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Short-term muscle disuse induces a rapid and sustained decline in daily myofibrillar protein synthesis rates

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2 Introduction: Short-term muscle disuse has been reported to lower both post-absorptive and post-prandial myofibrillar protein synthesis rates. This study assessed the impact of disuse on 3 daily myofibrillar protein synthesis rates following short-term (2 and 7 days) muscle disuse 4 under free living conditions. **Methods**: Thirteen healthy young men (age, 20 ± 1 y; BMI, 23 ± 1 5 kg·m⁻²) underwent 7 days of unilateral leg immobilization via a knee brace with the non-6 immobilized leg acting as a control. Four days prior to immobilization participants ingested 7 400 mL 70% deuterated water, with 50 mL doses consumed daily thereafter. Upper leg bilateral 8 9 MRI scans and muscle biopsies were collected before, and after 2 and 7 days of immobilization to determine quadriceps volume and daily myofibrillar protein synthesis rates. Results: 10 Immobilization reduced quadriceps volume in the immobilized leg by 1.7 ± 0.3 and 6.7 ± 0.6 % 11 12 after 2 and 7 days, respectively, with no changes in the control leg. Over the one week 13 immobilization period myofibrillar protein synthesis rates were $36\pm4\%$ lower in the immobilized $(0.81\pm0.04\% \cdot d^{-1})$ compared with the control $(1.26\pm0.04\% \cdot d^{-1})$ leg (P<0.001). 14 15 Myofibrillar protein synthesis rates in the control leg did not change over time (P=0.775), but in the immobilized leg were numerically lower during the 0-2 day period $(16\pm6\%)$, 16 $1.11\pm0.09\%$ d⁻¹, P=0.153) and were significantly lower during the 2-7 day period (44±5%, 17 $0.70\pm0.06\%$ d⁻¹, P<0.001) when compared with the control leg. Conclusion: One week of 18 muscle disuse induces a rapid and sustained decline in daily myofibrillar protein synthesis rates 19 in healthy young men. 20

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26 Introduction

27 The recovery from injury or illness requires otherwise healthy individuals to undergo a period of short term (\leq one week) muscle disuse and/or physical inactivity, during which rapid skeletal 28 29 muscle atrophy and declines in functional and metabolic capacity occur (12, 43). It has also been proposed that the accumulation of such short periods of disuse may contribute to the 30 31 development of age related sarcopenia (16, 42). Despite the clinical relevance, the physiological mechanisms responsible for muscle disuse atrophy are yet to be fully elucidated. 32 33 A loss of skeletal muscle mass must ultimately be explained by a chronic alteration in muscle protein synthesis and/or breakdown rates. We (47) and others (8, 17, 18, 20, 21) have shown 34 35 that experimental muscle disuse results in a decline in post-absorptive muscle protein synthesis 36 rates, without any apparent change in muscle protein breakdown rates (22). More recently, we 37 (47) and others (15) have also reported that disuse brings about a resistance to the anabolic 38 properties of protein ingestion. Consequently, it has been suggested that impairments in post-39 absorptive and post-prandial muscle protein synthesis rates largely explain (uncomplicated) 40 muscle disuse atrophy in humans (34, 35, 45).

To date, data concerning disuse induced alterations in muscle protein synthesis rates have relied 41 42 on the continuous infusion of stable isotope labelled amino acids, under laboratory conditions, 43 and their subsequent incorporation into serial muscle biopsies to capture hour-by-hour muscle protein synthesis rates at limited time points before, during or after a disuse intervention. While 44 45 this allows the controlled assessment of muscle protein synthesis rates, these measurements can only be made over a few hours before potential tracer recycling (i.e. protein bound tracers 46 47 being released back into the precursor pools) becomes a confounding variable. As a result, these measurements capture only a small snapshot of time (e.g. 1-2%) that a volunteer spends 48 49 undergoing muscle disuse, and do not account for the combined effects of all lifestyle factors that may contribute to chronically altered muscle protein synthesis rates (e.g. repeated and 50

51 varied mixed meal ingestion, whole body and altered physical activity patterns, hormonal and 52 diurnal metabolic fluctuations, etc.). Consequently, it is of importance to establish whether measurements of how disuse affects acute muscle protein synthesis rates translate to daily and 53 54 free living muscle protein synthesis rates and, therefore, can be quantitatively predictive of 55 muscle disuse atrophy. Moreover, the difficulties in obtaining multiple acute measures of 56 muscle protein synthesis rates within the same individual explains the lack of data fully 57 detailing how muscle protein turnover is temporally regulated during short-term disuse. This 58 is of interest since it has been suggested that both the rate of atrophy and the contribution of alterations in muscle protein synthesis rates may differ in the first two/three days of disuse 59 60 compared with subsequent time points (2).

61 Recently the regular ingestion of deuterated water as a means to measure muscle protein 62 synthesis rates has regained popularity in the field due to its capacity to assess free living 63 muscle protein synthesis rates during an intervention lasting days (5, 23, 31, 46) or weeks (9, 64 33). This methodology has recently been applied to assess cumulative (25) and temporal (9) 65 changes in free living muscle protein synthesis rates throughout resistance training programs 66 of varying durations but, to date, has only minimally been directed at muscle disuse atrophy 67 research (29, 30). In the present work we applied oral deuterated water dosing methods to 68 assess the temporal impact of disuse on free living and daily myofibrillar protein synthesis rates 69 during one week of limb immobilization in healthy young men. We hypothesized that disuse 70 would reduce myofibrillar protein synthesis rates within 2 days, and to a greater extent than 71 after one week, and this would primarily explain the observed rate of muscle disuse atrophy.

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78 Participants

Thirteen healthy young men (age= 20 ± 1 y, BMI= 23.4 ± 0.9 kg·m⁻²) were included in the present 79 study. Only young males were included in the present study since both age (43) and sex (10) 80 81 can influence the rate of muscle disuse atrophy, and our goal was to maintain a homogeneous population for the current study. Participants attended the laboratory for a routine medical 82 screening and completed a general medical questionnaire to assess their eligibility for 83 participation, and to ensure no adverse health conditions were present. Exclusion criteria 84 85 included; a (family) history of deep vein thrombosis/cardiovascular disease, metabolic disorders (e.g. type 2 diabetes), musculoskeletal/orthopedic disorders, a body mass index of 86 above 28.5 kg·m⁻² or below 18.5 kg·m⁻², participation in a structured resistance training 87 88 program within 6 months prior to the study, any musculoskeletal injury of the legs within 12 months before the study, use of anticoagulants, consumption of any nutritional supplement 89 90 prior to and during the study. During the screening participants height, body mass and blood pressure were measured, body composition was also assessed by air displacement 91 plethysmography (BODPOD; Life Measurement, Inc. CA, USA). All subjects were informed 92 93 of the nature and possible risks of the experimental procedures before providing written 94 informed consent. The study was part of a wider study assessing muscle disuse atrophy that was approved by The Sport and Health Science Ethics committee of the University of Exeter 95 (151021/B/02), in accordance with the guidelines set out in the Declaration of Helsinki. This 96 97 study was registered as a clinical trial with clinicaltrials.gov (NCT02984332).

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102 A graphical representation of the experimental study design can be seen in **Figure 1**. Following 103 successful completion of the screening visit eligible participants attended the laboratory for 5 104 experimental visits across 11 days and this included a 7 day period of unilateral leg immobilization using a leg brace and ambulation via the use of crutches. To measure daily 105 106 myofibrillar protein synthesis rates throughout the immobilization period participants 107 underwent a deuterium oxide dosing protocol (described below). This protocol was designed 108 to achieve and maintain 0.8-1.0% body water deuterium enrichment during the measurement 109 periods in line with our previous work (25). Participants arrived at the laboratory on day 5 of 110 the experimental protocol at ~ 0800 h for the first of three experimental test days. During this 111 visit, bilateral muscle biopsies were collected from the *m. vastus lateralis* and an MRI scan 112 was conducted of both thigh muscles (at ~ 0830 h; participants were transported to and from 113 the MRI scanner via a wheelchair to ensure no contraction or weight bearing occurred 114 before/after the MRI scans and biopsies). Thereafter, a 7 day immobilization period was started 115 at ~ 0900 h. After 2 and 7 days of immobilization subjects returned to the laboratory at ~ 0800 h for an identical test day. Muscle biopsies were obtained under local anesthesia, using the 116 117 percutaneous Bergstrom needle biopsy technique (6), from the *m. vastus lateralis* of both legs 118 \sim 15 cm above the patella and \sim 3 cm below the fascia. Immediately following a muscle biopsy 119 the muscle tissue was quickly assessed and any blood or non-muscle tissue was dissected and 120 discarded. The muscle samples were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C 121 until further analysis.

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123 *Immobilization protocol*

124 The model of immobilization used was a unilateral leg brace (X-ACT Donjoy brace, DJO 125 global, Vista, CA, USA) with the participant ambulating on crutches (after receiving 126 instruction) throughout the immobilization period. The immobilized leg was randomized and 127 was counterbalanced for leg dominance with the non-immobilized leg acting as a withinsubject control. Using the hinge of the brace the knee was fixed at an angle of 40° flexion (full 128 129 knee extension = 0°) to ensure no weight bearing occurred. Subjects were instructed that all 130 ground contact, and muscle contraction (except for ankle rotation exercises twice per day to 131 activate the venous muscle pump), in the immobilized leg were forbidden. Adhesive tape with 132 the experimenter's signature inscribed was placed around the straps of the brace. Breaking of 133 the tape would indicate that the brace had been altered and resulted in exclusion from the study (24), no participants were excluded. A plastic shower cover was provided to the participants to 134 135 wear over the brace when showering. Daily contact was maintained with the subject throughout 136 the study to ensure proper compliance.

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138 Deuterated water dosing protocol

139 The deuterated water dosing protocol was based on our previous work (25). Day 1 of the 140 experimental protocol acted as a D₂O loading day where participants consumed 400 mL 70% D₂O (i.e. 280 mL pure D₂O) separated over the day as 8 x 50 mL boluses (CK Isotopes Ltd, 141 142 Leicestershire, UK). Upon arrival at the laboratory (0730 h) background blood and saliva 143 samples were collected before the first bolus of D₂O was ingested. The first dose of D₂O was 144 consumed at ~0800 h with the remaining doses being consumed every 1.5 h. Participants stayed 145 at the university until 4 out of the 8 loading day D₂O doses had been consumed, with the remaining D_2O doses being consumed at home under instruction of timings (i.e. leaving 1.5 h 146 147 between each). Every day following the loading day participants consumed a maintenance dose 148 of D₂O (50 mL) upon waking (~0800 h). One participant reported some mild feelings of vertigo 149 and dizziness during the loading day which passed after approx. 2 h. Three hours (~ 1100 h) 150 after the daily D₂O maintenance dose a daily saliva sample was collected using a cotton mouth 151 swab (Celluron, Hartmann, Germany) which the participant lightly chewed for ~ 1 min until 152 saturated with saliva. The saturated sponge was placed into an empty syringe where the swab 153 was squeezed to release the saliva into a collection tube. The saliva samples were used to assess the body water ²H enrichment and were stored in the participant's freezer until they were 154 155 returned at the next study visit. Additional blood samples were collected in the fasted state at 156 the start (i.e. ~0800 h) of each test day (i.e. day 5 [pre], 7 [after 2 days of immobilization] and 157 12 [post]). Venous blood samples were collected from the antecubital vein via venipuncture 158 technique and collected into EDTA-containing vacutainers which were centrifuged at 4,000 159 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. Aliquots of plasma were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C 160 until further analysis took place. To ensure uniformity and compliance with the D₂O protocol 161 participants were provided with a log to record the times they consumed the D_2O and were 162 provided with enough doses to last until their next study visit, at which point containers were 163 returned, counted and subsequent doses were provided.

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165 *Diet and physical activity*

For 3 days prior to immobilization subjects' physical activity was measured using an 166 167 accelerometer (GENEactiv, Activinsights, Cambridgeshire, UK) that was attached to the non-168 dominant wrist. Subjects were instructed to wear the accelerometer continuously with data being collected at a 60 Hz sampling frequency. Subjects' physical activity was measured again 169 170 throughout the 7 day immobilization period. Subjects' were instructed to refrain from vigorous 171 physical activity during immobilization but to attempt maintain their habitual activity levels despite using crutches for ambulation (to avoid whole body sedentariness during 172 173 immobilization). Physical activity data from the GENEActiv accelerometers were converted 174 into 60 s epochs and used to estimate time spent performing total physical activity (all 175 intensities) using standard cut-off points (11). Subjects' diets were recorded for 3 days (two 176 week days and one weekend day) prior to immobilization by a self-reported written diet diary 177 following detailed instructions and advice from a member of the research team. Subjects were asked to refrain from alcohol intake and maintain a similar diet during and throughout the 178 179 immobilization period and this was assessed by two further 2 day diet diaries in the first and 180 last two days of immobilization, these were averaged to create an 'immobilization diet'. Dietary 181 analyses for the calculation of energy and macronutrient intakes were completed using 182 specialized nutrition software (Nutritics Professional Nutritional Analysis Software; Swords, 183 Co. Dublin).

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185 *Magnetic resonance imaging and quadriceps volume calculation*

186 MRI scan methodology of the upper legs for the determination of quadriceps volume has been 187 described in detail previously (4). In brief, a 1.5 tesla (T) MRI scanner was used to make axial 188 plane images over the full length of the femur. A T1-weighted 3D turbo spin echo sequence 189 was used (field of view 500 x 500 mm, reconstructed matrix 512 x 512 mm, echo time 15 ms, 190 repetition time 645 ms, slice thickness 5 mm, slice gap 5 mm) with the subject lying still in the supine position, a 4-element sense body radiofrequency coil was wrapped around both thighs. 191 192 Philips on-line MRI software was used to analyze the images obtained in the axial plane (the 193 same experimenter performed all manual segmentation of the images). Starting at the most 194 distal image (approximately mid patella) where each muscle group could be fully delineated, 195 the muscle of interest was manually segmented to calculate slice cross sectional area. Moving 196 proximally every third image was analyzed until complete delineation of the muscle groups of 197 interest could no longer be identified (the greater trochanter). Muscle volume was calculated 198 using a previously published method (30) where the total CSA for all images was calculated 199 and multiplied by the slice gap plus the distance between slices (linear interpolation) (in this

case a total 3 cm, 5 mm slice thickness, 25 mm slice gap), summarized by the followingequation:

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$$muscle volume = \sum_{aCSA} \cdot (slice thickness + slice gap)$$

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204 *Body water deuterium enrichment*

205 Body water deuterium enrichment was measured using the saliva samples collected daily 206 throughout the course of the study. All saliva samples were centrifuged at 10,000 g and were 207 subsequently diluted 70-fold with ddH₂O to lower deuterium enrichments so that they were in 208 the detection range of the isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS). Following the dilution step, 209 samples were prepared for analysis on the IRMS using the protocol described by Scrimgeour 210 et al., (39). In summary, small plastic cups holding 4 mg of 5% platinum on alumina, 325 mesh 211 (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) were placed inside 3 ml glass vials (Labco Exetainer; Labco, 212 Lampeter, UK). Subsequently 300 μ L of the diluted saliva samples was placed into the vials, 213 vials were then sealed using rubber septums and a screw cap. The air within each vial was 214 simultaneously evacuated and replaced by hydrogen gas. Vials were then left for 24 h at 21°C 215 for deuterium equilibration between the hydrogen gas and saliva samples to occur. The 216 deuterium enrichment of the hydrogen gas was then measured in duplicate on a IRMS 217 (Micromass Optima IRMS fitted with a multiprep and Gilson auto-injector; Micromass, 218 Manchester, UK). Standard regression curves were applied from a series of known standard 219 enrichment values against the measured values to assess the linearity of the mass spectrometer 220 and to account for deuterium loss during equilibration.

221

222 *Plasma free* [²*H*]*alanine enrichments*

223 Plasma amino acid enrichments were determined by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry

analysis (GC-MS; Agilent 5975C MSD & 7890A GC, Wilmington, USA). First the plasma

225 samples were deproteinized using dry 5-sulfosalicylic acid. Subsequently free amino acids 226 were purified using cation exchange chromatography (AG 50W-X8 resin, mesh size 100-200 227 µm, ionic form: hydrogen; Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA). The purified amino acids 228 were converted to their tert-butyldimethylsilyl (tert-BDMS) derivatives with MTBSTFA 229 before analysis via GC-MS. The plasma free alanine mass isotopomers (M and M+1) were 230 measured using selective ion monitoring at m/z 232 and 233. Standard regression curves were 231 applied from a series of known standard enrichment values against the measured values to 232 assess the linearity of the mass spectrometer and to account for any isotope fractionation.

233

234 *Myofibrillar bound* ²*H alanine enrichments*

235 Myofibrillar protein-enriched fraction was extracted from ~50 mg of wet weight muscle tissue 236 by hand-homogenization on ice using a pestle in a standard extraction buffer (10 μ l/mg). The 237 samples were centrifuged at 2,500 g for 5 min at 4°C and the pellet was then washed with 500 238 µl of ddH2O and again centrifuged at 2,500 g for 10 min at 4°C. The myofibrillar protein was 239 solubilized by adding 1 ml of 0.3 M NaOH and heating for 30 min at 50°C with samples being 240 vortexed every 10 min. Samples were then centrifuged for 10 min at 9,500 g and 4°C, the 241 supernatant containing the myofibrillar protein was kept and the collagen protein pellet was 242 discarded. The myofibrillar proteins were precipitated by the addition of 1 ml of 1 M PCA and spun at 700 g and 4°C for 10 min. Myofibrillar proteins were then washed with 70% ethanol 243 244 twice and hydrolyzed overnight in 2 mL of 6 M HCL at 110°C. The free amino acids from the hydrolyzed myofibrillar protein pellet were dried under a nitrogen stream while being heated 245 246 at 120°C. The free amino acids were subsequently dissolved in 25% acetic acid solution and 247 passed over cation exchange AG 50W-X8 resin columns (mesh size: 100-200, ionic form: 248 hydrogen; Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) and eluted with 2 M NH₄OH. Following this 249 the eluted amino acids were dried and the purified amino acids were derivatized to their N(O,S)-ethoxycarbonyl ethyl esters (28). The derivatized were measured using a gaschromatograph-isotope ratio mass spectrometer (GC-IRMS; Thermo Fisher Scientific, MAT 252 253; Bremen, Germany) equipped with a pyrolysis oven and a 60m DB-17MS column (no. 253 122-4762; Agilent, Wilmington, DE) and a 5 m precolumn. Ion masses 2 and 3 were analyzed 254 to determine the ${}^{2}H/{}^{1}H$ ratios of muscle protein-bound alanine. A series of known standards 255 was used to assess the linearity of the mass spectrometer and to control for the loss of tracer.

256

257 Skeletal muscle mRNA analyses

258 Skeletal muscle mRNA expression of 48 genes involved in the regulation of skeletal muscle 259 mass and metabolism were analyzed (gene names and symbols are listed in Table 2) as 260 described previously (11). In brief, total RNA was isolated from ~ 20 mg of frozen muscle 261 tissue using TRIzol Reagent (Life Technologies, Invitrogen) according to the supplier's 262 instructions. Total RNA was quantified spectrophotometrically at 260 nm and RNA purity was 263 assessed as the ratio of readings at 260/280 nm (Nanodrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer, 264 Thermo Fisher Scientific). Subsequently first strand cDNA was synthesized from 150 ng of RNA using a SuperScript III cDNA synthesis kit (cat. no. 11752-050; Invitrogen, Life 265 266 Technologies, CA, USA). Taqman low-density custom designed array cards (ABI Applied 267 Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) were used for the relative quantification of expression of 268 the 48 selected genes. Each card ran eight samples simultaneously against 48 Taqman gene 269 expression assay probes that were pre-fixed into each well on the card. In summary, 50 μ L of 270 Taqman universal master mix (ABI, Applied Biosystems) was added to 150 ng of RNA 271 equivalent cDNA in an RNase free Eppendorf with RNase free water being added to a make a 272 final reaction volume of $100 \,\mu$ L. Samples were vortexed and centrifuged (briefly) then pipetted 273 into sample reservoirs on the micro fluidic array cards, following this the array cards were 274 centrifuged (1000 rpm for 1 min) (Hereaus 3 S-R Microfuge, Thermo Fisher Scientific,

277 Ct method $(2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct})$, data were normalized to the geometric mean of *GAPDH* and *18s* genes (47).

278

279 *Calculations*

Myofibrillar protein fractional synthesis rates (FSR) were calculated based on the incorporation of $[^{2}H]$ alanine into myofibrillar protein and either the mean free plasma $[^{2}H]$ alanine or the mean body water deuterium enrichment throughout the time period as precursors. FSR was calculated using the standard precursor-product method expressed as daily rates as follows:

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$$FSR (\% \cdot day^{-1}) = \left(\frac{E_{m2} - E_{m1}}{E_{precursor} x t}\right) x \ 100$$

where E_{m1} and E_{m2} are the myofibrillar muscle protein-bound enrichments on either day 0 and 286 2, 0 and 7, and 2 and 7 respectively. $E_{precursor}$ represents either mean plasma free [²H] alanine 287 or mean body water deuterium enrichment corrected by a factor of 3.7 based on deuterium 288 labelling of alanine during *de novo* synthesis (15, 24) (mean enrichment between day 0-2, 0-7 289 or 2-7). *t* represents the time between biopsies (day 0-2, 0-7 or 2-7).

290

291 *Statistics*

292 All data are presented as means±SEM and all statistical analyses were conducted in GraphPad 293 Prism version 7.0 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). A paired samples t-test was 294 used to compare myofibrillar protein synthesis rates in the control vs immobilized legs between days 0 and 7, and physical activity and dietary intake between pre and during immobilization. 295 296 Two-way repeated measures ANOVAs with leg (immobilized and control) and time (day 0-2 297 and day 2-7 [for myofibrillar protein synthesis rates] and days 0, 2 and 7 [for MRI]) as within 298 subjects factors were used to compare differences in myofibrillar protein synthesis rates over 299 time, gene expression and quadriceps volume. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to

- 300 assess the relationship between tracer precursor pools. For all ANOVAs, when a significant
- 301 interaction was found Bonferroni post-hoc tests were applied to locate individual differences.
- 302 Statistical significance was set at P < 0.05.

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- 325 **Results**
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327 *Diet and physical activity analyses*

Table 1 shows participants' habitual dietary intake and physical activity data averaged for 3 days preceding, and for 4 (for dietary intake) and 7 days (for physical activity) during the immobilization period. No differences in energy or macronutrient intake (fat, carbohydrate and protein) were observed between pre and during immobilization (all P>0.05). Light and vigorous physical activity were not different between pre and during immobilization (P>0.05). Moderate physical activity reduced from pre to during immobilization (P=0.032).

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335 *Quadriceps muscle volume*

336 Quadriceps muscle volumes of the control and immobilized legs were determined by MRI 337 (previously reported in detail in Kilroe et al, 2019). There were no difference in quadriceps volume between legs pre-immobilization (control leg = 2315 ± 120 cm³, immobilized leg = 338 2342±129 cm³ [P=0.993]) and the control leg remained unchanged throughout the study 339 340 (P=0.981). However, a significant time x leg interaction was detected (P<0.001) such that quadriceps volume of the immobilized leg had decreased by 1.7±0.3% after 2 days (to 341 $2301\pm127 \text{ cm}^3$; P=0.007) and by a further 5.0±0.6% between days 2 and 7 days (to 2186±117) 342 cm³; P < 0.001), resulting in a total decrease in quadriceps muscle volume of $6.7 \pm 0.6\%$ 343 (P < 0.001) over the full week of immobilization. 344

345

346 *Precursor pool enrichments*

Saliva deuterium enrichments (**Figure 2A**) reached 0.69±0.02% on day 0 (start of immobilization), and averaged 0.71±0.02%, 0.78±0.03% and 0.76±0.02% over 0-2, 2-7 and 0-7 time points, respectively. Saliva deuterium enrichments showed a modest increase over the 350 immobilization period (main effect of time, P < 0.001) such that enrichments at day 6 351 $(0.80\pm0.02\%, P=0.024)$ and 7 $(0.83\pm0.03\%, P<0.001)$ were elevated above day 0, and day 7 enrichments were higher than day 1 (0.70±0.02%, P=0.003). Plasma free [²H] alanine 352 353 enrichments (Figure 2A) reached 2.8±0.1 mole percent excess (MPE) on day 0 and averaged 3.1 \pm 0.2 MPE over the week of immobilization. Plasma free [²H] alanine enrichments also 354 355 showed a slight increase over the immobilization period (main effect of time, P < 0.001) such 356 that day 2 (3.1±0.1 MPE, P=0.017) and day 7 (3.5±0.1 MPE, P<0.001) enrichments were 357 higher than day 0 (2.8 ± 0.1 MPE). A Pearson's correlation coefficient showed that the saliva deuterium and the plasma $[^{2}H]$ alanine precursor pools were strongly correlated (data from all 358 359 time points, 0-2, 2-7 and 0-7 collapsed into one test) (r=0.959, P<0.001) (Figure 2B). Plasma 360 free [²H] alanine enrichments were, on average, 3.93-fold greater than saliva deuterium 361 enrichments (Figure 2C). It should be acknowledged that we have not determined muscle 362 intracellular free $[^{2}H]$ alanine enrichments in the present work. It is conceivable that our 363 intervention may have influenced global muscle alanine metabolism divergently across legs 364 which could affect local precursor enrichments. However, our (27) and others' (9) previous observations that muscle intracellular free [²H] alanine does not differ substantially across legs 365 366 even when unilateral leg interventions are applied (e.g. daily resistance-type exercise) and correlate tightly with plasma free [²H] alanine enrichments, suggest the latter to be a valid 367 precursor pool. 368

369

370 Daily myofibrillar protein synthesis rates

Myofibrillar protein bound [²H] alanine enrichments showed significant time (P<0.001), leg (P<0.001) and time x leg interaction (P<0.001) effects. After 2 days of immobilization, myofibrillar protein bound [²H] alanine enrichments increased by 20±10 % more in the control (0.0695±0.0045 MPE) compared with the immobilized (0.0579±0.0042 MPE) leg (P=0.511).

After 7 days, myofibrillar bound protein [²H] alanine enrichments increased over time in both 375 376 legs but by 53±11 % more in the control (0.2448±0.0096 MPE) compared with the immobilized $(0.1596\pm0.0079 \text{ MPE})$ leg (P<0.001). Daily myofibrillar FSRs (%·d⁻¹) were calculated using 377 378 mean (of each individual's data during that time period) saliva deuterium enrichments ((corrected by a factor of 3.7 to account for the labeling coefficient between saliva and plasma; 379 (15, 25)) and then separately using mean plasma free [²H] alanine enrichments (again, an 380 381 individual's own data averaged over the period of interest) as precursor pools over the 0-2, 2-382 7 and 0-7 time-points of immobilization (Figure 3). Over the entire week of immobilization daily myofibrillar FSR, calculated using either the saliva deuterium enrichment (control leg = 383 384 $1.26\pm0.05\%$ · d⁻¹ and immobilized leg = $0.81\pm0.04\%$ · d⁻¹) or plasma free [²H] alanine enrichment 385 (control leg = $1.14\pm0.05\%$ ·d⁻¹; immobilized leg = $0.71\pm0.04\%$ ·d⁻¹) as the precursor pools were 386 36±4% (P<0.001) and 37±4% (P<0.001) lower, respectively, in the immobilized compared 387 with the control leg. A Pearson's r product moment correlation showed a strong correlation 388 between FSR calculated from the two precursor pools with data collapsed for both legs over 389 the full week of immobilization (r = 0.982, P < 0.001 [Figure 3C]). When assessing the temporal changes in myofibrillar FSR over the early (i.e. 0-2 days) and late 390 (i.e. 2-7 days) immobilization periods and using the saliva deuterium enrichment precursor, 391

392 significant main effects of time (P=0.020), condition (P<0.001) and a time x condition 393 interaction (P=0.046) were detected. Specifically, myofibrillar FSR was 16±6% (P=0.153) and $44\pm5\%$ (P<0.001) lower at 0-2 (control leg = $1.32\pm0.08\%$ d⁻¹; immobilized leg = 394 $1.11\pm0.09\%$ · d⁻¹) and 2-7 days (control leg = $1.24\pm0.07\%$ · d⁻¹; immobilized leg = $0.70\pm0.06\%$ · d⁻¹ 395 ¹) in the immobilized compared with the control leg. Myofibrillar FSR remained unchanged 396 over time in the control leg but declined by $37\pm11\%$ from 0-2 to 2-7 days (P=0.005) in the 397 398 immobilized leg. When using the plasma free $[^{2}H]$ alanine enrichment to assess temporal 399 changes in myofibrillar FSR over the early (i.e. 0-2 days) and late (i.e. 2-7 days) immobilization 400 period, significant main effects of time (P=0.013), condition (P<0.001) and a time x condition 401 interaction (P=0.048) were detected. Specifically, myofibrillar FSR was $16\pm6\%$ (P=0.159) and $44\pm5\%$ (P<0.001) lower at 0-2 (control leg = $1.19\pm0.07\%$ d⁻¹; immobilized leg = 402 $1.01\pm0.08\%$ · d⁻¹) and 2-7 days (control leg = $1.11\pm0.07\%$ · d⁻¹; immobilized leg = $0.62\pm0.05\%$ · d⁻¹ 403 404 ¹) in the immobilized compared with the control leg. Myofibrillar FSR remained unchanged 405 over time in the control leg but declined by 38 ± 11 % from 0-2 to 2-7 days (P=0.003) in the 406 immobilized leg. A Pearson's r product moment correlation showed a strong correlation 407 between the two precursor pools for both legs over both the 0-2 and 2-7 day time points (both legs and time periods collapsed into one test) (r=0.995, P<0.001 [Figure 3F]). 408

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410 Skeletal muscle gene expression

411 The skeletal muscle expression of genes involved in insulin signaling and muscle protein 412 synthesis/growth factors, muscle protein breakdown, carbohydrate and lipid metabolism, and 413 mitochondrial metabolism/angiogenesis/force transduction are shown in Figures 5, 6, 7 and 8, 414 respectively. The remaining genes of the 46 analyzed are shown in **Figure 9**. Thirteen of the analyzed genes (P70S6K, EIF-4EBP1, REDD1, MTSN, GS1, HK2, FAT, CPT1B, PPARa, 415 416 DNML1, TFAM, SCGA, ANGPT1) showed no changes throughout the experiment (time, 417 condition and interaction effects all P > 0.05). Twenty genes exhibited a time effect (all P < 0.05) 418 only, such that they changed to an equivalent extent (either an increase [AKT2, LAT1, PAT1, 419 CLPN1, GDF11, FASN, MFN1, ITGB1, HIF1a, DES, mTOR, SHREBP1, BECN1, PDK4, FOXO1 and SNAT2] or a decrease [PYGM]) in both the control and immobilized legs. Some 420 421 of these genes (ACABa, DMD and VEGFa) also exhibited a treatment effect (all P < 0.05) 422 without any interaction (all P>0.05). Thirteen genes (MAFbx, PGC1a, PSMB1, NFKb, IRS1, 423 ACTN3, PI3K, MuRF1, FOXO3, CASP3, CD36, CLPN3, GLUT4) displayed an interaction 424 effect such that divergent responses occurred between legs over time (all $P \le 0.05$). With one

425	exception (PI3K) these responses were restricted to 7, but not 2, days of immobilization. For
426	example, after 7 days of immobilization the relative expression of PSMB1 (Figure 6F) and
427	<i>MAFBx</i> (Figure 6I) increased by $83\pm15\%$ and $123\pm26\%$ (both <i>P</i> <0.001), respectively, in the
428	immobilized leg only. NFKb (Figure 6G) increased in both legs at 7 days but to a greater extent
429	in the immobilized compared with the control leg (115 \pm 24 vs 59 \pm 23 %; P=0.027). Muscle
430	mRNA expression of IRS1 (Figure 5A), ACNT3 (Figure 8I) and PGC1a (Figure 8B) remained
431	unchanged in the control leg (P >0.05), but reduced by 54±9, 77±7 and 52±6 %, respectively,
432	in the immobilized leg after 7 days (all, P<0.001). Only PI3K (Figure 5B) expression increased
433	after both 2 (87±24%, P<0.001) and 7 (181±17%, P<0.001) days in the immobilized leg with
434	no change in the control leg (P=0.774). MuRF1 (Figure 6J), FOXO3 (Figure 6B), CASP3
435	(Figure 6D), CD36 (Figure 7E) and CLPN3 (Figure 6E) all displayed trends for a divergent
436	response in relative expression between legs over the immobilization period (interaction effects
437	all $P < 0.10$). The relative expression of MuRF1 and FOXO3 did not change after 2 days but
438	displayed a trend to increase by 175±51 and 112±22 %, respectively, and CLPN3 a trend to
439	decrease by $37\pm5\%$, after 7 days in the immobilized leg (all, $P<0.05$]), with no changes in the
440	control leg (all, P>0.05). CASP3 increased in both legs at 7 days but to a greater extent in the
441	immobilized compared with control leg (179±34 vs 92±40 %; P=0.313). Muscle CD36
442	expression displayed a trend to increase in the control leg after 2 ($73\pm51\%$) and 7 ($65\pm49\%$)
443	days, with no change in the immobilized leg ($P=0.994$).
444	

450 **Discussion**

451 In the current study we applied a deuterated water approach and performed MRI scans to assess 452 the temporal impact of one week of unilateral leg immobilization on daily free living cumulative myofibrillar protein synthesis rates and quadriceps muscle volume, respectively. 453 We report several novel observations. First, immobilization lowered daily free living 454 455 myofibrillar protein synthesis rates by 36% (compared with the control leg) over one week of 456 immobilization, and the magnitude of this decline was positively correlated with the observed 457 decline in quadriceps volume. Second, this decline in myofibrillar protein synthesis rates occurred rapidly within 2 days, but to a greater extent in the latter part (2-7 days) of the week 458 459 of immobilization. Finally, one week, but not two days, of muscle disuse was associated with 460 a coordinated upregulation in the muscle expression of genes involved in the ubiquitin 461 proteasome mediated muscle protein breakdown pathway.

462 Skeletal muscle loss during a period of disuse has been attributed to a decline in both basal 463 (post-absorptive) (8, 20, 43) and post-prandial muscle protein synthesis rates (13, 43). 464 Currently there are fewer data available on the impact of disuse on muscle protein synthesis rates throughout the day, which includes both basal, post-prandial and overnight muscle protein 465 466 synthesis rates. To gain more insight into the impact of disuse on daily muscle protein synthesis 467 rates over 2, and up to 7 days of immobilization we applied the use of deuterated water. The ingestion of deuterated water has been applied to assess muscle protein synthesis rates in 468 469 response to acute (27) and longer term (9, 33) resistance training, as well as in response to 470 various nutritional interventions (34). Recently, other groups have used the provision of 471 deuterated water to measure the effect of disuse on muscle protein synthesis rates (29, 30). In 472 line with previous work from our group(s) (24, 38) we show that our oral deuterated water 473 regimen resulted in a sustained elevation in body water deuterium ($\sim 0.76 \pm 0.02\%$; Figure 2A) 474 and plasma deuterated alanine (~3.1±0.2 MPE; Figure 2A) enrichments throughout the

475 experimental period. The data from both precursor pools also correlated tightly (Figure 2B), 476 and quantitatively related to one another in agreement with previous work (Figure 2C; (27). 477 Combined with the unilateral immobilization approach (a within subject comparison of muscle 478 contraction status with identical precursor pool supply) we were able to calculate that disuse reduced free living daily myofibrillar protein synthesis rates by $\sim 36\%$ over a week of 479 480 immobilization (Figure 3B). This reduction is quantitatively in line with what would be 481 predicted from previous studies that have assessed the effects of 5 to 14 days of leg immobilization on myofibrillar protein synthesis rates using both stable isotope labelled amino 482 483 acid tracers (8, 22, 43) and deuterium oxide approaches (31). Moreover, we also report that the 484 individual decline in myofibrillar protein synthesis rates was strongly positively correlated with 485 the amount of muscle tissue lost during the week of disuse (Figure 4A). Thus, we provide 486 robust evidence to show that a chronic (i.e. presumably for 24 h per day) decline in daily 487 myofibrillar protein synthesis rates plays a major role in driving muscle disuse atrophy in vivo 488 in humans. Worthy of note, this decline occurred despite our volunteers maintaining a relatively high dietary protein intake of 1.6 $g \cdot kg \cdot d^{-1}$ (see Table 1), suggesting that the impairments were 489 exclusively a result of the disuse *per se*, and not further augmented by any compensatory 490 491 decrease in protein (or energy) intake. In addition, the decline in synthetic rate was observed 492 within the myofibrillar fraction of the muscle protein pool, underlining that targeting the 493 maintenance (or stimulation) of myofibrillar protein synthesis rates during short-term disuse 494 should clearly represent a primary strategy to combat the loss of muscle mass and associated 495 declines in function (11, 29, 44).

A clear picture of how muscle protein synthesis rates change over time during a period of disuse is not yet available, primarily due to the technical difficulties associated with making multiple acute measurements of myofibrillar protein synthesis rates within the same person (21). As a result, it is not clear how quickly myofibrillar protein synthesis rates decline consequent with 500 disuse, or whether the magnitude of decline is dependent on the duration of disuse. Experiments 501 utilizing static molecular markers within muscle tissue have suggested that muscle disuse 502 atrophy may be differentially regulated within the first few days compared with one or more 503 weeks (1, 40). In the present work we show that although the decline in MPS rates did not reach 504 statistical significance over the first 2 days, the *daily* decline in myofibrillar protein synthesis 505 rates during this period (i.e. 8% per day [or 16% in total]; Figures 3D and E) was of a similar 506 magnitude as the *daily* decline observed over days 2-7 (i.e. 9% per day [or 45% in total]; 507 Figures 3D and E). Clearly, the decline in muscle protein synthesis rates as a major factor in driving muscle loss (Figure 3D and E) is a process that occurs rapidly and seems to be a key 508 509 process in explaining the fast decline in quadriceps volume that we observed during the first 2 510 days. However, though the daily rate of decline was similar across the two time periods, the 511 absolute decline in myofibrillar protein synthesis rates consequently occurred to a much greater 512 extent during the latter phase of the disuse period (i.e. 2-7 days). This could suggest that the 513 effect of disuse is cumulative with time, at least for a few days. Alternatively, these data may 514 indicate that an immediate drop in myofibrillar protein synthesis rates occurs, but is variable in 515 the time it takes to manifest across individuals (11/13 subjects decline after 2 days and 13/13516 decline after 7 days). Of note, the tight correlation of declining myofibrillar protein synthesis 517 rates with rate of muscle atrophy was less clear when examining the early phase of disuse (Figure 4). It is therefore interesting to speculate to what extent declines in myofibrillar protein 518 519 synthesis rates may *quantitatively* explain the observed muscle atrophy.

Previous work, using data obtained from acute measurements of hourly muscle protein synthesis rates have estimated that reductions in muscle protein synthesis rates can fully (36) (or even over) explain (22) observed muscle atrophy after 3-6 weeks of leg immobilization. In contrast, we have previously estimated from our work that reductions in basal and/or postprandial muscle protein synthesis rates could explain ~80% of the muscle atrophy seen during 525 5-14 days of disuse (49). However, these estimations rely on a number of assumptions; most importantly that measuring myofibrillar protein synthesis rates after a period of disuse reflect 526 527 the changes in chronic myofibrillar protein synthesis rates that occur throughout the entire 528 period of disuse, and usually inferring muscle mass from single slice cross sectional measurements. In the present study, we have captured a cumulative myofibrillar protein 529 530 synthetic response throughout the entire period of disuse, alongside the calculation of 531 quadriceps mass. If, as has previously been done (36), we assume that muscle protein 532 breakdown rates remained unchanged with disuse, and assume in the control leg that daily 533 MPB rates were equivalent to daily MPS rates, we can calculate the expected loss of muscle 534 mass as a result of decreased daily MPS rates as follows; net muscle protein loss = daily MPB - daily MPS. Using this approach, we calculate a net muscle protein loss of 0.21% d⁻¹ and 535 $0.45\% \cdot d^{-1}$ over the first 2 days and entire week, respectively. Given we know the muscle mass 536 537 of the participants' quadriceps at baseline, this equates to an expected muscle protein loss from 538 the immobilized quadriceps of 11 and 76 g over 2 and 7 days, respectively, directly attributable 539 to reduced MPS rates. Surprisingly this only accounts for 25 and 47% of the 42 and 162 g estimated (measured) muscle loss. Despite improving the resolution of such calculations, our 540 541 methods still involve a number of assumptions to arrive at these figures. Most notably, that 542 muscle density does not differ substantially across volunteers or in response to disuse, that vastus lateralis muscle protein turnover rates are analogous to the entire quadriceps mass, 543 544 alanine synthesis rates are representative of other (and all) amino acids, that myofibrillar protein atrophy is equivalent to total protein loss and that the absence of a 'true precursor pool' 545 546 (i.e. labelled tRNA) does not considerably alter the absolute rates arrived at. Since it is likely 547 such limitations induce some error in the calculated contribution of muscle protein synthesis to 548 muscle atrophy, indirect conclusions on the reciprocal role of muscle protein breakdown are 549 difficult to make with confidence. However, the fact we can only account for (less than) half of the observed muscle atrophy due to impaired MPS rates is surprising and not in line with previous work (21, 35). Consequently, it is intriguing for future work to endeavor to make accurate and direct measures of muscle protein breakdown in humans to establish any (temporal) causative role in human muscle disuse atrophy. This is an elusive, but highly consequential, physiological question that was beyond the scope of the present work.

555 With the difficulty of measuring in vivo MPB rates within the constraints of the current design, 556 we applied a custom-designed low-density RT-qPCR microarray gene card to measure the 557 relative expression of 46 targeted genes that encode proteins associated with the regulation of muscle mass, muscle deconditioning/reconditioning and muscle metabolism, with a specific 558 559 sub-focus on genes involved in MPB. Thirteen genes were unaffected with a further 20 showing 560 an equivalent change in both legs ((likely due to a repeated biopsy effect (44)). Thirteen of our 561 selected genes changed differentially in the immobilized compared with control leg, and a 562 striking observation is that 7 of those genes are involved in muscle protein breakdown, 4 of 563 which encode proteins involved in the ubiquitin proteasome system (UPS) (PSMB1 [Figure 564 5F], MAFbx [Figure 5I], MuRF1 [Figure 5J]) (7) and associated transcription factors (e.g. FOXO3 [Figure 5B]). This coordinated change in gene expression of components of the UPS 565 566 typically manifested as an increase after 7 but not 2 days of immobilization. In contrast, genes 567 involved in other muscle protein breakdown pathways, for example the calcium dependent calpain system (3), were either unaffected (CLPN1 [Figure 5]) or tended to be reduced after 7 568 569 but not 2 days of immobilization (CLPN3 [Figure 5]). These findings are line with and extend 570 on our (47) and other research groups' (29) previous findings that genes specifically involved 571 in the ubiquitination and degradation of myofibrillar proteins show a transcriptional rise 572 consequent with disuse. Previous work has suggested that such a rise in gene expression is not 573 immediate (11) but rapid (between 2 and 7 days) and transient (typically subsiding at time 574 points beyond 1-2 weeks), and possibly indicative of an increased rate of muscle protein

575 breakdown and/or metabolic deconditioning during this early phase (42, 45, 46). With respect 576 to the latter, the expression of various genes involved in insulin mediated glucose uptake (e.g. 577 IRS1 and GLUT4) also declined after 7 but not 2 days of immobilization, interestingly at time 578 points known to succeed the physiological manifestation of insulin resistance (13, 36, 39, 47). Collectively, therefore, our gene array data point to widespread muscle deconditioning 579 580 stretching beyond solely a loss of muscle mass. A limitation of the present study is that only 581 males were included. While this allowed for a more homogenous population to allow us to 582 precisely measure and describe temporal, muscle specific disuse atrophy, it prevents the data 583 being generalizable to females. Given that sex-based differences in the rate of muscle disuse 584 atrophy likely exist (10), it is of importance that future work assesses whether similar results 585 are demonstrable in females.

In conclusion, muscle disuse induces a rapid decline in muscle volume (within 2 days) that continues at a similar rate for one week. The decline in muscle volume is accompanied by a ~36% decline in daily myofibrillar protein synthesis rates in healthy young men over one week of disuse. These data highlight the key responsible role that declining myofibrillar protein synthesis rates play in the development of muscle disuse atrophy *in vivo* in humans.

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604 Author contributions

- 605 S. P. K., J. F., S. R. J., and B. T. W. performed the experiments; A. M. H., A. P. G., B. P. L.,
- B. T. W., and S. P. K. performed the biological analyses. S. P. K., and B. T. W. analyzed the
- data; S. P. K., L. J.C v. L., and B. T. W. interpreted results of experiments; S. P. K., prepared
- figures; S. P. K., and B. T. W drafted manuscript; S. P. K., L. J.C v. L., and B. T. W. edited
- and revised manuscript; S. P. K., J. F., S. R. J., A. M. H., A. P. G., L. J.C v. L., and B. T. W.
- 610 approved the final version of the manuscript.
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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Study Schematic. Thirteen healthy young males underwent 7 days of unilateral leg immobilization via knee brace. MRI, Magnetic resonance imaging. D_2O , deuterated water ingestion. Activity, physical activity measured continuously by GENEactiv wrist watch accelerometry. Diet, habitual dietary intake recorded by self-reported written diet diary. Blood, venous blood sample. Arrows represent bilateral *m. vastus lateralis* muscle biopsies, (i.e. taken from the control and immobilized legs).

Figure 2. Stable isotope precursor pool data. Plasma free ²H-alanine (MPE) (left y-axis) and saliva ²H (%) (right y-axis) enrichments displayed over the week of immobilization (A), with data analyzed using one-way repeated measures ANOVAs, and the correlation (B) between saliva ²H (%) and plasma free ²H-alanine (MPE) analyzed by a Pearsons' correlation analysis. C, displays comparison of individual participant saliva enrichment (%) and plasma free ²H-alanine (MPE) enrichments at day 0, 2 and 7 timepoints. a = significant difference from day 0 in corresponding precursor pool *P*<0.05, b = significant difference from day 1 in saliva precursor pool *P*<0.05. Data are means±SEM, *n*=13.

Figure 3. Free living myofibrillar fractional synthesis rates (%·d⁻¹). Graphs A and B show free living myofibrillar FSR (%·d⁻¹) over the full week calculated from plasma and saliva precursor pools, respectively, as individually assessed by paired samples t-test. Graphs D and E show free living myofibrillar FSR between days 0 – 2 and 2 - 7 of immobilization calculated from plasma and saliva precursor pools, respectively, as assessed by two-way repeated measures ANOVA (leg

x time), with time (T), condition (C) and interaction (I) effects displayed above each graph. Where a significant time x treatment interaction was detected Bonferroni post hoc tests were conducted to locate individual differences; *** denotes P<0.001 significant difference between legs at corresponding timepoint, ## denotes P<0.01 significant difference within leg between 0-2 and 2-7 timepoints. Graphs C and F show correlations between myofibrillar FSRs calculated from the two different precursors between day 0-7 (C) and 0-2 and 2-7 days combined (F), analyzed by Pearson's correlation analyses. Data are means±SEM for the non-correlation graphs, n=13.

Figure 4. Correlations between the change in quadriceps volume in the immobilized leg and the difference between control and immobilized leg myofibrillar FSR across the following timepoints; A) days 0 - 7, B) days 0 - 2 and C) days 2 - 7. Data analyzed by Pearson's correlation analyses, R^2 and *P* values displayed on each graph, *n*=13.

Figure 5. Skeletal muscle mRNA expression of genes involved in muscle protein synthesis and/or identified as growth factors, in healthy young males before and following 2 and 7 days of unilateral leg immobilization in the control and immobilized legs. Data from each gene were analyzed using a two way repeated measures ANOVA (leg *x* time) and time (T), condition (C) (i.e. leg) and interaction (I) effects are displayed above each graph. Where a significant interaction was found, Bonferroni post hoc tests were applied to locate individual differences, *, ** and *** denotes P<0.05, P<0.01 and P<0.001 significant differences from day 0 within the same leg, #, ## and ### denotes P<0.05, P<0.01 and P<0.001 significant differences from day 2 within the same leg. Relative quantification of the genes was performed using the delta delta Ct method ($2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$), with data normalized to the geometric mean of two housekeeping genes (*GAPDH* and *18s*) and pre-

immobilization (i.e. day 0; normalized to a value of 1) in both the control and immobilized legs. Data are means \pm SEM, *n*=13.

Figure 6. Skeletal muscle mRNA expression of genes involved in muscle protein breakdown in healthy young males before and following 2 and 7 days of unilateral leg immobilization in the control and immobilized legs. Data from each gene were analyzed using a two way repeated measures ANOVA (leg *x* time) and time (T), condition (C) (i.e. leg) and interaction (I) effects are displayed above each graph. Where a significant interaction was found, Bonferroni post hoc tests were applied to locate individual differences, * and *** denotes *P*<0.05 and *P*<0.001 significant differences from day 0 within the same leg, *#*, *##* and *###* denotes *P*<0.05, *P*<0.01 and *P*<0.001 significant differences from day 2 within the same leg. Relative quantification of the genes was performed using the delta delta Ct method ($2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$), with data normalized to the geometric mean of two housekeeping genes (*GAPDH* and *18s*) and pre-immobilization (i.e. day 0; normalized to a value of 1) in both the control and immobilized legs. Data are means±SEM, *n*=13.

Figure 7. Skeletal muscle mRNA expression of genes involved in carbohydrate and/or lipid metabolism in healthy young males before and following 2 and 7 days of unilateral leg immobilization in the control and immobilized legs. Data from each gene were analyzed using a two way repeated measures ANOVA (leg *x* time) and time (T), condition (C) (i.e. leg) and interaction (I) effects are displayed above each graph. Where a significant interaction was found, Bonferroni post hoc tests were applied to locate individual differences, *, ** and *** denotes P<0.05, P<0.01 and P<0.001 significant differences from day 0 within the same leg, ## and ### denotes P<0.01 and P<0.001 significant differences from day 2 within the same leg. Relative

quantification of the genes was performed using the delta delta Ct method $(2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct})$, with data normalized to the geometric mean of two housekeeping genes (*GAPDH* and *18s*) and preimmobilization (i.e. day 0; normalized to a value of 1) in both the control and immobilized legs. Data are means±SEM, *n*=13.

Figure 8. Skeletal muscle mRNA expression of genes involved in carbohydrate and/or lipid metabolism in healthy young males before and following 2 and 7 days of unilateral leg immobilization in the control and immobilized legs. Data from each gene were analyzed using a two way repeated measures ANOVA (leg *x* time) and time (T), condition (C) (i.e. leg) and interaction (I) effects are displayed above each graph. Where a significant interaction was found, Bonferroni post hoc tests were applied to locate individual differences, *, ** and *** denotes P<0.05, P<0.01 and P<0.001 significant differences from day 0 within the same leg, ## and ### denotes P<0.01 and P<0.001 significant differences from day 2 within the same leg. Relative quantification of the genes was performed using the delta delta Ct method ($2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$), with data normalized to the geometric mean of two housekeeping genes (*GAPDH* and *18s*) and pre-immobilization (i.e. day 0; normalized to a value of 1) in both the control and immobilized legs. Data are means±SEM, *n*=13.

Figure 9. Skeletal muscle mRNA expression of A) Dynamin like protein 1, B) Desmin, C) Pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase 4 and d) hexokinase 2 in healthy young males before and following 2 and 7 days of unilateral leg immobilization in the control and immobilized legs. Data from each gene were analyzed using a two way repeated measures ANOVA (leg *x* time) and time (T), condition (C) (i.e. leg) and interaction (I) effects are displayed above each graph. Relative

quantification of the genes was performed using the delta delta Ct method $(2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct})$, with data normalized to the geometric mean of two housekeeping genes (*GAPDH* and *18s*) and preimmobilization (i.e. day 0; normalized to a value of 1) in both the control and immobilized legs. Data are means±SEM, *n*=13.

	Pre-immobilization	During immobilization
Energy intake (MJ·d ⁻¹)	11.1±0.7	11.3±1.0
(Kcal·d ⁻¹)	(2647±167)	(2689±288)
Protein intake $(g \cdot d^{-1})$	119±7	115±12
Protein intake $(g \cdot kg^{-1} \cdot d^{-1})$	1.6±0.1	1.6±0.1
Protein intake (En%)	18±1	17.3±1
Carbohydrate intake $(g \cdot d^{-1})$	298±25	308±42
Carbohydrate intake (En%)	45±2	46±2
Fat intake $(g \cdot d^{-1})$	102±10	108±11
Fat intake (En%)	35±2	36±2
Light physical activity $(h \cdot d^{-1})$	$1.4{\pm}0.2$	1.0±0.1
Moderate physical activity $(h \cdot d^{-1})$	2.6±0.4	1.7±0.2*
Vigorous physical activity $(h \cdot d^{-1})$	0.3±0.1	0.1±0.1
Total physical activity $(h \cdot d^{-1})$	4.3±0.5	2.8±0.2*

Table 1. Dietary intake and physical activity levels during a habitual period and during one week of single leg immobilization.

Values represent means \pm SEM, *n*=13. *=significant difference from pre-immobilization value, *P*<0.05.

Gene Name (human skeletal muscle)	Symbol
Insulin receptor substrate 1	IRS1
Phosphoinositide-3-kinase regulatory subunit 1	PI3K
AKT serine/threonine kinase 2	AKT2
Mechanistic target of rapamycin	mTOR
Ribosomal protein S6 kinase B2	RPS6KB1 (P70s6k)
Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E binding protein 1	EIF4EBP1 (4E-BP1)
Solute carrier family 7 member 5	SLC7A5 (LAT1)
Solute carrier family 38 member 2	SLC38A2 (SNAT2)
Solute carrier family 36 member 1	SLC36A1 (PAT1)
DNA damage inducible transcript 4	DDIT4 (REDD1)
Eukaryotic 18S rRNA	18s rRNA
Forkhead box O1	FOX01
Forkhead box O3	FOXO3
Calpain 1	CLPN1
Calpain 3	CLPN3
Caspase 3	CASP3
Proteasome subunit beta 1	PSMB1
Nuclear factor kappa B subunit 1	NFKB
F-box protein 32	MAFbx
Tripartite motif containing 63	TRIM63 (MuRF1)
Beclin 1	BECN1

Table 2. Names and symbols of the gene expression assay targets preloaded upon PCR microfluidic cards.

Myostatin	MTSN
Growth differentiation factor 11	GDF11
Solute carrier family 2 member 4	GLUT4
Glycogen Phosphorylase (muscle)	PYGM
Glycogen synthase 1	GS1
Hexokinase 2	НК2
Pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase 4	PDK4
CD36 molecule	CD36
Fatty acid synthase	FASN
Sterol regulatory element binding transcription factor 1	SHREBP1
Carnitine palmitoyltransferase 1B,	CPT1B
Acetyl-CoA carboxylase beta	ACACA
Peroxisome proliferator activated receptor alpha	PPARa
PPARG coactivator 1 alpha	PGC1a
Mitofusin 1	MFN1
Dynamin 1 like protein	DNM1L
Transcription factor A, mitochondrial	TFAM
Dystrophin	DMD
Sarcoglycan alpha	SGCA
Laminin subunit alpha 2	LAMA2
Integrin subunit beta 1	ITGB1
Actinin alpha 3	ACTN1
Desmin	DES
Vascular endothelial growth factor A	VEGF

Hypoxia inducible factor 1 alpha subunit	HIF-1
Angiopoietin 1	ANGPT1
Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase	GAPDH

Symbols in brackets represent gene synonyms.



Figure 2









4.0

3.0

2.0

10

0.0

Control Leg

Relative mRNA Expression



Ribosomal protein S6 kinase beta 2



Solute carrier family 36 member 1

(PAT1)

C = 0.876

T < 0.001

I = 0.986

Immobilised Leg



Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E binding protein 1



DNA damage inducible transcript 4 (REDD1)





Solute carrier family 7 member 5 (LAT1) G C = 0.353 T < 0.001 1 = 0.131

Growth differentiation factor 11





Solute carrier family 38 member 2 (SNAT2) H C = 0.353

C = 0.353 T = 0.016 I = 0.460



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В









Forkhead box protein O3





















































0.5

0.0









Transcription factor A mitochondrial







