proteomic and transcriptomic profiles and mitochondrial respiration.

A – number up- and down-regulated mRNA/proteins in VL *vs*. Sol in the baseline ($n = 10$ subjects in each group).

All detected protein-coding genes and proteins are presented in Supporting information Table S1.

B and C – Tables show the number of mRNA/proteins and the corresponding p_{adj} for the main enriched functional

categories (all results of enrichment analysis are presented in Supporting information Table S2).

D – Maximum uncoupled and ADP-stimulated mitochondrial respiration (Jo_2) in permeabilized fibers in VL and Sol

in the baseline. Median, interquartile range, and individual values are shown. *p*-values refer to differences between

the magnitude of change in DI and DI+NMES (Mann-Whitney test, $n = 9$ subjects in each group).

Transcriptomic profile in the vastus lateralis and soleus muscles

      After the removal of low-expressed genes, ~10,000 mRNAs were detected (Supporting information Table

S1). As expected, in VL, compared with Sol, down-regulated mRNAs (1133) enriched terms related to aerobic and

fatty acid metabolism enzymes, contractile apparatus, cell adhesion, and ion transporters, and up-regulated mRNAs

(1326) were associated with regulators of translation, glycolytic enzymes, transmembrane transporters, and

contractile proteins (Fig. 3C, Supporting information Table S1 and S2).

After both DI and DI+NMES, changes in gene expression in Sol (~1600 mRNAs) were more pronounced

(2.5–4 times) than in VL (~400 mRNAs) (Fig. 4A and B, Supporting information Table S3). Interestingly, in the

"mixed" fiber type composition VL, the number of genes that changed expression after DI+NMES was lower than

that after DI (442 mRNAs and 607 mRNAs, respectively). In contrast, in the "slow" Sol, the response to DI+NMES

was greater compared to DI (1791 mRNAs and 1527 mRNAs, respectively, Fig. 4A and C). Moreover, NMES

significantly altered the transcriptomic response to immersion, inducing the expression of multiple genes that

showed no overlap with genes that responded to DI (263 and 1049 mRNAs in VL and Sol, respectively) (Fig. 4C).

The small number of up-regulated genes in VL after DI (215 mRNAs) were not enriched in any functional

categories (Fig. 4A and D, Supporting information Table S4). In contrast, after DI+NMES, up-regulated genes in

VL (165 mRNAs) were associated with secreted proteins (30 mRNAs), plasma membrane proteins (61 mRNAs),

and lipid transport (9 mRNAs) (Fig. 4A and D, Supporting information Table S4). In Sol, DI caused a large increase

in gene expression (567 mRNAs) that was associated with numerous plasma membrane proteins (168 mRNAs), as

well as extracellular (56 mRNAs) and immune response proteins (23 mRNAs) (Fig. 4A and D, Supporting

information Table S4). Interestingly, in Sol after DI+NMES, the number of up-regulated genes increased (to 667

mRNAs); these genes enriched functional categories associated with the extracellular region (72 mRNAs),

inflammatory response (28 mRNAs), and proteasome (18 mRNAs) (Fig. 4A and D, Supporting information Table

S4). In addition, several genes encoding NF-kappa B inflammatory pathway proteins, cyto/myokines, and their

receptors were also up-regulated (Fig. 4D and 5, Supporting information Fig. S5).

Fig. 4. Electrical stimulation differently affected the transcriptomic response to dry immersion in the "mixed" vastus

lateralis (VL) and "slow" soleus (Sol) muscles.

A – The number of mRNA that changed expression in dry immersion without (DI) and with neuromuscular

electrical stimulation (DI+NMES); (n = 10 subjects in each group). All detected protein-coding genes are presented

in Supporting information Table S3.

B – Transcriptomic response to DI (and DI+NMES) had little overlap between VL and Sol and was significantly

more pronounced in Sol. The number of DEGs is presented.

C – NMES significantly altered the transcriptomic response to immersion in both muscles.

D and E – Functions of up- (D) and down-regulated (E) genes in DI and DI+NMES (all results of enrichment

analysis are presented in Supporting information Table S4). The number of genes in each category is indicated, the

heat map shows p_{adj}. N.S. – non significant.

Fig. 5. Application of neuromuscular electrical stimulation during dry immersion induced expression of mRNAs

encoding proteins of the NF-kappa B inflammatory pathway in "slow" soleus muscle (Sol), but not in "mixed"

vastus lateralis muscle (VL) (also see Supporting Information Fig S5).

DI and DI+NMES – dry immersion without and with neuromuscular electrical stimulation, respectively; ($n = 10$

subjects in each group). Four circles next to each protein represent the change in expression of corresponding

mRNA in VL and Sol after DI and DI+NMES (see the legend). The color of the circles shows the magnitude of

changes in gene expression in these muscle after DI and DI+NMES (according to the heat map in the legend); N.S. –

non-significant change.

After DI, a number of down-regulated genes in VL (392 mRNAs) were associated with a variety of membrane (125 mRNAs), mitochondrial (67 mRNAs), and sarcomeric (15 mRNAs) proteins (Fig. 4A and E, Supporting information Table S3). NMES largely prevented these negative changes: down-regulated genes were associated only with sarcomeric proteins (12 mRNAs) (Fig. 4E, Supporting information Table S4). In contrast, in Sol, DI caused the down-regulation of many genes (961 mRNAs) associated with various mitochondrial (283 mRNAs), membrane (260 mRNAs), and sarcomeric proteins (26 mRNAs) (Fig. 4A and E, Supporting information Table S4). Unexpectedly, DI+NMES increased the number of down-regulated genes in Sol (to 1133 mRNAs), especially genes encoding mitochondrial proteins (to 330 mRNAs: predominantly genes related to mitochondrial ATP synthesis coupled proton transport, tricarboxylic acid cycle, mitochondrial organization, and mitochondrial PDH complex) (Fig. 4A and E, Supporting information Table S4). Moreover, a more pronounced response (in terms of magnitude) was found for mRNAs encoding mitochondrial proteins, in particular, for the inner mitochondrial membrane (Supporting information Fig. S6). Additionally, in Sol, NMES induced a decrease in the expression of genes encoding regulators of fat metabolism (30 mRNAs) and peroxisomal proteins (21 mRNAs) (Fig. 4E). The generalized effects of DI and DI+NMES are presented in Fig. 6.

Parameters	Knee extensors or *VL*		Ankle flexors or *Sol*	
	DI	DI+NMES	DI	DI+NMES
Maximal voluntary contraction	↓	—	↓	↓↓
Muscle fiber cross-section area	—	—	—	↓↓
mRNA of sarcomeric proteins	—	—	—	—
Aerobic performance	↓	↑	—	—
Maximal mitochondrial respiration	↓	— or ↑	↓	— or ↑
mRNA of mitochondrial proteins	↓	—	↓↓	↓↓↓
mRNA of fat metabolism regulators	—	↑	—	↓
mRNA of immune response regulators	—	—	↑	—
mRNA of inflammatory response regulators	—	—	—	↑
mRNA of proteasomal related proteins	—	—	—	↑
mRNA of ECM proteins	— or ↓	↑ or —	↑↑ or ↓↓	↑↑ or —
mRNA of membrane proteins	— or ↓	↑ or —	↑↑ or ↓↓	↑ or —
mRNA of transmembrane proteins	↓↓	—	↑ or ↓↓↓	—

Fig. 6. Generalized effects of dry immersion without (DI) and with low-intensity neuromuscular electrical stimulation (DI+NMES) on the functional capacity of the knee extensors/vastus lateralis muscle (VL) and the ankle plantar flexors/soleus muscle (Sol). Arrows show the direction of change; the number of arrows reflects the severity of the change/the number of genes changed expression. Blue and red boxes indicate the positive and negative effects of NMES, respectively.

Discussion

To assess the possibility of preventing the negative effects of disuse, the effects of a week-long dry

immersion without and with low-intensity NMES on the functional capacity and gene expression in the thigh and

calf muscles were compared for the first time.

NMES prevented the decline in knee extensor strength but accelerated that in ankle plantar flexors

In this study, the decline in MVC after DI was comparable to or slightly less than in the literature (Marusic

et al. 2021) and did not differ between the knee extensors and ankle plantar flexors (Figs. 2 and 6). The proteomic

profiles in VL and Sol were markedly different at baseline: the relative content of 788 proteins (out of 1890 detected

proteins) differed between these muscles (Fig. 3). However, after 6 days of DI, no changes in the relative content of

highly abundant muscle proteins, including sarcomeric proteins (constituting a half of the muscle protein mass),

were found in either muscle. This may be explained by a similar decrease in the rate of synthesis of highly abundant

muscle proteins and/or an increase in the rate of their degradation, as well as the fact that the expected decrease in

muscle mass during weekly disuse is only a few percent (~2.4–3.0%) (Narici and de Boer 2011; Hackney and

Ploutz-Snyder 2012; Marusic et al. 2021); meanwhile, the half-life of many highly abundant proteins (sarcomeric,

cytoskeletal, extracellular matrix and mitochondrial proteins, and histones) is more than a week (Fornasiero et al.

2018; Rolfs et al. 2021). The absence of changes in the expression of highly abundant contractile (as well as

mitochondrial) proteins is consistent with work examining the effects of 10 days of bedrest in individual VL fibers

(>200) (Murgia et al. 2022). More than two hundred proteins were found to be up- or down-regulated (out of >7500

detected); down-regulated proteins predominantly regulated the interaction of the fiber with the extracellular matrix

and force transmission. It should be noted that in this work for estimating relative protein content, a label-free

approach with imputation of missing data was used, and the sample size was set by the number of fibers analyzed

(rather than the number of samples/volunteers), which may explain the large differences in the number of detected

and differentially expressed proteins with our study.

Low-intensity NMES had different effects on different muscle groups: it prevented the disuse-induced

decrease of MVC in the knee extensors, but induced the loss of fiber cross-sectional area in Sol accelerating the

decrease of MVC in the ankle plantar flexors (Figs. 2 and 6). Low-intensity low- or high- frequency NMES (5%–

30% MVC, 25–50 Hz, 10–60 min/day, 5–7/week, 3–8 weeks) was previously shown to increase the muscle protein

synthesis rate, size, and MVC of "mixed" knee extensor muscles in various patients with decreased muscle mass

(Gibson et al. 1988; Gibson et al. 1989; Quittan et al. 2001; Harris et al. 2003) and in healthy volunteers

(Stefanovska and Vodovnik 1985). An increase in MVC of the knee extensors (Lai et al. 1988) and ankle plantar

flexors (Bouguetoch et al. 2021) was also shown after short-term (2–3 weeks) low-intensity high-frequency NMES

(20%–25% MVC, 50–80 Hz, 5/week,) in healthy volunteers; this increase is likely due not only to the direct effect

of the NMES on the muscle, but also to the neural adaptation. It can be hypothesized that a combination of the

effects of dry immersion and low-intensity NMES may cause specific negative effects on Sol. NMES (including

low-intensity stimulation) generates unaccustomed muscle fiber activation patterns (a synchronous and random

activation of both slow and fast motor units) and primary recruit muscle volume located beneath and close to the

stimulation electrodes that may lead to muscle damage and loss of MVC (Foure and Gondin 2021). In our study,

electrically evoked contractions were performed with short ankle flexor muscle lengths (see Methods), which should

minimize muscle damage (Foure and Gondin 2021). However, after 4 days of DI+NMES, in contrast to DI, a

significant increase in the serum CK activity and myoglobin level – markers of muscle membrane damage, were

found. We speculate, this effect may be particularly pronounced for Sol due to the marked decrease in its tone

during dry immersion (Kozlovskaya et al. 2007). On the other hand, the negative effect of a combination of NMES

and dry immersion on "slow" Sol may be related to the fact that energy supply, proteomic profile, regulation of

protein synthesis and breakdown (Fig. 3) (van Wessel et al. 2010; Ciciliot et al. 2013; Murgia et al. 2017; Murgia et

al. 2021), and some molecular responses to disuse (e.g., activation of inflammatory response genes (see below); Fig.

5 and Supporting information Fig. S5) differ significantly between "slow" and "fast" muscle fibers/muscles.

NMES prevented the decline in aerobic performance only in the knee extensors

The lack of a pronounced decrease in aerobic performance in both muscle groups (Figs. 2B and 6) and

change in the relative content of more than three hundred detected mitochondrial proteins in both muscles after 6

days of DI (Supporting information Table S1 and S2) is in line with studies showing no changes in time to

failure/maximum power in the one-legged knee extension test after 7-10-day bedrest (Ringholm et al. 2011;

Salvadego et al. 2016), as well as activity/content of mitochondrial enzymes/mitochondrial density in VL after 5-10-

day bedrest (Mikines et al. 1991; Salvadego et al. 2016; Zuccarelli et al. 2021; Marshall et al. 2022; Eggelbusch et

al. 2024) and 5-11-day space flight (Edgerton et al. 1995). Taken together, these data and other studies suggest that

pronounced reductions in markers of mitochondrial density (for review, see (Gram et al. 2014)) and aerobic

performance in endurance exercise tests that involve small muscle mass (Salvadego et al. 2011) should occur in a

later stage of disuse.

Interestingly, low-intensity NMES had a small positive effect on the aerobic performance of the knee

extensors only (Figs. 2B and 6) that may be related to a slightly increase in muscle oxidative capacity. Indeed, it has

been shown that muscle oxidative capacity in VL of healthy volunteers can be significantly increased after just 1

week of aerobic cycling training (2 h/day) (Spina et al. 1996). Since the NMES-induced increase in aerobic

performance correlates with the total stimulation time (Smart et al. 2013), it can be hypothesized that the small

effect of low-intensity stimulation on the thigh muscles is due to its insufficient duration. Meanwhile the lack of

effects for the calf/"slow" Sol muscles may be related to the high oxidative capacity of this muscle (and lower

ability to respond to a training stimulus (Molmen et al. 2024)) and/or to activation of inflammatory response genes

induced by combined exposure to immersion and NMES (Fig. 5, Supporting information Fig. S5 and see below).

DI caused a decrease in the maximum ADP-stimulated mitochondrial respiration rate in permeabilized

fibers, which is consistent with several studies examining the effects of 6–10 days of disuse (Dirks et al. 2016; Dirks

et al. 2020; Standley et al. 2020), but contradicts others (Salvadego et al. 2016; Edwards et al. 2020; Zuccarelli et al.

2021; Eggelbusch et al. 2024). Moreover, DI+NMES induced an opposite change in the maximal ADP-stimulated

respiration, which also occurred without any significant changes in the relative content of mitochondrial proteins

and aerobic performance in both muscles/muscle groups. It can be suggested that change in the maximal ADP-

stimulated respiration reflects the regulation of respiration (due to post-translational modifications of respiratory

enzymes, etc.) rather than mitochondrial density and protein concentration. This is indirectly confirmed by the fact

that changes in the maximal ADP-stimulated respiration may occur very rapidly without changes in respiratory

enzyme levels: after just three days of leg immobilization in VL (Miotto et al. 2019) and of dry immersion in Sol

(Popov et al. 2023).

NMES has differential effects on the transcriptomic response to dry immersion in the soleus and vastus

lateralis muscles

Unlike mass spectrometry-based proteomic analysis, RNA-seq makes it possible to detect all expressed

protein-coding genes. In line with studies showing greater negative effect of various disuse models on the phenotype

of Sol than other leg muscles (LeBlanc et al. 1992; Kozlovskaya et al. 2007; Fitts et al. 2010; Tomilovskaya et al.

2019; Casuso et al. 2024), DI caused significantly greater transcriptome changes in Sol than in VL (Fig. 4). The

more pronounced response in Sol and the direction of these changes are consistent with studies examining the

effects of long-term (60 days) bedrest in human VL and Sol (Chopard et al. 2009) and 6 weeks of spaceflight in

various leg muscles of mice (da Silveira et al. 2020). A comparison of the transcriptomic response in different

muscles suggests that a longer period of disuse may lead to a significant decrease in the relative content of certain

highly abundant proteins (mitochondrial, sarcomeric, etc.) in Sol that may partially explain greater negative effect of

disuse on the phenotype of Sol than VL and other leg muscles.

NMES significantly altered the transcriptomic response in both muscles, but the direction of these changes

differed between VL and Sol. In VL, NMES reduced most of the negative transcriptomic changes caused by

immersion and, moreover, increased the expression of a number of genes encoding fat metabolism regulators and

extracellular matrix proteins (Figs. 4 and 6, Supporting information Table S4), which is in line with transcriptomic

changes caused by regular aerobic exercise (Popov et al. 2019; Makhnovskii et al. 2021). In contrast, in Sol,

DI+NMES increased the number of down-regulated genes (genes encoding mitochondrial proteins, proteasomes,

and fat metabolism regulators) and/or the magnitude of their response (Fig. 4D and E and Supporting information

Fig. S6). Moreover, in Sol, DI+NMES induced an increase in genes encoding NF-kappa B pathway proteins, a

number of cyto/myokines, and their receptors (Fig. 4D and 5, Supporting information Fig. S5) indicating an

inflammatory response. Such response was previously shown in "slow" Sol already on the first days of disuse

(Popov et al. 2023), in contrast to VL (Abadi et al. 2009). The obtained data suggest that the combination of DI and

low-intensity NMES may amplify this effect in Sol, which appears to be related to both stimulation-induced muscle

damage and intrinsic features of "slow" fibers in Sol. Activation of inflammatory signaling pathways has a negative

impact on protein synthesis and breakdown, mitochondrial biogenesis, and other cellular processes (Costamagna et

al. 2015; Thoma and Lightfoot 2018; Abu Shelbayeh et al. 2023). It can be hypothesized that the activation of

inflammatory genes in Sol partially explains the negative effects of NMES after a week of dry immersion: an

increase in the number of down-regulated genes encoding mitochondrial proteins (and magnitude of their response)

and a decrease in the muscle fiber cross-sectional area in Sol, as well as a lack of a preventive effect on aerobic

capacity and a negative impact on MVC in the ankle plantar flexors.

Limitations

In our study, low-intensity NMES was used, therefore, mainly superficial part of the muscles was recruited.

This may partly explain the variability in data obtained from the analysis of biopsy samples (CSA, mitochondrial

respiration, proteomic and transcriptomic data). The variability of data after DI+NMES was also partly due to the

subjective choice of stimulation intensity. However, it should be noted that this approach was chosen because it is

well suited for the practical application of low-intensity NMES in patients.

The number of muscle fibers examined in our histological study was small due to the limited amount of

muscle tissue available for histological assessment; this is particularly important for fast fibers, proportion of which

in Sol is small. This, as well as the small sample size for some of histological analyses (n = 6 - 10), limits the

interpretation of the data on changes in muscle fiber CSA. Additionally, because the sample size in the study was

small, non-parametric statistical tests were used; therefore, some of our results may be underpowered.

An intense acute aerobic exercise was shown to induces changes in gene expression in skeletal muscle with

a peak at 3 h of recovery (in terms of gene number) (Makhnovskii et al. 2021). We cannot exclude a potential acute

effect of the low-intensity NMES session that preceded the second biopsy on the transcriptomic data. It should be

noted that the recovery time from this NMES session to the second biopsy was 16 h, indicating that the acute effect

of NMES was apparently weak. On the other hand, the combination of disuse and regular NMES sessions had

opposing effects on the Sol and VL transcriptome, emphasizing the specificity of the response in these muscles

rather than the acute effect of the NMES session that preceded the second biopsy. Additionally, it should be noted

that gene expression changes obtained by RNA-seq were not validated by real-time PCR, which may somewhat

limit the interpretation of our data.

Using the quantitative mass spectrometry-based proteomics, no changes in the relative content of highly

abundant muscle proteins were observed after DI. Therefore, this approach was not used to investigate changes in

the muscle proteome following DI+NMES, which somewhat limits the interpretation of our finding. Instead, a

Western blot analysis was performed, which revealed no changes in proteins associated with five respiratory

complexes after DI+NMES (like after DI).

Conclusions

The present work was the first to investigate i) the effect of a week-long dry immersion on the phenotype

and gene expression in leg muscles with significantly different functional capacities (in particular, mitochondrial

respiration, proteomic and transcriptomic profile), and ii) the efficiency of low-intensity (~10% MVC) NMES to

prevent the negative effects of dry immersion. Dry immersion-induced decreases in MVC in both muscles were

comparable and occurred without a decrease in the relative content of contractile proteins, which appears to be due

to disruption of neuromuscular mechanisms rather than a decrease in muscle mass. The decrease in maximum ADP-

stimulated mitochondrial respiration was also comparable in both muscles and occurred without a decrease in the

relative content of mitochondrial proteins/respiratory enzymes indicating dysregulation of intrinsic respiration. At

the same time, it was found that changes in the transcriptome were significantly more pronounced (2.5–4 times, in

terms of number of differentially expressed genes) in the "slow" soleus muscle than in the vastus lateralis muscle.

This suggests that a longer period of disuse will lead to a change (primarily a decrease) in the relative content of a

number of highly abundant proteins in Sol and an accelerated decline in the functional capacity of the ankle plantar flexors.

Application of NMES during dry immersion prevented a decrease in MVC and a slight reduction in aerobic performance of the knee extensors, as well as a decrease in maximal mitochondrial respiration in permeabilized fibers and changes in the expression of genes encoding mitochondrial, extracellular matrix, and membrane proteins in the vastus lateralis muscle. In contrast, for the ankle plantar flexors/soleus muscle, NMES had a positive effect only on maximal mitochondrial respiration, but accelerated the decline in the MCV/muscle fiber cross-sectional area, which appears to be related to the activation of genes regulating the inflammatory response. Our data allows to suggest that this inflammatory response is associated with stimulation-induced muscle damage and/or intrinsic features of "slow" fibers in the soleus muscle. The data obtained open up broad prospects for the use of low-intensity NMES to prevent the negative effects of disuse for "mixed" muscles, meanwhile, the optimization of the stimulation protocol is required for "slow" muscles.

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Statements and Declarations

Competing Interests: The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Data availability statement: The data supporting these findings is available in the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) under accession number GSE271606 and GSE271607 (RNA-seq datasets) and Supporting Information Table S1 (proteomic datasets).

Ethics approval statement: The studies were approved by the Committee on Biomedical Ethics of the

Institute of Biomedical Problems of the RAS (protocols № 594 of September 6, 2021, and № 620 of July 12, 2022)

and complied with all the principles set forth in the Declaration of Helsinki. All volunteers gave written informed

consent to participate in the study and to undergo skeletal muscle biopsy.

Author contributions: OIO, IVR, EST, and DVP conception or design of the work. AAB, RYZ, IIP, TFV,

VGZ, MAO, NEV, N.V.S., EML, KAS, ARB, PAM, G.Y.V., R.R.G., BSS, IVR, EST, and DVP acquisition,

analysis or interpretation of data for the work. AAB, RYZ, EST, and DVP drafting the work or revising it critically

for important intellectual content. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript and agree to be

accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of

the work are appropriately investigated and resolved. All persons qualify for authorship are listed.

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Supporting Information

Supporting Information Fig. S1. Relationships between NMES-induced muscle force (relative to maximal

voluntary contraction) and intensity of NMES.

Red lines show intensity of NMES used in the main experiment (that correspond to "the point of causing unpleasant

sensations") and relative force at this intensity.

Supporting Information Fig. S2. A maximal isometric voluntary contraction (MVC) test and a dynamic

incremental ramp test till exhaustion for the ankle plantar flexors.

A – Subject position during the MVC test and incremental ramp test for the ankle plantar flexors.

B – Dynamics of force produced in five consecutive attempts during the MVC test.

C – Dynamics of external load, motion amplitude, cycle duration, and calculated power during the incremental ramp

test.

Supporting Information Fig. S3. A maximal isometric voluntary contraction (MVC) test and a dynamic

incremental ramp test till exhaustion for the knee extensors.

A – Dynamics of knee extensors force the in five consecutive attempts during the isometric MVC test at a knee joint

angle of 110 degrees.

B – Subject position during the incremental ramp test for the knee extensors.

C – Dynamics of external load, knee angle amplitude, cycle duration, and calculated power during an incremental

ramp test for the knee extensors.

Supporting Information Fig. S4. The relative content of five mitochondrial proteins related to various

mitochondrial respiratory complexes in the vastus lateralis (VL) and soleus (Sol) muscles at baseline (prior to dry

immersion) and their changes after dry immersion without (DI) and with neuromuscular electrical stimulation
(DI+NMES).
A – Representative immunoblot.
B – Difference between VL and Sol at baseline. * – p <0.05 (Mann-Whitney test)
C – Changes in VL and Sol induced by DI and DI+NMES. * – p <0.05 (nonparametric Wilcoxon test).
905
Supporting Information Fig. S5. Expression of mRNAs encoding cyto/myokines and their receptors (A) and
proteasomal proteins (B) in the "mixed" vastus lateralis (VL) and "slow" soleus (Sol) muscles after dry immersion
without (DI) and with neuromuscular electrical stimulation (DI+NMES); (n = 10 subjects in each group). The color
of the circles and the heat map show the magnitude of changes in various muscle after various intervention for each
mRNA; *N.S.* – non-significant change.
Four circles next to each protein represent the change in expression of corresponding mRNA in VL and Sol after DI
and DI+NMES (see the legend). The color of the circles shows the magnitude of changes in gene expression in these
muscle after DI and DI+NMES (according to the heat map in the legend); N.S. – non-significant change.
914
915 **Supporting Information Fig. S6.** Number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) related to some enriched
916 functional categories from Fig. 4 and their changes in expression after 6 days of dry immersion without (DI) and
917 with neuromuscular electrical stimulation (DI+NMES); (n = 10 subjects in each group).
918 Common for both and unique to each intervention DEGs are shown; *p*-values relate to the difference in the
919 magnitude of changes in expression for common DEGs between DI and DI+NMES (Mann-Whitney test).
920
921 **Supporting Information Table S1.** All detected and differentially expressed proteins (DEP) and mRNAs (DEG) in
922 the vastus lateralis muscle (VL) *vs.* soleus muscle (S) in the baseline.
923
924 **Supporting Information Table S2.** Function enrichment analysis of differentially expressed proteins and mRNAs
925 in the vastus lateralis muscle (VL) *vs.* soleus muscle (S) in the baseline. The main terms shown in Fig. 3 are depicted
926 in red.
927
928 **Supporting Information Table S3.** All detected proteins and mRNAs, and differentially expressed mRNAs (DEG)
929 in the vastus lateralis (VL) and soleus (S) muscles after 6 days of dry immersion.
930
931 **Supporting Information Table S4.** Function enrichment analysis of differentially expressed mRNAs in the vastus
932 lateralis (VL) and soleus (S) muscles after 6 days of dry immersion.
933