

1 Title: Neuromuscular electrical stimulation (NMES) combined with blood flow
2 restriction increases fatigue and perceptual variables compared with NMES alone

3

4 Authors and affiliations:

5 Head, P.1, Waldron, M.2,3, Theis, N.4, Patterson, S.D.1*

6

7 1 School of Sport, Health and Applied Science, St Mary's University, Twickenham,
8 London, UK.

9 2 Applied Sports, Technology, Exercise and Medicine (A-STEM) Centre, College of
10 Engineering, Swansea University, Swansea, SA1 8EN.

11 3 School of Science and Technology, University of New England, NSW, Australia.

12 4 School of sport & Exercise, University of Gloucestershire, Cheltenham, UK.

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25 **ABSTRACT**

26

27 **Context:** Neuromuscular electrical stimulation (NMES) combined with blood flow
28 restriction (BFR) has been shown to improve muscular strength and size greater than
29 NMES alone. However, the previous studies use varied methodologies not recommended
30 by previous NMES or BFR research. **Objective:** The present study investigated the acute
31 effects of NMES combined with varying degrees of BFR, using research recommended
32 procedures to enhance understanding and the clinical applicability of this combination.
33 **Design:** Randomised crossover. **Setting:** Biomechanics laboratory. **Participants:** 20
34 healthy adults (age: 27 ± 4 ; height: 177 ± 8 cm; body mass: 77 ± 13 kg). **Interventions:**
35 Six sessions separated by at least seven days. The first two visits served as familiarisation,
36 with the experimental conditions performed in the final four sessions; NMES alone,
37 NMES 40% BFR, NMES 60% BFR and NMES 80% BFR. **Main outcome measures:**
38 Maximal voluntary isometric contraction (MVIC), muscle thickness, blood pressure,
39 heart rate, rating of perceived exertion (RPE) and pain were all recorded before and after
40 each condition. **Results:** NMES 80% BFR caused greater MVIC decline than any other
41 condition (-38.9 ± 22.3 Nm, $p < 0.01$). Vastus medialis and VL muscle thickness acutely
42 increased after all experimental conditions ($p < 0.05$). Pain and RPE ratings were higher
43 after NMES 80% BFR, compared with all other experimental conditions ($p < 0.05$). No
44 cardiovascular effects were observed between conditions. **Conclusion:** NMES combined
45 with 80% BFR caused greater acute force decrement than the other conditions. Although,
46 greater perceptual ratings of pain and RPE were observed with NMES 80% BFR. These
47 acute observations must be investigated during chronic interventions to corroborate any
48 relationship to changes in muscle strength and size in clinical populations.

49

50 **Keywords:** neuromuscular electrical stimulation; blood flow restriction; fatigue; muscle

51 swelling

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68 **INTRODUCTION**

69 Blood flow restriction (BFR) involves reducing arterial blood flow to a muscle and
70 preventing venous return via the application of a pneumatic cuff or tourniquet around the
71 proximal part of the target limb¹. To date, BFR has been used in combination with low-
72 load resistance exercise and aerobic exercise to enhance muscle strength and
73 morphological adaptations compared with the same load of exercise without BFR, in both
74 healthy and clinical populations^{1,2}.

75

76 However, in clinical practice voluntary movement may be contraindicated and
77 immobilisation required for certain musculoskeletal disorders i.e. immediately post
78 fracture or surgery. During disuse and immobilisation, skeletal muscle loss occurs at a
79 rate of approximately 0.5% of total muscle mass per day³, with strength declines between
80 0.3% and 4.2% each day⁴. When used passively, BFR has been shown to attenuate
81 declines in muscle mass during periods of immobilisation⁵⁻⁷, but unable to increase
82 muscle strength and size⁵⁻⁸.

83

84 Neuromuscular electrical stimulation (NMES) has also been shown to prevent disuse
85 muscle atrophy⁹, but there is inconsistent evidence regarding its efficacy in enhancing
86 muscle adaptations¹⁰. More recently the combination of NMES with BFR has been
87 investigated. The results of trials using NMES and BFR in humans are varied, with two
88 studies reporting increased muscle strength and hypertrophy compared with NMES and
89 BFR alone in healthy and spinal cord injured adults^{11,12} and two others finding either
90 within group changes only¹³ or no added benefit¹⁴. Although mixed results have currently
91 been observed, the clinical application for NMES and BFR increasing muscle strength

92 and size post-surgery or during immobilisation when voluntary exercise is
93 contraindicated, is promising.

94

95 Varied methodologies have led to conflicting findings in studies investigating NMES and
96 BFR, thus limiting the understanding of underlying physiological mechanisms that induce
97 changes in muscle strength and hypertrophy. The NMES protocols currently utilised have
98 considerable variability, with frequencies ranging from 20-100 Hz and unclear reporting
99 of other parameters including stimulation intensities¹¹⁻¹⁴. To maximise quadriceps
100 strength after NMES it is recommended to use a frequency of 50 Hz, maximal tolerable
101 intensities and to place stimulating electrodes over muscle motor points¹⁵. These
102 parameters have not been utilised in previous NMES and BFR studies on the
103 quadriceps^{12,13}. Additionally, the vast majority of studies have implemented BFR by
104 prescribing an arbitrary restrictive pressure^{13,14,16,17} or based their occlusion pressure on
105 systolic blood pressure (SBP)¹¹. Recent findings indicate that neither of these approaches
106 are effective for controlling the magnitude of BFR, with current recommendations
107 suggesting that pressure should be prescribed via arterial occlusion pressure (AOP)¹⁸.

108

109 The mechanisms by which NMES combined with BFR increases muscle strength and
110 induces hypertrophy are currently unknown. Greater acute force decrement (fatigue)
111 following NMES combined with BFR in a rat model correlated with increased
112 hypertrophy compared with NMES alone¹⁹. Furthermore, resistance training with and
113 without BFR that produces greater levels of fatigue (determined via reduced force
114 production), results in larger improvements in muscle strength and size^{20,21}. This evidence
115 suggests that acute post-exercise decrements in force production could provide a

116 surrogate marker to optimise training programmes. However, there has been no direct
117 comparison of the acute muscle responses to NMES in combination with varying levels
118 of BFR.

119

120 The present study aimed to standardise and provide a better understanding of how
121 muscular, cardiovascular and perceptual variables are acutely affected by NMES alone
122 and combined with varying levels of BFR, using previously established protocols. It was
123 hypothesised that muscular fatigue, muscle swelling and perceptual variables (i.e. pain
124 and exertion) would be higher with NMES and BFR compared with NMES alone.

125

126 **METHOD**

127

128 **Participants**

129 Twenty recreationally active (3.1 ± 1.4 h/week), healthy males ($n = 15$) and females ($n =$
130 5) (age: 27 ± 4 ; height: 177 ± 8 cm; body mass: 77 ± 13 kg, and body mass index: 25 ± 3
131 kg/m^2) volunteered to participate in this study. The sample size was calculated using
132 G*Power software and the effect sizes of previous research assessing the same
133 outcomes²². Inclusion criteria were: (a) absence of lower-limb injury, (b) negative
134 answers in the PAR-Q questionnaire, (c) no personal history of cardiovascular or
135 metabolic disease, (d) non-smokers, (e) resting SBP < 140 mmHg and (f) normal range
136 on the ankle brachial index (ABI) test ($0.9-1.4$)²³. Participants were instructed to maintain
137 their usual level of physical activity throughout the study. All participants provided
138 written informed consent and the study was approved by St Marys University ethics sub-

139 committee (SMEC_2016-17_104) and conducted in accordance with the Declaration of
140 Helsinki.

141

142 **Study design**

143 The study followed a randomised crossover design, generated via online software
144 (<http://www.randomization.com>). All testing was undertaken at the University's
145 temperature-controlled laboratory (21-22°C). Participants were required to visit the
146 laboratory on six occasions, separated by at least 7 days to prevent a training effect and
147 at the same time of day (± 1 h) to minimise the circadian effect. All participants were
148 tested at least 2 h postprandial and were instructed to avoid caffeine and exercise prior to
149 testing. The first two visits served as familiarisation sessions, with the experimental
150 conditions performed in the final four sessions. During the first visit, height, weight, ABI,
151 knee extension maximal voluntary isometric contraction (MVIC), vastus medialis (VM)
152 and vastus lateralis (VL) muscle thickness, AOP and NMES maximal tolerable intensity
153 were measured. During the second visit, MVIC, muscle thickness, AOP and NMES
154 maximal tolerable intensity were repeated¹⁵. After the familiarisation sessions,
155 participants were randomly allocated to perform the experimental conditions, with the
156 same trained researcher performing all outcome measurements (Fig 1):

157

- 158 1) NMES and cuff not inflated (NMES alone)
- 159 2) NMES and 40% BFR (NMES 40)
- 160 3) NMES and 60% BFR (NMES 60)
- 161 4) NMES and 80% BFR (NMES 80)

162

163

***** Insert Figure 1 here *****

164

165 **PROCEDURES**

166

167 **ABI**

168 ABI was measured using recommended procedures²³. A standard blood pressure cuff and
169 a handheld Doppler probe (Hi-Dop, Ana Wiz Ltd, Surbiton, London, UK), were used to
170 measure SBP of the arm (brachial artery) and of the ankle (posterior tibial artery). All
171 participants had a normal ABI 1.1 ± 0.1 . Test–retest (intra session) reliability across three
172 sessions on 20 adults for ABI was 0.9% coefficient of variation (CV) and 0.02 minimum
173 detectable change (MDC).

174

175 **NMES**

176 The familiarisation sessions were used to determine each participants maximal tolerable
177 NMES intensity. In subsequent sessions, participants then performed four identical
178 NMES protocols under varying levels of BFR (0%, 40%, 60% and 80% AOP). During
179 all sessions, participants were seated, fixed to a strain gauge and underwent 8 min and
180 10s of NMES at a fixed knee joint angle of 90°. The NMES protocol used a bi-phasic
181 rectangular pulse, 50 Hz stimulation frequency, duty cycle was 5 s of stimulation followed
182 by a 5 s pause, ramp up 1.5 s and ramp down 0.5 s, 400µs pulse width for 40 repetitions
183 and intensity at the maximum tolerated for each participant. Quadriceps muscles were
184 stimulated using three self-adhesive electrodes (Axion Medical, Axion GMBH,
185 Villengen-Schwennigen, Germany) (2 mm thick) linked to a portable battery-powered

186 neuromuscular electrical stimulator (Mi-Theta 600; Cefar Compex; Medicompex,
187 Ecublens, Switzerland). The negative electrode (10 x 5 cm) was positioned proximally
188 13.4 cm (BFR cuff width) below the inguinal crease, which was the most proximal thigh
189 position possible due to the cuff size. The other two (positive) electrodes (5 x 5 cm) were
190 placed over the motor points of the VM and VL muscles. Muscle motor points were
191 identified using a pen electrode (Compex; Medicompex, Ecublens, Switzerland) and a
192 large reference electrode placed over the proximal quadriceps¹⁵. The pen electrode was
193 moved slowly over the skin, with the stimulatory current gradually increased until a clear
194 muscle twitch was observed. The electrode was placed over the point that caused the
195 largest visible twitch¹⁵. Throughout the study, the electrode location was recorded,
196 marked and applied at the same motor point sites during every session. Participants were
197 instructed to relax their thigh muscles throughout. Vastus medialis and VL maximal
198 tolerable intensities equalled 67.1 ± 44.1 mA and 70.7 ± 44.7 mA, respectively.

199

200 **Determination of blood flow restriction pressure**

201 A handheld vascular Doppler probe (8 Hz) was placed 3 cm proximal from the end of the
202 medial malleolus and over the posterior tibial artery to determine AOP. A pneumatic cuff
203 (PTS tourniquet system, Delfi medical innovations, Vancouver, Canada) (width 13.4 cm;
204 length 58 cm) was placed around the most proximal portion of each participant's right
205 thigh. The pneumatic system connected to the tourniquet cuff, increased the cuff pressure
206 in stepwise increments, and when no auscultatory pulse was detected by the Doppler
207 probe, this determined AOP²⁴. The BFR pressures used during the experimental
208 conditions were 0%, 40%, 60% and 80% of AOP in a resting condition, which matched
209 the body position in which the intervention was carried out¹⁸. The BFR pressure was

210 maintained throughout the NMES session, including rest periods and released
211 immediately upon completion. The mean AOP observed was 168.9 ± 12.1 mmHg.

212

213 **MVIC**

214 Knee extension MVIC was measured using a custom-made strength chair and a digital
215 strain gauge (Interface SSM-AJ-500 Force Transducer, Interface, Scottsdale, USA) to
216 assess peak force production. Prior to testing, calibration of the strain gauge with a known
217 mass allowed conversion from voltage to Newtons. Participants were seated with the
218 backrest at 80° . Straps were placed across the torso and hips to prevent any unwanted
219 movement. Knee extension MVIC was determined for the right leg, with the load cell
220 fixed at an angle corresponding to 90° of knee flexion (goniometer) and the resistance
221 pad fastened 2 cm above the lateral malleolus. Chair set-up was recorded and standardised
222 for each session. The pre-intervention MVIC began with a warm up of 3 x 5 s submaximal
223 contractions at 25%, 50% and 75% of each participant's voluntary maximal effort,
224 followed by 3 x 5 s maximal contractions, with 30 s rest between repetitions²⁵. The same
225 procedure was also used during the familiarisation sessions. Participants were instructed
226 to exert maximum force as fast as possible and peak torque was defined as the highest
227 MVIC value observed, multiplied by shank length (Nm). Verbal encouragement was
228 provided throughout. Three contractions were initially performed. Where two
229 measurements differed by $>5\%$, an additional contraction was performed. Post-
230 intervention MVIC's were conducted 60 s post-NMES intervention and cuff deflation.
231 All raw MVIC signals were low-pass filtered using a zero-lag fourth order Butterworth
232 filter with a 11 Hz cut-off frequency, determined from a residual analysis. Reliability for
233 MVIC measurements was 3.8% CV and 9.6 Nm MDC.

234

235 **Muscle thickness**

236 Quadriceps muscle thickness was measured using B-mode ultrasonography (Echoblaster
237 128 EXT-1Z, Teleded, Lithuania; 60mm linear scanning probe, 7 MHz transducer
238 scanner) at the sites of the VM and VL muscles. MTH of VM was measured at 20% of
239 this distance and VL at 50% of the distance between the patella and anterior superior iliac
240 spine. The VM measurements were taken from 12.5% of thigh circumference in the
241 medial direction from the midpoint of the thigh, and the VL measurements were taken
242 from 10% of thigh circumference in the lateral direction, which represent the location of
243 the maximum cross-sectional area of these muscles. The ultrasound probe was placed
244 over the VM and VL musculature in two separate trials. Before all scans, the participants
245 lay for 5 min in a supine position. The measurement sites were marked by indelible ink
246 and determined by the NMES electrodes marking the reference location. With the leg in
247 full knee extension, the deep and superficial aponeurosis of each muscle was identified,
248 and the distance between the two interfaces calculated as muscle thickness. The mean of
249 three measurements from the centre of each image was used for data analysis¹².
250 Reliability for VM and VL muscle thickness measurements were 3.2% CV, 0.6 mm MDC
251 and 5.2% CV, 0.6 mm MDC, respectively.

252

253 **Blood pressure**

254 Systolic and diastolic blood pressure (DBP) were measured using an automatic blood
255 pressure monitor (Omron M3-IT, Omron Healthcare UK Ltd, Milton Keynes, UK). Blood
256 pressure measurements were performed after 5 min of supine rest and were assessed

257 twice, if variability was > 5 mmHg, a third measure was taken and the mean recorded.
258 Reliability for SBP and DBP were 3.3% CV, 2.5 mmHg MDC and 5.1% CV, 2.3 mmHg
259 MDC, respectively.

260

261 **Heart rate**

262 Heart rate was measured using a heart rate monitor, coded transmitter and chest strap
263 placed underneath each participants xyphoid process (Polar TY1, Polar, Kempele,
264 Finland). Heart rate was taken after 5 min of supine rest, pre and post experimental
265 conditions, and also recorded following each set (10 repetitions) of the NMES protocol.
266 Reliability at rest was 5.2% CV and 3 beats/min MDC.

267

268 **Rating of perceived exertion**

269 Rating of perceived exertion was taken following each set (10 repetitions) of the NMES
270 protocol using the standard Borg 6–20 scale²⁶. Participants confirmed that they fully
271 understood how to rate RPE prior to testing.

272

273 **Pain**

274 A rating of pain was taken following each set (10 repetitions) of the NMES protocol as
275 well as 24 and 48 hours post the final set, using the 0-10 numeric rating pain scale
276 (NRPS), with “0” representing no pain and ”10” the worst pain imaginable”²⁷.
277 Participants confirmed that they fully understood how to rate pain prior to testing.

278

279 **Statistical Analysis**

280 A two-way repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine the
281 effects of condition (0%, 40%, 60% and 80% BFR) and time; MVIC, muscle thickness,
282 SBP, DBP, heart rate across two time points (pre and post), HR, RPE, Pain across four
283 time points (set 1, set 2, set 3, set 4). If the assumptions of ANOVA were violated, the
284 Greenhouse–Geisser correction factor was applied. Significant interactions and main
285 effects were followed with appropriate *post-hoc* analyses and Bonferroni adjustments.
286 Statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$. Statistics were computed using SPSS Statistics
287 software package version 24.0 (SPSS, Chicago, USA). Data are presented as means \pm SD
288 unless otherwise stated.

289

290 **RESULTS**

291 No differences were observed between baseline values across the four experimental
292 conditions ($p > 0.05$). No adverse events occurred.

293

294 **MVIC**

295 There was a main effect of time ($F_{(1,19)}=37.2, p < 0.001$), no condition effect ($p > 0.05$)
296 and a condition \times time interaction ($F_{(3,57)}=10.6, p < 0.001$) for MVIC decline (Fig 2).
297 Post-hoc pairwise Bonferroni comparisons confirmed greater MVIC decline after NMES
298 80% BFR compared with NMES alone ($p < 0.001$), NMES 40% BFR ($p < 0.001$) and
299 NMES 60% BFR ($p = 0.001$) (Fig 2). All differences were above the 9.9 Nm MDC, error
300 of measurement.

301

302 ******* Insert Figure 2 here *******

303

304 **Muscle thickness**

305 There was a main effect of time ($F_{(1,19)}=43.1, p < 0.001$; $F_{(1,19)}=92.1, p < 0.001$) for VM
306 muscle thickness and VL muscle thickness increase, respectively (Table 1). However,
307 there was no condition effect or condition \times time interaction observed ($p > 0.05$).

308

309 **Blood pressure**

310 A main effect of time ($F_{(1,19)}= 12.1, p = 0.002$) was observed for SBP. There was no
311 condition effect or condition \times time interaction ($p > 0.05$) shown for SBP. There were no
312 effects observed on DBP ($p > 0.05$) (Table 1).

313

314 ***** **Insert Table 1 here** *****

315

316 **Heart rate**

317 There was a main effect of time ($F_{(1.4,26.7)}=54.8, p < 0.001$), condition effect ($F_{(3,57)}=4.1,$
318 $p = 0.010$) and condition \times time interaction ($F_{(6.6,125.2)}=3.9, p = 0.001$) for heart rate (Table
319 1 and 2). Post-hoc pairwise comparisons revealed after set 1, NMES alone was lower than
320 NMES 80 ($p = 0.019$); after set 2, NMES 80 was higher than NMES alone ($p = 0.019$);
321 after set 3, NMES 60 and NMES 80 were higher than NMES alone ($p = 0.026$ and $p =$
322 0.01 , respectively); after set 4, NMES 80 was higher than NMES alone ($p = 0.019$) (Table
323 1 and 2). However, all differences were below the 3.2 bpm MDC, showing no meaningful
324 change.

325

326 **Rating of perceived exertion**

327 There was a main effect of time ($F_{(1.1,21.3)}=11.9, p = 0.002$), condition effect ($F_{(3,57)}=7.7,$
328 $p < 0.001$) and condition \times time interaction ($F_{(3.8,72.4)}=3.4, p = 0.015$) for RPE (Table 2).
329 Post-hoc pairwise comparisons confirmed RPE to be higher; after set 1 of NMES 80
330 compared with NMES alone ($p = 0.006$), after set 2 of NMES 80 compared with NMES
331 alone, NMES 40 and NMES 60 ($p = 0.018; p = 0.027; p = 0.005$, respectively), after set
332 3 of NMES 80 compared with NMES alone, NMES 40 and NMES 60 ($p = 0.002; p =$
333 $0.002; p = 0.038$, respectively). Finally, RPE was higher after set 4 of NMES 80 compared
334 with NMES alone, NMES 40 and NMES 60 ($p = 0.001; p = 0.001; p = 0.041,$
335 respectively).

336

337 **Pain**

338 There was a main effect of time ($F_{(1.6,31.2)}=13.6, p < 0.001$), condition effect ($F_{(3,57)}=19.6,$
339 $p < 0.001$) and condition \times time interaction ($F_{(5.3,100.3)}=4.8, p < 0.001$) for pain (Table 3).
340 Post-hoc pairwise comparisons revealed ratings of pain were higher; after set 1 of NMES
341 80 compared with NMES alone, NMES 40 and NMES 60 ($p = 0.006; p = 0.001; p =$
342 0.027 , respectively), after set 2 of NMES 80 compared with NMES alone, NMES 40 and
343 NMES 60 ($p < 0.001; p < 0.001; p = 0.010$, respectively), after set 3 of NMES 80
344 compared with NMES alone, NMES 40 and NMES 60 ($p < 0.001; p < 0.001; p = 0.001,$
345 respectively). Finally, pain ratings were higher after set 4 of NMES 80 compared with
346 NMES alone, NMES 40 and NMES 60 ($p < 0.001; p < 0.001; p = 0.003$, respectively)
347 and lower after set 4 of NMES alone compared with set 4 of NMES 60 ($p = 0.039$).

348

349 ***** **Insert Table 2 here** *****

350

351 **DISCUSSION**

352 The purpose of this study was to standardise and determine if varying BFR pressures
353 induce different acute effects when combined with NMES. The main findings were that
354 the addition of BFR (40-80%) to NMES was required to acutely affect torque output
355 (fatigue). Furthermore, NMES 80% BFR caused greater fatigue (16.2%) than NMES
356 alone (3.5%) (Fig 2), with no deleterious cardiovascular effects (Table 1 and 2).

357

358 The impairment of the force generating capacity of a muscle is defined as muscle
359 fatigue²⁸. Our result that NMES combined with 80% BFR induced the greatest acute
360 fatigue (torque decrements) is consistent with findings after BFR alone and combined
361 with low-intensity voluntary isometric contractions^{29,30}, demonstrating that the addition
362 of BFR acutely reduces force generating capacity and the level of force reduction is
363 dependent on the pressure applied to the limb. For example, Pierce et al²⁹ applied BFR
364 (163 mmHg) passively for 5 x 5 min and produced equal knee extension torque
365 decrements (16%) to the present study. Our results are also in accordance with prior BFR
366 investigations that found 80% actual and estimated AOP induced acute decrements in
367 MVIC torque^{22,29,31,32}. The acute decrement in MVIC shown here with the addition of
368 BFR (18%) is also similar to that observed after a single bout of resistance exercise (20%),
369 which has correlated with increased muscular strength and size of the VL after training
370 protocols lasting 6 weeks^{20,33}. Furthermore, animal models have shown that NMES
371 combined with BFR causes significantly greater torque decrements than NMES alone,
372 which also led to greater muscle growth^{19,34}. Nakajima et al¹⁹ reported NMES force to
373 rapidly decrease during a combined intervention of NMES and BFR compared to NMES

374 alone in a rat model. Their acute findings correlated with increased muscle size with
375 NMES and BFR vs. NMES alone (11.0% vs. 6.2%), after 3 weeks of training¹⁹.
376 Furthermore, Natsume et al³⁴ also found greater fatigue and muscle weight after NMES
377 and BFR vs. NMES alone in a rat model³⁴. If acute fatigue is desirable for long term
378 muscular adaptations, our findings provide stronger support for combining NMES with
379 80% BFR, compared with 40% and 60% BFR and no support for NMES alone (Fig 2).

380

381 Although mechanistic reasons for our findings were not investigated, torque decrements
382 will have occurred due to a number of physiological processes. For example, increases in
383 intramuscular inorganic phosphate concentration have been reported after BFR³⁵⁻³⁷ and
384 are a known cause of peripheral fatigue^{38,39}. Indeed, others have reported that a
385 combination of submaximal exercise with arterial occlusion rapidly depletes type I and
386 type II muscle fibres of phosphocreatine⁴⁰, leading to increases in inorganic phosphate
387 concentration⁴¹. Decreases in blood flow/O² delivery associated with BFR, exacerbate
388 this rate of peripheral fatigue^{39,42}. Muscle fatigue can be compensated for by increased
389 motor unit activation in an effort to maintain force output⁴³. Hence, during fatiguing
390 muscle contractions there is an increased activation of motor units that innervate type II
391 fibres, thus increasing the potential for muscle fibre hypertrophy⁴⁴. This provides one
392 potential reason for the reported relationships between fatiguing tasks (induced by NMES
393 and BFR) and muscle growth¹⁹.

394

395 No previous NMES and BFR research has used AOP to determine BFR pressures in
396 humans. However, in animal models Natsume et al³⁴ stated that they used a cuff pressure
397 approximately 40-60% of AOP and Nakajima et al¹⁹ used a BFR pressure that lowered

398 O² partial pressures considerably but blood flow was not completely occluded. This could
399 be interpreted as above 60% AOP in line with previous research on humans finding the
400 level of muscle oxygenation/deoxygenation during 40% AOP is not substantially
401 different from that seen during non-BFR⁴⁵. Reis et al⁴⁵ concluded that 60% AOP appears
402 to represent a threshold required to induce higher deoxygenation and decreased tissue
403 oxygenation levels⁴⁵. The present findings found increased acute fatigue when adding 40-
404 80% BFR to NMES. This is consistent with the previously mentioned animal model data
405 finding acute fatigue caused significant hypertrophy¹⁹. This relationship needs to
406 investigated in humans to determine what optimal BFR pressures are required when
407 combined with NMES to enhance muscle strength and hypertrophy in rehabilitation
408 settings.

409

410 Muscle swelling was measured by changes in muscle thickness in the present study. The
411 acute increases in VM and VL muscle thickness observed (Table 1), were similar to
412 previous studies that applied BFR combined with resistance exercise using pressures from
413 40% AOP to 150% SBP⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸. However, there was no condition effect or condition × time
414 interaction observed. Our findings also support previous BFR data, showing no greater
415 muscle swelling effect utilising higher BFR pressures > 40% AOP^{48,49}. Muscle swelling
416 has been argued to trigger the proliferation of satellite cells, thus contributing to the
417 hypertrophic response to exercise⁵⁰. Although, it is currently unknown if acute muscle
418 swelling contributes to hypertrophy observed with NMES combined with BFR. The
419 present study supports the use of NMES alone and combined with BFR (40-80%) to
420 induce acute muscle swelling (Table 1).

421

422 Pain was increased with the addition of 80% BFR to NMES compared to all of the other
423 conditions in the present study (Table 2). Additionally, NMES combined with 60% BFR
424 produced greater ratings of pain than NMES alone (Table 2). This indicates that the pain
425 experienced is mostly attributable to the level of occlusive pressure (60-80%). Exercise-
426 induced muscle pain can be generated by stimulation of group III and IV muscle afferents,
427 elicited by metabolic perturbations of the working musculature. It is generally accepted
428 that BFR reduces metabolite clearance, thus inducing greater pain compared to non-
429 occluded exercise⁵¹. Cuff inflation at higher pressures (80% AOP) has been previously
430 characterised as moderately painful⁵², which supports the lower pain ratings observed
431 after NMES and 40% BFR (Table 2). The lower pain and RPE scores reported with the
432 addition of 40% compared with 80% BFR to NMES in the present study, may lead to
433 greater clinical applicability, due to NMES BFR 40% inducing significant fatigue (Fig 2)
434 with reduced pain and RPE scores.

435

436 There were no unanticipated effects on the cardiovascular system during any of the trials
437 (Table 1 and 2). This supports previous NMES research using maximal tolerable
438 intensities^{53,54} and BFR research using 70% BFR pressures^{55,56}. In agreement with the
439 current findings, no adverse events have occurred in healthy and spinal cord-injured
440 adults previously¹¹⁻¹⁴. The present findings support the use of NMES and BFR on the
441 selected cardiovascular measures (Table 1 and 2).

442

443 The current study has some limitations, such as the sample, which was restricted to young,
444 healthy men and women. Thus, we acknowledge that our findings may not apply to other
445 populations. Also, the measurements were taken immediately pre and post every

446 experimental condition. Therefore, the time-course of change in the period of time after
447 the intervention is unknown. The investigator and participants were not blinded to
448 experimental conditions. Blinding aims to prevent biased assessment of outcomes and
449 ascertainment bias after randomisation⁵⁷. Future research should, therefore, consider
450 evaluating the time-course responses to BFR and NMES interventions among a wider
451 range of clinical populations who are likely to benefit from its application.

452

453 **CONCLUSION**

454 This is the first study to standardise the BFR pressure using a percentage of AOP when
455 combining it with NMES. To determine which protocol would be best suited for
456 rehabilitation settings, we evaluated several factors, including muscle fatigue, muscle
457 swelling, cardiovascular response and perceptual responses. On the basis of our results,
458 we recommend combining NMES with 80% BFR for the quadriceps muscle group.
459 However, NMES combined with 40% BFR cannot be excluded, due to lower perceptual
460 ratings than 80% BFR and acutely inducing fatigue (Fig 2; Table 1), which may be a
461 surrogate marker for muscle hypertrophy¹⁹. We can only speculate that the increased
462 metabolic stress associated with BFR has led to the increased fatigue, RPE and pain
463 ratings observed with the addition of 40-80% BFR to NMES in the present study (Fig 2;
464 Table 2). Of course, these acute observations must be expanded upon during chronic
465 training interventions to corroborate any relationship to changes in muscle strength and
466 size. The combination of NMES and BFR has the potential to assist the rehabilitation of
467 skeletal muscle in post-surgery patients and during immobilisation, when voluntary
468 exercise is not possible.

469

470 **REFERENCES**

- 471 1. Hughes L, Paton B, Rosenblatt B, Gissane C, Patterson SD. Blood flow restriction
472 training in clinical musculoskeletal rehabilitation: a systematic review and meta-analysis.
473 *Br J Sports Med* [Internet]. 2017;51(13):1003–11. Available from:
474 <http://bjsm.bmj.com/lookup/doi/10.1136/bjsports-2016-097071>
- 475 2. Patterson SD, Hughes L, Warmington S, Burr J, Scott BR, Owens J, et al. Blood
476 Flow Restriction Exercise Position Stand : Considerations of Methodology , Application
477 , and Safety. 2019;10(May):1–15.
- 478 3. Wall BT, Loon LJC Van. Nutritional strategies to attenuate muscle disuse atrophy.
479 *71(4):195–208.*
- 480 4. Thom JM, Thompson MW, Ruell PA, Bryant GJ, Fonda JS, Harmer AR, et al.
481 Effect of 10-day cast immobilization on sarcoplasmic reticulum calcium regulation in
482 humans. *Acta Physiol Scand.* 2001;172(2):141–7.
- 483 5. Kubota A, Sakuraba K, Sawaki K, Sumide T, Tamura Y. Prevention of disuse
484 muscular weakness by restriction of blood flow. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2008;40(3):529–
485 34.
- 486 6. Kubota A, Sakuraba K, Koh S, Ogura Y, Tamura Y. Blood flow restriction by low
487 compressive force prevents disuse muscular weakness. *J Sci Med Sport* [Internet].
488 2011;14(2):95–9. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jsams.2010.08.007>
- 489 7. Takarada Y, Takazawa H, Sato Y, Takebayashi S, Tanaka Y, Ishii N. Effects of
490 resistance exercise combined with moderate vascular occlusion on muscular function in
491 humans Effects of resistance exercise combined with moderate vascular occlusion on
492 muscular function in humans. *J Appl Physiol.* 2000;88:2097–106.

- 493 8. Iversen E, Røstad V, Larmo A. Intermittent blood flow restriction does not reduce
494 atrophy following anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction. *J Sport Heal Sci* [Internet].
495 2016;5(1):115–8. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jshs.2014.12.005>
- 496 9. Dirks ML, Wall BT, Snijders T, Ottenbros CLP, Verdijk LB, Van Loon LJC.
497 Neuromuscular electrical stimulation prevents muscle disuse atrophy during leg
498 immobilization in humans. *Acta Physiol*. 2014;210(3):628–41.
- 499 10. Jones S, Man WD-C, Gao W, Higginson IJ, Wilcock A, Maddocks M.
500 Neuromuscular electrical stimulation for muscle weakness in adults with advanced
501 disease. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* [Internet]. 2016;10(10):CD009419. Available
502 from:
503 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27748503>
504 51858.CD009419.pub3
- 505 11. Gorgey AS, Timmons MK, Dolbow DR, Bengel J, Fugate-Laurs KC, Michener
506 LA, et al. Electrical stimulation and blood flow restriction increase wrist extensor cross-
507 sectional area and flow mediated dilatation following spinal cord injury. *Eur J Appl*
508 *Physiol*. 2016;116(6):1231–44.
- 509 12. Natsume T, Ozaki H, Saito AI, Abe T, Naito H. Effects of Electrostimulation with
510 Blood Flow Restriction on Muscle Size and Strength. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*.
511 2015;47(12):2621–7.
- 512 13. Slysz JT, Burr JF. The effects of blood flow restricted electrostimulation on
513 strength and hypertrophy. *J Sport Rehabil*. 2018;27(3):257–62.
- 514 14. Andrade SF, Skiba GH, Krueger E, André F. Journal of Exercise Physiology
515 online Effects of Electrostimulation with Blood Flow Restriction on Muscle Thickness
516 and Strength of the Soleus. 2016;19(3):59–69.

- 517 15. Maffiuletti NA. Physiological and methodological considerations for the use of
518 neuromuscular electrical stimulation. *Eur J Appl Physiol*. 2010;110(2):223–34.
- 519 16. Inagaki Y, Madarame H, Neya M, Ishii N. Increase in serum growth hormone
520 induced by electrical stimulation of muscle combined with blood flow restriction. *Eur J*
521 *Appl Physiol* [Internet]. 2011;111(11):2715–21. Available from:
522 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00421-011-1899-y>
- 523 17. Martín-Hernández J, Santos-Lozano A, Foster C, Lucia A. Syncope Episodes and
524 Blood Flow Restriction Training. *Clin J Sport Med* [Internet]. 2017;0(0):1. Available
525 from: [http://insights.ovid.com/crossref?an=00042752-900000000-](http://insights.ovid.com/crossref?an=00042752-900000000-99413%0Ahttp://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29023279)
526 [99413%0Ahttp://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29023279](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29023279)
- 527 18. Hughes L, Jeffries O, Waldron M, Rosenblatt B, Gissane C, Paton B, et al.
528 Influence and reliability of lower-limb arterial occlusion pressure at different body
529 positions. *PeerJ* [Internet]. 2018;6:e4697. Available from:
530 [http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29736337%0Ahttp://www.pubmedcentral.nih.go](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29736337%0Ahttp://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC5936068)
531 [v/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC5936068](http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC5936068)
- 532 19. Nakajima T, Koide S, Yasuda T, Hasegawa T, Yamasoba T, Obi S, et al. Muscle
533 hypertrophy following blood flow-restricted low force isometric electrical stimulation in
534 rat tibialis anterior: Role for muscle hypoxia. *J Appl Physiol* [Internet].
535 2018;(March):japplphysiol.00972.2017. Available from:
536 [http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29565774%0Ahttp://www.physiology.org/doi/10.](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29565774%0Ahttp://www.physiology.org/doi/10.1152/japplphysiol.00972.2017)
537 [1152/japplphysiol.00972.2017](http://www.physiology.org/doi/10.1152/japplphysiol.00972.2017)
- 538 20. Fisher JP, Blossom D, Steele J. A comparison of volume-equated knee extensions
539 to failure, or not to failure, upon rating of perceived exertion and strength adaptations.
540 *Appl Physiol Nutr Metab*. 2015;41(2):168–74.

- 541 21. Kim D, Loenneke JP, Ye X, Bembien DA, Beck TW, Larson RD, et al. Low-load
542 resistance training with low relative pressure produces muscular changes similar to high-
543 load resistance training. *Muscle Nerve*. 2017;56(6).
- 544 22. Fatela P, Reis JF, Mendonca G V., Avela J, Mil-Homens P. Acute effects of
545 exercise under different levels of blood-flow restriction on muscle activation and fatigue.
546 *Eur J Appl Physiol*. 2016;116(5):985–95.
- 547 23. Aboyans V, Criqui MH, Abraham P, Allison MA, Creager MA, Diehm C, et al.
548 Measurement and interpretation of the ankle-brachial index: a scientific statement from
549 the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 2012;126(24):2890–909.
- 550 24. Hughes L, Rosenblatt B, Gissane C, Paton B, Patterson SD. Interface pressure,
551 perceptual, and mean arterial pressure responses to different blood flow restriction
552 systems. *Scand J Med Sci Sports*. 2018;28(7):1757–65.
- 553 25. Head P, Austen B, Browne D, Campkin T, Barcellona M. Effect of practical blood
554 flow restriction training during bodyweight exercise on muscular strength, hypertrophy
555 and function in adults: A randomised controlled trial. *Int J Ther Rehabil*. 2015;22(6):263–
556 71.
- 557 26. Borg GA. Psychophysical bases of perceived exertion. *Med sci Sport Exerc*.
558 1982;14(5):377–81.
- 559 27. Hawker GA, Mian S, Kendzerska T, French M. Measures of adult pain: Visual
560 analog scale for pain (vas pain), numeric rating scale for pain (nrs pain), mcgill pain
561 questionnaire (mpq), short-form mcgill pain questionnaire (sf-mpq), chronic pain grade
562 scale (cpgs), short form-36 bodily pain scale (sf. *Arthritis Care Res (Hoboken)*.
563 2011;63(S11).

- 564 28. Gandevia SC. Spinal and supraspinal factors in human muscle fatigue. *Physiol*
565 *Rev.* 2001;81(4):1725–89.
- 566 29. Cook SB, Clark BC, Ploutz-Snyder LL. Effects of exercise load and blood-flow
567 restriction on skeletal muscle function. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2007;39(10):1708–13.
- 568 30. Pierce JR, Clark BC, Ploutz-Snyder LL, Kanaley J a. Growth hormone and muscle
569 function responses to skeletal muscle ischemia. *J Appl Physiol.* 2006;101(6):1588–95.
- 570 31. Karabulut M, Cramer JT, Abe T, Sato Y, Bemben MG. Neuromuscular fatigue
571 following low-intensity dynamic exercise with externally applied vascular restriction. *J*
572 *Electromyogr Kinesiol* [Internet]. 2010;20(3):440–7. Available from:
573 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jelekin.2009.06.005>
- 574 32. Cook SB, Kanaley JA, Ploutz-Snyder LL. Neuromuscular function following
575 muscular unloading and blood flow restricted exercise. *Eur J Appl Physiol.*
576 2014;114(7):1357–65.
- 577 33. Peltonen H, Walker S, Lähitie A, Häkkinen K, Avela J. Isometric parameters in
578 the monitoring of maximal strength, power, and hypertrophic resistance-training. *Appl*
579 *Physiol Nutr Metab.* 2017;43(2):145–53.
- 580 34. Natsume T, Yoshihara T, Naito H. Electromyostimulation with Blood Flow
581 Restriction Enhances Activation of mTOR and MAPK Signalling Pathways in Rat
582 Gastrocnemius Muscles. *The FASEB Journal.* 2018 Apr;32(1_supplement):lb46-.
- 583 35. Suga T, Okita K, Morita N, Yokota T, Hirabayashi K, Horiuchi M, et al.
584 Intramuscular metabolism during low-intensity resistance exercise with blood flow
585 restriction. 2009;1119–24.

- 586 36. Sugaya M, Yasuda T, Suga T, Okita K, Abe T. Change in intramuscular inorganic
587 phosphate during multiple sets of blood flow-restricted low-intensity exercise. *Clin*
588 *Physiol Funct Imaging*. 2011;31(5):411–3.
- 589 37. Suga T, Okita K, Takada S, Omokawa M, Kadoguchi T, Yokota T, et al. Effect
590 of multiple set on intramuscular metabolic stress during low-intensity resistance exercise
591 with blood flow restriction. *Eur J Appl Physiol*. 2012;112(11):3915–20.
- 592 38. Amann M, Sidhu SK, Weavil JC, Mangum TS, Venturelli M. Autonomic
593 responses to exercise: group III/IV muscle afferents and fatigue. *Auton Neurosci*.
594 2015;188:19–23.
- 595 39. Amann M, Calbet JAL. Convective oxygen transport and fatigue. *J Appl Physiol*.
596 2008;104(3):861–70.
- 597 40. Krstrup P, Söderlund K, Relu MU, Ferguson RA, Bangsbo J. Heterogeneous
598 recruitment of quadriceps muscle portions and fibre types during moderate intensity knee-
599 extensor exercise: effect of thigh occlusion. *Scand J Med Sci Sports*. 2009;19(4):576–84.
- 600 41. Allen DG, Lamb GD, Westerblad H. Skeletal muscle fatigue: cellular
601 mechanisms. *Physiol Rev*. 2008;88(1):287–332.
- 602 42. Wernbom M, Järrebring R, Andreasson M a, Augustsson J. Acute effects of blood
603 flow restriction on muscle activity and endurance during fatiguing dynamic knee
604 extensions at low load. *J Strength Cond Res [Internet]*. 2009;23(8):2389–95. Available
605 from: [http://www.kultur.gu.se/digitalAssets/1290/1290696_Wernbom_-](http://www.kultur.gu.se/digitalAssets/1290/1290696_Wernbom_-_Acute_Effects_of_Blood_Flow.pdf)
606 [_Acute_Effects_of_Blood_Flow.pdf](http://www.kultur.gu.se/digitalAssets/1290/1290696_Wernbom_-_Acute_Effects_of_Blood_Flow.pdf)
- 607 43. Sale DG. Influence of exercise and training on motor unit activation. *Exerc Sport*
608 *Sci Rev*. 1987;15:95–151.

609 44. Fujita S, Abe T, Drummond MJ, Cadenas JG, Dreyer HC, Sato Y, et al. Blood
610 flow restriction during low-intensity resistance exercise increases S6K1 phosphorylation
611 and muscle protein synthesis. *J Appl Physiol.* 2007;103(3):903–10.

612 45. Reis JF, Fatela P, Mendonca GV, Vaz JR, Valamatos MJ, Infante J, Mil-Homens
613 P, Alves FB. Tissue oxygenation in response to different relative levels of blood-flow
614 restricted exercise. *Frontiers in physiology.* 2019;10.

615 46. Jessee MB, Mattocks KT, Buckner SL, Mouser JG, Counts BR, Dankel SJ, et al.
616 The acute muscular response to blood flow-restricted exercise with very low relative
617 pressure. *Clin Physiol Funct Imaging.* 2018;38(2):304–11.

618 47. Yasuda T, Loenneke JP, Thiebaud RS, Abe T. Effects of Blood Flow Restricted
619 Low-Intensity Concentric or Eccentric Training on Muscle Size and Strength. *PLoS One.*
620 2012;7(12):1–7.

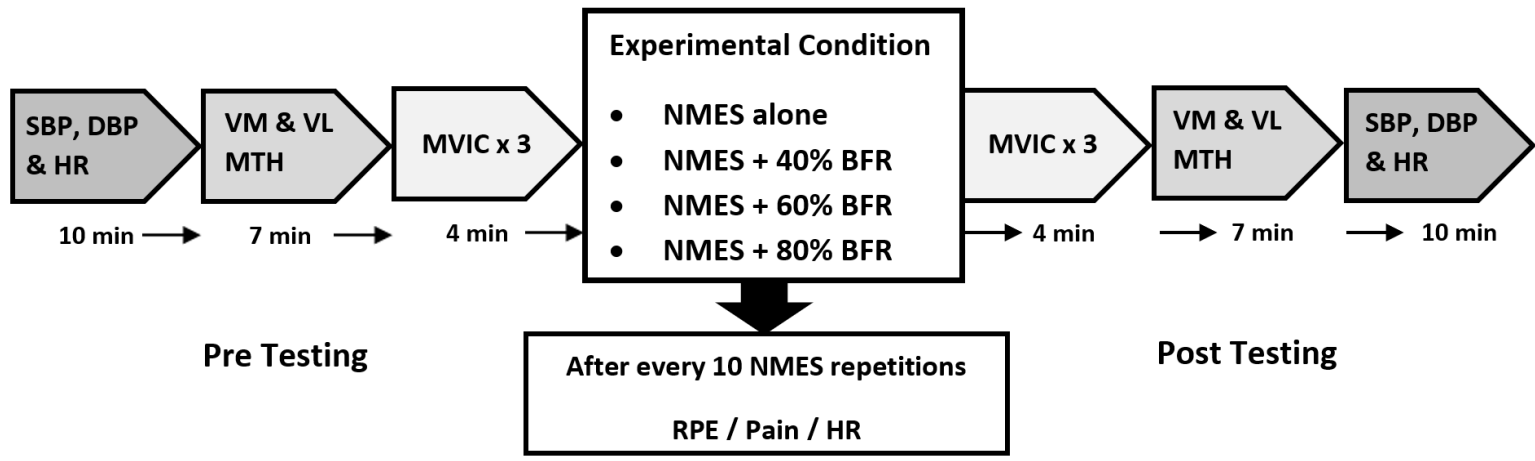
621 48. Counts BR, Dankel SJ, Barnett BE, Kim D, Mouser JG, Allen KM, et al. Influence
622 of relative blood flow restriction pressure on muscle activation and muscle adaptation.
623 *Muscle and Nerve.* 2016;53(3):438–45.

624 49. Loenneke JP, Kim D, Fahs CA, Thiebaud RS, Abe T, Larson RD, et al. The
625 influence of exercise load with and without different levels of blood flow restriction on
626 acute changes in muscle thickness and lactate. *Clin Physiol Funct Imaging.*
627 2017;37(6):734–40.

628 50. Schoenfeld BJ. Potential mechanisms for a role of metabolic stress in hypertrophic
629 adaptations to resistance training. *Sport Med.* 2013;43(3):179–94.

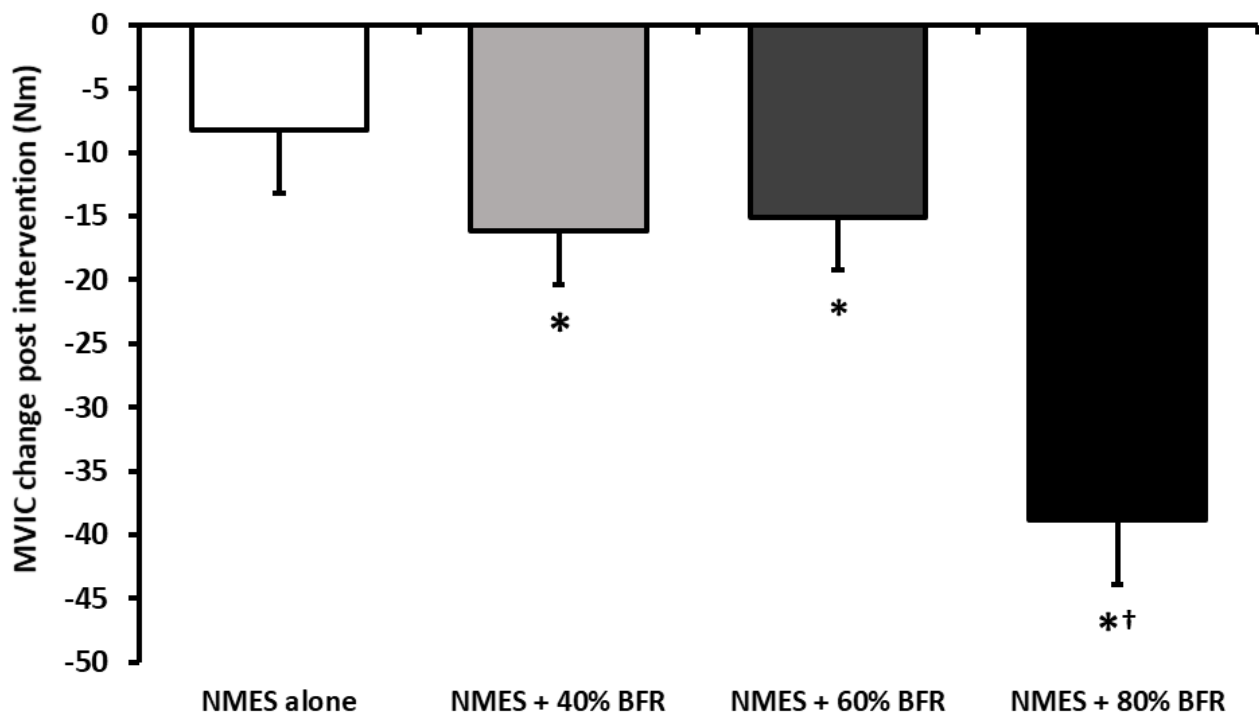
630 51. Wernbom M, Augustsson J, Thomeé R. Effects of Vascular Occlusion on
631 Muscular Endurance in Dynamic Knee Extension Exercise At Different Submaximal
632 Loads. *J Strength Cond Res.* 2006;20(2):372–7.

- 633 52. Jones MD, Taylor JL, Barry BK. Occlusion of blood flow attenuates exercise-
634 induced hypoalgesia in the occluded limb of healthy adults. *J Appl Physiol.*
635 2017;122(5):1284–91.
- 636 53. Kang JH, Hyong IH. The influence of neuromuscular electrical stimulation on the
637 heart rate variability in healthy subjects. *J Phys Ther Sci.* 2014;26(5):633–5.
- 638 54. Lee SY, Im SH, Kim BR, Choi JH, Lee SJ, Han EY. The effects of neuromuscular
639 electrical stimulation on cardiopulmonary function in healthy adults. *Ann Rehabil Med.*
640 2012;36(6):849–56.
- 641 55. Iida H, Kurano M, Takano H, Kubota N, Morita T, Meguro K, et al.
642 Hemodynamic and neurohumoral responses to the restriction of femoral blood flow by
643 KAATSU in healthy subjects. *Eur J Appl Physiol.* 2007;100(3):275–85.
- 644 56. Loenneke JP, Fahs CA, Thiebaud RS, Rossow LM, Abe T, Ye X, et al. The acute
645 hemodynamic effects of blood flow restriction in the absence of exercise. *Clin Physiol*
646 *Funct Imaging.* 2013;33(1):79–82.
- 647 57. Karanicolas PJ, Farrokhyar F, Bhandari M. Blinding: Who, what, when, why, how?.
648 *Canadian Journal of Surgery.* 2010 Oct;53(5):345.
- 649



650 **Fig 1.** Experimental protocol. All participants performed the same neuromuscular
 651 electrical stimulation (NMES) protocol under four different blood flow restriction (BFR)
 652 pressures (0, 40, 60 and 80%). Outcome measures; systolic blood pressure (SBP);
 653 diastolic blood pressure (DBP); heart rate (HR); vastus medialis (VM) and vastus lateralis
 654 (VL) muscle thickness (MTH); knee extension maximal voluntary isometric contraction
 655 (MVIC) were assessed before (pre) and after (post) each experimental condition.
 656 Outcome measures assessed after every 10 NMES repetitions included; rating of
 657 perceived exertion (RPE), pain and HR. See abbreviations throughout.

658
 659
 660
 661
 662
 663
 664
 665
 666
 667
 668
 669
 670
 671
 672
 673
 674
 675
 676
 677
 678
 679
 680
 681
 682
 683
 684



685
 686 **Fig 2.** Knee extension maximal voluntary isometric contraction (MVIC) pre-test to post-
 687 test change Δ ; values as mean \pm SEM. Significant differences were set at $p < 0.05$; * =
 688 significant difference between pre-test and post-test; † = significantly greater change
 689 compared to all other experimental conditions

690
 691
 692
 693
 694
 695
 696
 697
 698
 699
 700
 701
 702
 703

704 **Table 1.** Knee extension MVIC, muscle thickness and cardiovascular pre-test and post-
 705 test measurement values; mean (SD) [95% Confidence Interval]

	NMES alone			NMES +40% BFR			NMES + 60% BFR			NMES + 80% BFR		
	Pre	Post	C [95% CI]	Pre	Post	C [95% CI]	Pre	Post	C [95% CI]	Pre	Post	C [95% CI]
MVIC	239.8	231.5	-8.3 [-18.5;	240.3	224.1	-16.2 [-25.0;	240.4	225.4	-15.1 [-23.8;	242.6	203.8	-38.9 (-49.3;
(Nm)	(51.3)	(57.1)	1.9]	(48.3)	(46.8)*	-7.3]	(52.3)	(55.7)*	-6.4]	(55.1)	(52.1)*†	-28.3]
VM MTH	25.0	25.6	0.6 [0.3;	25.2	26.0	0.8 [0.3; 1.2]	25.0	25.8	0.8 [0.4; 1.3]	24.7	25.9	1.2 [0.8; 1.5]
(mm)	(2.7)	(2.6)*	0.9]	(2.9)	(2.8)*		(2.9)	(2.9)*		(2.7)	(2.9)*	
VL MTH	17.2	17.9	0.7 [0.5;	16.6	17.7	1.0 [0.6; 1.5]	16.9	18.0	1.1 [0.7; 1.6]	17.0	18.4	1.4 [0.9; 1.9]
(mm)	(2.8)	(2.8)*	1.0]	(2.4)	(2.9)*		(2.5)	(3.0)*		(2.9)	(3.2)*	
SBP	122.8	125.2	2.3 [0.7;	121.9	123.9	1.9 [-1.4;	123.4	124.7	1.4 [-0.6;	123.0	125.5	2.5 [0.8; 4.1]
(mmHg)	(8.7)	(9.2)*	4.0]	(8.5)	(7.8)	5.2]	(9.3)	(8.1)	3.3]	(8.1)	(7.8)*	
DBP	69.4	71.1	1.7 [-0.9;	70.2	71.4	1.3 [-0.6;	71.2	71.2	0.1 [-2.2;	70.7	71.6	0.9 [-1.8;3.5]
(mmHg)	(6.7)	(5.3)	4.4]	(6.2)	(7.6)	3.1]	(7.1)	(6.3)	2.4]	(6.0)	(6.5)	
HR	61.0	60.7	-0.3 [-2.2;	60.7	61.2	0.5 [-1.1;	60.6	58.3	-2.4 [-4.6; -	62.2	59.5	-2.7 [-6.5;
(bpm)	(9.3)	(9.6)	1.6]	(9.3)	(8.6)	2.1]	(8.8)	(9.5)*	0.2]	(9.1)	(9.7)	1.1]

706 Significant differences were set at $p < 0.05$; * = significant difference between pre-test
 707 and post-test; † = significantly greater change compared to all other experimental
 708 conditions. C = change from pre to post

709

710

711

712

713

714

715

716

717

718

719

720

721

722 **Table 2.** Measurement values after every set (10 contractions) of the interventions;
 723 mean (SD)

	NMES alone				NMES + 40% BFR				NMES + 60% BFR				NMES + 80% BFR			
	Set 1	Set 2	Set 3	Set 4	Set 1	Set 2	Set 3	Set 4	Set 1	Set 2	Set 3	Set 4	Set 1	Set 2	Set 3	Set 4
HR	71.1	71.9	71.8	72.2	74.2	74.6	75.1	74.5	73.6	76.4	77.0	76.5	77.1	79.3	79.4	78.8
(bpm)	(9.1)	(9.7)	(8.4)	(8.7)	(9.8)	(9.1)	(10.4)	(9.7)	(11.6)	(10.5)	(9.6)	(11.4)	(11.8)	(11.4)	(11.3)	(12.2)
RPE	11.0	11.0	11.1	11.1	10.5	10.8	11.3	11.3	10.6	11.1	11.9	12.1*	12.1	12.9	13.4#	13.7†
(6-20)	(3.1)	(3.0)	(2.9)	(2.7)	(2.8)	(2.8)	(3.0)	(3.0)	(2.5)	(2.6)	(3.0)	(3.1)	(3.3)	(3.5)	(3.3)	(3.5)
Pain	3.6	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.7	3.8	3.9	3.6	4.2	4.6	4.8*	5.3	6.0#	6.6†	6.7^
(0-10)	(1.9)	(1.8)	(1.8)	(1.7)	(1.7)	(1.9)	(1.9)	(2.0)	(1.9)	(2.0)	(1.9)	(1.8)	(1.5)	(1.3)	(1.3)	(1.6)

724 Significant differences were set at $p < 0.05$; RPE results (* = significant difference
 725 between set 1 and set 4; # = set 3 of NMES 80 significantly larger than all sets of
 726 NMES alone, NMES 60 and set 1 of NMES 40; † = set 4 of NMES 80 significantly
 727 larger than all sets of NMES alone, NMES 60 and set 1 and 2 of NMES 40); Pain
 728 results (* = significant difference between set 1 and set 4; # = set 2 of NMES and 80%
 729 BFR significantly larger than all sets of NMES alone, NMES and 60% BFR and set 1 of
 730 NMES and 40% BFR; † = set 3 of NMES and 80% BFR significantly larger than all
 731 sets of NMES alone, NMES and 60% BFR and set 1 and 2 of NMES and 40% BFR; ^ =
 732 set 4 of NMES and 80% BFR significantly larger than all sets of NMES alone, NMES
 733 and 60% BFR and set 1 of NMES and 40% BFR)

734

735

736

737

738