

1 RESEARCH ARTICLE

2 **Peripheral nerve adaptations to 10 days of horizontal bed rest in healthy young**
3 **adult males**

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30 **ABSTRACT**

31 Space analogues, such as bed rest, are used to reproduce microgravity-induced morphological and physiological
32 changes and can be used as clinical models of prolonged inactivity. Nevertheless, non-uniform decreases in muscle
33 mass and function have been frequently reported, and peripheral nerve adaptations have been poorly studied, although
34 some of these mechanisms may be explained. Ten young healthy males (18-33 y) underwent 10 days of horizontal bed
35 rest. Peripheral neurophysiological assessments were performed bilaterally for the dominant (DL) and non-dominant
36 upper and lower limbs (N-DL) on the 1st and 10th day of bed rest, including ultrasound of the median, deep peroneal
37 (DPN) and common fibular (CFN) nerves, as well as a complete nerve conduction study (NCS) of the upper and lower
38 limbs. Consistently reduced F-waves, suggesting peripheral nerve dysfunction, of both the peroneal (DL: $p= 0.005$, N-
39 DL $p= 0.013$) and tibial nerves (DL: $p= 0.037$, N-DL $p= 0.005$) were found bilaterally, while no changes were observed
40 in nerve ultrasound or other parameters of the NCS of both the upper and lower limbs were observed. In these young
41 healthy males, only the F-waves, known to respond to postural changes, were significantly affected by short-term bed
42 rest. These preliminary results suggest that during simulated microgravity, most changes occur at the muscle or central
43 nervous system level. Since the assessment of F-waves is common in clinical neurophysiological examinations, caution
44 should be used when testing individuals after prolonged immobility.

45 **Keywords:** bed rest, space, nerve conduction velocity, F wave, ultrasound, peripheral neurophysiology

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50 **Key Points Summary**

- 51 • Peripheral nerve morphological and conduction characteristics have been investigated before and after 10 days of
52 bed rest in young healthy subjects
- 53 • Bed rest did not induce significant changes in the cross-sectional area of peripheral nerves
- 54 • Nerve conduction velocity and amplitude were not consistently affected by bed rest in both upper and lower limbs
- 55 • The H-reflex was only partially affected by bed rest
- 56 • The amplitude of F-waves in the lower limbs was significantly reduced after bed rest

57

58 **Non-standard abbreviations**

59 BDC1= baseline data collection one day before bed rest

60 BR = bed rest

61 BR0 = first day of bed rest

62 BR9 = last day of bed rest

63 CFB = Common Fibular Nerve

64 CSA = Cross Sectional Area

65 DL = Dominant Limb

66 DPN = Deep Peroneal Nerve

67 MEP = Motor Evoked Potentials

68 NCS = Nerve Conduction Study

69 NDL = Non-Dominant Limb

70 TMS = Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation

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83 **Introduction**

84 Bed rest (BR) is a commonly accepted analogue of spaceflight [1, 2] used to observe and describe adaptations occurring
85 in a simulated microgravity environment. Additionally, such model has been consistently used to understand the
86 underlying mechanisms associated to the morphological and functional alterations following prolonged immobilization,
87 as during hospitalization and in some clinical conditions [3, 4]. In particular, prolonged BR has been shown to induce
88 metabolic adaptations, as anabolic resistance, which are key mechanisms to muscle atrophy that can be rapidly
89 observable after few weeks of inactivity [5–7], with a 3% muscle thigh loss being reported after only 7 days of strict BR
90 [8]. However, the magnitude of the loss in muscle strength and power after BR or limb immobilization is typically
91 greater compared to the loss of muscle mass [9, 10]. As such, neurophysiological factors may explain the
92 disproportionate loss of muscle function, as a previously described decrease in motor unit recruitment [11, 12] and may
93 be associated to both central nervous system (CNS) and peripheral nervous system (PNS) adaptations.

94 Neurophysiological studies during BR have primarily focused on CNS mechanisms of adaptation, as neural plasticity
95 [1, 13–15], including effects on to the number of synapses, degeneration of axonal terminals, alterations of the cerebral
96 blood flow [16–18], as well as a significant reduction of leg excitability after only 2 weeks of BR (Roberts et al., 2010).
97 Previous studies have indicated that reflex excitability is enhanced with unloading, as evidenced by a rise in Hoffmann
98 (H)-reflex amplitude [19]. An increase in resting H-reflex amplitude with disuse has been observed in both human and
99 animal models, and it has usually been attributed to a reduction in presynaptic inhibition (PSI) of Ia afferents and/or
100 enhanced motoneuronal excitability. The possible impact of the unloading-induced increase in the resting H-reflex on
101 the efferent neural drive is unknown. Some other studies, however, found reduced H-reflex during standing after 20-day
102 BR [20, 21], which is again in contrast with the increased response during parabolic flight [22], suggesting that further
103 studies are needed to differentiate the potential adaptation of H-reflex to the different microgravity analogues. Few
104 studies assessing nerve morphological alterations and only preliminary electroneurographic findings suggesting
105 decreased tibial nerve M response after 2 and 4 months of BR [23].

106 The data on peripheral nerve conduction during BR, both in experimental studies and in aerospace experiments, are
107 lacking and inconclusive. A deeper understanding of peripheral nerve adaptations has also been encouraged [24], as it
108 may help to discriminate the different mechanisms underlying BR induced weakness and reduced muscle power. Nerve
109 conduction studies (NCS) are widely used in clinical practice and include a set of techniques to evaluate peripheral
110 nerve (both motor and sensory) functional characteristics [25], as nerve conduction velocity, and electrically stimulated
111 responses as the F-wave. For example, NCS is performed to support the diagnosis of intensive-care unit acquired
112 weakness, including critical illness polyneuropathy and myopathy, which can be caused by immobilization, muscle

113 unloading, and mechanical ventilation [26]. Recently, nerve conduction velocity has been associated to morphological
114 characteristics measured with ultrasonography (US) of the nerve, which has been proposed as a valid and cost-effective
115 method to assess nerve morphological characteristics (as the cross-sectional area), and to detect and evaluate alterations
116 due to trauma, inflammation, infection and compressive pathologies of the peripheral nerve [27, 28]. BR in healthy
117 subjects represents a unique model to study neurophysiological changes induced by prolonged immobilization, without
118 the common confounding factors that can be found in patients. In addition, alterations of peripheral nerve characteristics
119 might help to discriminate between the different factors leading to reduced muscle strength and power [23, 24, 29].

120 Therefore, the aim of the present study was to measure the electroneurographic (NCS) and morphological (US)
121 characteristics of the peripheral nerves of the upper and lower limbs in healthy adults at the first and last day of a 10-
122 day BR protocol.

123

124 **Materials & Methods**

125 *Participants*

126 Ten healthy young adult men (aged 22.9 ± 5 years, body mass 77.5 ± 10 kg, height 1.81 ± 0.04 m) were recruited to
127 participate to the study. All participants passed physician examination with a routine blood and urine analysis.
128 Exclusion criteria were: smoking; regular alcohol consumption; ferromagnetic implants; history of deep vein
129 thrombosis with D-dimer $> 500 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$; acute or chronic skeletal, neuromuscular, metabolic and cardiovascular disease
130 conditions; pulmonary embolism. Participants signed an informed consent form informing them of the purpose,
131 procedures, and potential risk of the study. The study was performed in accordance with the ethical standards of the
132 1964 Declaration of Helsinki and was part of a larger project entitled “Biological and Functional Markers for Precision
133 Astronautical Biomedicine (MARS-PRE)” [9, 30]. It was approved by the National Medical Ethics Committee (ID:
134 0120-304/2019/9) and registered at ClinicalTrials.gov (NCT04081467).

135 *Bed rest protocol*

136 The study was conducted in a controlled medical environment at the General Hospital of Izola, Slovenia. Volunteers
137 underwent 10 days of horizontal BR, were housed in standard air-conditioned hospital rooms, and were under constant
138 video surveillance with 24-h medical supervision. For 10 days, participants performed daily activities lying in bed and
139 received eucalorically controlled meals three times a day. Dietary energy requirements were designed on a group mean
140 level by multiplying resting energy expenditure by a factor of 1.2 in BR period.

141 *Magnetic Resonance Imaging protocol*

142 Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) data were acquired with a 3T scanner (Magnetom Skyra, Siemens, Erlangen,
143 Germany) during the first day (BR0) and last day (BR9) of BR. Volunteers were instructed to stand still in a supine
144 position on the patient bed after at least 8 hours of bed resting, allowing the stabilization of body fluid shifts. A turbo
145 spin-echo T1-weighted data sets of both thighs were acquired in the transverse orientation. Acquisition parameters were
146 as follows: Sequence: vibe, TR/TE: 7.8/3.69 ms, flip angle: 20°, field of view: 450 x 337.5 mm, voxel size: 0.9 x 0.9 x
147 6mm, no inter-slice gap, slice thickness: 6mm, readout-bandwidth 320 Hz/pixel (278 kHz). In the acquired scans,
148 contours of the dominant limb Quadriceps Femoris muscle were digitized in randomized order using the OsiriX
149 DICOM image analysis software (Version 11; Pixmeo Sarl, RRID:SCR_013618) as previously described [31]. Within
150 the scan, quadriceps femoris cross-sectional areas contours were carried out every two axials; muscle volume was
151 derived by summing a series of truncated cones between two axial images (i.e., ~20-25 images were evaluated per scan)
152 [9].

153 *Nerve ultrasound and conduction study*

154 Participants were measured in the supine position at BR0 and BR9. Ultrasound examination was performed using a
155 linear transducer (linear probe with sampling 14 MHz, Esaote portable ultrasound, Italy) in B-mode (gain 79%, PRS
156 persistence 4, depth adjusted between 2-4 cm), keeping the participant supine in a resting position. All settings were
157 maintained identical during both examinations on the same subject. Abundant gel was used, and the transducer was
158 gently applied on the skin to reduce mechanical alterations. Conventional Nerve US is typically performed using probes
159 with a frequency varying between 7 and 20 MHz, allowing imaging at a depth of 2-6 cm but with a resolution around
160 500 μm .

161 The median nerve was assessed at the location immediately proximal to the tunnel just before the nerve dips deeply to
162 enter the carpal tunnel (2 cm proximal to the wrist), as previously described [32]. The deep peroneal nerve (DPN) was
163 identified in a short axis approximately 3–4 cm proximal to the ankle (at the lateral malleolus level). At this location,
164 the anterior tibial vessels serve as landmarks for finding the DPN [33]. Common fibular nerve (CFN) was assessed both
165 above and below fibular head [34]. Quantitative analysis was provided by measuring the cross-sectional area (CSA) of
166 the structures with the appropriate device tool. CSA (mm^2) of the whole nerve was determined using the trace function
167 to outline the nerve along the inner border of the epineurium. For each nerve location, three images were taken. The
168 same single ultrasonographer for all participants, experienced in neuromuscular ultrasound, performed all images
169 acquisition and measurements and two raters independently traced the margin of the nerve. The mean of the three

170 measures for each rater, and the mean of the two raters was selected as the final value and entered the statistical
171 analysis.

172 NCS is widely used in clinical practice and include a set of techniques to evaluate peripheral nerve (both motor and
173 sensory) functional characteristics [25], as nerve conduction velocity, and electrically stimulated responses as the F-
174 wave, which has been historically used to detect motor neuron excitability following deafferentation [35]. NCS was
175 conducted bilaterally for all subjects, at the same time of the day and in the supine position by the same device
176 (Electromyography Synergy, Synopo, Italy) and by the same experienced operator. Motor nerve conduction velocity
177 and F and H responses were recorded from thenar (upper limb), extensor brevis digitorum and flexor digitorum (lower
178 limb) using surface electrodes by stimulation of the median nerve, peroneal nerve distally (at the lateral malleolus
179 level), below the head of the fibula, and above the head of the fibula, respectively for the upper and lower limb. F-wave
180 responses were elicited by supramaximal stimulation of the median nerve once a second. Nine to ten F wave responses
181 were collected at each recording session. For each set of 9-10 stimuli we measured the mean F wave peak-to-peak
182 amplitude and the mean latency of the responses [36]. Sensory action potentials (SAP) for the II, III and IV finger of the
183 hand were recorded using surface electrodes and stimulating the median nerve at wrist, while the sural nerve at the
184 lower limb was recorded below the malleolus and stimulated at the calf. Intensity of the NCS stimulation is reported in
185 the tables next to each nerve characteristics.

186 *Quadriceps Femoris maximum isometric voluntary contraction*

187 Peak Quadriceps Femoris force of the right leg (dominant limb) was assessed during an isometric maximum voluntary
188 contraction at a 90° knee angle with hip fixed at 90° using a custom-made knee dynamometer fitted with a load cell (RS
189 206-0290). Participants were tested during the baseline data collection one day before BR (BDC1) and BR9. Prior to the
190 testing session, participants were familiarized with the ergometer and the movement, being instructed to push as strong
191 as they could. The volunteers were asked to perform three maximal contractions of 4 s duration with 60 seconds of rest
192 between each contraction. The load-cell output was connected to an acquisition system (BIOPAC MP100, Biopac INC,
193 Santa Barbara, USA), sampled at 2-kHz and analyzed using Acknowledge software (RRID:SCR_014279). The
194 contraction with the highest force value was considered as real maximum voluntary contraction.

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196 *Statistical analysis*

197 Continuous variables were tested for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test. We summarized the data as means
198 (standard deviation, SD). Data are presented and analyzed for the dominant limb (DL) and non-dominant limb (N-DL)
199 independently. Reliability measures included the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) and the standard error of

200 measurement (SEM). Comparison between neurophysiological and muscle characteristics at the BR0 and BR9 was
201 performed for all the participants with the Wilcoxon-signed rank test or with the paired-samples t-test. Effect size was
202 determined with the Hedge's *g* value (95% CI: confidence intervals). A two-way repeated measures ANOVA (limb x
203 time) was performed to assess differences between limbs, and a bivariate correlation analysis was performed using
204 Spearman's correlation coefficient between the significant neurophysiological alterations and muscle changes in the
205 DL. A significance level of $p < 0.05$ was selected.

206

207 **Results**

208 All ten young adult males initially selected and included in the BR successfully completed the entire study and were
209 included in the final analysis. BR induced significant changes in muscle characteristics, including quadriceps force (-
210 14.3 (9.8) %; $p < 0.001$, Hedge's *g* 0.646 95% CI 0.300–1.099), volume (-5.2 (4.0) %; $p = 0.003$, Hedge's *g* 0.265 95%
211 CI 0.089–0.480), and CSA (-2.4 (2.0) %, $p = 0.006$, Hedge's *g* 0.120 95% CI -0.025–0.281) (**Table 1**). Assessment of
212 reliability of the neurophysiological dependent variables showed ICC from 0.82 to 0.97. Nerve ultrasound revealed that
213 all the participants had normal values in both upper and lower limbs, and no significant changes were found after BR
214 (**Table 2**). NCS of the upper limbs suggested latency, amplitude or speed differences were not statistically significant
215 (except for the latency of the median nerve distally in the dominant limb, that was found significantly increased after
216 BR; $p = 0.018$, Hedge's *g* -0.254 95% CI -0.796–0.255), nor the F wave or the sensitive nerves (**Table 3**). In the lower
217 limbs, NCS revealed no significant effects on the peroneal nerve latency, amplitude, or speed at any level of the
218 measurement. However, significantly decreased F-wave amplitudes were found in both lower limbs in the peroneal
219 nerve (DL– 40.0 (12.5) vs 25.0 (8.0) mV; $p = 0.005$, Hedge's *g* 1.306 95% CI 0.341–2.384; N-DL– 57.0 (38.5) vs 23.0
220 (12.5) mV; $p = 0.013$, Hedge's *g* 1.086 95% CI 0.156–2.173), and tibial nerve (DL– 54.0 (20.5) vs 35.0 (10.0) mV; $p =$
221 0.037, Hedge's *g* 1.077 95% CI 0.246–2.067; N-DL– 50.0 (18.5) vs 38.0 (16.0) mV; $p = 0.005$, Hedge's *g* 0.634 95% CI
222 -0.153–1.508) (**Figure 1**). H-reflex was found altered only in the dominant limb, with a reduced latency after BR (32.7
223 (5.2) vs 30.0 (3.2) ms; $p = 0.011$, Hedge's *g* 0.571 95% CI -0.061–1.283). Sural sensitive nerve conduction showed
224 different alterations between the limbs, with a reduced speed in the dominant limb (44.1 (16.2) vs 42.0 (7.0) m/s; $p =$
225 0.035, Hedge's *g* 0.153 95% CI -0.444–0.771), while the non-dominant limb was characterized by an increased latency
226 (3.0 (1.0) vs 3.5 (0.5) ms; $p = 0.042$, Hedge's *g* -0.578 95% CI -1.174–0.065) (**Table 4**). The two-way repeated
227 measures ANOVA (limb x time) found only a significant time-effect in the above reported lower limbs outcomes, while
228 no significant effects were found in the upper limbs. No significant correlations were found between the DL F-waves

229 amplitude changes and quadriceps force (peroneal n. $p=0.173$; tibial n. $p=0.737$), volume (peroneal n. $p=0.936$; tibial
230 n. $p=0.881$) and CSA (peroneal n. $p=0.165$; tibial n. $p=0.555$).

231 **Discussion**

232 In this experimental model of short-term (10 days) BR in healthy males, characterized by changes in muscle force and
233 mass consistent with previous studies [8, 10], we found a significant decrease in amplitude of F waves from peroneal
234 and tibial nerves in lower limbs. In contrast, we observed no changes in conduction velocity (despite a surprisingly
235 increased latency of the DL distal median nerve) or morphological aspects of peripheral nerves. Taken together, this
236 data provide a deeper insight about the biomarkers of mechanical unloading that might help to explain the incongruent
237 decline in muscle mass and function, as previously done for neuromuscular junction, excitation-contraction coupling,
238 and supraspinal contributors [9, 10]. Few studies have investigated peripheral nerve adaptations to microgravity and its
239 analogues [14, 20, 37]. In the present paper, several morphological and nerve conduction characteristics were described
240 in healthy young adults during short-term BR.

241 The main finding of this study in young healthy males was a consistent decrease in the amplitude of F waves from tibial
242 posterior nerve and peroneal nerve, which was significant after 10 days of BR (**Figure 2**). F-waves are low amplitude
243 responses produced by artificial antidromic activation of motoneurons in electroneurography, and are largely used in
244 standard neurophysiological examinations by measuring different parameters, such as latency, chronodispersion and
245 amplitude [38]. Clinically, F-waves are used to investigate the focal proximal nerve dysfunction and are therefore a
246 sensitive and reliable nerve conduction outcome to evaluate polyneuropathies and lumbosacral radiculopathies. In
247 addition, F-waves can also provide a meaningful physiological window into spinal excitability with information on
248 disorders of the central nervous system. The sensitivity to dynamic changes has been classically reported, showing an
249 abnormal increase in F-wave chronodispersion in patients with spinal stenosis and neurogenic claudication after 3
250 minutes of standing [39], while 5 minutes of walking produced discernable and important increase in F wave latency
251 and chronodispersion [40–42]. The observed decrease in F-waves amplitude without changes of latency after a 10-day
252 BR was particularly intriguing, and some hypotheses might be suggested to explain this finding. Indeed, the F-wave is
253 an artificial response which is present in motor axons even in deafferented roots [35], being produced by the conduction
254 of mixed motor and afferent inputs at peripheral and spinal level. BR, which requires prolonged postural changes, might
255 induce significant adaptations to afferent inputs either in the periphery or at the spinal level as documented in
256 deafferented monkeys [35]. The Hoffmann reflex (H-reflex) is extensively used as both a research and clinical tool to
257 investigate adaptive plasticity in spinal structures [43]. After a 20-day BR, the soleus H-reflex during standing was
258 found significantly reduced after bed rest, without significant differences in motor evoked potentials (MEPs),

259 suggesting a strong inhibition of H-reflex and no adaptation of MEP in the soleus muscle [21]. Some of the potential
260 mechanisms related to the altered H-reflex responses after simulated microgravity have been investigated suggesting a
261 stretching of the spinal cord, cauda equina, nerve roots, and paraspinal tissues component [44]. In healthy individuals,
262 H-reflex amplitude was found increased after 14 and 23 days of unilateral lower limb suspension [45]. In our findings,
263 however, the H-reflex showed no significant alterations, although there was a tendency to reduced amplitude. Due to
264 the paucity of studies [14, 46], these controversial results should be viewed with caution given the different inactivity
265 models and duration.

266 In previous observations, the latency of the M response was found to be decreased after the end of 2 and 4 months of
267 head-down BR study in young healthy subjects, and the decline was found to mostly last for 10 days [23]. A more in-
268 depth analysis suggested a different time-dependent adaptation mechanism, with an initial increase in latency during the
269 first weeks of BR, which was followed by the aforementioned decrease [23]. Present findings suggest a modest latency
270 increase in the distal median nerve of the DL. Although due to the relatively small change it is not possible to give a
271 certain explanation of the mechanisms behind this observation, and further studies are needed to better discuss this
272 finding, a higher sensitivity of the dominant hand to the bed rest stimulus might be suspected, reflecting the initial
273 increase in latency previously suggested [23]. In addition, we cannot exclude presence of fluid retention during BR with
274 effect on mild nerve entrapment in sensible anatomical structures as the carpal tunnel [47, 48]. Some sensitive nerves
275 action potentials parameters have been found partially changed after BR, despite results are inconsistent and require
276 further investigations to confirm the observations. A recent study investigated somatosensory evoked potentials at
277 cortical level after a 3-day dry immersion, suggesting shortened latencies of all central responses until P30 during the
278 last day [49]. However, data are lacking about the somatosensory pathways in the peripheral nervous system [14], and
279 both pain and thermal sensitivity have been found altered after BR [50–52]. Nevertheless, in our opinion and as
280 reported in the present study, the absence of any significant changes in most conduction characteristics of motor and
281 sensory potentials in peripheral nerve, as well as morphological nerve characteristics, further underpins the effects of
282 inactivity on selective muscle sensitivity.

283 Effect of experimental immobilization-induced deafferentation on cortical and spinal excitability has been studied with
284 transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) during prolonged BR, showing a decreased leg excitability in the immediate
285 post BR period that lasted for around 2 weeks [53]. Decreased corticospinal excitability after BR has been reported also
286 in TMS studies conducted on patients with leg/ankle fractures undergoing casting, with the duration of immobilization
287 up to 60 weeks [54]. The absence of changes in conduction velocity of the main nerves of the lower limbs, the absence
288 of changes in nerves morphological characteristics, as well as the non-significant correlations between the F-waves

289 amplitude changes and quadriceps muscle force and volume, suggest more central neurophysiological mechanisms to
290 explain the unbalance between skeletal muscle mass loss and the reduction of muscle strength and power [6, 55, 56].
291 However, the reported effects on the F-waves should not be underestimated, and should be further investigated in other
292 subjects, study durations and space (analogues) to better clarify the effects of postural changes and altered sensory
293 afferences.

294

295 **Perspectives and Significance**

296 Mechanical unloading and prolonged disuse, such as during BR, induce several peripheral morphological and
297 physiological adaptations, such as skeletal muscle atrophy with consequent loss of force production [57]. It is known
298 that postural muscles (i.e. knee extensors and ankle plantar flexors) are more prone to atrophy than non-postural
299 muscles in response to disuse and unloading, due to their role in standing and locomotion [58, 59]. Additionally, the
300 duration of disuse of the lower limbs plays a key role in determining the amount of muscle atrophy, ranging from a
301 relatively low but already significant decrease in thigh muscle volume (about 3%) after short term BR (7-day) [8], to a
302 10-12% decrement after longer BR (20 days) [60]. In older subjects, disuse (i.e. bed rest) further increases the
303 detrimental effects of ageing on metabolism and muscle protein turnover [61], and may be common in frail individuals.

304 Physical inactivity or BR during hospitalization have been proposed as a primary factor contributing to functional
305 decline in hospitalized patients [62, 63]. Indeed, the decrease in muscle strength associated with the unloading condition
306 may have negative effects on gait descriptors and motor control of walking [64], leading to a decrease in walking
307 economy associated with decreased independence and fatigue [65, 66]. Since the mechanisms underlying such
308 adaptations might be complex and include a variety of integrated systems and tissues, describing the different adaptive
309 profiles is necessary to develop appropriate and specific therapies and countermeasures.

310 The application of BR studies not only applies to “space physiology” but has been consistently translated to “Earth” as a
311 model for inactivity and other adaptations that may occur in different pathological conditions. Peripheral
312 neurophysiology is extensively studied in different diseases and is often performed as a clinical diagnostic test in
313 individuals who exhibit abnormal sensory and motor functions, or in some cases in patients who are hospitalized and
314 subject to prolonged BR, as in patients in intensive care units with systemic diseases, including during COVID-19 [67].
315 Understanding the physiological adaptations of the peripheral nervous system during prolonged BR in healthy subjects
316 will help to better discriminate neurophysiological changes that occur due to a pathological condition or due to
317 immobilization *per se*.

318 **Conclusions**

319 Neurophysiological adaptations to bed rest involve several mechanisms in both the peripheral nervous system and at the
320 spinal level, with the main objective of compensating for reduced peripheral neuro-sensory inputs. Preliminary results
321 from this study show that a 10-day bed rest in young persons had no effect on peripheral nerve conduction or
322 morphology; however, the consistent decrease in F-waves amplitude suggests possible postural and reduced sensory
323 inputs of bed rest, which may also occur in individuals in clinical settings.

324

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333 None of the authors has any conflicts of interests to declare.

334

335 **Author Contributions**

336 Conceptualization: PM, ABS, GB, UM, BS, MVN, RP; Methodology: PM, ABS, MA, GB, MF, EM; Investigation:
337 PM, ABS, MF, EM; Formal Analysis: PM, ABS, MA, FGdG, GS; Software: ABS; Data Curation: PM; Writing -
338 Original Draft: PM, ABS, FGdG, UM; Writing - Review and Editing: PM, ABS, MA, GB, MF, EM, GS, BS, MVN,
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340 PM, MVN, RP. All the authors read, revised, and approved the final version of the manuscript. All the authors agreed to
341 be accountable for all aspects of the work, ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the
342 work are appropriately investigated and resolved.

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524 **Figure legends**

525 **Figure 1.** F-waves amplitude on the first (BR0) and last (BR9) day of bed rest in the dominant (DL) and non-dominant
526 (N-DL), measured on the peroneal nerve (A) and tibial nerve (B). Upper panels: reference site of the
527 measurement and stimulation. Lower panels: individual (n=10) BR0-BR9 lines with significance.

528 **Figure 2.** F-waves from the dominant limb tibial nerve on the first – BR0 (A) and last – BR9 (B) day of bed rest
529 measured in the same participant.

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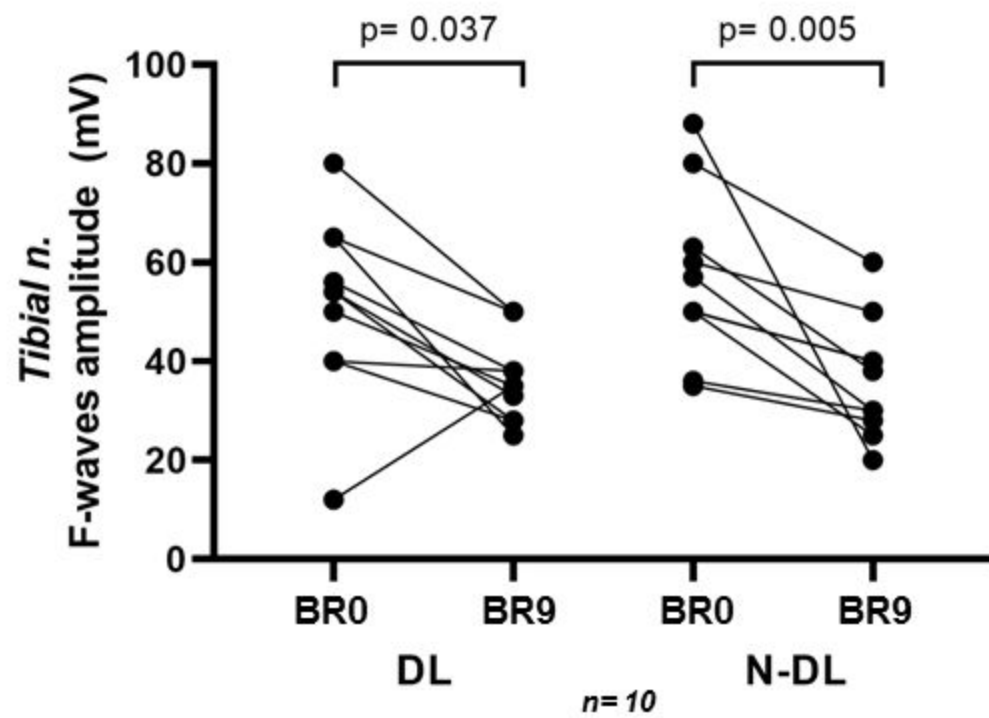
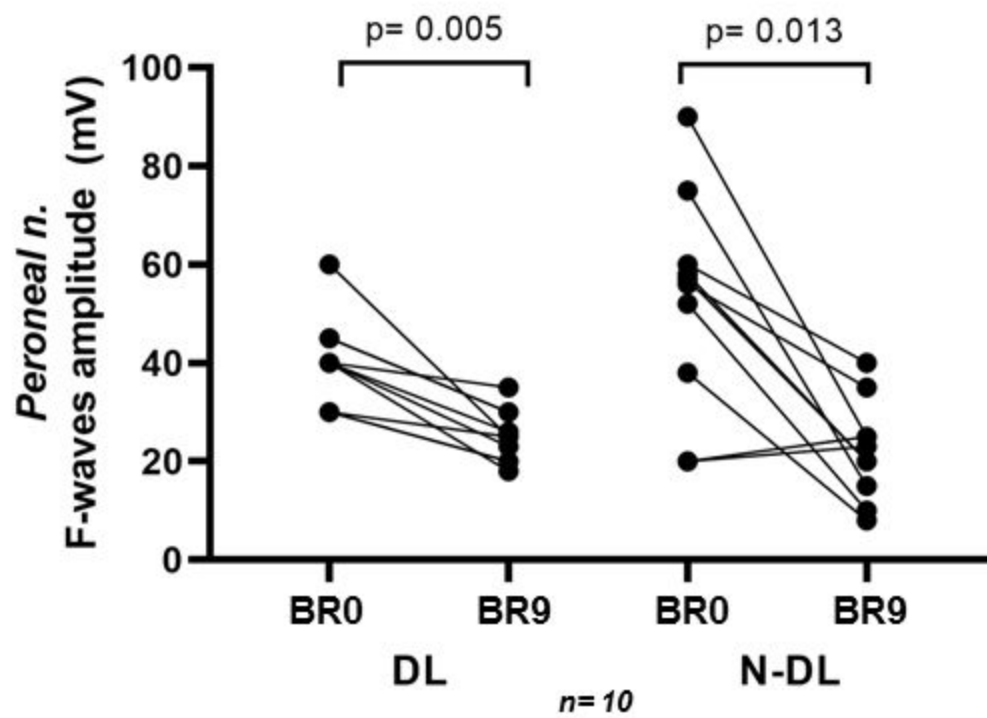
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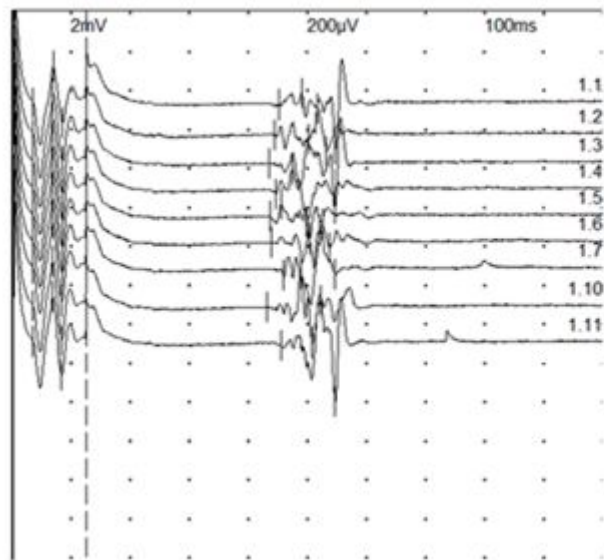
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A**B**

(a)



(b)

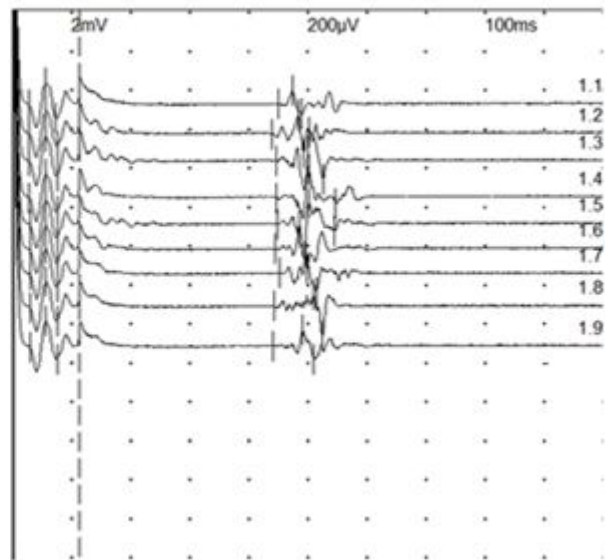


Table 1: Means (SD) of the quadriceps muscle force, volume, and CSA, at baseline data collection (BDC1) or first (BR0) and last day (BR9) of bed rest.

Muscle	DL		Sig.
	BDC1/BR0	BR9	
Force (N)	777.3 (142.9)	662.8 (179.2)	< 0.001
Volume	2326.1 (428.3)	2203.5 (401.3)	0.003
CSA	69.9 (13.2)	68.2 (12.7)	0.006

Notes: CSA: cross-sectional area. Significance value for difference between the baseline (BDC1) and last (BR9) day of bed rest (for force), or between the first (BR0) and last (BR9) day of bed rest for volume and CSA. Ten young healthy males. Paired-samples t-test for differences between BDC1 and BR9. Bold values for $p < 0.05$.

Table 2: Means (SD) of the selected nerves cross-sectional area (CSA) of the dominant (DL) and non-dominant (N-DL) limbs, at the first (BR0) and last day (BR9) of bed rest.

Selected nerves CSA (mm ²)	DL		Sig.	N-DL		Sig.
	BR0	BR9		BR0	BR9	
Median – Wrist SEM	7.9 (0.9) ± 0.88	8.2 (0.6) ± 0.98	0.434	8.2 (0.8) ± 0.91	8.0 (0.8) ± 0.97	0.343
DPN – Ankle SEM	8.8 (2.1) ± 0.94	8.4 (0.8) ± 0.92	0.508	8.9 (0.9) ± 0.93	8.2 (0.8) ± 0.99	0.885
CFN – Below SEM	9.0 (1.8) ± 1.08	9.3 (1.3) ± 1.11	0.591	9.3 (1.5) ± 1.01	9.5 (0.8) ± 1.02	0.726
CFN – Above SEM	10.5 (1.4) ± 1.02	9.8 (0.9) ± 1.00	0.191	9.9 (1.4) ± 0.99	9.7 (1.8) ± 1.06	0.705

Notes: Median nerve distally (2 cm proximal to the wrist). CSA: cross-sectional area. Deep peroneal nerve (DPN) at the ankle (lateral malleolus level), common fibular nerve (CFN) below the head of the fibula, and above the head of the fibula. Ten young healthy males. Wilcoxon-signed rank test for differences between BR0 and BR9. SEM: standard error of measurement.

Table 3: Means (SD) of the upper limbs NCS of the dominant (DL) and non-dominant (N-DL) limbs, at the first (BR0) and last day (BR9) of bed rest.

NCS	DL		Sig.	N-DL		Sig.
	BR0	BR9		BR0	BR9	
Median n. – distal						
Latency (ms)	2.8 (0.8)	3.1 (1.3)	0.018	3.4 (3.4)	2.8 (1.0)	0.400
Amplitude (mV)	3.5 (4.5)	3.3 (7.0)	0.767	6.5 (3.6)	5.4 (3.0)	0.441
Speed (m/s)	56.6 (12.1)	54.3 (12.5)	0.110	57.0 (13.3)	56.0 (10.0)	0.173
Median n. – proximal						
Latency (ms)	7.5 (1.4)	8.0 (1.4)	0.342	7.4 (1.2)	7.7 (1.4)	0.293
Amplitude (mV)	3.4 (4.7)	3.5 (7.5)	0.953	6.5 (3.5)	4.5 (3.1)	0.327
Median n. – F wave						
mA	75.5 (34.0)	75.0 (34.0)		74.0 (48.5)	74.0 (48.5)	
Lat min (ms)	30.0 (7.2)	28.0 (4.2)	0.156	27.5 (2.5)	27.5 (4.0)	1.000
Lat max (ms)	32.5 (6.1)	30 (4.7)	0.080	29.5 (1.7)	29.0 (4.2)	0.176
Amplitude (mV)	31.5 (29.2)	46.0 (39.7)	0.241	36.5 (22.0)	54.0 (32.0)	0.325
Sensitive II						
mA	26.0 (13.2)	26.0 (13.2)		21.2 (6.4)	21.2 (6.4)	
Latency (ms)	3.2 (0.7)	1.9 (1.8)	0.173	2.2 (0.7)	2.4 (1.6)	0.207
Amplitude (μV)	43.0 (21.7)	47.0 (42.7)	0.314	42.5 (44.2)	65.0 (44.2)	0.858
Sensitive III						
mA	23.5 (7.5)	23.5 (7.5)		21.2 (6.4)	21.2 (6.4)	
Latency (ms)	3.0 (0.6)	2.2 (2.2)	0.441	2.8 (1.3)	2.4 (1.6)	0.327
Amplitude (μV)	50.0 (33.0)	48.0 (20.0)	0.678	47.0 (33.7)	50.5 (39.7)	0.678
Sensitive IV						
mA	23.5 (7.5)	23.5 (7.5)		21.2 (6.4)	21.2 (6.4)	
Latency (ms)	3.2 (0.8)	2.6 (1.8)	0.678	2.5 (1.6)	2.6 (1.5)	0.575
Amplitude (μV)	23.4 (4.8)	37.0 (50.2)	0.683	26.6 (24.9)	51.0 (41.0)	0.015

Notes: Nerve conduction study (NCS). Significance value for difference between the first (BR0) and last (BR9) day of bed rest. Median nerve distally at the wrist and proximal at the elbow. Ten young healthy males. Wilcoxon-signed rank test for differences between BR0 and BR9. Bold values for $p < 0.05$.

Table 4: Means (SD) of the lower limbs NCS of the dominant (DL) and non-dominant (N-DL) limbs, at the first (BR0) and last day (BR9) of bed rest.

NCS	DL		Sig.	N-DL		Sig.
	BR0	BR9		BR0	BR9	
Peroneal n. – distal						
Latency (ms)	4.5 (1.2)	5.2 (1.8)	0.374	5.2 (1.7)	4.1 (1.1)	0.050
Amplitude (mV)	6.6 (3.0)	5.0 (3.4)	0.953	6.0 (2.8)	5.1 (2.6)	0.441
Speed (m/s)	50.0 (8.3)	50.0 (3.0)	0.674	50.7 (6.9)	51.0 (7.5)	0.086
Peroneal n. – below						
Latency (ms)	12.0 (2.1)	12.3 (2.4)	0.508	12.5 (2.0)	12.1 (2.9)	0.343
Amplitude (mV)	7.5 (3.0)	6.6 (5.3)	0.594	6.5 (3.5)	5.0 (2.8)	0.214
Speed (m/s)	52.2 (9.7)	50.0 (13.0)	0.374	50.0 (17.8)	50.0 (3.0)	0.401
Peroneal n. – above						
Latency (ms)	13.5 (2.2)	13.4 (2.1)	1.000	13.6 (1.9)	13.3 (2.1)	0.374
Amplitude (mV)	7.2 (2.8)	6.4 (5.0)	0.594	6.7 (3.9)	4.8 (2.3)	0.093
Peroneal n. – F wave						
mA	63.0 (28.5)	63.0 (28.5)		50.0 (30.5)	50.0 (30.5)	
Lat min (ms)	50.0 (3.9)	50.0 (7.0)	0.779	48.0 (3.5)	50.0 (8.0)	0.134
Lat max (ms)	53.0 (4.0)	53.0 (5.0)	0.437	52.0 (4.5)	52.0 (7.5)	0.553
Amplitude (mV)	40.0 (12.5)	25.0 (8.0)	0.005	57.0 (38.5)	23.0 (12.5)	0.013
Tibial n. – F wave						
mA	32.0 (20.5)	32.0 (20.5)		55.0 (29.0)	55.0 (29.0)	
Lat min (ms)	51.0 (3.5)	50.0 (9.5)	0.331	52.0 (4.0)	52.0 (6.0)	0.153
Lat max (ms)	54.0 (4.5)	53.0 (10.0)	0.833	55.0 (5.0)	55.0 (5.5)	0.137
Amplitude (mV)	54.0 (20.5)	35.0 (10.0)	0.037	50.0 (18.5)	38.0 (16.0)	0.005
Soleus – H reflex						
mA	25.0 (21.0)	25.0 (21.0)		15.0 (16.8)	15.0 (16.8)	
Latency (ms)	32.7 (5.2)	30.0 (3.2)	0.011	31.0 (3.0)	29.7 (2.7)	0.086
Amplitude (mV)	1.0 (2.6)	1.0 (0.9)	0.065	1.5 (3.0)	0.9 (0.7)	0.075
Sural						
mA	25.0 (15.5)	25.0 (15.5)		30.0 (17.0)	30.0 (17.0)	
Latency (ms)	3.4 (1.4)	3.5 (0.7)	0.091	3.0 (1.0)	3.5 (0.5)	0.042
Amplitude (μV)	20.0 (15.8)	20.0 (5.5)	0.175	15.0 (19.0)	20.0 (6.0)	0.173
Speed (m/s)	44.1 (16.2)	42.0 (7.0)	0.035	50.0 (14.2)	43.0 (4.5)	0.083

Notes: Nerve conduction study (NCS). Significance value for difference between the first (BR0) and last (BR9) day of bed rest. Peroneal nerve distally (at the lateral malleolus level), below the head of the fibula, and above the head of the fibula. Ten young healthy males. Wilcoxon-signed rank test for differences between BR0 and BR9. Bold values for $p < 0.05$.