

LJMU Research Online

Smiles, WJ, Conceicao, MS, Telles, GD, Chacon-Mikahil, MPT, Cavaglieri, CR, Vechin, FC, Libardi, CA, Hawley, JA and Camera, DM

Acute low-intensity cycling with blood-flow restriction has no effect on metabolic signaling in human skeletal muscle compared to traditional exercise

http://researchonline.ljmu.ac.uk/7417/

Article

Citation (please note it is advisable to refer to the publisher's version if you intend to cite from this work)

Smiles, WJ, Conceicao, MS, Telles, GD, Chacon-Mikahil, MPT, Cavaglieri, CR, Vechin, FC, Libardi, CA, Hawley, JA and Camera, DM (2017) Acute low-intensity cycling with blood-flow restriction has no effect on metabolic signaling in human skeletal muscle compared to traditional exercise.

LJMU has developed LJMU Research Online for users to access the research output of the University more effectively. Copyright © and Moral Rights for the papers on this site are retained by the individual authors and/or other copyright owners. Users may download and/or print one copy of any article(s) in LJMU Research Online to facilitate their private study or for non-commercial research. You may not engage in further distribution of the material or use it for any profit-making activities or any commercial gain.

The version presented here may differ from the published version or from the version of the record. Please see the repository URL above for details on accessing the published version and note that access may require a subscription.

For more information please contact researchonline@ljmu.ac.uk

1 Running Title: PGC-1α isoform and blood flow restriction

2

3 Attenuated PGC-1α isoforms following endurance exercise with blood flow restriction

4

- 5 Miguel S. Conceição¹; Mara P.T Chacon-Mikahil¹; Guilherme D. Telles¹; Cleiton A.
- 6 Libardi²; Edson M. M. Junior¹; Felipe C. Vechin³; André L. Andrade¹; Arthur F.
- 7 Gáspari¹; Patrícia C. Brum³; Cláudia R. Cavaglieri¹; Sara Serag⁴; Bruce M.
- 8 Spiegelman⁴; John A. Hawley^{5,6}; Donny M. Camera⁵.

9

- ¹Faculty of Physical Education, University of Campinas Campinas/Brazil; ²Laboratory
- of Neuromuscular Adaptations to Resistance Training, Department of Physical
- 12 Education, Federal University of São Carlos São Carlos/Brazil; ³School of Physical
- Education and Sport, University of São Paulo, São Paulo/Brazil; ⁴Department of Cell
- 14 Biology, Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, Harvard Medical School, Boston/USA; ⁵Mary
- 15 MacKillop Institute for Health Research, Centre for Exercise and Nutrition, Australian
- 16 Catholic University, Melbourne, Australia; ⁶Research Institute for Sport and Exercise
- 17 Sciences, Liverpool John Moores University, Liverpool, United Kingdom

- 19 Author for correspondence
- 20 Miguel S. Conceição
- 21 Faculty of Physical Education, University of Campinas
- 22 Av. Érico Veríssimo, 701, Cidade Universitária "Zeferino Vaz" Barão Geraldo,
- 23 Campinas, São Paulo, Brazil. CEP: 13083-851
- 24 Email: conceicao.miguel0106@gmail.com
- 25 Phone: + 55 19 35216625

ABSTRACT

26

27 Introduction: Exercise performed with blood flow restriction simultaneously enhances the acute responses to both myogenic and mitochondrial pathways with roles in training 28 29 adaptation. Methods: We investigated isoform-specific gene expression of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPARG) coactivator 1 and selected 30 target genes and proteins regulating skeletal muscle training adaptation. Methods: 9 31 32 healthy, untrained males participated of a randomized counter-balanced, cross-over design in which each subject completed a bout of low-intensity endurance exercise 33 performed with blood flow restriction (15 min cycling at 40% of VO_{2peak}, BFR-EE), 34 35 endurance exercise (30 min cycling at 70% of VO_{2peak}, EE) or resistance exercise (4 x 10 repetitions of leg press at 70% of 1-repetition maximum, RE), followed by one 36 biopsy (vastus lateralis) 3 hr after each boat. All exercise sessions were separate by one 37 38 week. As control a single resting muscle biopsy was obtained two weeks before the first exercise trial (rest). Results: Total PGC-1a mRNA abundance, along with all four 39 40 isoforms, increased above rest with EE only (P<0.05) being higher than BFR-EE (P<0.05). PGC-1α1, 2 and 4 were higher after EE compared to RE (P<0.05). EE also 41 increased VEGF, Hif-1α and MuRF-1 mRNA abundance above rest (P<0.05) while 42 COXIV mRNA expression increased with EE compared to BFR-EE (P<0.05). 43 Conclusion: The attenuated expression of all four PGC-1a isoforms when endurance 44 exercise is performed with blood flow restriction suggests this type of exercise provides 45 46 an insufficient stimulus to activate the signaling pathways governing mitochondrial and 47 angiogenesis responses observed with moderate- to high intensity endurance exercise.

48

- Key words: mitochondrial biogenesis; cell signalling; skeletal muscle; adaptation;
- angiogenesis; high intensity exercise

Introduction

Skeletal muscle is a highly malleable tissue that can alter its phenotype according to the contractile stimulus imposed (39). For instance, moderate-intensity (i.e., <65% of peak oxygen uptake [VO_{2peak}]) endurance exercise training enhances whole-body $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ (3, 12), increases the maximal activities of oxidative enzymes, and shifts patterns of substrate selection from carbohydrate- to fat-based fuels (18). In contrast, strenuous (80% of one repetition maximum [1-RM]) resistance exercise has little or no effects on whole-body VO_{2peak} and oxidative enzyme profiles (11) but increases myofibrillar protein accretion and muscle cross-sectional area (CSA) (27).

While resistance and endurance exercise could be considered at opposite ends of the 'adaptation continuum' by virtue of their divergent biochemical and morphological phenotypes, blood flow restriction during low-intensity endurance exercise (BFR-EE) improves both VO_{2peak}, muscle strength and CSA (1, 2). Abe and co-workers (1) reported significant increased, although quite small relative to traditional endurance and resistance exercise, isometric muscle strength, muscle CSA and VO_{2peak} following 8 weeks (24 training sessions) of low-intensity cycle exercise (15 min at 40% VO_{2peak}) performed with BFR-EE compared to same exercise undertaken without BFR. These findings suggest the local hypoxia induced by BFR induces an additive 'metabolic stressor' that perturbs cellular homeostasis (17) and concomitantly enhances both anabolic and oxidative adaptations.

The cellular mechanisms mediating adaptation responses to exercise are complex involving the cross talk of several intracellular signaling systems that ultimately form the basis for specific phenotypic responses with divergent contractile modes (17). The transcriptional co-activator Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPARG) coactivator 1 alpha (PGC-1a) is a 'master regulator' of many endurance exercise-induced adaptations by virtue of its central role in promoting mitochondrial biogenesis, angiogenesis, and inflammatory proteins (20). Transcription of the PGC-1α gene has been shown to be under the control of several promoter regions with activation of the alternative PGC-1α1 promoter resulting in the transcription of three additional isoforms: PGC- $1\alpha 2$, $-\alpha 3$ and $-\alpha 4$. Ruas and colleagues (30) recently demonstrated a preferential increase in the PGC1-α4 isoform following resistance exercise in human skeletal muscle. However, little is known about the regulation of the α2 and α3 isoforms and, to date, no studies have investigated the expression of all four PGC-1α isoforms to diverse contractile stimuli such as resistance and endurance exercise in humans. Accordingly, the aim of the present study was to compare the acute molecular responses mediated by the different PGC-1α isoforms following low intensity endurance exercise (BFR-EE), resistance exercise (RE) and moderate endurance exercise (EE). As BFR-EE can promote both endurance capacity and muscle hypertrophy responses, we hypothesised EE and RE would selectively increase the expression of the PGC-1 α 1 and α 4 isoforms, respectively. In contrast, we hypothesized that BFR-EE would upregulate a molecular signature involving the increase of both isoforms and their respective anabolic and mitochondrial gene targets.

97

98

96

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

METHODS

99 Subjects

Nine untrained, healthy male subjects [age 22.4 ± 3.0 yr, body mass (BM) 73.5 ± 9.7 kg, height 1.79 ± 0.05 m, maximal oxygen uptake test (VO_{2peak}) 36.8 ± 4.8 mLlkg⁻¹·min⁻¹, leg press one repetition maximum (1-RM) 266 ± 66 kg; values are mean \pm SD] voluntarily participated in this study. The experimental procedures and possible risks associated with the study were explained to all subjects, who provided written informed consent before participation. The study was approved by the local University's Ethics Committee and conducted in conformity with the policy statement regarding the use of human subjects according to the latest revision of the Declaration of Helsinki.

Experimental Design

The study employed a randomized counter-balanced, cross-over design in which each subject completed a bout of either resistance exercise (RE), endurance cycling exercise (EE) or low-intensity cycling exercise combined with blood flow restriction (BFR-EE). Two weeks prior to the first exercise session, a resting muscle biopsy was obtained before participants underwent VO_{2peak} and one-repetition maximum (1-RM) testing, and exercise familiarization. Exercise trials were separated by a one-week recovery period during which time subjects maintained their habitual diet and physical activity patterns.

Preliminary Testing

VO_{2peak}. Participants performed a maximum graded exercise test on a cycle ergometer with electromagnetic braking (Quinton modelo: Corival 400, Lode BV, Groningen, Netherlands). After resting on the bike for 5 min, participants commenced the incremental test protocol. Briefly, subjects commenced cycling at an initial load of 50 W for 1 min and the workload was increased by 15 W/min until a workload of 200

W was reached, after which further increases were 10 W/min increments. The test continued until voluntary exhaustion, defined by two of the three following criteria: VO_{2peak} plateau (< 2.1 mL.kg⁻¹.min⁻¹ of variation), > 1.10 respiratory exchange ratio, and/or heart rate higher than 90% of maximum estimated from age (19). Gas exchange data were collected continuously using an automated breath-by-breath metabolic system (CPX, Medical Graphics, St. Paul, Minnesota, USA) and the highest oxygen consumption value was defined as the peak oxygen consumption (VO_{2peak}) over any 30 sec period.

Maximal Strength

The one-repetition maximum (1-RM) test was performed on a leg press machine (45° leg press, G3-PL70; Matrix, São Paulo, Brazil) as previously described (8). Briefly, participants performed a 5 min warm-up on a cycle ergometer riding at 25 W. Participants then undertook 1 x 10 repetitions at 50% of their estimated 1-RM, followed by 1 x 3 repetitions at 70% of the estimated 1-RM with 1-min rest between sets. Participants then performed a series of single repetitions until the maximum load (1-RM) lifted was established with fully eccentric-concentric movement with 90° range of motion. Repetitions were separated by a 3-min recovery and were used to establish the maximum load/weight that could be moved through the full range of motion once, but not a second time.

Diet/Exercise Control

Before each experimental trial (described subsequently), subjects were instructed to refrain from exercise training and vigorous physical activity, and alcohol and caffeine consumption for a minimum of 48 h. Subjects were provided with standardized

prepacked meals that consisted of 3 g carbohydrate/kg body mass (BM), 0.5 g protein/kg BM, and 0.3 g fat/kg body mass consumed as the final caloric intake the evening before reporting for an experimental trial.

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

150

151

152

Experimental Testing Sessions

On the morning of an experimental trial, subjects reported to the laboratory after a ~10h overnight fast. After resting in the supine position for ~15 min and under local anaesthesia (2–3 mL of 1% Xylocaine), a resting biopsy was obtained from the vastus lateralis using a 5-mm Bergstrom needle modified with suction (7). Approximately 100 mg of muscle was removed, dissected free from blood and connective tissue and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen before being stored at -80° C until subsequent analyses. Due to ethical constraints regarding the total number of muscle biopsies allowed, this single resting biopsy was used as a basal control for all subsequent exercise trials. Two weeks later participants returned to the laboratory having (after the same pre-trial diet and exercise control) to undertake the first of three randomly assigned exercise sessions (described below). Each exercise trial was separated by a one week wash out. Following the completion of each exercise session, subjects rested for 180 min after which time a muscle biopsy was obtained. Subsequent incisions were performed 3 cm proximal to each other. Blood samples were collected before each exercise session and immediately, 1, 2 hr and 3 hr post exercise. Blood samples were immediately placed in microtubes containing 1% sodium fluoride and then centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 5 min to separate the plasma before being aliquoted and frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

172

173

Resistance Exercise (RE)

After a standardized warm-up on a cycle ergometer consisting of 5 min light cycling at 25 W, subjects performed 4 sets of 10 repetitions leg press exercise (45° leg press machine; G3-PL70; Matrix) at 70% of 1-RM. Each set was separated by a 1 min recovery period during which time subjects remained seated on the leg press machine. Complete concentric/eccentric movements were performed with 90° of range of motion and strong verbal encouragement was provided during each set.

Endurance Exercise (EE)

Following a standardized warm up (described previously), subjects performed 30 min of continuous cycling at a power output that elicited ~at 70% of individual VO_{2peak}. Subjects were fan-cooled and provided visual feedback for pedal frequency, power output, and elapsed time were provided to subjects.

Low Intensity Blood Flow Restriction (BFR-EE)

Subjects performed 15 min continuous cycling with a cuff strapped over the thigh at a power output that elicited at 40% of VO_{2peak}, as previously reported (1). An 18-cm wide cuff was placed on the proximal portion of the thigh (inguinal fold region) over the tibial artery (38) and once in position, was inflated until an absence of auditory blood pulse detected through auscultation with a vascular Doppler probe (DV-600; Marted, São Paulo, Brazil). Pressure was then slowly released until the first arterial pulse was detected which was considered the systolic pressure at the tibial artery. Cuff pressure was set at 80% of the maximum tibial arterial pressure and the cuff was inflated through-out the entire exercise session.

Analytical Procedures

Blood Lactate

Plasma lactate concentration was measured on a spectrophotometer (ELx800, Biotek, Winooski, USA) using a commercial kit (Biotecnica, Varginha, Brazil) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

RNA Extraction and Quantification

Approximately 20 mg of skeletal muscle was homogenized in TRIzol with chloroform added to form an aqueous RNA phase. This RNA phase was then precipitated by mixing with ice-cold isopropanol alcohol and the resulting pellet was washed and re-suspended in 40 μ l of RNase-free water. Extracted RNA was quantified using a NanoDrop 1000 spectrophotometer (Nanodrop Technologies, Wilmington, USA) by measuring absorbance at 260 nm and 280 nm.

Reverse Transcription

First-strand complementary DNA (cDNA) synthesis was performed using commercially available TaqMan Reverse Transcription Reagents (Invitrogen, Melbourne, Australia) in a final reaction volume of 20 μL. All RNA and negative control samples were reverse transcribed to cDNA in a single run from the same reverse transcription master mix. Serial dilutions of a template human skeletal muscle RNA (AMBION; Cat No AM7982) was included to ensure efficiency of reverse transcription and for calculation of a standard curve for real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR).

Real-Time PCR

Quantification (in duplicate) of mRNA was performed using a CFX96 TouchTM 223 Real-Time PCR Detection System (Bio Rad, California, USA). Tagman-FAM-labelled 224 primer/probes for MuRF-1 (Cat No. Hs00822397_m1), COXIV (Cat 225 226 Hs00971639_m1), IL-6 (Cat No. Hs00985639 m1), PGC-1α (Cat No. Hs01016719_m1), HIF-1α (Cat No. Hs00153153 m1), Myostatin (Hs00976237 m1), 227 IGF-1 (Hs01547656 m1) and VEGF (Cat No. Hs00900055 m1) were used in a final 228 reaction volume of 20 µL. PCR treatments were 2 min at 50 °C for UNG activation, 10 229 230 min at 95 °C then 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s and 60 °C for 60s. Glyceraldehyde-3phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) (Cat No Hs02758991_g1) was used as a 231 housekeeping gene and was stably expressed between exercise interventions (data not 232 shown). The relative amounts of mRNAs were calculated using the relative 233 quantification ($\Delta\Delta$ CT) method (22). 234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

Quantification of PGC-1α isoforms

RNA was extracted from a separate piece of snap frozen muscle (~20 mg) using TRIzol (Invitrogen) and purified using QIAGEN RNeasy mini-columns. Reverse transcription was performed using a High Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription kit (Applied Biosystems). Real-Time Quantitative PCR was carried out in a SYBR Green ER PCR Master Mix (Invitrogen)/ 384-well format using an ABI PRISM 7900HT (Applied Biosystems). Relative mRNA levels were calculated using the comparative CT method and normalized to cyclophilin mRNA. Primer sequences are as follows: Cyclophilin (forward: GGAGATGGCACAGGAGGAA; reverse: GCCCGTAGTGC TTCAGTTT), PGC1α1 (forward: ATG GAG TGA CAT CGA GTG TGC T; reverse: GAG TCC ACC CAG AAA GCT GT), PGC1α2 (forward: AGT CCA CCC AGA AAG CTG TCT; reverse: ATG AAT GAC ACA CAT GTT GGG), PGC1α3 (forward: CTG CAC CTA

GGA GGC TTT ATG C; reverse: CAA TCC ACC CAG AAA GCT GTC T), and
PGC1α4 (forward: TCA CAC CAA ACC CAC AGA GA; reverse: CTG GAA GAT
ATG GCA CAT).

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

Western Blots

Approximately 30 mg of muscle was homogenized in buffer containing 50 mM Tris·HCl pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA, 10% glycerol, 1% Triton X-100, 50 mM NaF, 5 mM sodium pyrophosphate, 1 mM DTT, 10% µg/ml trypsin inhibitor, 2 µg/ml aprotinin, 1mM benzamidine, and 1 mM PMSF. After determination of protein concentration (Pierce, Rockford, IL), lysate was resuspended in Laemmli sample buffer. Lysate was then re-suspended in Laemmli sample buffer with 40 µg of protein loaded onto 4–20% Mini-PROTEAN TGX Stain-Free™ Gels (Bio Rad, California, USA). Post electrophoresis gels were activated according to the manufacturer's details (Chemidoc, Bio-Rad, Gladesville, Australia) and then transferred to polyvinylidine fluoride (PVDF) membranes. After transfer, a Stain-Free image of the PVDF membranes for total protein normalization was obtained before membranes were rinsed briefly in distilled water and blocked with 5% non-fat milk, washed with 10 mM of Tris-HCl, 100 mM of NaCl, and 0.02% Tween 20, and incubated with primary antibody (1:1000) overnight at 4 °C. Membranes were incubated with secondary antibody (1:2,000), and proteins were detected via chemiluminescence (Amersham Biosciences, Buckinghamshire, UK; Pierce Biotechnology, Rockford, IL) and quantified by densitometry. All sample time points for each subject were run on the same gel. Polyclonal anti-phospho-mTOR^{Ser2448} (no. 2971), -p70 $S6K^{Thr389}$ (no. 9206), - adenosine monophosphate kinase $(AMPK)^{Thr172}$ (no. 2531), eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E-binding protein 1 (4E-BP1) 4E-BP1^{Thr37/46} (no. 9459), eEF2 eukaryotic translation elongation factor 2 (eEF2) eEF2^{Thr56}

(no. 2331) and p53^{Ser15} (no. 9284) were purchased from Cell Signaling Technology (Danvers, MA, USA). Volume density of each target protein band was normalized to the total protein loaded into each lane using stain-free technology (15) with data expressed in arbitrary units.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SAS version 9.3 for Windows (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). Data normality and variance equality were assessed through the Shapiro-Wilk and Levene tests. One-way ANOVA with repeated measures (factor: condition) was performed for gene and protein expression analyses. A mixed model ANOVA, assuming group and time as fixed factors and subjects as a random factor, was performed for blood lactate data. Tukey post hoc analysis was used for multiple comparison purposes when significant F-values were found. The significance level was set at $P \le 0.05$. Data are presented as Mean \pm Standard Deviation (SD).

Results

mRNA expression

Total PGC1-α and isoforms

Total PGC-1 α mRNA (Figure 1A) increased with EE above rest (P<0.0001), RE (P=0.0013) and BFR-EE (P>0.0001). There was a significant increase in PGC-1 α 1 mRNA with EE above rest (P=0.0450), RE (P=0.0069) and BFR-EE (P=0.0349) (Figure 1B). There was also a significant increase in PGC-1 α 2 mRNA (Figure 1C) with EE above rest (P<0.0001), RE (P=0.0003) and BFR-EE (P<0.0001). PGC-1 α 3 mRNA (Figure 1D) increased with EE above rest (P=0.0389). There was also increases PGC-1 α 4 mRNA (Figure 1E) with EE above rest (P=0.0035), RE (P=0.0469) and BFR-EE

298	(P=0.0140).
299	
300	**Figure 1 here**
301	
302	VEGF, COXIV, HIF-1a
303	There was a significant increase in VEGF mRNA (Figure 2A) with EE above
304	rest (P=0.0180) and RE (P=0.0069). COXIV mRNA expression increased with EE
305	above BFR-EE (P=0.0550) (Figure 2B). There was a significant increase in HIF-1a
306	abundance with EE above Rest (P= 0.0530) (Figure 2C).
307	
308	**Figure 2 here**
309	
310	IL-6 – IGF-1 - Myostatin - MurRF1
311	IL-6, IGF-1 and Myostatin mRNA expression were unchanged post-exercise
312	(Figure 3 A, B, C). There was a post-exercise increase in MuRF1 mRNA abundance
313	with EE above Rest (P=0.0003), RE (P=0.0256) and BFR-EE (P=0.0007) (Figure 3D).
314	
315	**Figure 3 here**
316	
317	Cell Signaling
318	mTOR -p70S6K -4E-BP1 -eEF2
319	There were no changes in mTOR ^{Ser2448} , p70S6K ^{Thr389} , 4E-BP1 ^{Thr37/46} or eEF2 ^{Thr56}
320	phosphorylation post-exercise or between exercise groups (Figure 4).
321	
322	**Figure 4 here**

AMPK -p53

325 AMPK^{Thr156}and p53^{Ser15} phosphorylation were unchanged post-exercise (Figure 326 5).

Figure 5 here

Plasma lactate concentration

Lactate concentration increased above rest immediately post-exercise for all interventions (P<.0001 for all comparisons; Table 1). Lactate concentration remained elevated at 1 h, 2 h and 3 h post-exercise for EE and RE, and 1 h and 2 h for BFR-EE (P<.0001 for all comparisons).

Table 1 here

Discussion

It has been shown that, although quite small relative to traditional endurance and resistance exercise, Low intensity (<50% of VO_{2peak}) endurance training with blood flow restriction concomitantly promote isometric muscle strength, muscle CSA and VO_{2peak} (1, 2) and , while the underlying molecular mechanisms mediating these responses remain largely undefined. For the first time we report that low intensity endurance cycling exercise performed with blood flow restriction failed to increase PGC-1 α expression to that commonly observed with 'conventional' endurance exercise.

Moreover, we show isoform-specific post-exercise increases in the $\alpha 4$ isoform along with Hif-1 α and VEGF mRNA expression following higher intensity endurance exercise without blood flow restriction. Taken collectively, our novel findings suggest that endurance exercise undertaken with blood flow restriction is unable to provoke the perturbations to cellular homeostasis necessary to induce activation of the cell signaling events regulating mitochondrial biogenesis and angiogenesis that take place with higher intensity endurance exercise without blood flow restriction.

A growing body of evidence suggests that exercise undertaken with blood flow restriction can enhance exercise adaptation. A recent meta-analysis reported both low load/intensity resistance (20–30% 1 RM) and aerobic walking exercise performed with blood flow restriction can induce increases in muscle strength and hypertrophy, although with smaller gains compared to high intensity resistance exercise alone (34). However, little is known about the molecular mechanisms mediating these responses when low intensity endurance exercise is undertaken with blood flow restriction. As such, we compared the expression of key gene and protein targets implicated in a range of exercise adaptation responses such as hypertrophy, mitochondrial biogenesis, muscle proteolysis, substrate metabolism and angiogenesis between BFR-EE, and conventional bouts of RE and EE. We particularly focused on the four different full-length PGC-1α isoforms putatively implicated in anabolic and mitochondrial-related adaptation responses.

In agreement with previous studies (5, 21, 26), we observed significant increases in total PGC-1 α mRNA following continuous endurance exercise performed at 70% of VO_{2peak}. This increase in PGC-1 α mRNA was concomitant with greater abundance of VEGF, a

target of PGC-1a (36). However, in contrast to our original hypothesis, this response was absent following a bout of low-intensity endurance exercise (40% VO_{2peak}) performed with blood flow restriction. In an attempt to identify possible mechanisms responsible for this attenuated PGC-1\alpha response, we investigated IL-6 expression to determine whether an increase in the muscular inflammatory program was implicated in the blunted response. This hypothesis was based on previous data showing an inverse relationship between skeletal muscle PGC-1α and IL-6 expression (16). However, IL-6 mRNA expression post-exercise was unchanged in all exercise groups suggesting any acute increase in muscle inflammation caused by BFR-EE was not responsible for the reduced PGC-1a1 expression observed. We also investigated other cellular markers implicated in exercise adaptation responses that can regulate PGC-1α expression. AMPK is an intracellular 'fuel gauge' that can phosphorylate PGC-1α and increase its transcriptional activity (35) while the apoptogenic protein p53 has emerged as another signaling regulator of skeletal muscle exercise-induced mitochondrial biogenesis and substrate metabolism that can translocate to the nucleus upon activation and induce PGC-1α expression (4). Phosphorylation of either of these protein targets was unaltered post-exercise suggesting other molecular markers and/or physiological mechanisms may be responsible for the upregulation of PGC-1 α with high intensity endurance exercise. One plausible explanation for these discrepant findings may be the level of glycogen utilization between exercise sessions in our untrained subjects. We (10) and others (6, 29) have shown greater post-exercise PGC-1a expression with low-compared to normal or high glycogen concentration and although we did not measure muscle glycogen use in the current study due to limited muscle tissue availability, the longer duration and higher intensity exercise bout is likely to have induced greater glycogen

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

depletion compared to the endurance exercise session performed with blood flow restriction.

Another possible explanation for the discrepancy in PGC-1 α 1 expression between the two endurance-based exercise bouts is the large differences in estimated energy expenditure. Exercise energy expenditure after BFR-EE was ~4 fold less compared to the EE protocol with total energy expenditure positively associated with PGC-1 α 2 expression (r=0.73, P=0.039). Increased PGC-1 α 3 mRNA expression has been observed after 30 min running compared to bouts of 20 and 10 min (36). Thus, total exercise-induced energy expenditure may be an overriding determinant of PGC-1 α 4 expression responses post-exercise.

Low intensity endurance exercise with BFR was also unable to induce the expression of PGC-1 α 4 compared to higher intensity endurance exercise without blood flow restriction. The PGC-1 α 4 isoform has been proposed to promote muscle hypertrophy by inducing IGF-1 expression and reducing the expression of myostatin, a negative regulator of muscle growth (30). The increase in PGC-1 α 4 mRNA expression with EE was mirrored by a small, non-significant, increase and decrease in IGF1 and myostatin expression, respectively. Other studies have also observed increases in PGC-1 α 4 expression with endurance exercise (33, 40) suggesting this isoform can be regulated with acute exercise independent of contractile mode.

Increased PGC-1 α 4 and VEGF expression has also been reported in primary myotubes treated under hypoxic conditions suggesting low oxygen conditions to be favorable for the activation of this isoform (37). In the current study, the transcription factor Hif-1 α , a

key regulator of angiogenesis in situations of hypoxia (32), was unchanged following BFR-EE, while RE and EE induced 2-fold higher post-exercise changes in lactate compared to BFR-EE. While it is possible a greater metabolic and hypoxic stimulus may be required to increase PGC-1α4 signaling, others have reported unchanged blood lactate following aerobic-based exercise with blood flow restriction (23). Moreover, the same occlusion protocol (15 min cycle at 40% VO_{2peak}) has been shown to improve muscle volume and VO_{2peak}, during a chronic training intervention (1). Thus, it is possible chronic exposure to this occlusion stimulus may be required to elicit increases in PGC-1α4 expression. As this is the first study to investigate changes in Hif-1α following endurance cycling exercise with BFR it is difficult to compare our results to those of previous investigations incorporating resistance exercise and BFR. However, we speculate that when performed with blood flow restriction, the lower contractile intensity associated with 'conventional' endurance compared to resistance (or sprint) exercise, provides adequate blood flow to the exercising musculature and adjoining capillary beds in order to prevent tissue de-oxygenation. Further studies comparing different low intensity endurance exercise protocols with resistance exercise that incorporate blood flow restriction are required to corroborate this hypothesis.

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

Another novel finding from the current study was the post-exercise increases in the PGC-1 α 2 and 3 isoforms. Similar to the α 1 and α 4 isoforms, both PGC-1 α 2 and α 3 increased above rest with higher intensity endurance exercise and were significantly elevated compared to resistance exercise. Both isoforms are expressed in skeletal muscle and brown adipose tissue although little is known about the regulatory targets of these isoforms and their capacity to mediate exercise adaptation responses. Accordingly with Ruas et al (2012) the functions of PGC-1 α 2 and α 3 remain under investigation,

however, based on the elevated response following endurance compared to resistance exercise, we propose these isoforms to mediate physiological processes related to mitochondrial biogenesis and substrate metabolism.

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

445

446

447

Considering low load endurance exercise with BFR can increase muscle strength and hypertrophy (34), we also investigated markers of translation initiation, elongation and muscle proteolysis. Previous studies have reported increases in mTOR and p70S6K phosphorylation that have formed the basis for enhanced rates of muscle protein synthesis following resistance exercise with blood flow restriction (13, 14). Nonetheless, the phosphorylation status of these proteins as well as 4E-BP1 and eEF2 were unchanged 3 h post-exercise in the current study. While our study design was somewhat limited by only having the single post-exercise biopsy (9), this sampling time-point was specifically chosen based on previous studies showing significant, and in some cases maximal, increases in PGC-1α mRNA expression in response to an exercise challenge (5, 21, 24, 28). Accordingly, Ozaki et al.,(25) investigated molecular effects of walking exercise with BFR on mTOR and downstream targets and although the walking exercise with BFR was performed with higher intensity (55% of VO2peak) compared to our protocol, it was not found any significant modification to mTOR signaling. As in our study, probably the biopsy time point was the cause of absence of significant mTOR and downstream targets difference. Thus, future studies investigating endurance exercise undertaken with BFR-EE should include a time-course of signaling responses in order to determine the optimal 'window' for muscle sampling in subsequent investigations. MuRF-1 mRNA expression increased post endurance exercise which resulted in a higher expression above endurance exercise with BFR and resistance exercise. MuRF-1 mediates the ubiquitin proteasome system by 'labelling'

cleaved myofibril segments for degradation (31). It is unclear whether this increase in expression with high intensity endurance exercise represents general tissue remodeling, particularly considering our participants were untrained and the unaccustomed contractile stimulus, or a greater induction of protein degradation.

In summary, this is the first study to investigate the molecular mechanisms mediating muscle adaptation responses to low intensity endurance cycling exercise with blood flow restriction. The attenuated expression of all four PGC- 1α isoforms when endurance exercise is performed with blood flow restriction suggests this type of exercise is unable to induce the appropriate metabolic perturbation capable of activating the cell signaling machinery responsible for mitochondrial biogenesis and angiogenesis responses with moderate-to-high intensity endurance exercise. Longer training programs incorporating endurance exercise with BFR that correlate measurements of these molecular markers with functional adaptation responses such as changes in VO_{2peak} and cycle time to fatigue will yield important information to the efficacy of this training method to enhance training adaptation and subsequently improve health outcomes in populations that may be unable to perform, prolonged exercise.

Acknowledgment

The authors would like to express gratitude for the FAPESP (2014/00985-0) and FAEPEX for financial support. The authors declare no declare no conflicts of interest. The results of the present study do not constitute endorsement by ACSM.

References

- 494 1. Abe T, Fujita S, Nakajima T et al. Effects of Low-Intensity Cycle Training with 495 Restricted Leg Blood Flow on Thigh Muscle Volume and VO2MAX in Young 496 Men. J Sports Sci Med. 2010;9(3):452-8.
- 497 2. Abe T, Kearns CF, Sato Y. Muscle size and strength are increased following walk training with restricted venous blood flow from the leg muscle, Kaatsuwalk training. J Appl Physiol (1985). 2006;100(5):1460-6.
- ACSM. American College of Sports Medicine position stand. Quantity and quality of exercise for developing and maintaining cardiorespiratory, musculoskeletal, and neuromotor fitness in apparently healthy adults: guidance for prescribing exercise. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2011;43(7):1334-59.
- 504 4. Bartlett JD, Close GL, Drust B, Morton JP. The emerging role of p53 in exercise metabolism. Sports Med. 2014;44(3):303-9.
- 506 5. Bartlett JD, Hwa Joo C, Jeong TS et al. Matched work high-intensity interval 507 and continuous running induce similar increases in PGC-1alpha mRNA, AMPK, 508 p38, and p53 phosphorylation in human skeletal muscle. J Appl Physiol (1985). 509 2012;112(7):1135-43.
- 510 6. Bartlett JD, Louhelainen J, Iqbal Z et al. Reduced carbohydrate availability 511 enhances exercise-induced p53 signaling in human skeletal muscle: implications 512 for mitochondrial biogenesis. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol. 513 2013;304(6):R450-8.
- 514 7. Bergstrom J. Percutaneous needle biopsy of skeletal muscle in physiological and clinical research. Scandinavian journal of clinical and laboratory investigation. 1975;35(7):609-16.
- 8. Brown LE, Weir JP. Procedures recommendation I: Accurate assessment of muscular strength and power. Journal of Exercise Physiology Online. 2001;4:1-21.
- 520 9. Camera DM, Edge J, Short MJ, Hawley JA, Coffey VG. Early time course of Akt phosphorylation after endurance and resistance exercise. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2010;42(10):1843-52.
- 523 10. Camera DM, Hawley JA, Coffey VG. Resistance exercise with low glycogen 524 increases p53 phosphorylation and PGC-1alpha mRNA in skeletal muscle. Eur J 525 Appl Physiol. 2015;115(6):1185-94.
- 526 11. Campos GE, Luecke TJ, Wendeln HK et al. Muscular adaptations in response to 527 three different resistance-training regimens: specificity of repetition maximum 528 training zones. Eur J Appl Physiol. 2002;88(1-2):50-60.
- 529 12. Di Donato DM, West DW, Churchward-Venne TA, Breen L, Baker SK, Phillips SM. Influence of aerobic exercise intensity on myofibrillar and mitochondrial protein synthesis in young men during early and late postexercise recovery. Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab. 2014;306(9):E1025-32.
- 533 13. Fry CS, Glynn EL, Drummond MJ et al. Blood flow restriction exercise 534 stimulates mTORC1 signaling and muscle protein synthesis in older men. J Appl 535 Physiol. 2010;108(5):1199-209.
- 536 14. Gundermann DM, Walker DK, Reidy PT et al. Activation of mTORC1 signaling 537 and protein synthesis in human muscle following blood flow restriction exercise 538 is inhibited by rapamycin. Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab. 539 2014;306(10):E1198-204.
- 540 15. Gurtler A, Kunz N, Gomolka M et al. Stain-Free technology as a normalization tool in Western blot analysis. Anal Biochem. 2013;433(2):105-11.

- Handschin C, Choi CS, Chin S et al. Abnormal glucose homeostasis in skeletal muscle-specific PGC-1alpha knockout mice reveals skeletal muscle-pancreatic beta cell crosstalk. The Journal of clinical investigation. 2007;117(11):3463-74.
- Hawley JA, Hargreaves M, Joyner MJ, Zierath JR. Integrative biology of exercise. Cell. 2014;159(4):738-49.
- Holloszy JO, Booth FW. Biochemical adaptations to endurance exercise in muscle. Annual review of physiology. 1976;38:273-91.
- Howley ET, Bassett DR, Jr., Welch HG. Criteria for maximal oxygen uptake: review and commentary. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 1995;27(9):1292-301.
- 551 20. Lin J, Handschin C, Spiegelman BM. Metabolic control through the PGC-1 family of transcription coactivators. Cell Metab. 2005;1(6):361-70.
- Little JP, Safdar A, Bishop D, Tarnopolsky MA, Gibala MJ. An acute bout of high-intensity interval training increases the nuclear abundance of PGC-1alpha and activates mitochondrial biogenesis in human skeletal muscle. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol. 2011;300(6):R1303-10.
- 557 22. Livak KJ, Schmittgen TD. Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-558 time quantitative PCR and the 2(-Delta Delta C(T)) Method. Methods. 559 2001;25(4):402-8.
- Loenneke JP, Thrower AD, Balapur A, Barnes JT, Pujol TJ. Blood flow-restricted walking does not result in an accumulation of metabolites. Clin Physiol Funct Imaging. 2012;32(1):80-2.
- 563 24. Nordsborg NB, Lundby C, Leick L, Pilegaard H. Relative workload determines 564 exercise-induced increases in PGC-1alpha mRNA. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 565 2010;42(8):1477-84.
- 566 25. Ozaki H, Kakigi R, Kobayashi H, Loenneke JP, Abe T, Naito H. Effects of walking combined with restricted leg blood flow on mTOR and MAPK signalling in young men. Acta Physiol (Oxf). 2014;211(1):97-106.
- Perry CG, Lally J, Holloway GP, Heigenhauser GJ, Bonen A, Spriet LL. Repeated transient mRNA bursts precede increases in transcriptional and mitochondrial proteins during training in human skeletal muscle. J Physiol. 2010;588(Pt 23):4795-810.
- 573 27. Phillips SM. Physiologic and molecular bases of muscle hypertrophy and atrophy: impact of resistance exercise on human skeletal muscle (protein and exercise dose effects). Appl Physiol Nutr Metab. 2009;34(3):403-10.
- 576 28. Pilegaard H, Saltin B, Neufer PD. Exercise induces transient transcriptional activation of the PGC-1alpha gene in human skeletal muscle. J Physiol. 2003;546(Pt 3):851-8.
- 579 29. Psilander N, Frank P, Flockhart M, Sahlin K. Exercise with low glycogen increases PGC-1alpha gene expression in human skeletal muscle. Eur J Appl Physiol. 2013;113(4):951-63.
- Ruas JL, White JP, Rao RR et al. A PGC-1alpha isoform induced by resistance training regulates skeletal muscle hypertrophy. Cell. 2012;151(6):1319-31.
- 584 31. Sanchez AM, Candau RB, Bernardi H. FoxO transcription factors: their roles in the maintenance of skeletal muscle homeostasis. Cellular and molecular life sciences: CMLS. 2014;71(9):1657-71.
- 587 32. Semenza GL. Regulation of physiological responses to continuous and intermittent hypoxia by hypoxia-inducible factor 1. Experimental physiology. 2006;91(5):803-6.

- 590 33. Silvennoinen M, Ahtiainen JP, Hulmi JJ et al. PGC-1 isoforms and their target 591 genes are expressed differently in human skeletal muscle following resistance 592 and endurance exercise. Physiol Rep. 2015;3(10).
- 593 34. Slysz J, Stultz J, Burr JF. The efficacy of blood flow restricted exercise: A systematic review & meta-analysis. J Sci Med Sport. 2015.
- 595 35. Steinberg GR, Kemp BE. AMPK in Health and Disease. Physiological reviews. 2009;89(3):1025-78.
- Taylor CW, Ingham SA, Ferguson RA. Acute and chronic effect of sprint interval training combined with postexercise blood-flow restriction in trained individuals. Experimental physiology. 2016;101(1):143-54.
- Thom R, Rowe GC, Jang C, Safdar A, Arany Z. Hypoxic induction of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and angiogenesis in muscle by truncated peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma coactivator (PGC)-1alpha. J Biol Chem. 2014;289(13):8810-7.
- Vechin FC, Libardi CA, Conceicao MS et al. Comparisons between lowintensity resistance training with blood flow restriction and high-intensity resistance training on quadriceps muscle mass and strength in elderly. J Strength Cond Res. 2015;29(4):1071-6.
- Wilkinson SB, Phillips SM, Atherton PJ et al. Differential effects of resistance and endurance exercise in the fed state on signalling molecule phosphorylation and protein synthesis in human muscle. J Physiol. 2008;586(Pt 15):3701-17.
- 40. Ydfors M, Fischer H, Mascher H, Blomstrand E, Norrbom J, Gustafsson T. The truncated splice variants, NT-PGC-1alpha and PGC-1alpha4, increase with both endurance and resistance exercise in human skeletal muscle. Physiol Rep. 2013;1(6):e00140.

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

628	
629	
630	
631	
632	Figure 1. (A) Total Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ coactivator 1α (PGC
633	1 α), (B) Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ coactivator 1 α (PGC-1 α 1), (C
634	Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ coactivator $1\alpha 2$ (PGC- $1\alpha 2$), (D
635	Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ coactivator $1\alpha 3$ (PGC- $1\alpha 3$) and (E
636	Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-γ coactivator 1α4 (PGC-1α4) mRNA
637	abundance at rest and 3 h post-exercise recovery following endurance exercise (EE)
638	resistance exercise (RE) or low-intensity associated with blood flow restriction (BFR
639	EE). Values are expressed relative to GAPDH and presented in arbitrary units (mean
640	SD, n=9). a= Significant different from Rest ($P \le 0.05$); b= Significant different from
641	HI-RT ($P \le 0.05$); c= Significant different from BFR-EE ($P \le 0.05$).
642	
643	
644	
645	
646	
647	
648	
649	
650	
651	
652	

653	
654	
655	
656	
657	Figure 2. (A) Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), (B) Cytochrome c oxidase
658	subunit 4 isoform 1 (COXIV) and (C) hypoxia-inducible factor-1 alpha (HIF-1 α
659	mRNA abundance at rest and 3 h post-exercise recovery following endurance exercise
660	(EE), resistance exercise (RE) or low-intensity associated with blood flow restriction
661	(BFR-EE). Values are expressed relative to GAPDH and presented in arbitrary unit
662	(mean \pm SD, n=9). a= Significant different from Rest (P \leq 0.05); b= Significant different
663	from HI-RT ($P \le 0.05$); c= Significant different from BFR-EE ($P \le 0.05$).
664	
665	
666	
667	
668	
669	
670	
671	
672	
673	
674	
675	
676	
677	

678	
679	
680	
681	
682	Figure 3. (A) Interleukin 6 (IL-6), (B) Insulin-like growth factor 1(IGF-1), (C) Muscle
683	RING finger 1 (MURF1) and (D) Myostatin mRNA abundance at rest and 3 h post-
684	exercise recovery following endurance exercise (EE), resistance exercise (RE) or low-
685	intensity associated with blood flow restriction (BFR-EE). Values are expressed relative
686	to GAPDH and presented in arbitrary units (mean \pm SD, n=9). a= Significant different
687	from Rest (P \leq 0.05); b= Significant different from HI-RT (P \leq 0.05); c= Significant
688	different from BFR-EE ($P \le 0.05$).
689	
690	
691	
692	
693	
694	
695	
696	
697	
698	

Figure 4. (A) Mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR)^{Ser2448} (B) p70S6K^{Thr389} (C) eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E-binding protein 1 (4E-BP1)^{Thr37/46} eukaryotic elongation factor 2 (eEF2)^{Thr56} phosphorylation in skeletal muscle at rest and after 3 h post-exercise recovery following endurance exercise (EE), resistance exercise (RE) or low-intensity associated with blood flow restriction (BFR-EE). Values are normalized to total protein loaded determined by stain free technology in arbitrary units (mean \pm SD, n=9).

719	Figure 5. (A) Adenosine Monophosphate-Activated Protein (AMPK) ^{Thr172} and (B)
720	p53 ^{Ser15} phosphorylation in skeletal muscle at rest and after 3 h post-exercise recovery
721	following endurance exercise (EE), resistance exercise (RE) or low-intensity associated
722	with blood flow restriction (BFR-EE). Values are normalized to total protein loaded
723	determined by stain free technology in arbitrary units (mean \pm SD, n=9).
724	
725	
726	
727	
728	