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A review of the potential local mechanisms by which exercise improves functional outcomes in intermittent claudication.

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**Abstract:** Intermittent claudication (IC) is a common condition which is associated with significant quality of life limitation. NICE guidelines recommend a group based supervised exercise programme as the primary treatment option for claudication, based on clinical and cost effectiveness. This review aims to assess the mechanisms by which exercise improves outcomes in patients with intermittent claudication

**Methods:** Medline, Embase and PubMed were searched using the search strategy 'claudication' [AND] 'exercise' [AND] 'mechanisms'. Searches were limited from 1947 to October 2014. Only full text articles published in the English language in adults (over 18 years of age) were eligible for the review. Any trial involving a non-supervised exercise programme was excluded. Abstracts identified by the database search were interrogated for relevance and citations from the shortlisted papers were hand searched for relevant references.

**Results:** The search yielded a total of 112 studies, of which 42 were duplicates. Forty seven of the remaining 70 were deemed appropriate for inclusion in the review. Exercise is the first line treatment for intermittent claudication. Supervised exercise programs improve walking distances; endothelial and mitochondrial function, muscle strength and endurance. Furthermore, it leads to a generalised improvement in cardiovascular fitness and overall quality of life.

**Conclusion:** The mechanism by which exercise improves outcome in claudicants are complicated and multifactorial. Further research is required in this area to fully elucidate the precise and predominant mechanisms and to assess whether targeted exercise programme modification maximises mechanism efficacy and patient outcome.

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25 modification maximises mechanism efficacy and patient outcome.

## 26 **Introduction**

27 Intermittent claudication (IC), ischaemic muscle pain precipitated by exertion is the most  
28 common presenting symptom of peripheral arterial disease, affecting 5% of the population  
29 >50 years<sup>1-3</sup>. It was first described and defined by G.A Rose in 1962 with the following  
30 characteristics; (1) pain to include one or both calves, (2) provoked by hurrying or walking  
31 uphill, (3) never occur at rest, (4) must make the person stop, (5) disappear on a majority of  
32 occasions in 10 minutes or less, (6) and never disappear if walking continues<sup>4</sup>. Claudication  
33 is therefore, frequently associated with a substantial reduction in walking capacity<sup>5, 6</sup>,  
34 significant deterioration in quality of life, balance impairment, and diminished physical  
35 function and activity levels<sup>7-10</sup>. A previous meta-analysis demonstrated that claudication  
36 distance varies between patients and between research trials, with ranges from 56m to 309m  
37 prior to starting an exercise treatment<sup>11</sup>. The data regarding patient recovery time is limited  
38 however it appears that on average patients require 3 minutes rest<sup>12</sup> to alleviate pain.

39  
40 Initial treatment guidance for IC was to “go home and walk” later termed unsupervised  
41 exercise<sup>13</sup>. A Cochrane review<sup>6</sup> has demonstrated however, that unsupervised programmes  
42 have inferior outcomes in comparison to supervised programmes in terms of improvements in  
43 walking distance, claudication onset and adherence to treatment. Therefore NICE clinical  
44 guideline 147 recommends a group-based supervised exercise programme (SEP) as first line  
45 treatment for patients with IC<sup>6, 14</sup>. Consequently supervised exercise programmes for  
46 claudication have been demonstrated to improve walking distances, quality of life, physical  
47 function, balance and be cost effective<sup>15</sup>. There is however, no general consensus on what  
48 should be included in the exercise programmes resulting in significant variability between  
49 studies. There is a general consensus that exercise programmes should be supervised,  
50 comprise of intermittent walking to near maximal pain at least three times per week<sup>16</sup> for a

51 minimum of 12 weeks<sup>17</sup>. There is less agreement on the most effective intensity and modality  
52 of exercise in this scenario.

53

54 It is clear that supervised exercise improves functional outcomes in claudicants; however the  
55 underlying mechanisms precipitating this change remain unclear. There seems little evidence  
56 of major haemodynamic changes<sup>18</sup> therefore attention has shifted to the investigation of other  
57 potential mechanisms including skeletal muscle metabolism, cardiorespiratory function  
58 (resting heart rate, VO<sub>2</sub> max, anaerobic threshold and endothelial (dys)function<sup>19</sup>. This  
59 review aims to examine the known evidence supporting the various potential mechanisms by  
60 which exercise improves outcome in patients with intermittent claudication.

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**76 Methods***77 Search strategy*

78 All randomised and non-randomised trials were included of a supervised exercise regimen  
79 and a specific claudication mechanism.

*80 Inclusion criteria*

81 Trials involving patients with IC were included (diagnosed either clinically or by  
82 questionnaire). Any study involving patients who had prior endovascular intervention or  
83 undertaking an unsupervised exercise programme was excluded. Any intervention that  
84 included an exercise programme was included and the inclusion was not affected by the  
85 duration, length or time of the programme. This review will also consider any differences due  
86 to resistance versus aerobic exercise.

*87 Data extraction*

88 The main outcome measures are improvements in, blood flow, muscle strength, muscle  
89 power, muscle architecture, mitochondrial and muscular function and endothelial function.

*90 Database search*

91 Three databases; Medline, Embase, and PubMed were searched using the following search  
92 strategy: 'claudication' [AND], exercise [AND] mechanisms. Searches were limited to run  
93 from 1947 to 2014 using Ovid online in September 2014, with a second search conducted in  
94 October 2014 to ensure any new research was included. Only full text articles published in  
95 the English language in adults (over 18 years of age) were eligible for the review. Any trial  
96 involving a non-supervised exercise programme or home exercise programme was excluded  
97 <sup>20-23</sup>. Abstracts identified by the database search were interrogated for relevance by two  
98 independent reviewers. Citations from the shortlisted papers were hand searched for other  
99 relevant references.

100

101 **Results**102 *Search results*

103 The search yielded a total of 112 studies, of which 42 were duplicates. Of the remaining 70,  
104 47 were deemed appropriate for inclusion in the review. Of the specific exercise papers 40  
105 used aerobic conditioning and seven studies included some form of resistance training (see  
106 figure one)

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108 The aim of this review is to present a summary of the potential local mechanisms by which  
109 exercise is thought to improve functional outcome in patients with intermittent claudication,  
110 specifically in studies involving supervised exercise programmes only.

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126 *Neurohumoral Effect*

127 The cardiovascular response to exercise includes an elevation in heart rate and increased  
128 sympathetic activation; this is known as the exercise pressor reflex. The afferent nerve fibres  
129 (group III, and IV)<sup>24</sup> are stimulated by mechanical and metabolic stimuli from the exercising  
130 muscles, and activate the sympathetic nervous system (increases heart rate, blood pressure,  
131 myocardial contractility, and peripheral vasoconstriction). In particular the blood pressure  
132 response is significantly exaggerated in patients with PAD<sup>25</sup>, with values similar to that seen  
133 during resistance based exercise in age matched healthy controls. Systolic blood pressure was  
134 dramatically increased during exercise with some values even exceeding 300mmHg. This  
135 response has been associated with increasing disease severity as well as increased walking  
136 speed and duration of walking<sup>26</sup>. The exaggerated exercise pressor reflex and sympathetic  
137 overdrive may partially account for the excessive activation of these receptors, and thereby  
138 causing vasoconstriction and reduced blood flow, responsible for the reduction in walking  
139 distance and pain whilst walking, significantly contributing to symptoms.

140

141 *Calf blood flow*

142 It is well documented that a SEP for claudication improves walking distance, however  
143 analysis of associated lower limb hemodynamic measures produce somewhat conflicting  
144 results. Venous occlusion plethysmography and ankle-brachial pressure index are the two  
145 most common documented methods of measuring calf blood flow with the venous occlusion  
146 plethysmography appearing a more sensitive measure<sup>27</sup>. Whilst both have been found to  
147 correlate moderately with patients walking distance<sup>20, 28</sup>, improvements in walking distances  
148 with SEP are not reflected in significant improvements in either ankle-brachial pressure index  
149 or calf blood flow<sup>29</sup>. Only *two* out of the 47 reviewed papers reported a significant  
150 improvement in ankle-brachial pressure index at six<sup>16, 30</sup> and 18 weeks after a SEP,

151 additionally a review conducted by Parmenter *et al* (2010) found no improvements in lower  
152 limb hemodynamic secondary to exercise in 33 trials. This suggests that whilst that ankle-  
153 brachial pressure index may be valuable in the diagnosis of claudication, it is not responsive  
154 to change in clinical symptoms with SEP, it may however be relevant for those patients  
155 undergoing angioplasty<sup>31</sup>. There is disputed evidence regarding calf muscle oxygen  
156 saturation<sup>32</sup> some studies show no improvement following an exercise programme, whereas  
157 others report significant change<sup>33</sup>. Given that the evidence is disputed it seems unlikely that  
158 improvement in calf blood flow has a significant role to play in the mechanism by which SEP  
159 improves outcome in patients with IC.

160

### 161 *Angiogenesis*

162 Exercise is hypothesised to improve the collateral circulation and produce a “natural bypass”  
163 in claudicants. The growth factors implicated in formation of new vessels are vascular  
164 endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and fibroblast growth factors (FGF). In vitro and in-vivo  
165 studies have demonstrated VEGF and FGF to promote angiogenesis, endothelial proliferation  
166 and increase vascular permeability<sup>34</sup>. Animal models of lower limb ischaemia (by femoral  
167 artery ligation) report; a 43% improved regional blood flow with exercise<sup>35-37</sup>, an increase in  
168 the diameter of collateral blood vessels and up-regulation of VEGF<sup>38</sup>. Gene therapy to  
169 promote neovascularisation has restored blood flow in mouse models with ischaemic hind  
170 limbs<sup>39</sup>

171

172 In humans with lower limb ischaemia, exercise has not induced the same angiogenic  
173 response. Patients with PAD have reduced levels of VEGF-A, and its receptor VEGF-R1 and  
174 increased levels of anti-angiogenic factor VEGF165b<sup>40</sup>. Artificial supplementation of  
175 adenoviral vascular endothelial growth factor gene (AdVEGF121) has no effect on walking

176 ability or blood flow<sup>41</sup>. It is therefore unlikely that in humans with IC any significant  
177 angiogenesis occurs with supervised exercise.

178

179 *Haemorheology.*

180 Patients with PAD have significantly increased blood viscosity compared to controls<sup>42</sup>.  
181 Randomised controlled trials have shown a significant improvement in blood and plasma  
182 viscosity<sup>43</sup> back to that of age matched healthy controls, and red cell deformability<sup>44</sup> after a  
183 period of exercise training in patients with PAD. Pharmacological interventions to improve  
184 haemorrhology by haemodilution<sup>45</sup> or pentoxifylline<sup>46</sup> however, do not result in the same  
185 improvements in walking distance that are seen with SEP<sup>47</sup>.

186

187 *Endothelial Function*

188 Flow mediated dilation is the gold standard assessment of endothelial function<sup>48, 49</sup>. The  
189 endothelium plays a crucial role in the regulation of vascular tone and blood flow via its  
190 production of nitric oxide (NO) by endothelial NO synthase. Physiologically stress from the  
191 viscous drag of blood flow is the most important stimulus for continuous formation of NO<sup>50</sup>.  
192 Released from endothelial cells, NO is rapidly transported to the neighbouring vascular  
193 smooth muscle cells, where it induces the production of cGMP as a second messenger.  
194 CGMP in turn increases calcium ion uptake into intracellular calcium stores, thereby  
195 inducing vascular smooth muscle cells relaxation and vasodilation. On its way to the vascular  
196 smooth muscle cells NO may be prematurely degraded by reactive oxygen species. The  
197 regulation of NO synthesis occurs at different levels: ENOS gene polymorphisms are related  
198 to eNOS expression & activity, mRNA expression is influenced by oestrogen status & shear  
199 stress, and enzyme activity is regulated by phosphorylation status. Flow mediated dilatation  
200 utilises reactive hyperaemia, the change in vessel diameter in response to a period of

201 ischemia as a surrogate marker for the endothelial function<sup>51</sup>. This change in vessel diameter  
202 is a predictor of overall cardiovascular mortality<sup>48, 49</sup>. Patients with IC have an impaired flow  
203 mediated dilatation<sup>50</sup> in comparison to age matched healthy controls, which significantly  
204 improves after an exercise programme from 4.81 to 7.97 ( $p < 0.005$ )<sup>50, 52</sup>. This is potentially  
205 related to the exercise associated bouts of increased laminar flow up regulating eNOS mRNA  
206 expression and phosphorylation and antioxidant protection<sup>53</sup>. Furthermore the exercise  
207 modality appears to have an impact on the degree of flow mediated dilatation improvement  
208 with aerobic being superior to resistance training<sup>54</sup>. However, given the lack of data within  
209 this specific patient population it is difficult to draw definitive conclusions as to whether this  
210 is a significant mechanism for the symptomatic improvement with exercise in claudicants. It  
211 does appear however, to be a strong candidate for a mechanism of change.

212

### 213 *Mitochondrial and muscular function*

#### 214 *Metabolites*

215 Muscle ischemia secondary to PAD results in a higher muscle metabolic demand at rest,  
216 exercise results in an early accumulation of metabolic intermediates such as acylcarnitines in  
217 both the muscle and plasma. Human studies of muscle metabolism generally necessitate a  
218 muscle biopsy, and thus usually only contain a small number of participants due to the  
219 invasive nature of the procedure. However they have demonstrated claudicants to have a  
220 higher lactate and, acylcarnitine levels in comparison to controls<sup>2</sup>. The concentration of the  
221 metabolite acylcarnitine was also identified to be inversely proportional to maximum walking  
222 distance ( $r = -0.75$ ,  $p < 0.05$ )<sup>2</sup>. With a period of exercise training, both metabolites reduced in  
223 concentrations whilst walking distances improved<sup>27, 55</sup>. It appears that L-carnitine allows  
224 ischemic muscle to reach a higher level of energy expenditure before the pain of claudication  
225 develops<sup>56</sup>. The administration of L-carnitine to patients both orally and / or intravenously

226 demonstrates a moderate improvement in walking ability<sup>56-58</sup>. However more research is  
227 required to determine to optimal dose, duration and safety of supplementation and if it's  
228 supplementation is more beneficial than the current exercise programmes. Furthermore if  
229 exercise already lowers acylcarnitne and increases L-carnitine levels, it must be questioned  
230 whether having an additional supplementary dose is of any benefit to the PAD exercising  
231 population. However, it may be one alternative therapy to those who decline to participate in  
232 an exercise programme.

233

### 234 *Mitochondria*

235 Patients with PAD compensate for the higher metabolic demand on skeletal muscle via an  
236 increase in mitochondrial density and activity compared to healthy controls<sup>59, 60</sup>.  
237 Concurrently, the ischemia and inflammatory response, results in both morphological  
238 alterations<sup>61-63</sup> and DNA damage<sup>64</sup> to the mitochondria. One randomised control trial, which  
239 administered carbon monoxide to patients with PAD, resulted in a quicker onset of  
240 claudication, hypothesised to be secondary to impaired oxygen extraction and utilisation via  
241 the abnormal mitochondriae<sup>65</sup>. However, the effect of exercise on muscle metabolism at the  
242 cellular level remains uncertain at a higher exercising capacity<sup>2, 66</sup>. Surgical revascularisation  
243 results in a reversal of the elevated activity of the mitochondrial activity back to that of  
244 healthy controls<sup>67</sup>, providing the bypass remains patent. Hypoxia is considered to be the  
245 mechanism driving mitochondrial up-regulation and a randomised controlled trial  
246 demonstrated that administration of Pentoxifylline also improves mitochondrial function<sup>68</sup>.  
247 However, this improvement occurred without change in blood flow and therefore, is most  
248 likely due to a change in intrinsic mitochondrial oxidative activity.

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250

251 *Muscle architecture*

252 Lower limb calf muscle architecture in claudicants comprises a higher fat percentage and a  
253 lower muscle cross sectional area compared to healthy controls<sup>69, 70</sup>. There is also a reduction  
254 in the proportion of Type 1 muscle fibres<sup>69, 70</sup> which have the greatest oxidative capacity and  
255 are, therefore important in aerobic endurance. In addition the number of capillaries per  
256 muscle fibre is reduced<sup>71</sup>, apoptosis is increased<sup>72</sup>, glucose uptake is impaired<sup>73</sup> and atrophy  
257 may occur<sup>74</sup>. In murine models of ischemia, exercise training was associated with improved  
258 muscle development, with associated improvements in peak oxygen uptake compared to  
259 sedentary controls<sup>75</sup>. Additionally human studies have demonstrated an improvement in  
260 mitochondrial content post-training as a contributing factor for training-induced performance  
261 improvements<sup>76, 77</sup>. Walking distances are not significantly affected by different exercise  
262 modalities, although resistance training produced greater improvement in muscle bulk and  
263 composition compared to aerobic exercise<sup>78</sup>. This occurs via an increase in type IIa fibres,  
264 capillary density and improvement in muscular function<sup>22, 79</sup>. The change in muscle  
265 architecture is perhaps one likely mechanism for improved walking distances in patients with  
266 IC.

267

268 *Muscular Strength & Endurance*

269 The current recommendations for IC include walking to a moderate-high level of pain<sup>80</sup>,  
270 however exercise therapy guidelines vary amongst published literature. Consequently, much  
271 attention has been given to aerobic or treadmill walking in patients with IC, with few  
272 acknowledging how resistance training may be beneficial. Indeed only 15%<sup>54, 79, 81-86</sup> of all  
273 47 exercise studies in this review had some form of resistance training. Crucially, some  
274 patients are unwilling and / or unable to undertake aerobic training<sup>87</sup>. A systematic review in  
275 2014 showed that clinically relevant improvements are demonstrated with both aerobic,

276 resistance training and / or a mixture of both<sup>87</sup>. Further, there is a definitive lack of data  
277 regarding muscular strength and endurance in patients with PAD. One study showed that one  
278 repetition leg strength was significantly increased following a strength training programme,  
279 which in turn led to improvements in walking economy and walking performance<sup>86</sup>. There is  
280 also a potentially strong association between change in plantar flexor muscle strength and  
281 walking ability<sup>54, 79, 84, 88</sup>. Secondary to this resistance exercise does not promote the classic  
282 “walking to pain” and could potentially improve uptake and compliance to an exercise  
283 programme, although this is yet to be assessed, in comparison to classic treadmill and aerobic  
284 exercise<sup>89</sup>

285

#### 286 *Intra-Muscle Inflammatory Cascade*

287 Evidence suggests that inflammatory cascade induced by exercising to pain may have a  
288 detrimental effect on both the endothelium<sup>90, 91</sup> and the muscle<sup>92</sup>. Ischemia – Reperfusion  
289 Injury is a possible consequence of exercise training in IC<sup>93</sup> characterised by an inflammatory  
290 cascade and increased microvascular permeability<sup>94</sup>. The increase in pro-inflammatory  
291 cytokines is one potential mechanism for the impairment in endothelial function after  
292 exercise in PAD patients<sup>95</sup>. Ischemic reperfusion injury causes a loss of calcium homeostasis  
293 leading to unregulated calcium activated enzymes, including the calpain system. Skeletal  
294 muscle exhibits u-calpain, m-calpain and calpain-3, which are activated following exercise<sup>96</sup>.  
295 These activated calpains can cause morphological damage to the skeletal muscle<sup>96</sup> and cell  
296 death<sup>97</sup>. Murine models support the pathway between calpain-induced muscle wasting and  
297 PAD, which was more severe in the exercising training model<sup>98</sup>. This suggests that classic  
298 aerobic training may prevent the maintenance of muscular mass in claudicants.

299

300 The importance of preserving muscle mass is well documented and is important in balance<sup>74</sup>,  
301 functional daily activities and overall quality of life<sup>99</sup>. Treadmill-based exercise has been  
302 associated with an increase in calpain proteolytic activity and a relative reduction in the  
303 skeletal muscle size<sup>92</sup>. Although the study was small ( $n=35$ ) it demonstrates that treadmill  
304 based aerobic exercise may be detrimental due to the increase in catabolic muscle wasting  
305 therefore reducing the skeletal muscle mass. It is clear that the prescription of an exercise  
306 programme must be focused on achieving the relevant clinical outcomes but awareness of the  
307 potential negative physiological consequence. However, studies have demonstrated that  
308 exercise training has no detrimental effects at 12 month follow-up<sup>91</sup>. There is some evidence  
309 suggesting that resistance training maintains muscle mass whilst achieving similar clinical  
310 benefits to aerobic exercise<sup>87, 92, 100</sup>.

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**325 Conclusion**

326 This review provides a summary of the potential mechanisms which by which exercise  
327 improves outcome in claudicants, highlighting areas of uncertainty. It would seem that the  
328 traditional beliefs that exercise in claudicants promote new blood vessel formation and  
329 improved blood flow is unlikely to be a major contributory mechanisms. Current evidence  
330 supports a multifactor aetiology, with the most likely mechanisms contributing to  
331 improvement including changes in cardio-respiratory physiology, endothelial function,  
332 mitochondrial number and activity and muscle conditioning. At present further research is  
333 required if we are to fully understand and maximise these mechanisms. In addition work is  
334 required to investigate how these mechanisms vary between different patient groups (e.g.  
335 responders & non responders) and between different training regimes (aerobic versus  
336 resistance)

337

338

339 Despite the mechanism of exercise improvements remaining poorly understood, the clinical  
340 benefit to patients is clearly supported by the available evidence. A recent review and meta-  
341 analysis in randomised controlled trials<sup>101, 102</sup> have demonstrated that patients compliant with  
342 a supervised exercise programme can expect maximum walking time and distance and pain-  
343 free walking time and distance to be significantly increased with an associated significant  
344 improvement in the walking impairment questionnaire<sup>102</sup> (specifically in aerobic training). In  
345 additional aerobic (walking) training improves the physical component of the SF36 but not  
346 the mental component. Importantly the benefit from a supervised exercise programme in  
347 claudicants seems to be sustained for up to two years<sup>103</sup>.

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398 (lower extremity, renal, mesenteric, and abdominal aortic): a collaborative report from the

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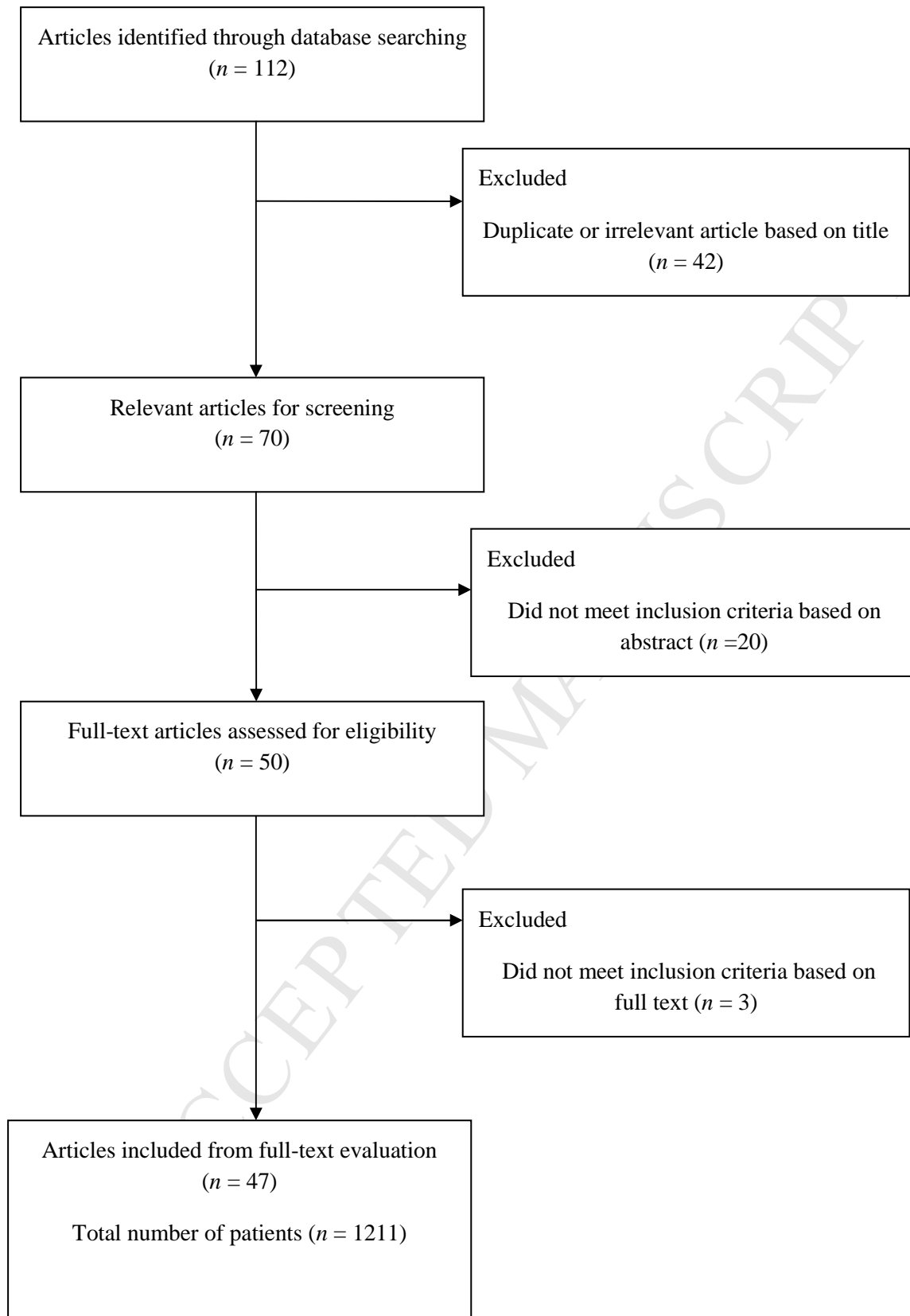


Figure one. Flow chart showing search strategy