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2	exercise of a single muscle group: a pilot investigation
3	
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5	
6	AUTHORS: Javier T. Gonzalez ^{a,b} , Martin J. Barwood ^a , Stuart Goodall ^a , Kevin Thomas ^a ,
7	Glyn Howatson ^{a,c}
8	
9	AFFILIATIONS: ^a Department of Sport, Exercise and Rehabilitation, Northumbria
10	University, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, United Kingdom; ^b Department for Health, University of
11	Bath, Bath, United Kingdom; "Water Research Group, School of Environmental Sciences and
12	Development, Northwest University, Potchefstroom 2520, South Africa.
13	
14	ADDRESS FOR CORRESPONDENCE:
15	Javier T. Gonzalez, PhD
16	
17	PRESENT ADDRESS:
18	Department for Health,
19	University of Bath,
20	Bath, BA2 7AY.
21	Email: j.t.gonzalez@bath.ac.uk
22	Phone: +44 (0)1225 385518
23	
24	Word Count: 1717

25 Abstract

26 Unaccustomed eccentric exercise using large muscle groups elicits soreness, decrements in 27 physical function and impairs markers of whole-body insulin sensitivity; although these 28 effects are attenuated with a repeated exposure. Eccentric exercise of a small muscle group 29 (elbow flexors) displays similar soreness and damage profiles in response to repeated 30 exposure. However, it is unknown whether damage to small muscle groups impacts upon 31 whole-body insulin sensitivity. This pilot investigation aimed to characterize whole-body 32 insulin sensitivity in response to repeated bouts of eccentric exercise of the elbow flexors. 33 Nine healthy males completed two bouts of eccentric exercise separated by 2 weeks. Insulin 34 resistance (updated homeostasis model of insulin resistance, HOMA2-IR) and muscle 35 damage profiles (soreness and physical function) were assessed before, and 48 h after 36 exercise. Matsuda insulin sensitivity indices (ISI_{Matsuda}) were also determined in 6 participants 37 at the same time points as HOMA2-IR. Soreness was elevated, and physical function 38 impaired, by both bouts of exercise (both P < 0.05) but to a lesser extent following bout 2 39 (time x bout interaction, P < 0.05). Eccentric exercise decreased ISI_{Matsuda} after the first but 40 not the second bout of eccentric exercise (time x bout interaction P < 0.05). Eccentric 41 exercise performed with an isolated upper limb impairs whole-body insulin sensitivity after 42 the first, but not the second, bout.

43

Keywords: glucose; glycemia; insulin resistance; metabolic control; muscle damage
repeated bout.

46

47 Abbreviations

48 GLUT-4: glucose transporter isoform 4

49 HOMA2-IR: updated homeostasis model of insulin resistance

- 50 iAUC: incremental area under the curve
- 51 ISI_{Matsuda}: Matsuda insulin sensitivity index
- 52 MVC: maximal voluntary contraction
- 53 OGTT: oral glucose tolerance test
- 54
- 55
- 56

57 Introduction

58 Insulin sensitivity indices predict the risk of developing metabolism-related diseases 59 i.e. type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular disease (The DECODE Study Group & The European 60 Diabetes Epidemiology Group, 1999; Zavaroni et al., 1989), even when only the "healthy" range of indices are considered (Ning et al., 2012). Accordingly, understanding how insulin 61 62 sensitivity responds to stimuli can give insight into metabolic disease risk in currently healthy 63 populations. Whilst regular exercise alongside lifestyle interventions can prevent metabolic 64 disease (Knowler et al., 2002), the acute effects of exercise on whole-body glucose 65 metabolism are equivocal. Following a single bout of exercise, glucose tolerance has been 66 shown to improve (Bonen, Ball-Burnett, & Russel, 1998), deteriorate, or remain stable 67 (Gonzalez, Veasey, Rumbold, & Stevenson, 2013), relative to rest. Numerous factors are 68 postulated to explain these discrepancies (including metabolic and nutritional status' of the 69 population, modality, volume and intensity of exercise), one of which is muscle damage 70 induced by exercise with an eccentric component, and associated impairment of insulin 71 sensitivity (Gonzalez, 2014).

72 Typically, the exercise paradigms employed to study muscle damage involve large muscle groups or whole-body exercise, i.e., downhill running (Cook, Myers, Kelly, & 73 74 Willems, 2014; Green et al., 2010), or eccentric exercise of knee flexors (Paschalis et al., 75 2011). These models produce acute metabolic alterations indicative of reduced insulin 76 sensitivity when measured at 48 h (Green et al., 2010; Paschalis et al., 2011) post-exercise. 77 This effect is only present when exercise is unaccustomed, and is abolished or reversed with 78 multiple bouts (Green et al., 2010; Paschalis et al., 2011). For damaging exercise of a small 79 muscle group, similar profiles of damage, recovery and protection on repeated-bouts have 80 been observed (Howatson, van Someren, & Hortobagyi, 2007), but the effect of damaging 81 exercise of a small muscle group on whole-body insulin sensitivity is unknown. If wholebody insulin sensitivity can be modified by acute exercise of small muscle groups, such as
the elbow flexors of a single limb (constituting <6% of total lean mass (Araujo et al., 2010)),
this could reveal an avenue to explore potentially beneficial adaptations with multiple bouts,
which may have implications during forced inactivity or immobilization.

Accordingly, this pilot investigation aimed to assess whole-body insulin sensitivity during an oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT), in response to two bouts of eccentric exercise of the elbow flexors, separated by 14 days. We hypothesized that damaging exercise of a single muscle group would impair whole-body insulin sensitivity after the first, but not the second bout.

91

92 Materials and methods

93 Participants

94 Six male participants completed the full protocol, whilst a further three males provided 95 fasting samples only. Thus, postprandial OGTT data are n = 6 whilst all other data are n = 996 (participant characteristics are presented in Table 1). All participants were naïve to regular 97 resistance exercise.

98

99 Study design

Participants visited the laboratory on 6 occasions; twice to complete the eccentric exercise
protocol (separated by 2 weeks), and 4 times for blood sampling in line with assessment of
physical function and soreness (muscle damage markers). Blood sampling (including OGTT)
and damage marker assessments were performed prior to, and 48 h following damaging
exercise. The eccentric exercise protocol was performed on an isokinetic dynamometer
(System 4 Pro, Biodex Medical Systems Inc. NY, USA) and comprised 8 × 5 maximal
eccentric contractions of the left elbow flexors at 30°d.s⁻¹; each set separated by 90 s rest.

107

108 Subjective soreness and physical function

Subjective soreness was determined using 200 mm visual analogue scales during full range of movement of the elbow flexors. Physical function was taken as the peak value attained during isometric maximal voluntary contractions (MVC) of the elbow flexors, each performed with 90° flexion of the elbow, separated by 120 s rest and following a standardized warm-up.

113

114 OGTT and blood sampling

115 Participants were asked to maintain a similar carbohydrate intake throughout to minimize 116 effects of diet on insulin sensitivity. Blood sampling was always performed after a 12-h fast. 117 Participants were instructed to eat their evening meal prior to trials at a standardized time, to 118 eat the same meal before all trials, and to refrain from exercise for 24 h prior to blood 119 sampling in accordance with standardization for postprandial glycemia testing guidelines 120 (Brouns et al., 2005). For those who undertook the OGTT, 75 g of glucose (82 g dextrose 121 monohydrate, corrected for moisture; Myprotein, Cheshire, UK) was dissolved in 300 ml of 122 water and ingested within 5 min. Finger-prick blood samples were taken before (0 min), and 123 15, 30, 45, 60, 90 and 120 min following ingestion, and analyzed immediately for blood 124 glucose concentration (Biosen C line, EKF Diagnostics, Magdeberg, Germany), whilst a 250 125 µL EDTA-microvette was filled with whole blood, before centrifugation (10 min at 3000 126 rpm). By revisiting glucose data obtained in duplicate from one of our previous studies 127 (Gonzalez & Stevenson, 2012), we are able to report reliability statistics, which include the 128 combined variability of sample collection and analysis. Across 196 pairs of samples (range 129 3.60-8.81 mmol/L), the standardized typical error was 0.12 mmol/L (95%CI: 0.11, 0.13 130 mmol/L) and the coefficient of variation was 1.7%. Plasma was stored at -80°C for

Τ	J	T

131 subsequent determination of insulin concentrations by commercially available ELISA (IBL

132 International GmbH, Hamburg, Germany; intra-assay coefficient of variation: 6%).

133

134 Calculations and statistics

135 Insulin sensitivity was estimated in the fasted state, using the updated homeostasis model of

136 insulin resistance (HOMA2-IR; reciprocal of insulin sensitivity (Levy, Matthews, &

137 Hermans, 1998)) and in the postprandial state (OGTT), using the Matsuda insulin sensitivity

138 index (ISI_{Matsuda} (Matsuda & DeFronzo, 1999)). Postprandial glucose and insulin

139 concentrations were converted into time-averaged incremental areas under the curve (iAUC)

as has been previously used (Gill et al., 2004). All analyses were performed using Prism v6

141 (Graphpad Software, San Diego, CA). Data were checked for normal distribution

142 (D'Agostino & Pearson omnibus normality test) and log transformed if appropriate, prior to

143 analysis. The difference in work done between bout 1 and bout 2 was assessed by a paired

samples t-test. Two-way [time (pre vs. post) x bout (bout 1 vs. bout 2)] repeated measures

145 ANOVA were used to examine differences in fasting blood variables, OGTT data, MVC and

soreness ratings. Data are presented as means \pm SEM unless stated otherwise, and statistical

147 significance was set at P < 0.05.

148

149 **Results**

Total work done during eccentric exercise was similar between bout 1 (2501 ± 205 kJ) and bout 2 (2527 ± 215 kJ; P = 0.738). Eccentric exercise elicited increases in soreness on both bouts (P = 0.003). Soreness was lower on the second bout vs. the first (P = 0.001) and

153 significantly attenuated (time \times bout interaction P = 0.001; Figure 1A). MVC decreased after

both bouts (main effect of time, P < 0.001). No significant main effect of bout was detected

155 (P = 0.218), but the reduction in MVC post-damaging exercise was attenuated on repeated 156 bouts (time × bout interaction, P = 0.019; Figure 1B).

Fasting indices of insulin sensitivity (glucose and insulin concentrations, and HOMA2-IR) were unaffected by the intervention and neither was the glucose nor insulin iAUC (Table 2 and Figure 2). ISI_{Matsuda} did not display significant main effects for time or bout (both P > 0.05) but the reduction in ISI_{Matsuda} observed after bout 1 was abolished after bout 2 (time x bout interaction, P = 0.030, Figure 1C) indicating preserved insulin sensitivity after the second bout.

163

164 **Discussion**

These data indicate that: 1) unaccustomed eccentric exercise of a single upper-body
limb reduces insulin sensitivity at the whole-body level, detectable in the postprandial state;
2) the impairment in insulin sensitivity is abolished following a second bout of damaging
eccentric exercise.

169 Previous work has demonstrated acute reductions in insulin sensitivity following 170 downhill running are absent following a second bout (Green et al., 2010), and others have 171 shown that after 8 bouts, eccentric exercise of the knee flexors increases fasting insulin 172 sensitivity indices (Paschalis et al., 2011). Here we demonstrate that a single exposure to 173 eccentric exercise of a single, small muscle group (left elbow flexors) induces an adaptive 174 response, whereby full protection from acute impairment of insulin sensitivity is observed. 175 Whether eccentric exercise of an upper limb has the capacity to positively influence insulin 176 sensitivity over a longer time-course however, warrants further investigation. If this is the 177 case, then one can envisage potential application during imposed inactivity or immobilization 178 of lower limbs.

It has been suggested that due to relatively low insulin concentrations used to
calculate HOMA2-IR (fasting vs. a clamp procedure or postprandial), this measure represents
a different balance of sensitivity (hepatic vs. peripheral) than the ISI_{Matsuda} (Matsuda &
DeFronzo, 1999; Radziuk, 2014). Accordingly, the reduction in ISI_{Matsuda} seen in the present
study, when viewed in light of the lack of change in HOMA2-IR, suggests that eccentric
exercise reduced peripheral (but not hepatic) insulin sensitivity.

185 Numerous mechanisms have been proposed to underlie muscle damage-induced reductions in insulin sensitivity. These include, a decrease in glucose transporter isoform 4 186 187 (GLUT-4) at the plasma membrane due to reduced GLUT-4 transcription and thus GLUT-4 188 protein content (Kristiansen, Jones, Handberg, Dohm, & Richter, 1997), associated with 189 reduced muscle glucose transport manifest under hyperinsulinaemia but, intriguingly, 190 elevated glucose transport when not exposed to insulin (Asp & Richter, 1996). This provides 191 another potential explanation for the detectable reductions in ISI_{Matsuda} but not in HOMA2-IR. 192 Secondly, systemic factors released by damaged muscle including cytokines such as tumor 193 necrosis factor- α may also be implicated an impaired ability of insulin to stimulate insulin 194 receptor substrate-1, phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase and Akt (protein kinase B) (Asp, 195 Daugaard, Kristiansen, Kiens, & Richter, 1996; Del Aguila et al., 2000; Krogh-Madsen, 196 Plomgaard, Moller, Mittendorfer, & Pedersen, 2006; Liao, Zhou, Ji, & Zhang, 2010). Whilst 197 our data are unable to give insight into which of these mechanisms is responsible, given the 198 relatively small muscle group used (<6% of total lean mass (Araujo et al., 2010)), the impact 199 at the systemic level is noteworthy. This indicates that, either a very small decrease in total 200 GLUT-4 content has implications for insulin sensitivity at the whole body level, and/or 201 damage to small muscle groups produces adequate release of systemic factors (ie. cytokines) 202 to impair the action of a sufficient mass of insulin sensitive tissue to influence whole-body 203 metabolism.

In conclusion, these data indicate that eccentric exercise of a single upper limb, inhibits whole-body insulin sensitivity 48 h after the first bout, and such a reduction is not apparent after a second bout.

207

Novelty statement: Eccentric exercise of large muscle groups (leg flexors of both legs, or whole-body exercise) is known to impair whole-body insulin sensitivity after an initial exposure, with protection from this effect demonstrated with subsequent bouts. This is the first study to demonstrate that eccentric exercise with a single small muscle group (elbow flexors of a single arm) impairs insulin sensitivity following the first bout, but not following a second bout.

214

Practical application statement: In developing strategies to modulate insulin sensitivity, activating large muscle groups may not necessarily be required to elicit a response at the whole-body level. Eccentric exercise using upper limbs is likely sufficient to influence whole-body insulin sensitivity and this pilot work highlights a new strategy to potentially influence metabolism.

220

221 Author contributions

All authors contributed to study design, data collection and analysis, drafting, editing andapproved the final article.

224

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227

228 Conflict of interest

229 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

230

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- hyperinsulinemia and normal glucose tolerance. *N Engl J Med*, *320*(11), 702-706. doi:
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- 313

315

316 Figure legends

- 317 Figure 1. Subjective soreness (A), maximal voluntary force production (B) and insulin
- 318 sensitivity indices (C) before and 48 h after 2 bouts of eccentric exercise using the elbow
- 319 flexors of an upper limb in males. MVC, maximum voluntary contraction force; ISI_{Matsuda},
- 320 Matsuda insulin sensitivity index (Matsuda & DeFronzo, 1999). Data expressed as means ±
- 321 SEM. *, significant main effect of time; #, significant main effect of bout; ^, significant time
- 322 x bout interaction effect (P < 0.05).

323

- 324
- 325 Figure 2. Blood glucose (A, B) and plasma insulin (C, D) concentrations during an OGTT
- 326 prior to and 48 h following, an initial (A, C) and second (B, D) bout of eccentric exercise
- 327 using the elbow flexors of an upper limb in males. Data expressed as means \pm SEM.

List of tables

Table 1. Participant characteristics.

Fasting Data ¹		OGTT Data ²		Independent t-test (P)
Mean ± SEM	Range	Mean ± SEM	Range	
21 ± 1	19 – 26	21 ± 1	19 – 26	0.749
180 ± 2	173 – 188	181 ± 2	173 – 186	0.845
76.9 ± 2.8	65 - 89.2	77.0 ± 3.1	68.7 - 86.2	0.997
23.6 ± 0.6	19.9 - 26.0	23.5 ± 0.8	19.9 - 26.0	0.923
-	Fasting Mean \pm SEM 21 ± 1 180 ± 2 76.9 ± 2.8 23.6 ± 0.6	Fasting Data ¹ Mean \pm SEM Range 21 ± 1 $19 - 26$ 180 ± 2 $173 - 188$ 76.9 ± 2.8 $65 - 89.2$ 23.6 ± 0.6 $19.9 - 26.0$	Fasting Data OGT1 Mean \pm SEM Range Mean \pm SEM 21 ± 1 $19 - 26$ 21 ± 1 180 ± 2 $173 - 188$ 181 ± 2 76.9 ± 2.8 $65 - 89.2$ 77.0 ± 3.1 23.6 ± 0.6 $19.9 - 26.0$ 23.5 ± 0.8	Fasting DataOGTT DataMean \pm SEMRangeMean \pm SEMRange 21 ± 1 $19 - 26$ 21 ± 1 $19 - 26$ 180 ± 2 $173 - 188$ 181 ± 2 $173 - 186$ 76.9 ± 2.8 $65 - 89.2$ 77.0 ± 3.1 $68.7 - 86.2$ 23.6 ± 0.6 $19.9 - 26.0$ 23.5 ± 0.8 $19.9 - 26.0$

14

Variable	Bout 1		Bor	ut 2	ANOVA
	Pre	48 h post	 Pre	48 h post	time x bout interaction (P)
Fasting glucose ¹ (mmol/L)	4.45 ± 0.13	4.46 ± 0.20	 4.46 ± 0.14	4.57 ± 0.18	0.756
Fasting insulin ¹ (pmol/L)	128 ± 36	149 ± 54	 147 ± 40	160 ± 46	0.910
HOMA2-IR ¹	2.25 ± 0.62	2.60 ± 0.92	 2.54 ± 0.65	2.75 ± 0.73	0.874
Glucose iAUC ² (mmol/L)	1.47 ± 0.23	1.29 ± 0.19	 1.91 ± 0.22	1.27 ± 0.33	0.285
Insulin iAUC ² (pmol/L)	139 ± 36	153 ± 26	 158 ± 17	144 ± 38	0.160

Table 2. Indices of insulin sensitivity in response to acute and repeated exposure to eccentric exercise.

Data expressed as means \pm SEM. ¹, n = 9; ², n = 6; HOMA2-IR, updated homeostasis model of insulin resistance (Levy et al., 1998); iAUC,

incremental time-averaged area under the curve.