

Heterogenous Treatment Effects Following Inspiratory Muscle Training during Recovery from Post-Acute COVID-19 Syndrome

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ABSTRACT

Purpose: To investigate whether heterogeneous treatment effects occur for changes in inspiratory muscle strength, perceived dyspnoea, and health-related quality of life (QoL), following eight-weeks unsupervised home-based inspiratory muscle training (IMT) in adults with post-acute COVID-19 syndrome. **Methods:** In total, 147 adults with self-reported prior COVID-19 either completed an eight-week home-based IMT intervention ($n=111$; 92 females; 48 ± 11 years; 9.3 ± 3.6 months post-acute COVID-19 infection) or acted as “usual care” wait list controls ($n=36$; 34 females; 49 ± 12 years; 9.4 ± 3.2 months post-acute COVID-19 infection). **Results:** Applying a Bayesian framework, we found clear evidence of heterogeneity of treatment response for inspiratory muscle strength: the estimated difference between standard deviations (SDs) of the IMT and control groups was 22.8 cmH₂O (75% Credible Interval (CrI): 4.7-37.7) for changes in maximal inspiratory pressure (MIP), and 86.8 pressure time-units (PTUs; 75% CrI: 55.7-116.7) for sustained MIP (SMIP). Conversely, there were minimal differences in the SDs between the IMT and the control group for changes in perceived dyspnoea and health-related QoL, providing no evidence of heterogeneous treatment effects. Higher cumulative power during the IMT intervention was related to changes in MIP ($\beta=10.9$ [95% CrI: 5.3-16.8] cmH₂O per 1SD) and SMIP ($\beta=63.7$ [32.2-95.3] PTUs per 1SD), clearly indicating an IMT dose response for changes in inspiratory muscle strength. Older age (>50 years), a longer time post-acute COVID-19 (>3 months), and greater severity of dyspnoea at baseline were also associated with smaller improvements in inspiratory muscle strength. **Conclusion:** Heterogeneous individual responses occurred following an eight-week home-based IMT programme in people with post-acute COVID-19 syndrome. Consistent with standard exercise theory, larger improvements in inspiratory muscle strength are strongly related to a greater cumulative dose of IMT.

Keywords: post-acute COVID-19 syndrome, long COVID, rehabilitation, treatment, breathlessness, breathing

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Post-acute Coronavirus Disease19 (COVID-19) syndrome (1), often referred to as long
3 COVID, is estimated to affect 1 in 10 individuals with COVID-19, which in the UK, equates
4 to ~2.3 million people as of October 6th 2022 (2). Whilst the symptoms of post-acute
5 COVID-19 syndrome are diverse and vary between individuals, breathlessness is amongst the
6 most common and debilitating (3). Given the prevalence and burden of post-acute COVID-19
7 syndrome, there is a need to develop feasible and effective rehabilitation strategies,
8 emphasised by recent evidence that prior vaccination only partially protects against
9 developing post-acute COVID-19 syndrome (4).

10 There are currently limited rehabilitation strategies available for people with post-acute
11 COVID-19 syndrome, but a recent randomised controlled trial demonstrated that inspiratory
12 muscle training (IMT) is an effective intervention to enhance recovery from COVID-19 (5).
13 IMT involves repeated inspiratory breaths performed using a resisted air-flow device and is
14 designed to challenge and elicit adaptations in the respiratory musculature (6). Following
15 eight weeks of unsupervised home-based IMT, there were mean improvements in perceived
16 dyspnoea, inspiratory muscle strength, device-measured moderate-intensity physical activity,
17 and estimated aerobic fitness (5). IMT is low cost and simple to deliver remotely, making it
18 ideal to integrate as part of a multi-component rehabilitation programme for people with post-
19 acute COVID-19 syndrome.

20 The efficacy of a treatment, including exercise interventions, is typically presented as a mean
21 change compared to a control group, yet this approach may overlook potentially important
22 individual differences in the response to the intervention, which are referred to as
23 ‘heterogenous treatment effects’ (7). Quantifying and predicting such inter-individual
24 variation is the basis of precision medicine, which aims to prescribe individually tailored

25 interventions to optimise treatment outcomes (8,9). Nevertheless, whether meaningful
26 individual variation in response to either supervised or unsupervised exercise training truly
27 exists is somewhat contentious; many previous studies have not applied statistical
28 frameworks that account for technical, biological, and random error (10,11). Specifically, to
29 be able to conclude that true individual differences in the response to the intervention exist,
30 there must be evidence of larger variation in the change scores in the intervention group
31 compared to the change scores from an appropriate time-matched control group (10). If this is
32 the case, it would be appropriate to subsequently explore moderating factors that may explain
33 the additional variation in response in the intervention group (10). Conversely, if the variation
34 of change is similar between the intervention and the control groups, then it is not possible to
35 conclude that there were any individual responses caused by the intervention *per se* (10).
36 Whilst there may still be a mean intervention effect, and large variation around the mean
37 change in the intervention group, it could only be concluded that this was caused by factors
38 present in both the intervention and control groups (i.e., technical, biological, or random
39 error; (10)).

40 Any variation in treatment effects may be more likely to be present and/or be more
41 pronounced in studies of the real-world effectiveness of interventions, particularly involving
42 home-based exercise, where the lack of supervision could result in large differences in
43 individual adherence to the prescribed intervention (i.e. intervention fidelity) (12).
44 Furthermore, the diverse presentation of post-acute COVID-19 syndrome (3,13) may lead to
45 large inter-individual treatment effects. Thus, the primary aim of this study was to investigate
46 whether heterogeneous treatment effects occur following eight weeks of unsupervised IMT in
47 adults with post-acute COVID-19 syndrome. Where heterogeneous treatment effects were
48 identified, two secondary aims were to: 1) quantify the proportion of individuals expected to
49 make an improvement following IMT; and 2) perform sub-analyses on participant

- 50 characteristics and IMT dose-related variables to explore relative treatment effect
- 51 modification.

52 **METHODS**

53 *Participants*

54 The sample for this study is from an eight-week, single-centre, two-arm randomised
55 controlled trial (RCT) which investigated the effect of home-based IMT on inspiratory
56 muscle function, self-reported health status, and physical activity levels, in adults with self-
57 reported post-acute COVID-19 syndrome (5). The mean intervention effects are presented in
58 McNarry *et al.* (5). For this secondary analysis of potential heterogeneous treatment effects,
59 of 281 participants originally randomised, we excluded all participants who did not complete
60 the study and/or had incomplete outcome data ($n=134$). This resulted in a sample of 147
61 participants who were randomised to either the IMT ($n=111$) or a “usual care” wait list
62 control ($n=36$) group (**Table 1**). All participants provided informed consent following
63 approval by the NHS Research Ethics Committees (Ref: 20/HRA/3536). The study was pre-
64 registered on the Health and Care Research Wales Research Directory (Ref: 48075) and
65 conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

66 *Outcomes*

67 Inspiratory muscle strength was measured at baseline and post-intervention using a handheld
68 inspiratory resistive flow device (PrO₂TM, PrO₂Fit Health Incorporated, RI, USA). Following
69 familiarisation with the device, participants performed full expiration to residual volume,
70 followed by a maximal sustained inspiratory effort to measure both maximal inspiratory
71 pressure (MIP) and sustained maximal inspiratory pressure (SMIP). The assessment was
72 performed at home and supervised via remote teleconference (due to lockdown) with strong
73 verbal encouragement provided. Both MIP and SMIP are important clinical markers of
74 respiratory function (14), which the PrO₂TM device measures with high reliability (15).

75 Changes in dyspnoea were assessed using the Transition Dyspnoea Index (TDI; (16)) and the
76 15-item King's Brief Interstitial Lung Disease (KBILD) Questionnaire (17). The TDI is a
77 clinically validated questionnaire, which measures changes in dyspnoea from baseline using
78 the Baseline Dyspnoea Index (BDI) in three domains (functional impairment, magnitude of
79 task, and magnitude of effort), and was completed post-intervention only. The KBILD was
80 completed at baseline and post-intervention and provides a score for overall health-related
81 quality of life from responses within three sub-categories (Psychological, Breathlessness and
82 Activities, and Chest Symptoms).

83 *IMT Intervention*

84 Participants randomised to the IMT group were prescribed an eight-week home-based IMT
85 intervention, with a frequency of three sessions per week performed on non-consecutive
86 days. IMT training was delivered using the same PrO₂TM device that was used for assessing
87 MIP and SMIP. Training in the use of the PrO₂TM device was provided to each participant
88 during a one-to-one video conferencing meeting.

89 Each IMT session lasted ~20 minutes. Participants were prescribed a maximum of six blocks
90 of six inspirations, with each breath interspersed with a short period of resting recovery
91 which progressively decreased from 40 seconds to 10 seconds within each distinct block.
92 Each inspiratory breath was performed at >80% of SMIP ascertained from a maximal
93 inspiratory effort, performed prior to each IMT session to allow for both training progression,
94 as well as potential day-to-day fluctuations in respiratory function due to the
95 relapsing/remitting nature of post-acute COVID-19 syndrome (3). Each inspiration was
96 performed for as long as possible and, during each IMT session, participants completed as
97 many inspirations as they could prior to failure, defined as not achieving 80% SMIP on three
98 consecutive breaths.

99 The PrO₂TM device synchronises wirelessly to a computer, smartphone or tablet via an
100 application (<https://apps.apple.com/us/app/pro2-fit/id1321623265>), which provided real-time
101 graphic biofeedback during each session. This also facilitated remote recording and cloud
102 storage of the characteristics of all participants' training sessions. The following
103 characteristics of the IMT training sessions were subsequently extracted: (1) total completed
104 sessions; (2) mean training frequency (sessions/week over eight weeks); (3) total breaths; (4)
105 mean number of breaths per session; (5) mean breath duration; and (6) total cumulative
106 power across the intervention. As total cumulative power across the intervention could be
107 influenced by baseline MIP and/or SMIP, this was expressed in both absolute terms and
108 relative to baseline MIP and SMIP in the analysis. The variation in IMT training
109 characteristics is shown in **Table 2**.

110 *Statistical Analysis*

111 All analyses were conducted within a Bayesian framework and are reported in accordance
112 with the CHAMP statement (18). Seven dependent variables were selected, including the
113 TDI, KBILD and its sub-categories, and MIP and SMIP. Individual change scores were
114 calculated by subtracting baseline from post-intervention values (except for the TDI where
115 the post-intervention score reflects change from baseline). Variation in change scores were
116 compared across the intervention and control group with greater standard deviations for the
117 intervention group taken as evidence of heterogeneous treatment effects. Distributional
118 models estimating mean and variance parameters were fitted for each dependent variable,
119 either including group as a predictor for the standard deviation (M_2), or not (M_1). Bayes
120 factors $\left(\frac{p(y|M_1)}{p(y|M_2)}\right)$ were calculated with the strength of evidence in favour of M_1 (no
121 heterogeneous treatment effects) or M_2 (heterogeneous treatment effects) assessed according
122 to a previously defined scale (19). The data-generating model for each variable was assessed

123 by fitting normal, skew normal, and t -distributions with the most appropriate distribution type
124 for each outcome determined using the Watanabe-Akaike information criterion. Model
125 checking and selection was performed to increase the precision of results. Differences in
126 standard deviation between the intervention and control were estimated using posterior
127 predictions and 95% credible intervals (CrIs).

128 Where strong evidence of heterogenous treatment effects was obtained (Bayes factor >10),
129 proportion of response and factors associated with relative treatment effect modification were
130 explored. Proportion of response was estimated by subtracting the mean difference between
131 groups and the difference in the standard deviations to calculate the intervention-response
132 standard deviation and calculating the proportion of the distribution exceeding zero (20).

133 Subgroups comprising binary classification of patient characteristics (time since COVID
134 [low: ≤ 3 months; high: >3 months], Body Mass Index (BMI) [low: $<25 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$; high: ≥ 25
135 $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$], age [low: <50 years; high: ≥ 50 years], baseline KBILD total score [low: <53 ; high:
136 ≥ 53], and baseline BDI [low: ≤ 6 units; high: >6 units]) were created and the difference in
137 mean treatment-effect estimated, with Bayes factors and 95% CrIs calculated to interpret
138 relative treatment-effect modification. For age, baseline KBILD and baseline BDI score, low
139 and high scores were split based on the median, whilst for BMI the standard overweight cut-
140 off of $25 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ was applied and for time since COVID a 3-month cut-off was applied based
141 on the World Health Organisation clinical case definition of long COVID (21). For IMT-
142 related variables, relative treatment effect modification was assessed by linearly regressing
143 change scores on each variable standardised by dividing by the sample standard deviation.
144 Default weakly informative Student- t prior and half- t priors with three degrees of freedom
145 were used for intercept and variance parameters (22). All analyses were performed using the
146 R wrapper package brms interfaced with Stan to perform sampling (23) and the R package

147 bridge sampling to calculate Bayes factors. Convergence of parameter estimates was obtained
148 for all models with Gelman-Rubin R -hat values below 1.1 (24).

149 **Results**

150 ***KBILD and TDI***

151 The best model fit for KBILD sub-domain and total score, and the TDI score, was obtained
152 using a normal distribution. There were minimal differences in the standard deviation scores
153 between the IMT and the control group for all KBILD sub-domains (**Figure 1**), the KBILD
154 total score (**Figure 1**), and the TDI score (**Figure 2**), and in all cases the Bayes factor was <3 ,
155 providing no evidence of individual responses to IMT (**Table 3**).

156 ***MIP and SMIP***

157 The best model fit for MIP was a *t*-distribution and for SMIP it was a normal distribution.
158 The estimated difference in standard deviations of the IMT and the control group was 22.8
159 cmH₂O (75% CrI: 4.7-37.7) for MIP, and 86.8 pressure time-units (75% CrI: 55.7-116.7) for
160 SMIP. In both cases, the Bayes factor was >100 , providing extreme evidence of individual
161 responses to IMT (**Figure 3, Table 3**). The estimated proportion of response was 0.84 (95%
162 CrI: 0.63-1.0) for MIP and 0.95 (95% CrI: 0.76-1.0) for SMIP (**Table 3**).

163 There was evidence of an IMT dose-response: a greater treatment effect for both MIP and
164 SMIP was shown with a higher number of IMT sessions (moderate evidence for both), more
165 breaths performed per session (extreme evidence for MIP, very strong evidence for SMIP), a
166 larger number of total breaths performed over the intervention (very strong evidence for
167 both), a higher mean breath duration (strong evidence for MIP, very strong evidence for
168 SMIP), a higher total cumulative power expressed absolutely or relative to baseline
169 MIP/SMIP (all extreme evidence) (**Table 4**).

170 Several participant characteristics also appeared to alter the treatment effect: the change in
171 both MIP and SMIP was greater in younger participants (extreme evidence for MIP, strong

172 evidence for SMIP), those with COVID-19 less than 3 months before baseline assessment
173 (strong evidence for both), and those who had less severe dyspnoea at baseline (extreme
174 evidence for MIP, strong evidence for SMIP; **Figure 4**). There was less evidence that
175 treatment effect was altered by baseline BMI (anecdotal evidence favouring no effect for
176 MIP, moderate evidence for an effect for SMIP) or baseline KBILD total score (moderate
177 evidence for both; **Figure 4**). Point estimates from standard Pearson correlations identified
178 limited, but likely non-zero associations between age, baseline dyspnoea (BDI score) or time
179 since COVID-19 infection and any IMT dose variable ($r < 0.3$).

180 **DISCUSSION**

181 This study investigated whether heterogeneity of treatment effects occurs following eight
182 weeks of unsupervised home-based IMT in adults recovering from COVID-19. There were
183 three key findings: 1) there were clear heterogeneous treatment effects for changes in
184 respiratory muscle strength, and consistent with standard exercise theory, larger
185 improvements were related to a greater accumulated dose of IMT (more sessions, more
186 breaths, greater cumulative power etc.); 2) improvements in respiratory muscle strength
187 following IMT were lower in participants who were older, when IMT was initiated >3
188 months following onset of COVID-19, and in participants with more severe dyspnoea at
189 baseline; and 3) for changes in perceived dyspnoea and health-related quality of life, there
190 was large between-participant variability in both the IMT and control groups, but no evidence
191 of heterogeneous IMT treatment effects.

192 This is the first investigation of heterogeneity in the *effectiveness* of an unsupervised, home-
193 based exercise or physical activity intervention using appropriate statistical methods. Whilst
194 several recent studies have been unable to detect heterogeneous treatment effects for body
195 composition, cardiorespiratory fitness and blood pressure following *supervised* exercise
196 training in adults (25–28), we found extremely strong evidence of individual responses for
197 changes in inspiratory muscle strength following unsupervised IMT. This discrepancy is
198 likely explained, at least in part, by the additional variability in intervention adherence and
199 fidelity present in our study given its remote and unsupervised delivery method. Indeed, the
200 improvements in inspiratory muscle strength were positively related to IMT characteristics,
201 including number of training sessions, number of training breaths, the duration of training
202 breaths, and total cumulative power over the intervention. Total cumulative power was the
203 strongest predictor of changes in inspiratory muscle strength: for every 1 SD increase in total

204 cumulative power over the eight-week intervention, we observed a further improvement in
205 MIP of 10.9 [95% CrI: 5.3-16.8] cm H₂O and a further improvement in SMIP of 63.7 [95%
206 CrI: 32.2-95.3] PTUs. These data provide the clearest evidence of a dose-response
207 relationship for improvements in inspiratory muscle strength following IMT. This finding can
208 inform the delivery of IMT as a rehabilitative tool for post-acute COVID-19 syndrome, but it
209 is likely that similar heterogeneity would also be observed with the delivery of home-based
210 IMT in other chronic respiratory conditions where IMT has been shown to be beneficial for
211 inspiratory muscle strength, such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (29), asthma (30)
212 or cystic fibrosis (31). There are a wide range of individual, psychosocial, and disease-
213 specific factors that influence adherence to home-based exercise (e.g., 32,33) and it will be
214 important for future research to determine the potential barriers and facilitators that influence
215 adherence to unsupervised home-based exercise in people with post-acute COVID-19
216 syndrome.

217 In comparison to previous studies of heterogeneity of exercise response, this study
218 investigated a population living with a disease of highly diverse manifestation and aetiology
219 (3,13). Our findings suggest this impacted the improvements in inspiratory muscle strength
220 following IMT. Specifically, we found that more severe dyspnoea and initiating IMT >3
221 months following COVID-19 infection, were related to smaller improvements in inspiratory
222 muscle strength. Such findings have implications for the timing of rehabilitation components,
223 suggesting that IMT should be offered early in rehabilitation programmes to maximise its
224 efficacy. Interestingly, whilst we observed a dose-response to IMT within the sample as a
225 whole, there were no notable correlations between baseline dyspnoea (BDI score), time since
226 COVID-19 infection, or age, and any IMT dose variable. This implies that the smaller
227 improvements were due to differences in the physiological response to a given dose of IMT

228 in these subpopulations, rather than systematic differences in the quantity/quality of IMT
229 exposure.

230 It is curious that we could detect evidence of meaningful heterogeneity of response for
231 physiological outcomes (respiratory muscle strength) but not for subjective outcomes
232 (perceived dyspnoea and health-related quality of life). It is, however, noteworthy that there
233 was a high level of between-participant variability for these subjective outcomes in both the
234 control and intervention group. This is perhaps unsurprising given the relapsing/remitting
235 nature of post-acute COVID-19 syndrome symptomatology (3), together with evidence that
236 subjective measures of dyspnoea can be unrelated to underlying disease severity and
237 influenced by multiple other situational factors (e.g., emotional, behavioural, environmental;
238 (34)). As such, the lack of observed heterogeneity in treatment response for these outcomes
239 may be partly explained by the typical error of measurement generally being higher for the
240 subjective, compared to the physiological, outcomes in our study. The typical error (20)
241 expressed relative to the baseline standard deviation, was 0.45 for MIP, 0.35 for SMIP, and
242 0.54, 0.44, 0.76 and 0.62 for the KBILD breathlessness, psychological, chest, and total
243 scores, respectively. Therefore, we cannot specifically rule out meaningful heterogenous
244 treatment effects for these subjective outcomes, but high measurement error will inevitably
245 mask any individual variability in the treatment group and make identification of potential
246 moderator/mediator variables challenging. It is also important to note that there was a mean
247 improvement in perceived dyspnoea (TDI score) with IMT compared to the control group
248 (5). Thus, if prescribing IMT as a rehabilitative intervention, it would be prudent to aim to
249 maximise improvements in clinically relevant physiological outcomes in the knowledge that
250 some improvement in perceived dyspnoea will also likely be exhibited.

251 **Practical Implications**

252 MIP and SMIP as markers of respiratory muscle function are recognised as important clinical
253 outcomes in people with pulmonary disease (14). IMT could be part of a therapeutic
254 programme for people with pulmonary disease (29,30), including post-acute COVID-19
255 syndrome (5), and our findings demonstrate that prescription of unsupervised home-based
256 IMT - the likely scenario for scalable real-world implementation - leads to heterogeneous
257 responses for changes in respiratory muscle strength. A high proportion of people can be
258 expected to see some change in respiratory muscle strength following IMT (~84% for MIP
259 and ~95% for SMIP), but greater improvements are observed with a larger dose of IMT.
260 Therefore, practitioners who are implementing IMT as a rehabilitation tool in people with
261 post-acute COVID-19 syndrome should encourage patients to accumulate a larger dose of
262 training to maximise improvements in inspiratory muscle strength. Our findings also provide
263 the basis for future research to determine: 1) why older age, a longer time post-acute COVID-
264 19 syndrome, and a greater severity of baseline dyspnoea, are associated with smaller
265 improvements in inspiratory muscle strength following IMT; and 2) how IMT may be
266 adapted to enhance the improvements in these subpopulations.

267 **Limitations**

268 Whilst there are numerous strengths of this study, certain limitations need to be
269 acknowledged. Firstly, we applied conventional subgroup analysis to identify potential
270 moderators of individual responses for respiratory muscle strength (7). Although this
271 approach can identify theoretical conditions under which the intervention is most/least
272 effective, there are limitations to its use to inform decision making at an individual level;
273 individuals can belong to multiple different subgroups which may yield different inferences
274 about the optimal treatment effect (7). There are also potential relationships between the
275 mean and standard deviation of change scores (35), such that some of the apparent

276 heterogenous treatment effects in inspiratory muscle strength may reflect systematic changes
277 in the intervention versus control group. Our population was also largely female and,
278 although this is reflective of a higher female prevalence of post-acute COVID-19 syndrome
279 (36), it was not possible to determine whether heterogeneity in response would be present in
280 males, or whether biological sex is a potential moderator of the heterogeneity. It should also
281 be noted that the questionnaires utilised in this study have not specifically been validated in
282 people with post-acute COVID-19 syndrome. In addition, we took the decision to focus on
283 dyspnoea and have not collected data on the range or severity of other symptoms that were
284 experienced (3). Finally, as the data was collected entirely remotely and during periods of
285 lockdown, there were limitations on the outcome measures able to be obtained. Whilst
286 changes in MIP and SMIP are key markers of pulmonary function, it will be important to
287 determine whether similar heterogeneity is present for other markers (e.g. diaphragm
288 thickness, ventilatory reserve etc.).

289 **Conclusions**

291 We have previously reported that eight weeks of unsupervised home-based IMT resulted in
292 *mean* improvements in perceived dyspnoea and inspiratory muscle strength in people with
293 post-acute COVID-19 syndrome (5). The present findings provide additional novel insight by
294 demonstrating that there is *individual variability* in the improvement in inspiratory muscle
295 strength (but not perceived dyspnoea) following IMT in people recovering from COVID-19
296 (i.e., some people get more benefit, and some people get less benefit from the IMT
297 intervention for inspiratory muscle strength). Consistent with standard exercise theory, larger
298 improvements in clinically relevant markers of inspiratory muscle strength are strongly
299 related to a greater cumulative dose of IMT over the intervention.

300

301 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

302 MAM and KAM conceived the idea for the primary RCT and were the grant holders and
303 principal investigators. MAM, KAM, ZLS, GAD, KL, JD, RB, JH were involved in the
304 design of the primary RCT. MM and JS collected the data for the primary RCT. RSM, MAM,
305 KAM and PAS conceived the idea for this manuscript. PAS provided statistical expertise and
306 performed the statistical analysis. RM wrote the initial draft of the manuscript. All authors
307 were involved in drafting versions and critically revising for important intellectual content.
308 All authors have read and approved the final version. MAM is the guarantor of the study.

309

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315

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322

323 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

324 None to declare.

325

326 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

327 The deidentified data are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

328

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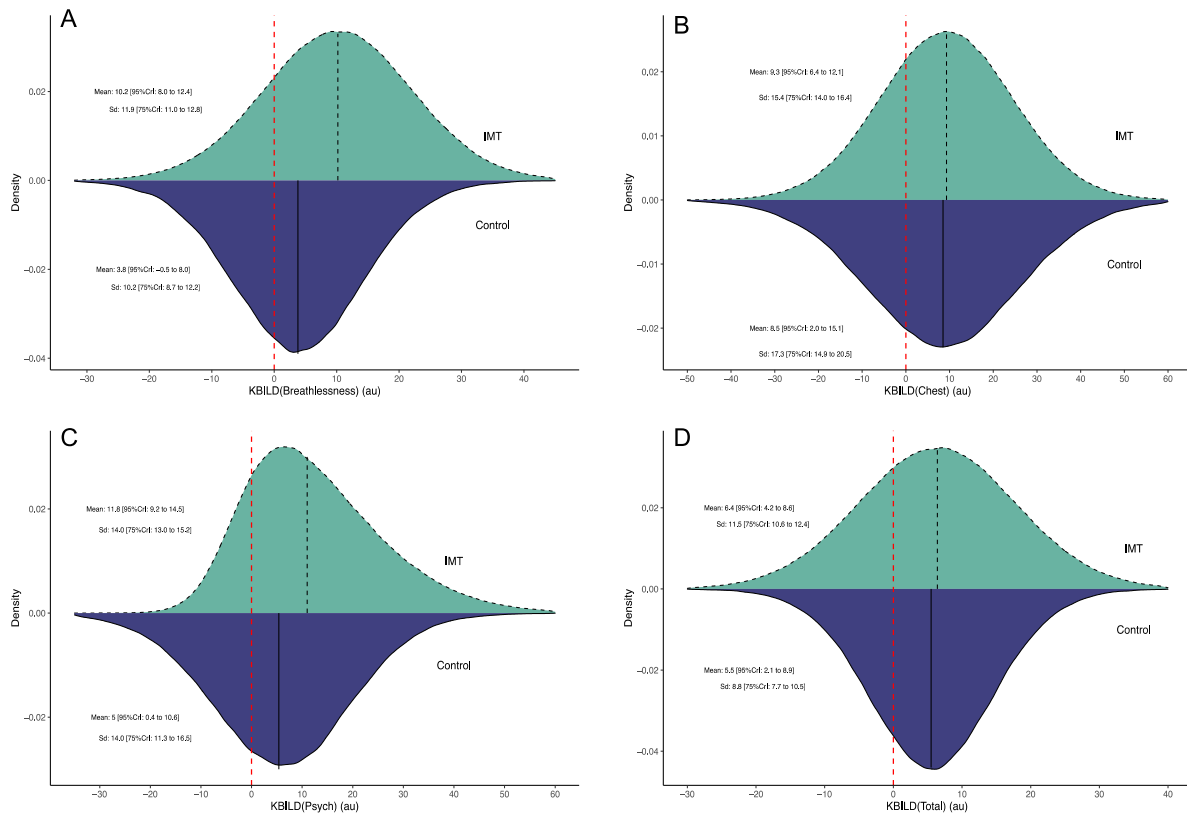
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445 **Figure 1:** Distribution of change scores in KBILD Breathlessness (A), Chest (B),

446 Psychological (C) and total (D) scores following IMT (green) and control (blue). Black vertical

447 lines represent the estimated mean changes, and the dashed red line represents zero. KBILD:

448 15-item Kings Brief Interstitial Lung Disease; CrI: Credible interval.

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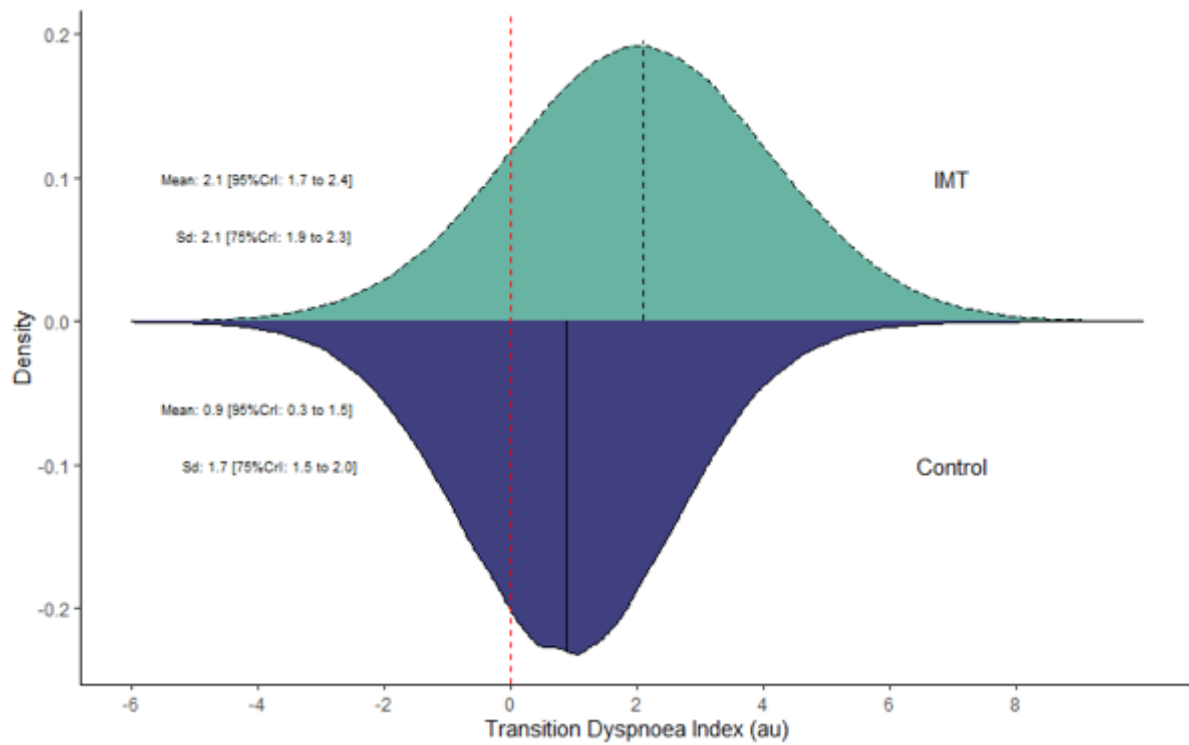
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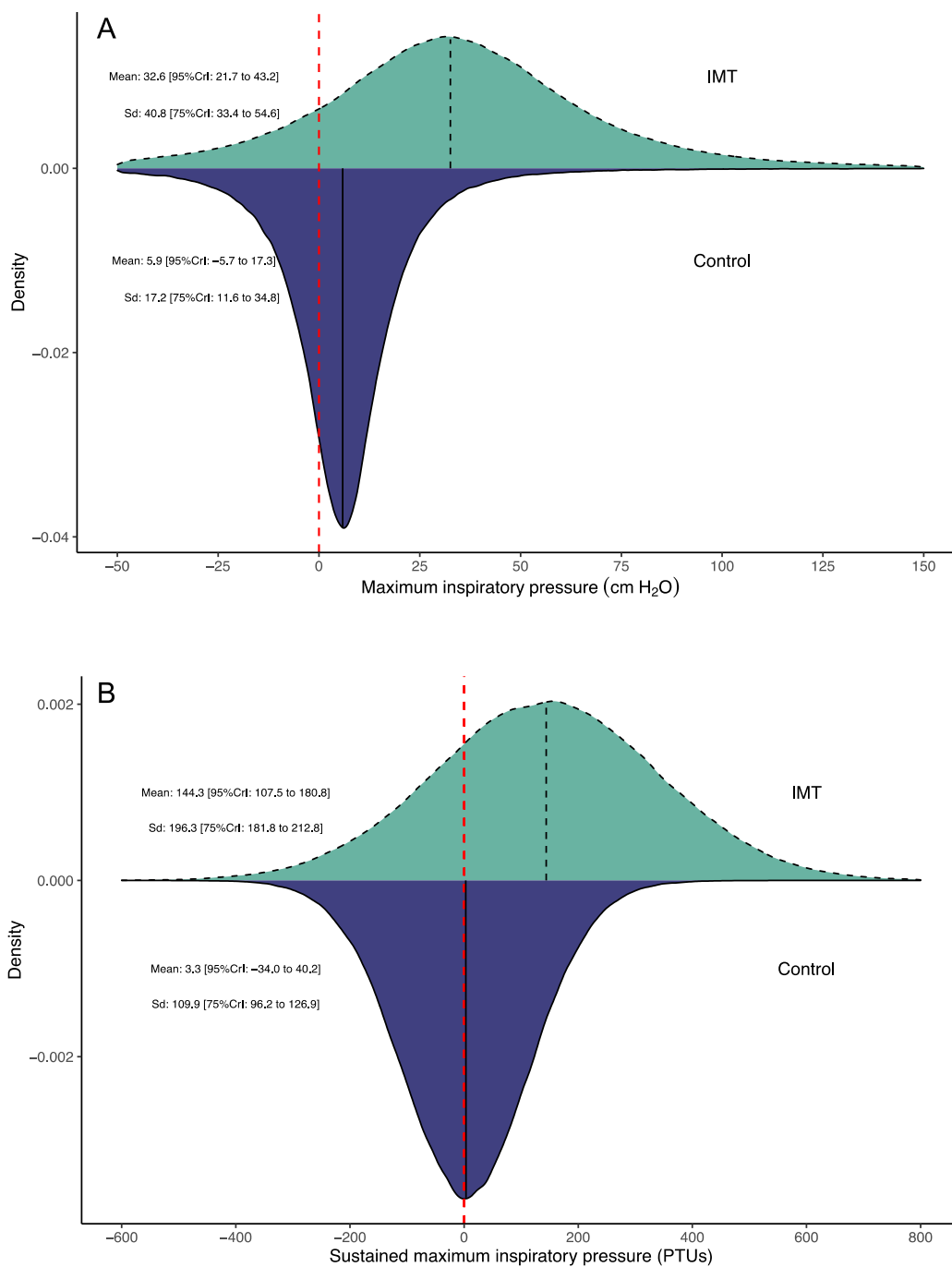
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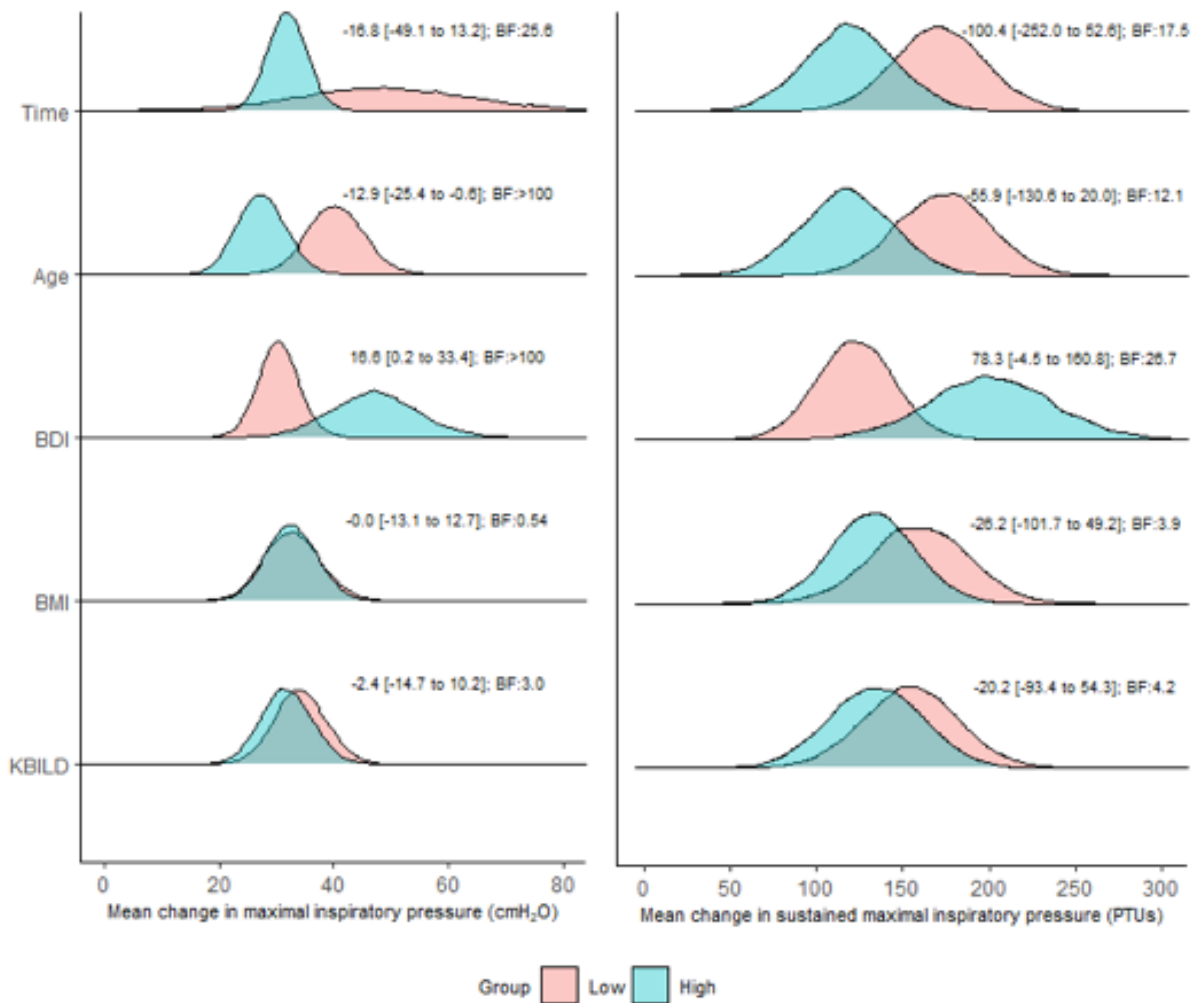
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Figure 2: Distribution of Transition Dyspnoea Index scores following IMT (green) and control (blue). Black vertical lines represent the estimated mean changes, and the dashed red line represents zero. CrI: Credible interval.



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 494 **Figure 3:** Distribution of change scores for maximal inspiratory pressure (A) and sustained
 495 maximal inspiratory pressure (B) following IMT (green) and control (blue). Black vertical lines
 496 represent the estimated mean changes, and the dashed red line represents zero. CrI: Credible
 497 interval.

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Figure 4: Density plots illustrating subgroup analyses of dichotomised participant characteristics exploring relative treatment effect modification for changes in maximal inspiratory pressure (left) and sustained maximal inspiratory pressure (right). Values and credible intervals provided estimate the difference in mean change following training between participants in the high relative to low group (positive values denote greater mean change in the high group). Time: time since COVID [low: ≤ 3 months; high: >3 months]; Age [low: <50 years; high: ≥ 50 years]; BMI: Body Mass Index [low: $<25 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$; high: $\geq 25 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$]; age [low: <50 years; high: ≥ 50 years] KBILD: 15-item Kings Brief Interstitial Lung Disease baseline total score [low: <53 ; high: ≥ 53]; BDI: Baseline Dyspnoea Index [low: ≤ 6 units; high: >6 units]); BF: Bayes factor.

522 **Table 1** Participant characteristics

	IMT (<i>n</i> =111)	Control (<i>n</i> =36)
Males / Females	19 / 92	2 / 34
Age (y)	48 (11)	49 (12)
BMI (kg•m ⁻²)	27.8 (6.9)	27.5 (6.2)
Time since COVID-19 (months)	9.3 (3.6)	9.4 (3.2)
Baseline Dyspnoea Index	5.8 (2.5)	5.4 (2.9)

523 *Data are shown as mean (SD) unless indicated otherwise.*524
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557 **Table 2:** Variation in IMT Intervention Characteristics

Training Characteristic	Prescribed	Recorded		
		Median (IQR)	Min	Max
Total Sessions (<i>n</i>)	24	20 (6)	0	44
Frequency (mean sessions•week ⁻¹)	3	2.5 (0.750)	0	5.3
Total Breaths (<i>n</i>)	864	607 (357.6)	0	1565
Mean Breaths•Session ⁻¹ (<i>n</i>)	36	33.2 (8.35)	0	37.9
Mean Breath Duration (secs)	-	11.4 (4.6)	0	22.2
Cumulative Power (PTUs)	-	222,302 (187,338)	0	602,809
Cumulative Power: Baseline MIP	-	3,152 (2,867)	0	16,047
Cumulative Power: Baseline SMIP	-	525 (483)	0	2,245

558 SD: standard deviation; PTUs: pressure time units; MIP: maximal inspiratory pressure;
 559 SMIP: sustained maximal inspiratory pressure. IQR: Interquartile Range. Cumulative Power:
 560 Baseline MIP and Cumulative Power: Baseline SMIP were calculated by dividing
 561 Cumulative Power (PTUs) by baseline MIP and SMIP respectively.

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588 **Table 3:** Assessment of heterogeneous treatment effects across dependent variables based on group change scores

Variable	Mean difference [95% CrI]	Standard deviation difference [75% CrI]	Bayes factor	Distribution	Proportion of response [95% CrI]
KBILD (Breathlessness) (au)	6.4 [-0.3 to 13.2]	1.7 [-1.3 to 4.3]	0.65	Normal distribution	NA
KBILD (Psychological) (au)	6.8 [-1.2 to 15.1]	-0.0 [-3.9 to 3.3]	0.41	Normal distribution	NA
KBILD (Chest) (au)	0.8 [-9.6 to 10.9]	-1.9 [-6.6 to 1.9]	0.54	Normal distribution	NA
KBILD (Total) (au)	0.9 [-4.9 to 6.6]	2.7 [0.2 to 4.9]	1.49	Normal distribution	NA
Transition Dyspnoea Index (au)	1.1 [0.2 to 2.1]	0.4 [-0.1 to 0.8]	0.94	Normal distribution	NA
Maximum inspiratory pressure (cm H ₂ O)	26.6 [10.5 to 42.7]	22.8 [4.7 to 37.7]	>100	T-distribution	0.84 [0.63 to 1.0]
Sustained maximum inspiratory pressure (PTUs)	141.2 [68.0 to 42.7]	86.8 [55.7 to 116.7]	>100	Normal distribution	0.95 [0.76 to 1.0]

589 Mean difference: Difference in the mean change score between IMT and control groups. Standard deviation difference: Difference in the standard
590 deviation of change scores between IMT and control groups. Bayes factors: Values greater than 1 provide evidence for difference in the standard
591 deviation of change scores between IMT and control groups. KBILD: 15-item King's Brief Interstitial Lung Disease. CrI: Credible interval. NA:
592 Not applicable due to no clear evidence of heterogenous treatment effects.

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607 **Table 4:** Assessment of relative treatment effect modification of training-related variables for changes in maximal and sustained maximal
 608 inspiratory pressure
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Variable	Maximal inspiratory pressure (MIP)		Sustained maximal inspiratory pressure (SMIP)	
	β Change Score [95%CrI:]	Bayes Factor	β Change Score [95%CrI:]	Bayes Factor
Number of sessions (<i>n</i>)	2.7 [-3.0 to 8.7]	6.5	5.6 [-28.8 to 39.0]	5.9
Total breaths (<i>n</i>)	5.3 [-0.4 to 11.3]	37.8	15.7 [-17.1 to 50.1]	43.2
Mean breaths per session (<i>n</i>)	8.3 [2.5 to 14.0]	>100	26.1 [-7.9 to 59.4]	96.9
Breath duration (s)	4.8 [-1.7 to 11.1]	25.4	25.8 [-7.4 to 60.1]	85.1
Cumulative Power (PTUs)	10.9 [5.3 to 16.8]	>100	63.7 [32.2 to 95.3]	>100
Cumulative Power: Baseline MIP	14.3 [7.9 to 21.0]	>100	57.9 [25.0 to 90.6]	>100
Cumulative Power: Baseline SMIP	9.8 [4.4 to 15.5]	>100	90.2 [61.4 to 120.0]	>100

610 Training variables were standardised such that β represents the expected increase/decrease in the dependent variable change scores for a standard
 611 deviation increase in the training variable. CrI: Credible interval; PTUs: pressure time units. Cumulative Power: Baseline MIP and Cumulative
 612 Power: Baseline SMIP were calculated by dividing Cumulative Power (PTUs) by baseline MIP and SMIP respectively.