

Effects of Exercise on Insulin Sensitivity in Humans

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Physical exercise is promoted as one of the primary therapeutic strategies available to increase insulin sensitivity in individuals deemed at risk from insulin resistance and its attendant hyperinsulinism. Subjects with non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (NIDDM) and impaired glucose tolerance (IGT) represent the major clinical population in which physical training is promoted as a treatment modality to improve insulin sensitivity. This manuscript reviews both the acute effects of muscular contractions and the effects of physical training on insulin sensitivity in NIDDM and insulin-dependent diabetic (IDDM) human subjects. Additionally, the effects of localized (regional) muscular contractions on insulin-mediated glucose disposal in previously exercised and nonexercised muscle groups will be discussed briefly.

Insulin resistance is a hallmark of non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (NIDDM), and therapeutic strategies (such as dietary-induced weight loss and physical exercise) are targeted at ameliorating this defect (1). In insulin-dependent diabetes (IDDM), exercise is also able to increase skeletal muscle sensitivity to insulin, and adjustments in dietary intake and/or insulin dosages are required to accommodate changes in physical activity level in order to prevent metabolic complications of either hypoglycemia or worsening hyperglycemia and ketosis (2,3).

Multiple loci of cellular insulin resistance have been identified in NIDDM, including decreased number or altered structure/function of the insulin receptor (4), decreases in glucose transporter number and activity (5), and impairments in the activities of key intracellular enzymes (e.g., pyruvate dehydrogenase and glycogen synthase) under euglycemic conditions (6,7). The mech-

anism(s) of contraction-induced increases in skeletal muscle glucose transport are incompletely understood at present, but do not involve the same tyrosine-kinase-dependent mechanism that is activated by insulin binding to its membrane receptor (8). This study will focus on the role of muscular contractions to increase whole-body insulin sensitivity in NIDDM humans, and the ability to overcome impaired insulin sensitivity in this group by physical training. The role of exercise in managing IDDM will be briefly discussed, with particular reference to the potentially adverse metabolic effects of exercise during periods of moderate insulinopenia.

PHYSICAL TRAINING IN

NIDDM

— Early studies on the effects of training in NIDDM failed to show significant improvements in diabetic control (assessed by fasting plasma glucose concentrations) and only variable improvements in oral glucose tolerance

(9,10; Table 1). This failure in early studies has generally been attributed to the low intensity of exercise used and the prolonged time interval between the last bout of exercise and the testing period.

Subsequent work by other investigators (11–14) showed improvements in glycemic control (assessed by fasting glucose and/or glycosylated hemoglobin concentrations) following 6–12 wk of physical training in NIDDM utilizing work loads of $\geq 60\%$ of maximal aerobic capacity ($\dot{V}O_{2\max}$). Schneider et al. (11) demonstrated that improvements in oral tolerance were greater at 12 h than 72 h after the last bout of exercise and suggested that much of the “training effect” on glucose metabolism was caused by a carryover effect from the last bout of exercise.

The mechanism of training-induced improvement in insulin sensitivity has been largely ascribed to increased skeletal muscle glucose disposal during and after exercise. Bogardus et al. (14) demonstrated, using the insulin clamp technique, that obese NIDDM subjects had greater improvements in insulin-stimulated glucose disposal following combined diet and exercise therapy than after dietary treatment alone. This difference was entirely explained by increased nonoxidative glucose disposal, taken to reflect increased glucose storage as glycogen in the previously exercised muscles.

A period of as short as 1 wk of intense physical training ($68\% \dot{V}O_{2\max}$) has been shown capable of improving oral glucose tolerance in NIDDM men (15). Of interest, the two subjects in this study who did not demonstrate improvement had relative insulin deficiency.

ACUTE EFFECTS OF EXERCISE IN

NIDDM

— Training-induced improvements in glucose tolerance in non-diabetic athletes were shown to be lost within 10 days of stopping physical training by Heath et al. (16), whereas studies using the insulin clamp tech-

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Table 1—Effects of physical training on glucose metabolism in NIDDM

REF.	PHYSICAL TRAINING			GLYCEMIA		
	DURATION (WK)	TIMES/WK	% $\dot{V}O_{2\max}$	FPG	HbA _{1c}	OGTT*
RUDERMAN ET AL. (1979)	12–24	5	—	No δ †	—	No δ (7 DAYS)
SALTIN ET AL. (1979)	12	2	—	No δ	—	IMPROVED
SCHNEIDER ET AL. (1984)	6	3	70–75	No δ	↓	12 H > 72 H
REITMAN ET AL. (1984)	6–10	5–6	60–90	↓	—	IMPROVED (36+ HR)
TROVATI ET AL. (1984)	6	7	50–60	↓	↓	IMPROVED (48+ HR)
BOGARDUS ET AL. (1984)	12	3	75 MAXHR	↓	—	IMPROVED (6 DAYS)
KROTKIEWSKI ET AL. (1985)	12	3	80–90	No δ	—	IMPROVED

maxHR, maximal heart rate reserve; FPG, fasting plasma glucose concentration; OGTT, oral glucose tolerance test.

*Numbers in parentheses refer to time interval between testing and last bout of exercise.

†No δ , no change from baseline.

nique demonstrated that increased insulin-stimulated glucose disposal rates in trained athletes had largely disappeared within 60 h of the last bout of exercise (17). In the former study, a single bout of exercise was able to restore the insulin and glucose responses to oral glucose challenge to nearly the lower, "trained" levels (16). These studies further suggested that much of the effects of physical training on muscle insulin sensitivity is the result of repeated acute effects.

We studied the effects of a single bout of high-intensity exercise (85% $\dot{V}O_{2\max}$), continued to exhaustion (41 ± 10 min), on insulin sensitivity in NIDDM men (18). Twelve hours after exercise, rates of whole-body glucose utilization during physiological hyperinsulinemia 858 ± 113 pM (143 ± 18.8 μ U/ml) were significantly increased, compared with the resting state (Fig. 1). The magnitude of increase was comparable with that previously reported following 12 wk of physical training (14). Increased insulin-stimulated glucose disposal was entirely accounted for by nonoxidative glucose disposal, presumable for glycogen resynthesis. Although the activity of glycogen synthase, the rate-limiting enzyme for glycogen synthesis, was normally activated during maximal insulin stimulation 16972 ± 879 pM (3162 ± 293 μ U/ml) following exercise, the metabolic clearance rate of glucose in NIDDM re-

mained below that previously reported in normal humans (19,20) (Fig. 2). The latter observation suggested that, despite significant improvements in nonoxidative glucose disposal after high-intensity exercise, a defect in glucose utilization proximal to the glycogen synthase step (e.g., in glucose transport) remained in NIDDM subjects.

The role of skeletal muscle glycogen depletion and repletion in enhancing muscle glucose metabolism after exercise has been clarified by Garetto et al. (20), who described the "two phases" of glycogen resynthesis. In phase I, muscle glycogen is depleted, and glucose utilization by muscle is increased in the presence or absence of insulin. In phase II, glycogen levels have returned to near baseline levels, and only the increase in insulin sensitivity persists.

These studies on the acute effects of exercise on muscle glycogen metabolism help to explain the apparent paradox reported by Schneider et al. (11) (i.e., long-term improvements in glycemia following physical training [assessed by glycated hemoglobin determinations] in the absence of improved fasting plasma glucose concentrations or oral glucose tolerance [at 72 h]). The cycle of repetitive depletion of the glycogen stores, with enhanced glucose disposal for glycogen resynthesis during recovery, may reduce ambient glycemia over the

long-term, although producing little effect on glucose concentrations even 48–72 h after the last bout of exercise.

PHYSICAL TRAINING

IN IDDM— Previous studies have generally failed to demonstrate significant improvements in glycemic control (assessed by glycosylated hemoglobin or fasting glucose concentrations) in IDDM after physical training (21,22). However, this may be accounted for by the clinical necessity of either increasing caloric intake or decreasing insulin dosages to prevent hypoglycemia in exercising IDDM subjects. Skeletal muscle insulin sensitivity is improved by physical training, and other cardiovascular risk factors (lipoprotein profiles, blood pressure, and platelet aggregability) may also be improved. For these reasons, attempts should be focused on devising regimens that will allow IDDM subjects to exercise safely and not promote exercise as a means of improved glycemic control.

ACUTE EFFECTS OF EXERCISE IN IDDM

— One of the major concerns of exercise in IDDM is hypoglycemia, either during or for several hours after a single bout of exercise. As might be anticipated from the previous considerations, glycogen resynthesis may be anticipated to place IDDM subjects at risk of hypoglycemia for at least 12 h after a single bout

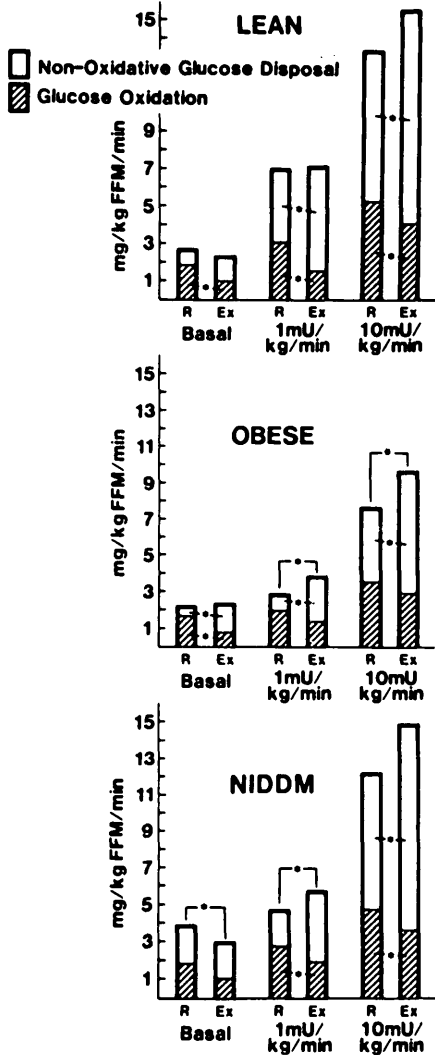


Figure 1—Glucose disposal rates ($\text{mg} \cdot \text{kg fat-free mass}^{-1} [\text{FFM}] \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) without (R) and with (Ex) prior exercise in the basal state and during the steady-state periods of the $40 \text{ mU} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ (low-dose) and $400 \text{ mU} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ (high-dose) insulin infusions, in lean (top), obese (middle), and non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (NIDDM; bottom) humans. Asterisk indicates significant differences ($P < 0.05$) in total glucose disposal (top of bars), nonoxidative glucose disposal (side of bars, upper), and glucose oxidation (side of bars, lower), comparing the postexercise (Ex) with the nonexercised (R) state.

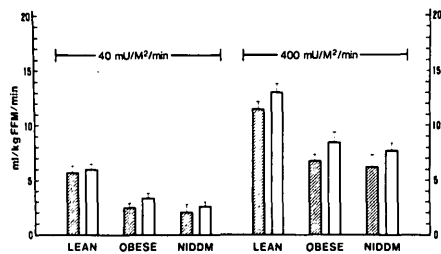


Figure 2—Metabolic clearance rates (MCR) of glucose in lean, obese, and non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (NIDDM) humans during low-dose ($40 \text{ mU} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) and high-dose ($400 \text{ mU} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) insulin infusions, without (hatched bars) and with (open bars) prior exercise. Bars represent means \pm SE.

of exercise, unless food intake or insulin dosages are appropriately adjusted.

IDDM subjects in states of metabolic decompensation resulting from insulin withdrawal plasma glucose $\geq 20 \text{ mM}$ (360 mg/dl) are at risk for developing increasing hyperglycemia and ketosis during exercise (2,3), presumably because insufficient insulin is available to counteract the effects of increased counterregulatory hormone concentrations (especially catecholamines and glucagon), which occur during exercise.

We have studied the effects of moderate intensity ($50\text{--}60\% \dot{V}O_{2 \text{ max}}$) bicycle exercise on substrate metabolism during periods of “tight” plasma glucose 6 mM (108 mg/dl) and “loose” 12 mM (216 mg/dl) glycemic control (23). Despite decreasing plasma glucose concentrations during and after exercise on both study days, significant elevations in blood ketone body concentrations occurred during postexercise recovery (to $\sim 2 \text{ mM}$) on the “loose” control study day. This suggests that even modest degrees of insulinopenia, resulting in plasma glucose concentrations of 12 mM (216 mg/dl), may place IDDM subjects at risk of significant ketosis during recovery after exercise.

REGIONAL EFFECTS OF EXERCISE

Ahlborg et al. (24) demonstrated that nonexercised muscle

(forearm) tissue released three-carbon gluconeogenic precursors (lactate and alanine) during and shortly after exercise at a rate that could not be accounted for by glucose uptake, and suggested that forearm muscle glycogenolysis was the source of these gluconeogenic carbons. We demonstrated that forearm release of three-carbon compounds (lactate, alanine, and pyruvate) remained twofold increased for at least 2–3 h after exercise (25).

Presumably, nonexercised (forearm) muscle glycogenolysis provides gluconeogenic precursors for subsequent glycogen resynthesis in the previously exercised (leg) muscle. We also demonstrated that forearm muscle is insulin-resistant during the 2- to 3-h postexercise period, because insulin-stimulated forearm glucose uptake was not increased during the recovery period, compared with the fivefold increase seen in the resting state. These studies demonstrate that the acute effects of exercise on whole-body glucose metabolism are regional, with increased insulin sensitivity confined to previously exercised muscle groups mediated by local factors (e.g., plasma membrane glucose transporters). The net effect of exercise on insulin sensitivity may be the algebraic sum of the local effects to increase (previously exercised muscle) or decrease (non-exercised muscle) insulin sensitivity in individual muscle groups.

SUMMARY— Physical training programs have been shown to improve glycemic control (fasting plasma glucose and HbA_{1c}) significantly in NIDDM subjects, with the likely mechanism being increased skeletal muscle insulin sensitivity. Increases in muscle glucose disposal after exercise are entirely accounted for by nonoxidative glucose disposal reflecting glycogen resynthesis. Training effects per se are deemed to be small in magnitude compared with the cumulative effects of repeated bouts of glycogen depletion and repletion.

Studies in IDDM subjects gener-

ally have failed to demonstrate improvements in glycemic control following a period of physical training, probably because of associated increases in caloric intake. The major concerns in IDDM are either hypoglycemia, or increasing degrees of hyperglycemia and ketosis in poorly controlled subjects during and after exercise. Even moderate degrees of insulinopenia, resulting in plasma glucose concentrations of 12 mM (216 mg/dl), may result in potentially significant degrees of postexercise ketosis.

The effects of exercise on insulin sensitivity are regional, with increased sensitivity confined to the previously exercised muscle groups, combined with decreased insulin sensitivity in the non-exercised muscles.

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