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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

THE EFFECTS OF CONTINUOUS AND INTERMITTENT TRAINING UPON ATP, PC, CPK, AK AND "M" AND "H" LDH IN SKELETAL MUSCLE, "HEART AND LIVER OF THE RAT

by



LUC ALBERT LEGER

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE.

OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL 1978 .

PACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND REBRAIGH

The undersigned servicy that they have well, and

recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled THE EFFECTS OF CONTINUOUS AND INTERMITTENT TRAINING UPON ATP, PC, CPK, AK AND "M" AND "H" LDH IN SKELETAL MUSCLE, HEART AND LIVER OF THE RAT Submitted by LUC ALBERT LEGER

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Date .. May 14 1977.

ADSERACT

The purpose of the present willy was to investigate. the effects of sprint and endurance training upon enty associated with apperebic glypolysis and high energy compound metabolism in rat tissue. Thirty rats we sandenly assigned to either sedentary, sprint training or endurance training group. Sprint training consisted of 10 x 1 min run/4 hin relief at 70m/min, 8% slope, 5 days/week for 6 months and endurance training, 45 min at 31 m/min, 8% slope, 5 days/week for 6 months. training regimens resulted in a decreased activity of LDH, E-LDH and CPK in the fast twitch gastrocnemius, plantaris and tibialis anterior muscles without altering AK activity and PC stores. In the heart and slow twitch soleus, LDH; M-LDH, GPK and AK activities as well as PC stores were unchanged as a result of chronic exercise. No LDH, CPK and AK changes were present in the liver. Both training programs reduced the body weight gain and increased the relative weight of the heart and skeletal muscles. All enzymes and metabolites of heart, liver and slow and fast twitch muscles are affected in a similar manner by sprint and endurance training in the laboratory rat. Sprint training in these animals is presently very empirical and requires further investigation.

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ADP adenosine-5-diphosphate

Aerobic energy metabolized via the citric acid cycle, onergy 02 being the final electron carrier

AK adenylate kinase or ATP: AMP phosphotransferase (EC 2.7.4.3) or myokinase

adenosine-5-monophosphate

Anaerobic energy metabolized without 02 via the adenylate kinase, the creatine phosphokinase and the lactate dehydrogenase reactions as well as the use of the ATP stores

ATP adenosine-5-triphosphate

ATPase ATP phosphohydrolase (EC 3.6.1.3)

Cgr continuous training group

FOG

LDH

CPK creatine phosphokinase or creatine kinase or ATP: creatine phosphotransferase (EC 2.7.3.2)

The muscle fiber type classification used in this study is that of Edington and Edgerton (1976). There are three types of muscle fibers in the rat: fast-twitch glycolytic (FG), fast-twitch high-oxidative glycolytic (FOG) and slow-twitch oxidative (SO). Fast and slow-twitch (FT and ST) are also used to designate muscle fibers without making any inference to their metabolic state. FT and ST are also used to identify muscles predominantly composed of FT and ST fibers.

fast twitch glycolytic or fast twitch white (see also fiber types)

fast twitch high oxidative glycolytic or fast twitch red (see also fiber types)

FT fast twitch or type II (see also fiber types)

lactate dehydrogenase or total LDH activity or L-lactate: NAD oxidoreductase (EC 1.1.1.27)

•	
LDH ₂₁	LDH activity at PA = $21 \times 10^{-4} M$
LDH ₃	LDH activity at PA = $3 \times 10^{-4} M$
M-LDH	muscle type monomer of LDH or LDH activity due solely to muscle type monomers
NAD	nicotinamide-adenine dinucleotide
NADH	nicotinamide-adenine dinucleotide, reduced
NADP ·	nicotinamide-adenine dinucleotide phosphate
NADPH	nicotinamide-adenine dinucleotide phosphate, reduced
GM	gastrocnemius medialis
G6P	D-glucose-6-phosphate
G6P-DH	glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase or D-glucose-6-phosphate: NADP oxidoreductose (EC 1.1.1.49)
High energy compounds	ATP + PC
H-LDH	heart type monomer of LDH or LDH activity due solely to heart type monomers
НК **	hexokinase or ATP: D-hexose-6-phosphotrans- ferase (EC 2.7.1.1)
Igr	intermittent training group
In	international unit for enzyme activity (= amount of enzyme which convert l micromole of substrate per minute under specific con- ditions, optimal ionic strength of the buffer, optimal pH, wave length)
n	number of rats per group
P	plantaris or probability level
PA	pyruvate (pyruvic acid)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

PC	N-phosphorylcreatine (creatine phosphate or phosphocreatine)		
PH	phosphorylase or $\alpha-1.4$ -glucan: orthophosphate glucosyltransferase (EC 2.4.1.1)		
PK	pyruvate kinase or ATP: phosphorylase phosphotransferase (EC 2.7.1.40)		
PFK	phosphofructokinase or ATP: D-fructose-6-phosphate l-phosphotransferase (EC 2.7.1.11)		
S	soleus		
Sgr	sedentary group		
S0	slow-twitch oxidative muscle fiber or slow twitch intermediate (see also fiber types)		
ST	slow twitch or type I (see also fiber types)		
TA	tibialis anterior		
VO ₂ max	maximal oxygen uptake		
Wabs	absolute weight o		
Wreg	regressed weight		
Wrel	relative weight (i.e. organ weight to body weight ratio)		

CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Muscular contraction is a major element of sport
performance. Physical training is carried out in order
to improve the various mechanisms that control muscular
contraction and hence, sport performance. The present
study deals with one aspect of muscular performance,
namely, anaerobic metabolism and some of its related
components: ATP*, phosphorylcreatine (PC), adenylate
kinase (AK, E.C. 2.7.4.3), creatinephosphokinase (CPK, E.C.
2.7.3.2) and lactate dehydrogenase (LDH, E.C. 1.1.1.27).
(Figure 1)

Muscular contraction depends on the interaction of the myofibrillar proteins: actin, myosin, troponin and tropomyosin. Contraction is initiated by nervous depolarization via the T tubule system which results in the liberation of the Ca⁺⁺ from the sacroplasmic reticulum, which in turn makes it possible for the myofibrillar proteins to react with ATP (Ashley, 1971; Fabiato and Fabiato, 1977; Margreth et al., 1973; Porter and Franzini-Armstrong, 1965).

^{*} All abbreviations, symbols and definitions used in this study are explicated in Table 1 (p. xiii).

MUSCULAR CONTRACTION OF MECHANISMS CONTROL FIGURE 1.

There distinct forms of myosin with different myofibrillar masse activities (Samaha et al., 1970; Streter mi al., 1966) and contractile properties (Marany, 1967; Marmard et al., 1970 b and 1971; Close, 1972). Some authors (Barnard et al., 1970 a and 1971; Close, 1972; Edstrom and Mystrom, 1969; Engel, 1974; Muller, 1974; Peter; 1970) have used these properties to classify skeletal muscle fibers into two main groups: slow twitch (ST) or type I fibers with low ATPase activity and fast twitch (FT) or type II fibers with high myofibrillar ATPase activity. The recruitment of these fibers might be specific to the nature of the exercise training (Edington and Edgerton, 1976).

Muscular contraction is finally dependent on the availability of ATP. As ATP stores in the muscle are very limited, the resynthesis of ATP is obviously another important factor related to muscle performance. A small amount of ATP can be regenerated immediately from either phosphorylcreatine and ADP in the presence of creatine-phosphokinase (CPK, E.C. 2.7.3.2) or from ADP in the presence of myokinase or adenylate kinase (AK, E.C. 2.7.4.3). As for ATP, the stores of PC and ADP are limited and, for more prolonged work, ATP resynthesis must occur via other metabolic pathways: anaerobic glycolysis and oxidative metabolism. In the final step, anaerobic glycolysis is characterised by the reduction of pyruvate into lactate

with NAME Being oxidised to NAD. Although ATP resynthesisis very fast via this pathway, lastate secundates and this
has been associated with early local suscular latigue
(Ferris, 1969; Hermansen and Osmon, 1972; Keul; 1973;
Margaria, 1972; Osmon and Hermansen, 1972; Wenger and Reed,
1976). Nevertheless, in sporting uch as wrestling, hockey
and long sprint-races, anaerobic slycolysis is the main
energy production pathway (Astrand and Rodahl, 1970s Keul
et al., 1972).

The pyruvate to lactate reaction is catalysed and may be regulated by lactate dehydrogenase (LDH, E.C. 1.1.1.27). LDH is composed of two subunits: muscle specific (M) and a heart specific (H) type, which are combined in a tetramer molecule giving five isozymes (H₄, H₃M, H₂M₂, HM₃, M₄) with different properties (Cahn et al., 1962; Dawson et al., 1964; Dietz and Lubrano, 1967; Everse and Kaplan, 1970 and 1973; Kaplan, 1960-1962; Plageman et al., 1960a and b; Stambaught and Post, 1966a and b). M - LDH favours the reduction of pyruwate whereas H - LDH favours the oxidation of lactate.

Finally, the ATP resynthesis can occur via the oxidation of fat or carbohydrate as acetyl CoA via the citrate cycle and the electron transport chain. The aerobic energy production is the common energy source for most cellular activities in mammalian tissue, including those affected by physical exercises of low to moderate intensities.

Do got sign

Justification for the Study

Most physical activities can be grossly classified as one of the two following types:

- 1. High intensity, short duration or anaerobic*
- 2. Low to moderate intensity, long duration or aerobic

Sport performance is usually based on either one or both of these types of exercise. Therefore the importance of understanding the possible mechanisms of adaptations in either type of performance is obvious.

Maximal oxygen uptake (Astrand and Rodahl, 1970; Karlsson et al., 1967; Saltin et al., 1968), maximal cardiac output (Ekblom et al., 1968; Saltin et al., 1968), and the activities of certain oxidative enzymes (Baldwin et al., 1972; Barnard and Peter, 1971; Benzi et al., 1975; Fitts et al., 1975; Gollnick et al., 1969, 1970; Holloszy, 1967 and 1971) are all increased with prolonged exercise training executed at an intensity of greater than 50% of the maximal oxygen uptake. Cardiovascular adjustments (Bevegard and Shepherd, 1967; Dempsey and Rankin, 1967; Rowell, 1969, 1974) and

^{*} Anaerobic exercises are those based on ATP synthesis that do not use 02 as the final electron carrier. In other words, the anaerobic metabolism includes the adenylate kinase, the creatine phosphokinase and the lactate dehydrogenase reactions as well as the ATP already stored and ready to be used by the muscle.

Felig and Wahren, 1975; Fredholm, 1970; Horstman et al.,
1971; Issekutz et al., 1966; Jorfeldt, 1971; Jorfeldt and
Wahren, 1970; Pruett, 1970; Wahren, 1970; Weil et al., 1965)
in acute exercise are also well described in the literature.

and/or adaptation of the anaerobic parameters to exercise is less well documented. With the exception of blood lactate response (Issekutz et al., 1965, 1966; Jorfeldt, 1971; Margaria et al., 1933, 1968, 1972), and plasma enzyme response to exercise (Bloor, 1969; Doty et al., 1971; Fowler et al., 1962, 1968; Garbus et al., 1964; Haralambie, 1972; Hunter et al., 1971; Papadopoulos et al., 1968; Raven et al., 1970; Rose et al., 1970 a and b), few studies on the adaptation of anaerobic parameters to exercise, particularly those using anaerobic exercise, exist.

lasting muscular effort (Hultman, 1967; Piehl, 1974; Saltin et al., 1973; Taylor et al., 1971). A specific depletion pattern in ST and FT fibers with aerobic and anaerobic exercise does occur (Gollnick et al., 1973 a; Piehl, 1974; Saltin et al., 1973). Phosphorylase (Baldwin et al., 1973; Bylund et al., 1977; Edgerton et al., 1970; Gould and Rawlinson, 1959; Holloszy et al., 1971; Kowalski et al., 1969; Morgan et al., 1971; Saubert et al., 1973; Taylor et al., 1972; Zika et al., 1971). hexokinase (Baldwin et al., 1973.

1977; Barnard and Peter, 1969; Bylund et al., 1977; Holloszy et al., 1971; Suominen and Keikkinen, 1975), phosphosfructokinase (Baldwin et al., 1973, 1977; Gollnick et al., 1973; Henrickston and Reitman, 1976; Holloszy et al., 1971; Morgan et al., 1971; Saubert et al., 1973; Thorstensson et al., 1976), and pyruvate kinase (Baldwin et al., 1973; Bostrom et al., 1974; Hollossy et al., 1971; Morgan et al., 1971; Saubert et al., 1973) activities in muscles have been shown to increase or remain stable with different types of exercise training. Many of the previously cited authors have used these parameters as indicators of anaerobic adaptation. The above mentioned enzymes (e.g. PH, PFK, HK and PK) are solicited whether pyruvate is converted to lactate or is oxidized through the citric acid cycle and the electron transport chain. On the other hand, LDH, CPK and AK activities as well as ATP and PC stores appear to contribute to non-oxidative energy production without being involved in aerobic breakdown of fuel. LDH is often seen as a regulatory enzymes of anaerobic metabolism (Everse and Kaplan, 1973; Fritz, 1965; Karlsson et al., 1974; Sjodin, 1976).

Training may induce an increase in the high energy compounds of the heart (Gangloff et al., 1961) and skeletal muscles (Ericksson et al., 1973; Gale and Nagle, 1971; Haralambie, 1972; Rogozkin, 1976), but the literature is not conclusive (Gale and Nagle, 1971; Haralambie, 1972; Karlsson

et al., 1972; Saltin and Karlsson, 1971; Thorstensson et al., 1975). There may be an optimal form of exercise that leads to increased stores of ATP and PC, but this optimal form of exercise has not yet been determined. Age might also be at the origin of some reported increases (Ericksson et al., 1973).

Very few studies have dealt with the response of CPK activity to training. Some have reported increases in tissue CPK (Kendrick-Jones and Perry, 1965; Wagner and Critz, 1970) and others have noted no changes with training (Bohmer, 1969, Gangloff et al., 1961; Oscai and Holloszy, 1971; Rawlinson and Gould, 1959; Thorstensson and Karlsson, 1974). Newsholme and Start (1973, p. 113) believe that CPK may amplify the control of glycolysis when coupled with the ATPase reaction resulting in an increase in inorganic phosphate which stimulates PFK activity.

Studies showing an increase in AK activity with chronic exercise (Collowick as quoted by Kendrick-Jones and Berry, 1965; Thorstensson and Karlsson, 1974) have been reported. On the other hand, others have observed no change with training (Oscaf and Holloszy, 1971). The AK reaction appears to be involved in the control of glycolysis via PFK: the small and transient decrease in ATP must be accompanied by a relatively greater increase in AMP to stimulate PFK (Newsholme and Start, 1973, p. 113).

Skeletal muscle LDM activities have been shown to remain constant (Bohmer, 1969; Gollmick et al., 1967; Mickson et al., 1976; Hollossy, 1971; Molé et al., 1973; Peter, 1970) or to decrease with training in animals (Baldwin et al., 1972, 1973; Hickson et al., 1976; York et al., 1974). In the heart, LDH activity is usually increased with training (Gollmick et al., 1961 and 1967; Walpurger and Anger, 1970; York et al., 1975 and 1976). The literature is equivocal with regard to the response to training of the LDH subunits or isoenzymes. Some authors have reported no change (Molé et al., 1973) while others have indicated increases in the H or the M type of LDH depending upon whether the training was primarily aerobic or anaerobic in nature (Karlsson et al., 1975; Peter et al., 1970 and 1971; Sjodin, 1976).

The conflicting literature may be a reflection of the fact that most studies have been looking at the effects of endurance training (aerobic type usually) on aerobic and anaerobic parameters and that few studies have looked at the specific effects of both aerobic and anaerobic training on the anaerobic parameters. The physiological age of the subjects during the training regimens and the choice of sampled tissues may have added to the confusion. Finally, the assay techniques used in many studies, particularly those investigating the LDH and high energy compound response to training, might be at the origin of some of the discrepancies reported in the literature. In some cases,

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the discrepancies are unexplained, a fact which further justifies the reinvestigation of these parameters.

The Problem

The purpose of this study was to determine the comparative effects of chronic, moderately intense, continuous running and high speed interval running on the following:

ATP and PC stores, AK, CPK and LDH activities and LDH subunit distribution in heart (H), liver (L) and resting skeletal muscles, namely, soleus (S), medial and lateral gastrochemius (GM, GL), plantaris (P) and tibialis anterior (TA).

Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

- 1. The study was confined to Sprague Dawley rats,
- 2. The training regimens started at 6 weeks of age and lasted 6 months, covering both the growth and adult periods,
- The two long-term training regimens were intended to primarily overload the aerobic and anaerobic systems separately,
- 4. The physical activity used in the training regimen was limited to running on a motor-driven treadmill,
- 5. Sampled tissues were limited to the heart as an index of cardiovascular involvement, the liver as the locus of many biochemical substrate transformations and several skeletal muscles of the lower limbs to provide a picture of the adaptations of

different muscles involved in the work (agenist vs antagonist, slow twitch vs fast twitch),

- 6. Biechemical assays were conducted in vitre on whole muscle homogenates rather than using muscle fiber type as an index. However, the fiber composition of the chosen muscles was identified (Table 20 in Discussion),
- 7. Although the training programs used in this study have been shown to induce in situ improvement of the fatigue curve (Marnard and Peter, 1971) and of the oxidative capacity of the muscles (Marnard and Peter, 1971; Pitts et al., 1975; Gollnick et al., 1970), this was not verified in the present study. The only common measures used to check the effectiveness of the training regimens were body and organ weights,
- 8. Except for LDH, no glycolytic, glycogenolytic, or oxidative substrate or enzyme activities were measured.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Lactate Dehydrogenase

LDH (E.C. 1.1.1.27) catalyses the following reaction:

pyruvate + NADH + H+ LDH lactate + NAD+

This reaction is the last and only specific step of anaerobic glycolysis. LDH is composed of two subunits: a muscle specific (M) and a heart specific (H) type. M and H subunits are combined in a tetramer molecule giving five isoenzymes:* H_{μ} , H_{3} M, H_{2} M₂, HM₃ and M_{μ} which are also respectively identified as LDH-1 to LDH-5. When isolated with electrophoresis, LDH-1 is the fastest moving band toward the anode (Dietz and Lubrano, 1967; Everse and Kaplan, 1973; Plageman et al., 1960a and b). Figure 2 from Rosalki (1969) illustrates the classical separation of LDH isoenzymes in serum Isoenzyme H_{μ} , found in highly aerobic tissue, and tissues. has a relatively low turnover number owith pyruvate and is maximally active only at low concentrations of this substrate, which strongly inhibits the enzyme at higher concentrations. On the other hand, in relatively more anaerobic tissue's, isoenzyme M_{lL} favors the pyruvate to lactate reduction for

[&]quot;Isozyme" is also used in the literature, but the term "isoenzyme" is recommended by the Standing Committee on Enzyme of the International Union of Biochemistry (Wilkinson, 1970).

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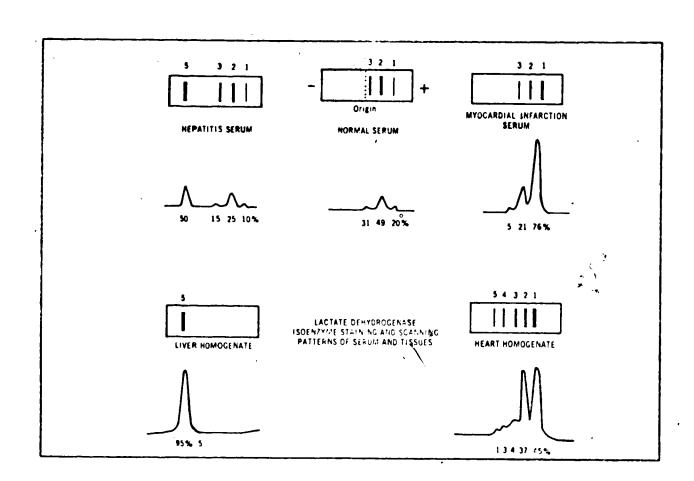


FIGURE 2. GENERAL PATTERN OF LDH ISOENZYMES (FROM ROSALKI, 1969)

immediate release of energy. Between H₄ and M₄, hybrid isoenzymes are found with proportional intermediate characteristics (Everse and Kaplan, 1973; Kaplan et al., 1961; Karlsson et al., 1974; Rosalki, 1969; Sjodin, 1976).

The M and H composition of LDH appears to be controlled by two separate and independent genes. The synthesis of M subunits is stimulated during hypoxic conditions and suppressed with high 0, tension, while the reverse is true for the H subunits (Cahn et al., 1962; Dawson et al., 1964; Everse and Kaplan, 1973; Karsten et al., 1973; Latner and Skillen, 1968, p. 85; Thorling and Jensen, 1966). Embryologic development of M and H LDH differentiation does exist toward their future functional role. Foetal rabbit gastrocnemius appears to develop the heart muscle enzyme first, whereas the skeletal type develops postnatally (Dawson et al., 1964). Brain LDH isoenzyme patterns show more M-LDH for humans living at high altitude (Hellung et al., 1973). Muscles which contract tonically or rythmically have relatively more H-LDH, while muscles which contract phasically have more M-LDH (Dawson et al., 1964). Function seems to be more important than tissue type, e.g. migrating birds have more H-LDH in their breast muscle than domestic birds (Wilson et al., 1963).

^{*} Posture and anti-gravimetric muscles (e.g. soleus, flying muscles) and the heart contract tonically and rythmically, whereas other muscles that are used only occasionally are said to be phasic muscles. This functional classification corresponds to the fast twitch (phasic) and slow twitch (tonic) muscles.

Other kinds of adaptations have been reported. instance, hormonal or vitamin treatment (Acebal et al., 1974; Beitner et al., 1973; Dawson et al., 1964; Garbus et al., 1964; Hirota et al., 1976), sideropenic anemia (Penney et al., 1974) and denervation (Dawson et al., 1964) have been shown to induce LDH isoenzyme changes. It is interesting to note that 10 days after sciatic section, only a slight decrease in enzyme activity had occured and it is only after 31 days that M-LDH decreased in rabbit leg muscles. Such adaptations may be tied to the disappearance of the anaerobic stimuli. Duration is obviously an important factor to control when studying isoenzyme adaptation. Intermittent long-term stimulation (8 hr/day) of fast rabbit tibialis anterior up to 28 days with a frequency pattern resembling that of a slow muscle (10 impulses/sec) resulted in a decrease of total LDH activity with concomitant decrease in M-LDH % (Pette et al., 1973).

The Aerobic-Anaerobic Theory. According to Kaplan's group (Cahn et al., 1962; Dawson et al., 1964; Everse and Kaplan, 1973; Everse et al., 1970) and to Pfleiderer's group (Pfleiderer and Wachsmuch, 1961, as quoted by Latner and Spillen, 1968, p. 80 and Thorling and Jensen, 1966), LDH of the H type (heart) has evolved to operate as a regulator of pyruvate metabolism in highly aerobic cells and functions as a lactate dehydrogenase because it is inhibited by high pyruvate concentration; LDH of the M type (skeletal muscle

and liver) has evolved to prevent this inhibition in anaerobic tissue and operates as a pyruvate reductase. Wuntch? Vesell and Chen (1970a), Vesell and Pool (1966) and Amarasingham and Uong (1968), have contested this theory and suggested other functions than metabolic ones for LDH isoenzymes. First, they pointed out that liver with its high M-LDH content is a highly derobic tissue which is, however, in opposition to Pfleiderer's findings (Latner and Spillen, 1968, p. 80). Second, they were unable, at high LDH concentrations similar to cellular concentrations $(7x10^{-6}M)$ to show the classical inhibition of H-LDH to high pyruvate concentration obtained with the usual hundred fold dilution of homogenate procedure. They suggested other metabolic roles for LDH isoenzymes: 1) a regulatory function for LDH-5 $M_{\rm LL}$ considered as an allosteric protein, 2) an association of isoenzymes in different proportions with various subcellular particles, in particular LDH-5 within the nucleus, 3) predominance of LDH-5 in rapidly dividing cell or in tissue capable of rapid cell proliferation, and 4) a conservative metabolic role in which one isoenzyme would be required to maintain critical enzymatic function in a tissue where another isoenzyme was rapidly degraded.

Latner et al., (1966) were unable to reproduce the above experiment. Similarly, Everse, Berger and Kaplan (1970, 1973) and Stambaugh and Post (1966) obtained LDH-l usual inhibition at high enzyme concentrations with high

pyruvate concentrations. According to them, inhibition is due to the formation of an abortive ternary complex between pyruvate, nicotinamide-adenine dinucleotide (NAD⁺) and the LDH. They obtained different results because the pyruvate substrate was added to the LDH-NADH solution in the presence of NAD⁺ whereas the other groups (Amarasingham and Uong, 1968; Vesell and Pool, 1966; Wuntch et al., 1970a) excluded the NAD⁺ resulting ip the LDH reaction without inhibition because the fast reaction occured before any ternary complex was formed.

Wuntch, Chen and Vesell (1970b) further stated that the inhibition in vivo is also diminished with competition by other enzymes (glyceraldehyde -3- phosphate dehydrogenase, malate dehydrogenase) or albumin with NAD⁺. These authors (Vesell and Pool, 1966 and Wuntch et al., 1970b) noted that pyruvate in vivo never reaches levels high enough to inhibit LDH and that NAD⁺ is probably more determinant of the LDH reaction.

However, Kaplan and collaborators (Everse and Kaplan, 1973) still believed that the binding of NAD⁺ to other proteins in vivo, resulting in a net decrease in the concentration of the free NAD⁺, does not affect the concentration of free NAD⁺ in the cell to such an extent that formation of the abortive LDH complex is no longer feasible. They also added that the results obtained by Vesell and his co-workers could be due to the limiting amount of NAD⁺ that

was used in their experiments (14:0 µ M). Another possible explanation for these discrepancies may be that a significant part of H-LDH is present in an inactive form in the fresh tissue extracts (Everse and Kaplan, 1973).

Stambaugh and Post (1966a) reported that H-LDH inhibition in the forward reaction is more a matter of product (i.e. lactate) inhibition than substrate (i.e. pyruvate) inhibition with in vivo concentrations. Karlsson (1971a). has shown that muscle pyruvate concentration increased from 0.06 at rest to 0.13 mmoles/kg wet weight at maximal work load; even maximal pyruvate concentration found in vivo is about 10 times lower than that required to produce the substrate inhibition reported by Kaplan's group (Everse and Kaplan, 1973; Kaplan et al., 1960, 1962, 1968). On the other hand, Everse et al., (1970) did show substrate inhibition at physiological enzyme concentrations. The possibility that the intracellular concentration of the pyruvate at the actual locations of the isoenzymes may reach inhibitory levels could not be excluded but was not considered likely (Vesell and Pool, 1966; Wuntch et al., 1970b). Although it seems that there exists no study on LDH inhibition with in vivo concentrations for all the reagents, most authors believe in some kind of inhibition in vivo (Everse et al., 1970; Everse and Kaplan, 1973; Karlsson et al., 1974b; Latner and Skillen, 1968; Sjodin, 1976; Stambaugh and Post, 1966).

To understand the functional role of LDH isoenzymes, one must realize that pyruvate, lactate, NADH and NAD+ compete together to bind with LDH and either form the ternary abortive complex or the ternary complex that catalyses the reaction. It seems that pyruvate/lactate and NAD+/NADH ratios are more important than the absolute concentrations of these substrates and products.

Table 2, reproduced from Everse and Kaplan (1973), illustrates the probable role of H-LDH with different NAD+/NADH and PA/LA ratios. H-LDH appears to be under metabolic control and is regulated by its own oxidized products as well as the oxidized coenzymes. Therefore, in normal concentration, H-LDH is prevented from reducing pyruvate to lactate. Lactate can be produced by the heart during ischemia and myocardial infarction due to the lack of oxygen supply and the NADH increase which displaces the abortive complex with H-LDH and favors the reduction of pyruvate. Reactions 2 and 3 (Table 1) appear to be geared to assure an optimal concentration of reduced coenzyme under various physiological conditions.

The aerobic-anaerobic theory is in accordance with isoenzyme distribution in muscle fibers and cellul localizations. M-LDH is more predominant in fast twitch ribers and H-LDH, in slow twitch fibers (Blanchaer and Van 1962; Brody and Engel, 1964; Fine et al., 1963a. On et al., 1974b; McMillan, 1967; Peter et al., 1971; Sjodin,

Effects of Substrate and Coenzyme Concentrations TABLE 2 on H-LDH in Aerobic Tissues.*

Reaction	Concentration Ratios		Action of H-LDH
No.	NAD ⁺ /NADH	Pyruvate/Lactate	
1	high	high	Formation of E-NAD*-pyruvate abortive complex**
2	high	low	Oxidation of lactate (E-NAD+-lactate)
3	low	high	Reduction of pyruvate (dissociation of E-NAD+-pyruvate complex as in myocardial infarotion (E-NADH-pyruvate)
4	low	low	Formation of E-NADH-lactate complex

[#] From Everse and Kaplan, 1973.
E = Enzyme (H-LDH)

1976a; Van Wijhe et al., 1964). The higher LDH activity in fast twitch fibers, as demonstrated biochemically or histochemically (Karlsson et al., 1974b; McMillan, 1967; Meijer, 1973; Peter et al., 1971; Sjodin, 1976a), seems to be related to higher M-LDH content, although this was not. the case for endurance trained athletes (Karlsson et al., 1975) due to the absence of a linear relation between total LDH and ST fibers (Karlsson et al., 1975). It is interesting to note that most LDH is located in the sarcoplasm (Brody and Engel, 1964; Sjodin, 1976a), but LDH isoenzymes with predominant H subunits are also located in mitochondria, and LDH isoenzymes mainly composed of M subunits have a strong binding affinity for membranes, e.g. sarcoplasmic reticulum or external mitochondrial membrane (Brody and Engel, 1964; Sjodin, 1976) or other subcellular particulate fractions (Ratner et al., 1974). Specific LDH isoenzyme compartmentalization within subcellular units may increase the difficulty with which NADH reaches LDH and may be related to or explain some physiological function attributed to LDH isoenzymes (Ratner et al., 1974; Sjodin, 1976a).

LDH as a Regulatory Enzyme of Glycolysis. As shown previously, LDH may play an important role in controlling the amount of lactate produced and in oxidizing NADH accumulated in the cell. But it seems that this is not under the exclusive control of LDH. According to Boxer and Devlin (1961) and Keul et al. (1972, pp. 14, 87, 131), two other shuttle reactions can assure the oxidation of NADH. First,

dihydroxyacetone-P is reduced to alpha-glycerophosphate in the sarcoplasm with the glycerophosphate dehydrogenase; the cycle is closed in the mitochondria by the reverse reaction. Second, acetoacetate is reduced to beta-hydroxybutyrate in a similar way. Like lactate, alpha-glycerophosphate increases in anaerobic states, but it is not a "dead end" product like lactate and its significance in terms of fatigue is unknown.

Actual evidence does not suggest, however, that endurance training preferentially accentuates the glycerophosphate dehydrogenase compared to the LDH since changes were of the same order of magnitude and in the same direction for both enzymes (Baldwin et al., 1973; Morgan et al., 1971). Baldwin et al. (1973) reported a decrease from 4 (n.s.) to 27% (P < 0.02) and 15 (P < 0.05) to 23.3% (P < 0.001) for the alpha-glycerophosphate dehydrogenase and the LDH respectively in the red and white quadriceps of the rat: in the soleus alpha-glycerophosphate dehydrogenase and LDH increased respectively by 54.7% (P < 0.001) and 12% (n.s.). Morgan et al. (1971) reported non significant decreases of 26.9% and 22% for alpha-glycerophosphate dehydrogenase and LDH of human quadriceps after endurance training. Holloszy and Oscai (1969) had previously found similar results. rat heart, Kraus (1971) reported a 85% increase either with a strenuous swimming program and a voluntary running program. Staudte et al. (1973) reported no change in either LDH or

alpha-glycerophosphate dehydrogenase after sprint training in the rat. According to Boxer and Devlin (1961), the NADH shuttles can work only in aerobiosis or partial anaerobiosis since they are based on citric acid cycle intermediates. As the direct oxidation of cytoplasm formed NADH in the mitochondria is not possible, only pyruvate can oxidize NADH in anaerobiosis.

Concerning the regulation of LDH itself, it seems that the mass action law is not sufficient to explain muscle lactate formation since pyruvate and lactate do not increase at the same rate in exercise (Karlsson, 1971a; Keul et al., 1967 and 1972). According to Fritz (1965), M₄-LDH but not H₄-LDH behaves like an allosteric enzyme and is also activated by the seven citric acid cycle intermediates as well as by aspartic and glutamic acids which are directly converted to citric acid cycle intermediates. Although there was a significant increase (50%) in malic enzyme (L-malate: NADP oxidoreductase, E.C. 1.1.1.40) after endurance training in the rat (Molé et al., 1973), the very low absolute levels of this enzyme do not seem to play an important role in the pyruvate metabolism (e.g. lipogenesis) in skeletal muscle (Molé et al., 1973).

According to Felig and Wahren (1971, 1973 and 1975), another pathway, pyruvate conversion to alanine, may interact with the LDH reaction, decreasing the pyruvate*

^{*} There are other alternative fates for pyruvate (Malher and Cordes, 1966, p. 435), but their importance and functional role in exercise is presently unknown.

According to these authors, the alanine pathway is a non-toxic alternative to ammonia in the transport of amino groups from the periphery to the liver, where alanine is converted back to glucose. The lower muscle or blood lactate levels observed in submaximal exercise in trained individuals (Astrand and Rodahl, 1970, p. 379; Karlsson, 1968, 1971a; Molé et al., 1973; Robinson et al., 1941) may be explained by an increase in glutamate pyruvate transaminase (GPT, E.C. 2.6.1.2.) and more pyruvate being converted to alanine (Felig and Wahren, 1971, 1975; Molé et al., 1973).

However, at maximal and supra-maximal work loads (e.g. VO₂max or maximal voluntary contraction), trained subjects have higher lactate accumulation (Astrand and Rodahl, 1970, p. 379; Ericksson et al., 1973; Molé et al., 1973; Robinson et al., 1941), suggesting a greater contribution of LDH and probably of M-LDH. Reciprocal behaviour in lactate formation at low and medium work load compared to high work load appears to be ruled by the inhibition of lactate and free fatty acids on each other at these work loads (Issekutz et al., 1965, 1966; Felig and Wahren, 1975; Fredholm, 1970; Horstman et al., 1971; Molé et al., 1973; Weil et al., 1965).

Lactate can be used as substrate by the heart (Everse et al., 1973; Keul, 1971, 1973), the liver (Keul, 1973; Rowell, 1966, 1971) and more or less by the skeletal muscles (Issekuts et al., 1965; Jorfeldt, 1971; Keul, 1971; Pelig and Wahren, 1975). Lactate diffuses from the organs where it is produced (mainly the skeletal muscle) to the blood (Jorfeldt, 1971; Keul, 1967, 1971, 1973a and b: Margaria, 1968, 1972). When there is a sudden rise in anaerobic metabolism, a delay is observed before equilibrium is reached between the blood and the muscle. The "peak" blood lactate is usually reached between 3 to 10 minutes after exercise (Karlsson, 1971a; Margaria, 1968, 1972). Blood and muscle lactate concentrations are also dependant on the equilibrium between uptake and production. The peak lactate in the blood, although smaller than the muscle concentration, is always representative of the muscle concentration (Karlsson, 1971a). It is worthwhile to note that blood lactate reflects an average situation for all the muscles of the body taken together, even though lactate may be found in different amounts in different muscles or even in different muscle fibers (Essen and Haggmark, 1975) where possible product inhibition can occur (Karlsson et al., 1971, 1975; Sjodin, 1976a and b).

High lactate concentrations have been associated with exhaustion in exercise of high intensity (Ahlborg, 1972; Karlsson, 1971a; Keul, 1973, Margaria, 1972, 1968). Lactate may be either a cause or consequence of fatigue, but it has

been suggested (Ferris, 1969) that the lactate anion itself is related to anxiety and other similar symptoms. (Hermansen and Osnes, 1972; Keul, 1973; Osnes and Hermansen, 1972) suggested that the increase in acidity linked with lactate production may be the cause of fatigue. to be a good correlation between lactate concentration and exhaustion feelings, at least in short lasting-high intensi-According to Margaria (1968, 1972) and Keul (1973), anaerobic glycolysis has the second fastest energy production rate after the immediate utilization of high energy phosphate stores. Therefore, when less intense work is done, energy can be produced via oxidative pathways and exercise can be performed longer before exhaustion is reached. With prolonged exercise, however, lactate concentration and production is low and cannot be related to exhaustion (Karlsson, 1971a; Keul, 1973).

demand is greater than the energy that can be produced with aerobic metabolism. In supra-maximal exercise, lactate is produced to a greater extent than it is taken up and this is reflected by the greater accumulation of lactate in the muscle and the blood. At low work loads (30% VO₂max), lactate is probably produced but does not accumulate (Di Prampero et al., 1976; Margaria, 1968, 1972). At medium intensity (30-60% VO₂max), which can be sustained for a long time, lactate increases at the beginning but returns

to resting levels with time (Jorfeldt, 1971; Felig and Wahren, 1973; Karlsson et al., 1968; Keul et al., 1972).

Even maximal work after prolonged exercise does not produce the usual lactate rise (Astrand, 1963).

To explain the sudden rise of lactate at the beginning of medium work load, Jorfeldt (1971) and Felig and Wahren (1975) suggested a net release of lactate from white fibers which are mainly composed of M-LDH. When the delay due to circulatory adjustments is finished, the red fibers are able to meet the energy demand aerobically and as time the responsibility of muscle contraction, perhaps using lactate as a substrate. It is known that during prolonged exercise, glycogen depletion as measured at 20, 60, 120 and 180 mm of exercise, first occurs in ST fibers but as the exercise progresses, the FT fibers are also depleted (Gollnick et al., 1973d). But this fiber specific depletion pattern could not be observed before 60 min of exercise and is not necessarily in contrast with the early transient lactate rise that was observed at the 20 min mark (Gollnick et al., 1973d). During repeated 1 min sprints of high intensity interspaced with 10 min of rest, glycogen is first depleted in FT fibers as opposed to the glycogen depletion pattern of prolonged exercise (Gollnick et al., 1973a). (Baldwin et al., 1973; Piehl, 1974) have reported the possibility of a selective recruitment pattern of different fiber types at the onset of work and with various types of

exercise. Essen and Haggmark (1975) recently measured lactage in single muscle fibers* and in pooled muscle fibers of the same type in exercises known to result in lactate formation. With single fiber measurements, they found great variations in post exercise lactate, both for type I and type II fibers reflecting a selective fiber pattern. Lactate from pooled or single fibers was higher in some cases for type II fibers.** The exercise stimuli used in this study were bicycle work at 100% VO2max and stic contraction at 50% of MVC which, if the selective recruitment theory is good, should preferentially involve fast twitch or type II fibers. It would be interesting to have a similar study with exercise of medium intensity where lactate is known to increase at first and to decrease thereafter.

Isoenzyme Pattern Modifications. The crucial and central point of glycolytic regulation by LDH is the LDH subunit or isoenzyme pattern and its possible modification with physiological demand (e.g. training). According to Millar (1974), lactate dehydrogenase must be in an "activated state" to hybridize in vivo. Simple dissociation

^{*} Single muscle fibers were dissected from freeze-dried samples and the ends cut off for identification with myosin ATPase reaction. Single fibers were placed directly in a fluorometric tube for analysis. Pooled fibers (25-50 bers of the same type) were first digested in HCL and the supernatant analysed conventionally.

^{**} No statistical analyses were made in this preliminary study.

to dimers is not enough for hybridization. In vivo, therefore, an environment must be created in which the enzyme is not membrane bound, in which the anti-hybridizing effects of substrate, coenzyme and protective ions are prevented from occurring and in which "activation" can take place. These are highly restrictive conditions. The possibility exists that, in vivo, activating agents are present which negate the influence of the inhibitors and accelerate hybridization.

Newly and preferentially synthesized LDH subunits appear to be the route by which isoenzyme patterns are modified. The half-life of LDH may be as long as 31 days in rat skeletal muscle and somewhat shorter in the liver and the heart (Fritz et al., 1969). Opposite trends have been shown for the time of occurrence of peak specific radioactivities (Don and Master, 1975; Fritz et al., 1969). Heart M4 has been shown to possess a shorter half-life than any other isoenzyme in the heart, the liver or the skeletal muscle of the rat (Fritz et al., 1973).

Acute Exercise and LDH

In serum, LDH and more specifically M-LDH may temporarily increase by as much as 400% in trained and untrained humans and animals if the relative intensity and duration of the work load are sufficient (Block et al., 1969; Bloor and Papadopoulos, 1969; Doty et al., 1971; Fowler et al., 1962; Garbus et al., 1964; Hallonen and Konttinen, 1962;

Haralambie, 1972; Hunter and Critz, 1971; Novosadova, 1969; Papadopoulos et al., 1968; Raven et al., 1970; Rose et al., 1970a and b; Schmidt and Schmidt, 1969; Siest and Galteau, 1974; Wolfson et al., 1972). Many meghanisms, including cellular necrosis, membrane disruption, increased permeability due to hypoxia or to increased circulating catecholamines, increased blood flow, carriers, etc... have been proposed to explain the increased release of LDH and M-LDH from tissue to serum (Atland and Highman, 1961; Doty et al., 1971; Garbus et al., 1964; Highman and Altland, 1963; Karlsson et al., 1968; Raven et al., 1970; Sanders and Bloor, 1975; Schmidt and Schmidt, 1969; Siest and Galteau, 1975; York et al., 1976). Such a release from tissue must rely on some assumptions. For instance, tissue LDH either maintains the same activity but its concentration is decreasing as a result of cellular leakage to serum or increases its activity or its concentration with a concomitant increase in serum. Cellular leakage is not directly related to LDH activity itself and thus does not seem to be related to a possible training effect in tissue LDH. Such a decrease in rat tissue LDH after acute exercise has been reported by Doty et al. (1971). Novosadova (1969) reported that heart, liver and skeletal muscle LDH decrease in trained and untrained rats with acute exercise but serum LDH, paradoxically, increased in untrained rats and decreased in trained Other trends have however been reported for tissue LDH after acute exercise. Garbus et al. (1964) observed

no consistent changes. Gollnick et al. (1967) reported no significant change in LDH activity of rat heart or skeletal muscle after acute exercise. Finally, Karlsson et al. (1968) reported a significant increase in human muscle LDH after prolonged exercise. The reasons for these different findings are unclear at the present time. Karlsson et al. (1968) believed that the increase in muscle LDH was due to an increased enzyme concentration and possibly to a change in the Michaelis constant. Due to the long half-lives of LDH (Fritz et al., 1969, 1973), it seems that such changes must result from a transient change in activity (inhibition or facilitation). This reported increase in human muscle LDH after strenuous prolonged exercise appears to be paradoxical and is unique in the literature. It seems paradoxical because 1) such prolonged exercise is known to yield low Lactate levels (Astrand et al., 1963; Jorfeldt, 1971; Felig and Wahren, 1973; Karlsson et al., 1968; Keul et al., 1972), LDH activity is well above the maximal rate of lactate formation in vivo (Karlsson et al., 1968), 3) training with prolonged exercise does not increase human skeletal muscle LDH (Bylund et al., 1977; Morgan et al., 1971; Sjodin et al., 1976a and b), 4) and all other human and animal studies ' showed similar increases in serum LDH after acute exercise and all other animal studies* either showed a decrease or no change in tissue LDH after acute exercise.

^{*} A recent preliminary study (Sjodin, 1976a) indicated that LDH and M-LDH did not change in human muscle after a 100 km race.

differences are not excluded. In this regard, it is interesting to note that in rat serum about 80% of the LDH is present as M-LDH (Bloor and Papadopoulos, 1969; Garbus et al, 1964; Raven et al., 1970) as compared to 20-30% for human serum (Barengo and Itoiz, 1972; Block et al., 1969; Dietz and Lubrano, 1967; Rose et al., 1970). Acute effects of exercise on LDH appear to be transitory and quite independant of chronic effects of exercise. Thus the acute effects of exercise on LDH are not a very useful aid to understanding the chronic effects of exercise.

Chronic exercise and LDH

Although the relationship between serum and tissue LDH is puzzling, training does effectively reduce the LDH rise in serum at a particular submaximal work load (Bloor and Papadopoulos, 1969; Garbus et al., 1964; Hunter et al., 1971; Novosadova, 1969; Papadopoulos et al., 1968; Rose et al., 1970a; Wolfson et al., 1972) and at rest (Hallonen and Konttinen, 1962). Another study has reported, however, a mild but significant increase in resting serum after training (Hunter and Critz, 1971).

In tissues, LDH changes appear to be related to the type of training as well as to the type of tissue. Endurance training, either running or swimming, appears to increase the LDH activity of the heart (per mg of N_2 or mg of fresh tissue) by 10 to 30% (Gollnick et al., 1961, 1967; Walpurger and Anger, 1970; York et al.,

1975 and 1976) and more specifically, the M-LDH* activity by 22 to 30% as well as the M-LDH% by 3 to 5% (Peter, 1970; York et al., 1975 and 1976). The LDH increase in the heart may be a function of the intensity and duration of training as well as of the age at which the training regimen was started (York et al., 1975 and 1976). Two other studies (Peter, 1970; Ruhling et al., 1973) reported nonsignificant changes in total LDH activity of the heart after endurance training.

In skeletal muscles, LDH adaptation to endurance exercise appears more complex and more confusing. Generally, fast twitch skeletal muscle of endurance trained athletes have 30 to 68% less LDH activity than sedentary subjects (Costill et al., 1976; Karlsson et al., 1975; Suominen and Heikkinen, 1975). Genetic endowment may explain these differences since none of the endurance training studies in humans showed significant changes in mixed skeletal muscle (Bylund et al., 1977; Morgan et al., 1971; Sjodin et al., 1976a and b). In each case studied, however, there was a decrease of 6 to 22%. Most training studies in animals also showed decreases of 7 to 58% in fast twitch skeletal muscles. These trends were often non significant in the mixed FG and FOG gastrocnemius and plantaris (Böhmer, 1969;

^{*} In many cases, M-LDH activity and M-LDH% have been estimated from isoenzyme activities or % using the following formula:

 $M-LDH = 0.25 H_3M + 0.5 H_2M_2 + 0.75 HM_3 + M_4$

Gollnick et al., 1967; Hickson et al., 1976; Holloszy, 1971;
Molé et al., 1973) and sometimes significan in FG muscles
(Baldwin et al., 1972, 1973; Hickson et al., 1976; York
et al., 1974). Two studies reported no change (Gollnick
and Hearn, 1961; Gould and Rawlinson, 1959) and another
reported a 39% nonsignificant increase in rat biceps brachii
with tonic training (Zika et al., 1973). In slow twitch
muscle, like the soleus, there may be an opposite trend
with an increase of about 12% in LDH activity after endurance
training on a treadmill (Baldwin et al., 1972b and 1973).
Hickson et al. (1976) have, however, reported a small but
significant decrease in soleus LDH using a running wheel
device. It was also found that FOG muscles had a greater
decrease in LDH activity than FG muscles (Baldwin et al.,

The effects of sprint training on tissue LDH are less well documented and appear even more confusing than the effects of endurance training. Fast twitch skeletal muscles of sprint and strength trained athletes have significantly higher LDH and M-LDH activity than endurance trained athletes and sedentary persons (Costill et al., 1976; Karlsson et al., 1975). Although present, none of the increasing trends were significant in sprint training studies dealing with humans (Sjodin et al., 1976b; Thorstenson et al., 1975). Hickson et al. (1976) did report a significant 15-20% decrease with sprint training in fast twitch skeletal muscles of rats whereas Staudte et al. (1973) reported no change

1973; York <u>et</u> <u>al</u>., 1974).

after a 21 day sprint training study. In the heart, Ruhling et al. (1973) found no myocardial LDH change with sprint training. Isometric training that brought exhaustion in 4 to 5 min, 3 times twice a day for 25 days in a row with at least 30 min recovery between each exercise bout, had no effect on LDH activity of fast twitch rectus femoris of female rats but decreased the LDH activity in the soleus (Exner et al., 1973a). In male rats, there were no change in LDH activity of either rectus femoris or soleus after a similar isometric training (Exner et al., 1973b).

To summarize, endurance training appears to decrease LDH and M-LDH activity in fast twitch skeletal muscle, and to increase these activities in the heart and soleus. The changes in LDH are a function of the fiber type composition of the muscles. On the other hand, the few sprint training studies reported either indicate a similar or an opposite LDH behaviour in mixed skeletal muscle of humans and other mammals.

The decrease in LDH of fast twitch skeletal muscle with endurance training could be explained by the increased oxidative capacity of these muscles (Baldwin et al., 1972) and by the greater contribution of aerobic metabolism to energy demand. It has been shown that during endurance training more pyruvate is converted to alanine or is directed toward the citric acid cycle and more fat is oxidized (Felig and Wahren, 1975; Gollnick et al., 1969, 1970, 1972;

Holloszy, 1971; Molé et al., 1973). Therefore, less energy is coming from the LDH reaction, particularly from the M-LDH reaction, and the observed LDH decrease might be a secondary side effect of the increasedoxidative capacity. On the other hand, the increase of LDH in the heart, which has been attributed to the most anaerobic subunit (i.e. M-LDH) is surprising, particularly in view of the fact that endurance training increases the utilisation of lactate as a substrate (Keul, 1973a). This heart specific adaptation is not ex-· clusive to LDH, and is consistent with other findings. this regard, it is interesting to note that Hearn and Gollnick (1961) reported increased ATPase activity in the heart but not in the gastrocnemius of endurance swim-trained Heart muscle also usually shows less oxidative adaptation to endurance training than skeletal muscle (Baldwin et al., 1977a; Holloszy, 1975; Oscai et al., 1971b).

It is known that LDH half-lives were estimated to 1.6, 16 and 31 days in the heart, liver and skeletal muscle respectively (Fritz et al., 1969). In addition, M_L isoenzyme of the heart has a much shorter half-life than any other isoenzyme of the heart, liver or skeletal muscle (Fritz et al., 1973). These facts are consistent with the heart LDH and M-LDH activity changes, but could not explain the long term adaptation that resulted from a 6 month training regimen.

York et al. (1975 and 1976) have shown that experimen-

tal hypoxia resulted in M-LDH concentrations twice as large as those found after running or swimming, in both ventricles and atria, even though hypertrophy was present only in the right ventricle and atria. Hypoxia appears more important for M-LDH synthesis than hypertrophy and its accompanied cellular and chemical changes. . If hypertrophy per se would increase the activities of LDH, as has been hypothesized (York et al., \$975), one would expect relative increases in other glycolytic enzyme activities. To date, this phenomnot been demonstrated in the literature (Baldwin et al., 1973; Gollnick and Hermansen, 1973; Saubert et al., 1973; York et al., 1975). Hypertrophy might still explain partially, at least, some of the LDH increases in the heart. In this regard, Walpurger and Anger (1970) reported significant heart LDH increases and hypertrophy only in the running training group and not in the swimming group. *

Therefore, hypoxia appears more important than hypertrophy to explain LDH and M-LDH increases in the heart. Such hypoxic changes would be consistent with the aerobicanaerobic theory previously described and other reports on the effects of hypoxia on LDH (Dawson et al., 1964; Fox and Reed, 1969; Hellung et al., 1973; Thorling and Jensen, 1966). Since oxygen delivery to the heart might not be limited during moderate sustained exercise (Holloszy, 1973; Rowell, 1974; York et al., 1975 and 1976), York et al. (1975 and

Baldwin et al. (1972a, 1977a and b) reported that swimming usually resulted in greater heart hypertrophy than running in rats.

1976) believed that M-LDH could increase in the absence of hypoxia but gave no alternative explanation for this be-The situation is somewhat similar to the oxidative havior. enzyme rise after aerobic training since.0, tension in muscle appears more than adequate (Rowell, 1974; Stainsby, 1973) and where the oxygen uptake, even at maximal rate, is well below the oxidative enzyme activities (Holloszy, 1967 and 1971).* Thus, the oxidative enzymes as well as LDH. appear to adapt to a situation where the energy demand is increased or the oxygen availability is decreased even though it does not reach a critical level. In skeletal muscle, the oxidative enzymes appear to adapt first to the In the heart, the demand resulting in a decrease in LDH. oxidative enzymes adapt to a lesser extent (Baldwin et al., 1977a; Holloszy, 1975; Oscai et al., 1971b) maybe because oxidative enzyme levels in the heart are already in a trained state and closer to a possible physiological limit so that the extra energy demand of training has to be met by increased LDH activity. The increase in the soleus LDH activity is harder to explain on the hypoxia basis. is possible that this slow twitch muscle might have been under a greater stess than fast twitch muscles if equally solicitated by the running action. It is known that glycogen is depleted faster in ST fibers as compared to FT fibers in prolonged exercise (Gollnick et al., 1973a, d).

The oxygen supply as a limiting factor to muscular contraction is still an open question however (Bostrom et al., 1974; Kaijser, 1970 and 1973).

Those facts might indicate a possible rôle of anaerobic glycolysis in this muscle.

Hypoxia might be a stimulus for LDH adaptation but it is hard to reconcile the facts that on one side trained heart oxidizes more lactate in moderate exercise and on the other side, has higher LDH and M-LDH activity. The fact that other glycolytic enzymes of the heart do not increase and that more fat is being oxidized might be at the origin of the LDH changes. Trained skeletal muscles also use more lactate as subtrate and training might reduce the circulating lactate.

With sprint training which does not increase the VO₂max (Sjodin et al., 1976b and Thorstenson et al., 1975), an increase in LDH activity seems to be mandatory to meet the energy demand. The fact that animal studies did not support such an adaptative pattern may be due to the insufficiency of the training programs. Hickson et al. (1976) used only 10 sec work intervals and 40 sec rest intervals. Staudte et al. (1973) used longer work intervals (45 sec) but their rats did only 4 repetitions a day and trained only for 21 days.

Other reasons seem to warrant further investigation on the effect of chronic exercise on LDH activity and LDH subunits. As endurance and sprint training might have opposite effects on LDH, one form of these exercises has to be used exclusively. The use of mixed regimens (e.g. sprint

intervals superimposed to endurance running) might explain some of the nonsignificant results reported earlier (Holloszy, 1971; Molé et al., 1973) and should be avoided. Since many of these studies were significant only when studying the quadriceps muscles (Baldwin et al., 1972a and 1973; Hickson et al., 1976; York et al., 1974) and not significant when dealing with the gastrocnemius or the plantaris (Böhmer, 1969; Gollnick et al., 1961, 1967; Hickson et al., 1976; Holloszy, 1971; Molé et al., 1973), there may be specific muscle recruitement that should be further investigated. Gould and Rawlinson (1959) have reported no LDH change in the rat biceps brachii after swimming training, but it is not clear that this muscle is a prime mover for this motion. A biochemical comparison of "agonist" and "antagonist" muscles appears necessary. Finally, in many of the reviewed studies, total LDH activity was often measured at only one pyruvate concentration and M-LDH% was estimated without the previous determination of the speciesspecific optimal pyruvate concentrations for M-LDH and H-LDH. This may explain some of the many nonsignificant but large percentage changes reported in the literature.

Metabolism of High Energy Compounds*

ATP is the immediate source of energy for muscular contraction (Cain et al., 1962; Davies, 1971; Maréchal, 1972; Mommaerts, 1969). ATPase catalyses the conversion of ATP

See footnote on next page.

into ADP. Because ATP stores are very limited (Davies, 1971; Karlsson, 1971a), ATP has to be resythesized continually to pursue muscular contraction. Most newly resynthesized ATP comes from oxidative metabolism and anaerobic glycolysis. In addition, minute amounts come from the conversion of PC and ADP into ATP through the two following reactions:

and

Adenosine Triphosphate and Phosphorylcreatine

Energy liberated from the reverse of PC is the most rapidly available (Cain et al., 1962; Di Prampero et al., 1970; Hohorst et al., 1962; Hultman et al., 1967; Karlsson, 1971a; Keul et al., 1972; Margaria, 1972; Piiper and Spiller, 1970). PC breakdown seems to provide most of the energy necessary for a 6 to 20 seconds work bout of high intensity like a 100 meter run (Keul, 1973; Margaria, 1968, 1972).

^{*} Ennor and Morrisson (1958) have reviewed the origin of the term "Phosphagen" and suggested that "Phosphagens" should be regarded as a generic name embracing all (and restricted to) those naturally occurring phosphorylated guanidine compounds which function as stores of phosphatebond energy from which phosphoryl groups may be transferred to ADP to form ATP as a result of enzymatic catalysis. Thus ATP itself is not a phosphagen as it is often implied (Cerretelli and Di Prampero, 1969; Gollnick and Hermansen, 1973; Karlsson, 1971a; Pernow and Saltin, 1971). In addition, phosphorylcreatine is preferred to phosphocreatine or to creatine phosphate since it does contain a phosphoryl group (creatine-PO3H2) and not a phosphate group (-PO4H2). Thus, "High Energy Compounds" or "Energy Rich Compounds" expressions appear more adequate to describe the combination of ATP and PC compounds than the term "Phosphagens".

Even with limited stores, ATP and PC initial levels have a definite effect on this kind of sport performance. PC stores are depleted very soon at work (Cain et al., 1962; Davies, 1971; Di Prampero et al., 1970; Ericksson et al., 1973; Hohorst et al., 1962; Hultman et al., 1967; Karlsson et al., 1971a; Keul et al., 1972; chapt. III; Knutgen and Saltin, 1973; McGilvery and Murray, 1974) whatever the working intensity (Di Prampero et al., 1970; Karlsson, 1971a; Keul et al., 1972, chapt. III). ATP levels are usually maintained at equilibrium or more or less depleted in very severe work of if CPK-is inhibited (Cain et al., 1962; Davies, 1971; Hohorst et al., 1962; Hultman et al., 1967). Most PC stores are replenished very rapidly, within 2 minutes in man or animals (Fox et al., 1969; Hultman et al., 1967; Margaria 1968, 1972; Piiper and Spiller, 1970).

Other facts support the importance of high energy compounds on contractile performance. Borredon (1967) showed a negative correlation between PC levels of the heart and electrocardiographic ST depression. Feinstein (1962), Fox and Reed (1966) and Rabinowitz and Zak (1975) reported up to 24 and 54% decrease in ATP and PC with experimental congestive heart failure. Total tension developed in the anaerobic state seems to be related to ATP and PC levels (Cerretelli and Di Prampero, 1969; Harris et al., 1975).

Remains performance in rats was reduced when the creatine reserve was itself decreased with a synthetic creatine analog diet (Shields et al., 1975). Cairella and Vecchi (1966) and

Cier (1965) reported an increased swimming endurance time in rats after ingestion of PC supplements.

Many experimental conditions - PC, K and Mg + Aspartate, amino-Acids, Monosodium Phosphate, vitamin C administration have been shown to increase ATP and PC levels (Pourel, 1968). Rabinowitz and Zak (1975) recently reviewed several forms of cardiac hypertrophy (e.g. acute cardiac overload, developing cardiac hypertrophy, compensated cardiac hypertrophy) and found a secrease or no significant changes in ATP and PC. Degenria (1975) and Scheuer et al. (1970) reported similar results for endurance swimming training in rat heart. In 1961, Gangloff et al. reported a paradoxical 32% increase in rat heart after endurance treadmill training, but the values (e.g. 1.5 mmole/kg wet weight) were well under the usual reported range (5-11 mmole/kg wet weight) my of the results reported before 1960 are low due to poor sampling and extraction techniques (Wollenberger et al., 1960) and thus, are questionable.

In the skeletal muscles, the effect of physical training on ATP and PC stores is somewhat confusing. According to Yakolev (1965) and Yampolskaya (1952) (as quoted by Haralambie, 1972), PC levels increased up to 75% after training with short exercises of high intensity as compared to lower intensity training. Russian workers are currently, assessing the efficiency of their training programs with the specific PC response to training (Rogozkin, 1976). There

may be an opposite trend in PC adaptation in heart and skeletal muscle (Harren, 1938, quoted by Haralambie, 1972). Other studies, however, are no more conclusive. Compared to sedentary rats, Gale and Nagle (1971) found that neither sprint nor endurance running-trained rats had significantly different ATP and PC levels of the soleus and gastrochemius plantaris muscle group. Absolute values reported by these authors were only about 50% of the usual values. Saltin and Karlsson (1971) studied the effect of physical conditioning in man on ATP and PC but reported no significant change on these parameters. Karlsson et al. (1972) showed that endurance training increases ATP but not PC levels of the quadriceps. Thorstensson et al. (1975) did not show any significant change in ATP and PC after short sprint training in man. Swimming also failed to alter significantly the ATP levels of rat gastrocnemius (Böhmer, 1969)

Ericksson et al. (1973) reported an 11 and 39% increase of ATP and PC respectively in vastus lateralis of 11-13 years old boys after 6 months of general conditioning. They explained the ATP increase by the concomitant mitochondrial increase but could not explain the unusual increase in PC. It is interesting to note that the pre-training values were 14.5 as compared to 20.2 mmole x kg⁻¹ wet weight after training. Scandinavian groups (Bergstrom et al., 1971; Harris et al., 1974; Hultman et al., 1967; Karlsson et al., 1971a) usually have reported values of 17 to 21 mmole x kg⁻¹ wet weight in human adult quadriceps. Since there was no

reported by Ericksson et al. (1973) reflected an aging effect rather than a training effect. Casten (1950) and Quarto di Palo (1960) previously reported an increase in PC but not in ATP in maturing rats.

To summarize, it seems that training induces a decrease in ATP and PC levels of the heart. In the skeletal muscle, the situation is not conclusive and requires further investigation. Some authors (Ericksson et al., 1973; Jacobs and Klingenberg, 1964; Haralambie, 1972; Keul et al., 1972, chapt. III; McGilvery and Murray, 1974; Rabinowitz and Zak, 1975; Saks et al., 1974; Seraydarian et al., 1974) questioned the physiological importance of possible ATP and PC changes. They believe that enzyme activities (CPK and AK) are more efficient ways to adapt to the energy demand and that PC may be more important as a regulator of other energy synthetic reactions or as a form of energy that can be transported from the mitochondria to the myofibrils rather than being a storage form of energy.

Creatine phosphokinase

3

Creatine phosphokinase (CPK) is a dimer composed of a brain type (B) and a muscle type subunit (M), but the nature and the function of the three isoenzymes (BB, BM, MM) is very unclear (Traugott et al., 1973). As the amount of brain type CPK is usually very low in muscle (Saks et al., 1974), more concern is given to total CPK.

The effects of acute exercise on serum CPK are well documented (Block et al., 1969; Fowler et al., 1962 and 1968; Haralambie, 1972, 1973; Hunter and Critz, 1970; Kendrick-Jones and Perry, 1965; Nuttall and Jones, 1968; Rose et al., 1970; Sanders and Bloor, 1975; Schmids and Schmidt, 1969; Siest and Galteau, 1971; Wagner and Critz, 1970). that serum CPK may increase up to 400% (Wagner and Critz, 1970) and is a better index of the work load intensity than other enzymes (Sanders and Bloor, 1975). Kendrick-Jones and Perry (1965) and Wagner and Critz (1970) reported a muscle CPK rise after acute exercise or in vitro contraction (isometric or isotonic) but this could not be confirmed by Oscai and Holloszy (1971) and Dieter (1970) unless there were Vit C deficiencies. On the other hand, Bostrom et al. (1974a and b) reported a decrease in tissue CPK after swimming or in vitro stimulation (isometric or isotonic). Serum and tissue changes after acute exercise are generally transient and have probably little significance for the understanding of the chronic effects of exercise on tissue CPK.

The effects of chronic exercise on tissue CPK appear inconsistent from one report to another. Endurance training has been shown to increase the animal heart, soleus and gastrocnemius CPK by more than 10% (Wagner and Critz, 1970). Other studies (Böhmer, 1969; Dart and Holloszy, 1969; Dieter, 1970; Oscai and Hollow, 1971; Rawlinson and Gould, 1959; Walpurger and Anger, 1970) reported no CPK change in either mitochondrial or cytoplasmic extracts of heart or skeletal

muscles. Bohmer (1969) and Kendrick-Jones and Perry (1965) showed a CPK decrease in human and animal muscles after immobilisation, but this does not imply a tissue CPK increase after training. As a matter of fact, Suominen and Heikkinen (1975) and Thorstensson et al. (1974, 1976a and b) failed to show a CPK increase in human muscle after endurance and strength training respectively. On the other hand, Thorstensson et al. (1975) found a 35% increase in human muscle after sprint training. In animals, sprint training resulted in a 12% CPK increase in the soleus but did not change the CPK activity of the rectus femoris (Staudte et al., 1973), whereas isometric training had a reciprocal effect in these two muscles, both in male and female rats (Exner et al., 1973).

To summarize, tissue CPK does not seem to change with training except perhaps with sprint and isometric training. Further research is required to substantiate CPK adaptation to chronic exercise.

Adenylate Kinase

ATP can be resynthesized through the adenylate kinase (AK) reaction. According to Newsholme and Start (1973), the energy provided by this reaction can suffice for 3 seconds at most. From the athlete's point of view, this could be very important. For biochemists, however, this is a very small amount of energy as compared to other energy sources. Newsholme and Start (1973) considered this reaction as an amplification mechanism for the regulation of glycolysis

since the AK reaction is alway close to equilibrium and the ATP concentration is 50 times larger than the AMP concentration. Relatively small changes in ATP are amplified by the relatively large change in the AMP effector. Other functions have been attributed to AK, such as a rephosphorylation of the adenylic acid accumulating with the oxidation of the fatty acid (Pette, 1971) or an extra intramitochondrial adenosine nucleotide exchange (Klingenberger, 1965). Thus, the biochemical function of AK is not clearly determined. Adenylate kinase adaptations to chronic exercise are not more conclusive. Oscai and Holloszy (1971) indicated no change in mitochondrial and cytoplasmic adenylate kinase after endurance running in rat gastrocnemius. heart muscle, however, Walpurger and Anger (1970) found a 50% and a 30% rises in cytoplasmic, but not in mitochondrial, AK after endurance swimming and running in the rat respective-Dart and Holloszy (1969) failed however to demonstrate any AK adaptation after experimental heart hypertrophy in the rat using arteriovenous fistula. In human skeletal muscles, Thorstensson et al. (1975 and 1976b) failed to show any AK change after sprint and strength training although they observed a 7.8% significant increase with strength training in a previous study (Thorstensson et al., 1976a).

In conclusion, it seems that skeletal muscle AK changes rarely with training, except maybe with strength training.

There is also a possible increase in the heart AK activity.

0

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Animals

Forty male Sprague Dawley rats (Canadian Breeding Farm and Laboratories, Ltd., St. Constant, Quebec) were used in the study. The rats were approximately six weeks * of age and weighed 160 \pm 17 grams (X \pm SD) at the time of arrival. The animals were placed in 60 X 60 X 30 cm selfcleaning cages at 25°C, 250% relative humidity and 755 mm Hg in groups of ten for the first 8 weeks and in groups of five thereafter. Cage locations in the rack were rotated in a random fashion once a week. Rats were exposed to the usual 12hr daylight and 12hr darkness. Rats were identified with a color code on the proximal end of the tail with the use of a marking pen. Rats were fed ad libitum with tap water and standard rat chow (Charles River Rat and Mouse Formula) containing 22% protein, 5% fat, 5% fiber and 11% moisture.

Experimental Groups

After an initial exercise program, the thirty best runners were numbered in order by weight and randomly assigned to one of three experimental groups*:

^{*} At that time, the rats were relocated according to their new group, always 10 per cage. This resulted in aggressive behaviour which was somewhat reduced by putting 5 rats per cage. Individual cages were unavailable due to restricted facilities.

Sgr: Sedentary group

Cgr: Continuous training group

Igr: Intermittent training group

Mean group weights of the rats (X + SD) were 305.0 + 26.5, 317 + 18.0, 311.7 + 20.4 grams for Sgr, Cgr and Igr respectively at time of group assignment. Due to the limited availability of the "trainer", running time had to be changed a few times during this 6 month experimental period. On a few occasions, training was conducted in the evening with the lights on. At all other times, the rats were trained in day light either in the morning at 8:00 or at the end of the afternoon at 17:00. The attrition rate for the experimental animals was 2 of 10 per group.

Initial Exercise Program. After one week of only cage activity for adaptation to the new environment, an initial exercise program, consisting of running five days per week for four weeks, was provided. Running took place on a motor-driven treadmill accomodating 10 animals at a time and incorporating a shock grid at the rear of the compartments to motivate the animals to keep pace with the belt movement (Quinton Instruments, Seattle, Wash. U.S.A., mall Animal Treadmill, Model 42-15). The rats learned to run continuously for 6 minutes on an 8% grade with the speed progressively increased from 10 to 31 m/min. This progression is low enough to avoid significant training effects on the activities of the oxydative enzymes (Benzi et al., 1975; Fitts et al., 1975; Holloszy, 1967; Molé et al., 1973).

In addition, following the continuous work, the initial exercise program included low intensity intermittent running, starting with 10 X 15 sec work at 15m/min with 15 sec rest intervals and finishing with 10 X 14 sec work at 35-40 m/min with 10 sec rest intervals. The initial training program was deleted thereafter for the initial training program was deleted thereafter for the initial effect of training, it was assumed that the initial training program would have no training effect at the time of sacrifice.

The sedentary group (Sgr) was restricted to normal cage activity: eating, drinking, sleeping, walking, fighting and weekly weighing.

The continuous training group (Cgr) ran for 6 months. Five days per week. The treadmill was set at 31 m/min and 8% grade. The duration of the training session was gradually increased from 10 to 50 minutes over 3 months, maintained at this level for 1.5 month and reduced to 40 minutes for the last 1.5 month.* This training stimulus is believed to be the maximal that can be handled by these rats. It was therefore impossible to reproduce Holloszy's training

^{*} The training load had to be reduced because the rats failed to run after 40 minutes even with increased electrical stimulation. This behavior may be linked to the cage re-assignment that followed the initial exercise program since the rats were harder to train at that time. Reduced training had also been reported by others (Barnard and Peter, 1971; Peter, 1970).

regimen (1967) as originally intended. Holloszy was able to have young Wistar rats running for 2 hours after 3 months and demonstrated significant changes in the oxidative capacity of the rats (Baldwin et al., 1972; Holloszy, 1967; Molé et al., 1973; Pattengale and Holloszy, 1967). Nevertheless, Fitts et al. (1975) and Gollnick et al. (1970) have reported intensive glycogenolytic and lipolytic responses in rats with a training regimen similar to the one used in this study.

The intermittent training program (Igr) was designed to cause a greater effect on the anaerobic metabolism. Consequently, the intensity was higher than for the continuous training. Each training session started with a 5 minute warm-up period at 31 m/min and 8% grade. The rats ran 10 X 1 minute at an intensity that was gradually increased from 40 to 75 m/min over the first 5 months and minimal hed at 70 m/min (8% slope) during the 6th month. Each work interval was interspaced by a 4 minute rest interval.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables mostly present key metabolites or enzymes of the anaerobic abolism in different tissues. These include:

1. Absolute weight of the body or the organs, Wabs.

These measures provide simple check of the effectiveness of the training programs;

- 2. Relative weight of the organ, Wrel. The ratio of organs Wabs over body Wabs is used as a parameter per se as well as a relative index of organ weight since the usual decrease of body weight with training may compensate for the expected organ hypertrophy. For the second purpose, regressed weights (Gollnick et al., 1967; Héroux and Gridgeman, 1958; Muller, 1975; Tanner, 1949) are usually better than Wrel, but will not be reported here since no significant correlations between organ weights and body weights were observed in this study. In addition, it has been reported that Wrel is similar to the regressed weight of muscles (Héroux and Gridgeman, 1958; Muller, 1975);
- 3. Adenosine triphosphate, ATP;
- 4. Phosphorylcheatine, PC;
- 5. ATP + PC;
- 6. Creatine phosphokinase, CPK (E.C. No. 2.7.3.2, ATP: qreatine phosphoryltransferase);
- 7. Adenylate kinase, AK (E.C. No. 2.7.4.3, ATP: AMP phosphotransferase);
- 8-13. Lactate dehydrogenase, LDH (E.C. No. 1.1.1.27, L-Lactate: NAD oxidoreductase);
 - 8. LDH activity at 21x10⁻⁴M PA, LDH₂₁; at high pyruvic acid concentration, there is inhibition of the heart type of LDH subunit;

- 9. LDH activity at $3x10^{-4}$ M PA, LDH₃; at low pyruvic acid concentration, there is inhibition of the muscle type of LDH subunit;
- 10. The ratio of LDH₂₁ over LDH₃, LDH₂₁/LDH₃, is a good indicator of the percentage of heart and muscle types of LDH subunits, an important aspect of anaerobic metabolism since "H" type favors the lactate to pyruvate reaction whereas the "M" type favors the pyruvate to lactate reaction;
- 11. LDH activity related to muscle type of LDH subunits, M-LDH;
- 12. LDH activity related to heart, type of LDH subunits, H-LDH;
- 13. Total LDH activity = M-LDH + H-LDH, LDH.

 The dependent variables as well as their sampling sites are listed in Table 3.

Sampling Procedures

At the end of the training period, rats were sacrificed at rest, two days after the last work bout to avoid
acute exercise effects on dependent variables.

The measurement of ATP and PC is critical for the sampling procedures due to the rapid hydrolysis in anaerobic conditions (Karlsson, 1971; Lamprecht, 1963; Lowry et al., 1964a and b). Rats were anesthetized with an intraperitoneal injection of 50 mg of Nembutal (sodium pentobarbital Abbott, 50 mg/ml) per kg of body weight. This anesthetic

8 LIVER (H 6 7 SOLEUS HEART (H) છુ 4 5 GASTROCNEMIUS MEDIALIS LATERALIS (GI) (CW) 3 PLANTARIS (P) 2 TIBIALIS ANTERIOR (TA) (.1 1 BODY (BM) LDH_{21}/LDH_{3} TOTAL LDH ATP + PC 1.DH21** M - LDH HOT - H LDH3** MEAS URES* Wrel ATP CPK AK **P**C 13. 10. 12. 11.

Listing of Dependent Variables

3

TABLE

See Table 1 for abbreviations. ** IDH at $21\%10^{-4}$ M and $3x10^{-4}$ M PA respectively.

was preferred to ether in order to minimize excitation and also possible changes in enzyme activities that occur with ether (Ben et al., 1969; Katona, 1973). However, Nembutal has a depressive effect on the cardiovascular system (Sawyer et al., 1971) and definite effects on substrate concentrations of rat liver (Faupel et al., 1972). levels are not affected by Nembutal (Faupel et al., 1972). The effects of Nembutat on heart and skeletal muscle substrates and on enzymes are not known but the number and the sites of sampled tissues required anaesthesia of the rats. A systematic error, if any, should not disturb comparisons of the three training groups. After discarding the skin and the superficial muscle layers, the muscles of the left leg were isolated in the following order GM, TA, S, P, GL, with minimum trauma, leaving intact the circulation, innervation and insertions.

Each muscle was isolated with a small plastic plate approximately 15 cm long, 1 mm thick, and 1.5 cm wide at one end and 3 cm at the ther. The plastic plate had protuberant rounded edges increasing the thickness of the plate to 4 mm. This plate assured better thermal insulation and made it easier to grasp the suspended muscle with copper tongs precooled in liquid mitrogen (-190°C). The muscle was then cut immediately along the edge of the copper tongs and put into the liquid nitrogen. Protruding tissue was broken off the copper tongs to avoid contamination with

slowly frozen tissue. The samples were immediately wrapped in aluminum foil and temporarily stored in liquid nitrogen and then, in a deep freeze at -60°C (Revco, Ultralow, Model ULT-075-0-2) until chemical analysis was carried out. At these temperatures samples are stable almost indefinitely. (Lowry and Passonneau, 1972, pp. 120-122).

1) modified by soldering a pair of copper blocks to the original lips of the pliers in such a way that block surfaces always compressed the muscle into a parallel sheet of 1 mm thickness to ensure even, rapid and constant freezing within and between samples. Copper was preferred to the often used aluminum because it offers a slightly higher thermal conductivity and freezes 1.4 X more tissue for the same block size due to a higher density that largely compensates for its lower specific heat*. Each copper block was

Thermal conductivity (Watt/cm)

	ooc	25 ⁰ C	-173°C
Aluminum	2.36	2.37	3.0
Copper	4.01	3.98	4.83.

Specific heat (cal/g.C^o)
 Al: 0.215; Cu: 0.093

^{*} Physical characteristics (Handbook of Chemistry and Physics, 1973).

Density (g/cm³)
 Al: 2.7; Cu: 8.9

^{4.} $\Delta Q = mc \Delta t \text{ or } m_1 c_1 \Delta t_1 = m_2 c_2 \Delta t_2$ where $\Delta Q = mas \text{ heat transfer (calories)}$ m' = mass (grams) $c' = specific heat \text{ (cal/g.C}^0)$ $\Delta t = change in temperature \text{ (C}^0)$

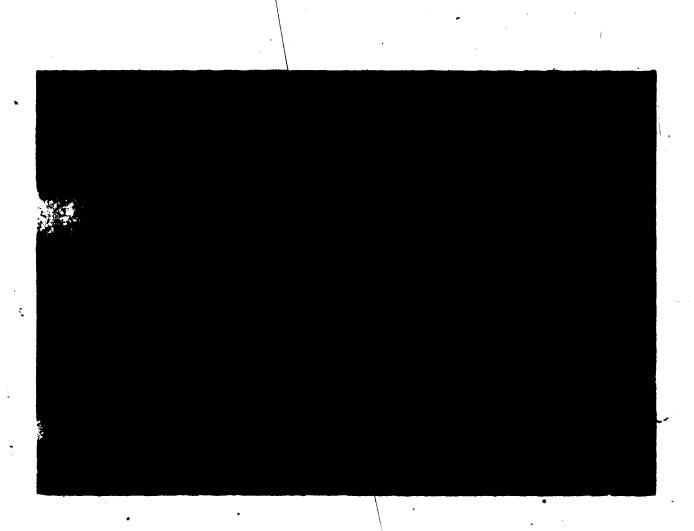


PLATE 1. MODIFIED VISE-GRIP PLIERS WITH COPPER BLOCKS USED TO FREEZE THE TISSUES IN SITU

1 cm thick; other dimensions can be deduced from its cross section (Figure 3). Such a design allowed samples of various sizes and shapes to be taken.

It is believed that such a freezing technique is the simplest and the best available (Adam, 1963a; Cartier, 1967a; Eranko, 1954, Faupel et al., 1972; Hess, 1963; Lampretch et al., 1963a and b; Leunissen and Piatnek-Leunissen, 1968; Lowry and Passonneau, 1972; Pourel, 1968; Swynghedauw et al., 1967). Compared to immersion techniques using various refrigerants, "quick-freeze" tongs yielded better results. Even for isopentane, the best refrigerant, freezing $(36^{\circ}$ to 0° C) required over 7 sec with tissue samples as small as 200 mg due to the heat isolation of immersed tissues. This is caused by the development of a gaseous wrap of refrigerant (phenomenon of Leidenfrost) and is also due to the low thermal conductivity of the tissue This delay is sufficient to cause hydrolysis of ATP and metabolic changes in many other substrates (Faupel <u>et al., 1972).</u>

The heart was extirpated next. It has been shown that the anoxia delay due to the opening of the thorax is enough to cause hydrolysis of ATP and PC (Adam, 1963a; Lampretch et al., 1963a and b). Therefore, a tracheotomy was performed for assisted ventilation using an artificial, respiratory pump, (Rodent pump, Model 680-1, payard Apparatus Co., Dover, Mass. U.S.A.). The thorax was then opened and the heart was lifted by its apex and flattened

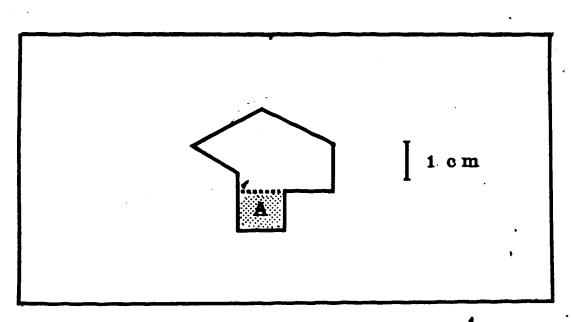


FIGURE 3. OVERHEAD DIMENSIONS OF COPPER BLOCKS USED

IN FREEZING TISSUES. BLOCKS WERE SOLDERED

TO THE ORIGINAL JAWS OF THE VISE-GRIP PLIERS

WITH PART "A". BLOCKS WERE 1 CM THICK.

maintained for weighing and enzyme analyses. Non-beating hearts due to poor ventilation were eliminated from ATP and PC analyses. Heart tissue was analysed similarly to the analyses mentioned previously for the left leg samples.

The liver was removed, frozen by immersion in liquid nitrogen and stored in a freezer at -60°C for further weighing and analyses. Finally, the muscles of the right leg were isolated, dissected, frozen by immersion, and stored at -60°C for weighing and enzyme analyses.

Analytical Methods

All chemicals used in this study and their source of supply are listed in Appendix G.

Tissue Preparation

Enzyme analyses. Fifty to 100 mg of wet tissue were blotted for blood, freed of connective tissue and weighed to one tenth of a milligram. Tissues were homogenized using 10 ml of 0.25 M sucrose per g of tissue with a Kontes glass pestle and tubes of size AA or A. (Canadian Scientific Company, Montreal, Canada, Cat. No. 885451 and 885452 for the pestles and the tubes respectively). The pestle was rotated by a motor (Fisher Scientific Co., Montreal, Canada, Dyna-Mix Model 143) at about 1000 rpm using rubber tubing as an universal joint. The tube was moved up and down manually (about 30 times to complete muscle disintegration) and frequently put in ice to prevent over-heating, (Hess,

1963). Crude homogenates were centrifuged at 4000 g and 4°C for 10-15 min (International Equipment Co., Centrifuge, No. PR-6000). Then, to bring the absorbance changes into the region of 0.02 to 0.05 absorbance units per minute with the assay mixtures, further dilutions were made as follows:

ENZYMES	SKELETAL MUSCLE	HEART	LIVER
AK	1/100	1/100	1/100
СРК	1/10000	1/1000	1/100
рін	1/1000	1/1000	1/1000

and 0.05 ml of these dilutions were used to start the reaction in the assay mixture. The same sample was used for AK, CPK and LDH assays.

ATP and PC analysis. Tissue preparation (weighing, deproteinization, homogenization, centrifugation and neutralization) was conducted in a 4°C refrigerated room. Tissue samples of one rat were transferred from the freezer to a Dewar flask containing liquid nitrogen and maintained in this flask between manipulations. Until deproteinization, care was taken to limit exposure to 4°C air to less than 10 consecutive seconds. Tissue samples (50-400 mg) were rapidly weighed on a Roller Smith basence (Biolar Corporation, Model LG, North Grafton, Mars.) to one tenth of a mg and transferred back to the Dewar flask. The deproteinization was carried out according to Lampretch et al. (1963a

and b), using 6.5 ml of HClO₄ 6% W/V for 2 g of muscle tissue. Perchloric acid was preferred to trichloracacetic acid because the latter is reported to inhibit the G6P-DH used in the assay (Cartier et al., 1967a; Lowry and Passonneau, 1972, p. 123).

The exact amount of $HClo_{\mu}$ required was calculated and drawn into a pipet (Pipetman, Model P by Gibson, Analytical Instruments, Mississauga) for later use. Next the tissue was transferred to a porcelain mortar (30 ml capacity) containing liquid nitrogen and ground with a precooled porcelain pestle to a fine powder. As needed, 10 ml portions of liquid nitrogen were added to avoid complete evaporation. Then, the HClO4 was slowly added and ground with the powdered tissue in liquid nitrogen. After grinding and evaporation of remaining nitrogen, the powdered mixture of muscle and HC10 were transferred to a Kontes glass homogenizing tube with a small plastic spatula and homogenized when the mixture started to melt, using the procedure described previously. Samples were left standing for 5-10 minutes to ensure complete deproteinization (Cartier et al., 1967a; Bucher et al., 1963), then centrifuged at 4°C for 10 minutes at 4000 g. Care was taken to minimize the time of deproteinization. The tolerance time for 0.6 M $HC10_{\mu}$ at 0°C is 1 hour for acid labile ATP and PC (Hess, 1963; Lowry and Passonneau, 1972, p. 124).

Supernatants of centrifuged homogenates were trans-

ferred to small test tubes, and neutralized to pH 7.4 according to Lamprecht (1963a and b) using Methyl Orange as the indicator and K₂CO₃ (5M) as titratant. Samples stood for 10 min. to permit KClO₄ sedimentation. The supernatant was transferred to another tube to avoid contact with and acid stable enzymes such as MK and ATPase in the sediment that might have affected PC or ATP assays. From this final solution, 0.05 or 0.1 ml was added quickly for the assay, because there is a slight hydrolysis of ATP and CP on standing (Lamprecht, 1963a).

Assays

All enzyme assays were conducted at 30°C, using 1 cm square cuvets containing 3 ml of reagent solution and recording the % transmittance change for 2 minutes at a wave length of 340°nm on a Beckman spectrophotometer (Model DB-6) coupled to a Fisher recorder (Recordall, Model 5223-51). Transmittance readings were transformed to absorbance and to enzyme activities using a small desk computer (Hewlett Packard, No. 9801 A).

* Adenylate kinase was measured according to Oliver's method (1955). The reactions are basically:

$$ADP \xrightarrow{AK} ATP + AMP \tag{1}$$

ATP + glucose
$$\xrightarrow{HK}$$
 ADP + G6P (2)

G6P + NADP
$$\frac{G6P-DH}{+ NADPH + H^+}$$
 6-phosphogluconate (3)

According to Newsholme and Start (1973), the forward reaction is the fastest and is preferred to the reverse one (Collowick, 1955; Kleine and Chlond, 1967).

Creatine phosphokinase was measured according to Oliver's method (1955) as modified by Nielsen and Ludvigsen (1963) and Rosalki (1967), using commercial kits (Dade, CPK-UV-1 or CPK-UV-10) which have proven to be reliable and valid (Crowley and Alton, 1970; Rosalki, 1967). The reactions of this method are:

ATP + glucose
$$\rightarrow$$
 ADP + G6P (2)

$$G6P + NADP \xrightarrow{G6P-DH} 6-phosphogluconate + NADPH + H+ (3)$$

According to Rosalki (1967), the forward reaction is faster and is preferred to the reverse reaction.

Lactate dehydrogenase assay was more complicated. By measuring activity at two predetermined pyruvate concentrations, it is possible to obtain the percentage of "H" and "M" monomers of the LDH, plus activity due solely to "M" and "H" monomers or to total LDH. The method was essentially that used by Dawson and Kaplan (1964), Fox and Reed (1969), Hirota et al., (1976), Kaplan and Cahn (1962), Latner and Skillen (1968, p. 80), Plagemann et al. (1960a and b) and Stambaugh and Post (1966a). Thus, with two simple spectrophotometric assays, it is possible to obtain not only enzyme activity but also relative distribution of

"H" and "M" monomers. This method yields essentially the same information as the more complicated electrophotetic separation of the LDH isoenzymes since an equal mixture of LDH₅ (i.e. N₄) and LDH₁ (i.e. H₄), results in the same total activity as LDH₃ (i.e. M₂H₂) (Everse, 1973, p. 66; Kaplan and Cahn, 1962; Latner and Skillen, 1968, p. 30; Plagemann et al., 1960b).

LDH catalyses the following reaction:

$$PA + NADH + H^{+} \xrightarrow{LDH} LA + NAD^{+}$$
 (1)

This LDH method is based on the specific calalytic properties of the relative composition in "H" and in "M" monomers.

Each monomer has a different optimal pyruvate concentration for maximal velocity of the reaction. Therefore, at the two optimal pyruvate concentrations, the total velocities of the reactions are the following:

at optimal PA concentration for M-LDH,

$$V_1 = M-LDH + x H-LDH$$
 (1)

and at PA concentration for H-LDH,

$$V_2 = y M-LDH + H-LDH$$
 (2)

The optimal pyruvate concentrations as well as the values of x and y must be determined for each species (Cahn et al., 1962; Fine et al., 1963a; Latner and Skillen, 1968, p. 4, 20, 35). In this study, rat M and H were isolated with polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis using the method of Dietz and Lubrano (1967). Plate 2 (Appendix A) is an example of the isoenzyme separation. Additional heart and skeletal

muscle samples were treated in a similar fashion except for the staining procedure. The fastest and the slowest moving bands toward the anode, H_{ii} and M_{ii} respectively, were cut according to two stained samples run at the same time.*

Then these unstained discs of M_{ii} and H. IPH were spectrophotometrically analysed to determine the optimal pyruvate concentrations (Figure 6 and Table 21 in Appendix A). Hence, it was found that the optimal pyruvate consentrations were the following:

PA = 21 X
$$10^{-4}$$
 M for M₄ or M-LDH
PA = 3 X 10^{-4} M for H₄ or H-LDH

The percentage of enzyme activity at these two concentrations were as follows:

PA	•;	Mų	н
21 X	10 ⁻⁴ M	100%	80≸
3 X	10 ⁻⁴ M	77%	100%

Therefore equation (1) and (2) were re-written as:

$$LDH_{21} = 1.00 M + 0.80 H$$
 (3)

$$LDH_3 = 0.77 M + 1.00 H$$
 (4)

From (3) and (4), the ratio LDH₂₁/LDH₃ (V₁/V₂) which also indicated the percentage of H and M subunit (Figure 4), the activity solely due to H and M subunits (H-LDH and M-LDH) and the total LDH (i.e. M-LDH + H-LDH) can be computed.

^{*} The ratio of the distance covered by the marker dye to that covered by the isoenzyme band was used. This ratio was constant for the same batch of analyses.

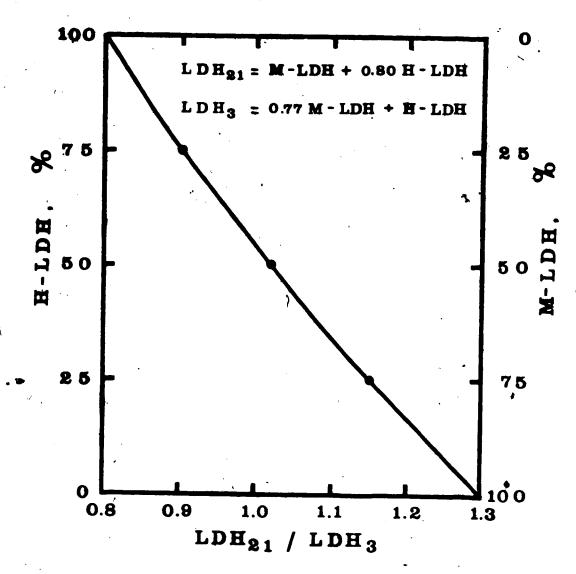


FIGURE 4. PERCENTAGE OF H-LDH AND M-LDH FROM THE

LDH₂₁/LDH₃ RATIO. THE LINE HAS BEEN

DRAWN BY SUBSTITUTING THE % OF M-LDH AND

H-LDH IN THE INSERTED EQUATIONS WHICH

HAVE BEEN OBTAINED FROM TABLE 21 AND

FIGURE 6 OF APPENDIX A

Final spectrophotometric conditions of the reagents in the cuvets were pH 7.4, 0.067 M Phosphate buffer (Sorensen), 1.5×10^{-4} M NADH and 21 X 10^{-4} or 3 X 10^{-4} M pyruvate.

Adenosine triphosphate and phosphorylcreatine were measured in the same assay according to Lamprecht and Stein (1963b) and Lowry and Passonneau (1972, p. 151). The reactions, as for CPK, are as follows:

glucose + ATP
$$\stackrel{HK}{\longleftarrow}$$
 G6P + ADP (2)

$$G6P + NADP \xrightarrow{G6P-DH} 6-phosphogluconate + NADPH' + H' 3$$
 (3)

ATP was measured using Calbiochem Kits (ATP tat-Pack No. 869206) which were modified for PC by adding other reagents to reach the final concentrations suggested by Lamprecht and Stein (1963b). This modification yielded identical results to the conventional approach but saved considerable time.

Statistical Methods

Assays were all done in duplicate and computation calried outcon the means. Suspect values were rejected on a common sense basis. Calculated t for the rejected values were higher than the 1.9 and even the 2.44 rejection criteria (a = 0.05 and 0.025 respectively for n = 7). Percentages of missing data appear in Appendix F. Data were analysed from two points of view: differences between training groups and differences between organs (or tissues). Group and organ means and standard deviations were calculated for all the dependant variables.

were made between group differences and between organ differences. Since the variance differed very much between some variables, and since there were no significant interactions between training groups and organs, and since the differences between organs were much larger than the ones between training groups (Appendix F), the two way analyses of variance were merely used to assess the general pattern between training groups. To assure more specific analyses, one way layouts (Winer, 1971, pp. 210-219) were done on each variable and each organ to assess training group differences and on each variable with combined data from all groups to assess organ differences.

For comparison between pairs of means, Scheffé's contrasts (Scheffé, 1959, ppg 66-67; Winer, 1971, pp. 198-201) were computed for a equal to 0.05 when the F ratios of the analysis of variance were significant (p \$-0.05). Although less powerful than other a posteriori tests, Scheffé's method was used because it is clearly the most conservative with respect to type I error (Scheffé, 1959; Winer, 1971). Scheffé's procedure does not require equal n and is less sensitive to violations of normality and homogeneity of variance assumptions than Tukey's procedure, the only other comparable test with respect to Type I error (Myers, 1966, pp. 333-336). All statistics were computed with SCIRU (Service de consultation informatique pour la recherche universitaire), one of the services at the Université de Montréal.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The raw data for the training groups are listed in Appendix C. The original statistics on dependent variables which showed significant differences (P < 0.05) between training groups appear in Appendices D, E and F. Training group comparisons for each dependent variable: means, standard deviations, ANOVA F ratios and Scheffé's contrasts, are found in Tables 4 to 17. The group body weight growth curves are plotted in Figure 5 from data found in Table 22 (see Appendix B).

Signature ANOVA F ratios (P < 0.05) were obtained between training groups for absolute body weight, relative organ weight, ATP and CPK. All other variables (PC, ATP + PC, AK, LDH₂₁, LDH₃, LDH₂₁/LDH₃, M-LDH, H-LDH and Total LDH) showed no significant trend with one way ANOVA. However, two way ANOVA revealed significant differences between training groups for these parameters (Appendix F).

The details of the aforementioned results are presented in the two following sections: "The Effect of Chronic Exercise" and "Organ Comparison".

The Effects of Chronic Exercise

Body Weight

The body weights obtained for the rats at each week during the study were averaged by group (Table 22, Appendix B). Weight progress is depicted graphically in Figure 5. During the initial exercise program, body weights were equal and progressed at the same rate for all groups. During the formal training period however, the increases in weight of the training groups progressed at a much slower rate than Sgr (P < 0.005, Table 4). Scheffe's contrasts were significant between Sm (625 g) and the training groups (Cgr: 534 and Igr: 534 g) but not between the training groups themselves. Growth rate slowly declined with age and started to plateau by 25 weeks of age.

Organ Weights

Both absolute and relative weights of the organs were recorded at the time of sacrifice. There were no significant differences in absolute organ weights between the groups (Table 5). Relative organ weights (except liver) of the trained animals were heavier than those of Sgr (Table 6). However, F ratios are significant only for the tibialis anterior, the plantaris, the gastrochemius medialis and the heart. Furthermore, Scheffe's contrasts indicated that only the plantaris muscles of Cgr were heavier than those of Sgr.

TABLE 4 Final Body Weight for the Different Training
Groups: Means, Standard Deviations, ANOVA F
ratio and Scheffé & Contrasts.

Sgr ^{ab}	Cgr ^{ab}	Igr ^{ab}	F	P < .	Contrasts (P < .05)
625 70	534 42	534 44	7.698	0.005	Cgr < Sgr Igr < Sgr

a. abbreviations: see Table
b. an = 8

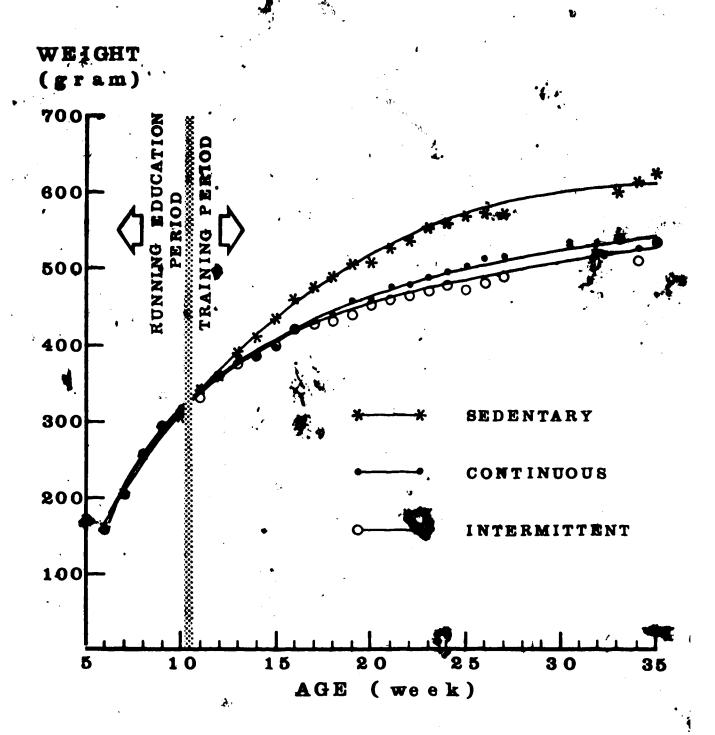


FIGURE 5. RAT BODY WEIGHT GAIN WITH AGE AND TRAINING (DRAWN FROM TABLE 22, APPENDIX B)

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TABLE 5 Absolute Weight of the Organs in the Different Training Groups: Means, Standard Deviations, and ANOVA F Ratios.

Organs ⁸	Sgr ^{ab} mg	Cgr ^{ab}	Igr ^{ab} mg	P	P<
TA	* 998 124	1003 °	968 87	0.345	ns
P	562 58	582 53 ·	551 58	0.591	ns
GM 	1194	1244	1222 97	0.491	ns
GL	1440 1 73	1405 94	1450 189	0.176	n s
S	250 48	258 [*] 27	251 ^c 31	.0.116	ns
H	1496 ^d 153	1471 ^d 179	1499 ^c 77	0.074	ns
Ĺ	15997 1364	13957 1544	12389 4852	2.827	ns

abbreviations: see Table 1.

n = 8b.

 $[\]begin{array}{rcl}
 n & = & 7 \\
 n & = & 6
 \end{array}$

Relative Weight of Organs in the Different TABLE 6 Training Groups: Means, Standard Deviations, ANOVA F Ratios and Scheffé's Contrasts.

Organs ^a	sgr ^{ab} mg/g	Cgr ^{ab} mg/g	Igr ^{ab} - mg/g	.P	P <	Contrasts (P < .05)
	1.62	1.88	1.82	y 3.635	0.05	Cgr & Igr > Sgr
P	0.91 0.17	1.09	1.04	3.783	0.05	Cgr > Sgr
H IGM	1.94 0.29	2.33	2.29	9.296	0.01	Cgr > Sgr Igr > Sgr
GL.	2.34 0.47	2.64	2.72 0.35	2.584	ns	• •
3	0.41	0.48 0.03	0.47 ^c	2.508	ns	
H 3 -	2.32 ^d 0.20	2.73 ^d 0.33	2.81 ^c 0.27	5.814	0.05	Igr > Sgr
L	25.94 4.30	26.13 2.04	25.93 3.45	0.008	ns	. •

abbreviations: See Table 1.

n = 8

n = 7 n = 6

Adenosine Triphosphate and Phosphorylcreatine

Resting concentrations of ATP and PC as well as

ATP + PC are reported for each group and each organ in

Tables 7 to 9. Only ATP concentrations showed significant
group differences. Scheffé's contrasts further revealed
that for the tibialis anterior, ATP was lower in Igr compared to either Cgr or Sgr. For the gastrochemius medialis
and lateralis, ATP was lower in Igr compared to Cgr. Finally, the soleus of Cgr had higher ATP values than the two
other groups. Therefore, the general tendency was to have
a higher ATP concentration in Cgr, followed by Sgr and then
Igr. This was confirmed by analysis of variance and
contrasts run on the combined data from all organs (Appendix F).

Creatinephosphokinase and Adenylate, Kinase

CPK and AK activities and training group comparisons are reported in Tables 10 and 11. None of the organs showed significant difference between training groups for AK. On the other hand, combined data from all organs indicated that CPK was higher in Sgr compared to the trained groups (Appendix F).

Lactate Dehydrogenase

IDH related variables for group comparisons are reported in Tables 12 to 17. Two way analysis of variance (Appendix F) revealed that LDH₂₁, LDH₃, M-LDH and total LDH

were higher in all organs of Sgr compared to the trained groups. One way analysis of variance showed less significant differences between training groups. LDH₂₁ and LDH₃ activities were higher in the gastrochemius lateralis of Sgr compared to Cgr whereas M-LDH was higher in the heart of Cgr than in Igr. No significant difference between groups characterized the LDH₂₁/LDH₃ ratio (or the percentage of M-LDH and H-LDH) and the H-LDH activity.

Organ Comparison

Organ means, standard deviations and ANOVA F ratios
from combined group data* for each dependant variable appear
in Table 18. Significant Schefff contrasts are identified
in Table 19. In general, the organist ell into four distinct
categories: liver, heart, soleus and the other skeletal

Adenosine Triphosphate and Phosphorylcreatine (Tables 18 and 19)

PC was the lowest in the heart (5.5 mmoles/kg) slightly higher in the soleus (9.0 mmoles/kg) and much higher in other skeletal muscles (14.2 - 18.3 mmoles/kg). With a few exceptions, ATP and ATP + PC were characterized by a similar pattern. For instance, ATP was higher in the heart (4.2 mmoles/kg) than in the soleus (3.4 mmoles/kg).

^{*} Since the differences were much larger between organs than between groups, group data were pooled.

TABLE 7 ATP for Each Organ in the Different Training
Groups: Means, Standard Deviations, ANOVA F
Ratios and Scheffé's Contrasts.

Organs	Sgrab mmoles/kg wet weight	Cgrab mmoles/kg wet weight	Igrab mmoles/kg wet weight	P	P <	Contrasts (P < .05)
TA	5.8 0.5	5.8 0.9	4.9	5. 875	0.01	Igr < Sgr Igr < Cgr
P	5.1 0.7	5.3 ^c 0.8	4.6 0.5	2.324	ns (*\	•
GM	5.2 1.1	5.8	4.5 * 0.8 .	3.775	0.05	Igr < Cgr
GL	4.8 0.5	5.3 1.0	4.3 0.3	4.312	0.05	Igr < Cgr
S	3.3 0.2	3.9 0.5	3.2 0.5	6. 924	0.01	Sgr < Cgr Igr < Cgr
н	4.0 0.4	4.5 0.5	4.3 6.4	2.402	ns	

a. abbreviations: see Table 1

b. n = 8

 $c \cdot n = 7$

TABLE 8 PC for Each Organ in the Different Training Groups: Means, Standard Deviations and ANOVA F Ratios.

01	rgans	8	Sgrab mmoles/kg wet weight	Cgrab mmoles/kg wet weight	Igrab mmoles/yg wet weight		P · ·
	TA	•	18.9	18.9 2.0	16.9 ^c	. 0.979	ns
, L	. P		15.9 6.8	13.2 2.6	15.1 ^c 3.3	0.617	ns
•	GM '		15.5	° 16.8 3 .6	16.7	0.365	ns
•	GĻ		14.7 ^c 2.6	14.4 2.7	13.4° 3.0	0,385	ns
	3		8.9 1.8	9.7 3.2	8.0 ^d 1.0	0.60	ns
	Н		5.3¢	5.9 ^c	5.2 ^c 1.8	0.533	ns

a. ábbreviations: see Table 1

b. n = 7

c. n = 6

 $[\]mathbf{d} \cdot \mathbf{n} = 5$

PC for Each Organ in the Different Training , Standard Deviations and ANOVA 6 mtios.

10

Organs	Sgrab mmoles/kg. wet weight	Cgrab mmoles/kg wet weight	Igrab mmoles/kg wet weight	P	P
TA	24.7	24.7 1.5	21.4° 2.4	2.825	ns
P	21.1	18.2 3.2	19.8° 3.6	0.629	ns
GM	20.6	22.5 4.2	21.3° 4.3	0.440	ns
GL	19.7°	19.7 3.3	17.6 ^c 3.3	0.949	ns
s	12.2	13.7 3.4	11.0 ^d	1.766	, ns
н	9.3 ^c 1.5	10.0°	• 9.6 ^c	0.318	, ns

abbreviations: n = 7 see Table 1

. 4

7

d.

10 CPK for Each Organ in the Different Training Groups: Means Standard Deviations, ANOVA F Ratios and Scheffé's Contrasts.

TA P	2870 ^d 400 2780	2540 ^c 410	2420	2.463		,,
P	2780		330	2.405	ns	
	340	2440 ^C 430	2230 440	3.757	0.05	Igr < Sgr
GM	2960 550	2340 ^c 440	2350 410	4.492	0.05	Igr & Cgr < Sgr
GL	2770 460	1960 350	1900 390	11.723		Cgr < Sgr Igr < Sgr
s	1040 220	1060 170	1140 ^C 90	0.737	ns	
₹ H	810 160	910 180	890 120	0.907	ns	•
L	10.2 ^c	17.4	14.7 10.7	1.358	ns	

Abbreviations: see Table 1
n = 8
n = 7
n = 6

AK for Each-Organ in the Different Training Means, Standard Deviations and ANOVA P Groups: Ratios.

Organ ^a	Sgrab IU/g wet weig	ght i	Cgr ^{ab} IU/g wet weig	ght w	Igrab LU/g ve weigh	t .	P <
TA '	133 ^d	•	122		132 ^c	0.082	ns
P	129 ^d 62	•	124 72	,,	125 ^c	0.012	ns
GM '	121 ^d 53	7	122 74		126¢	y . 0.013	ns
GL	118 ^d 52	•	96 ^c 62		1110°,	0.389	ns
S	62 ^d		52° 2 7	•	65 ^d / 28	0.439	ns '
• H	61 ^d 18		65. 32		71 ^c 24	0.281	ns
L	20 ^d 3	•	19 ^c		20°	0.066	ns
717							

abbreviations: n = 8 see Table 1.

$$\mathbf{d} \cdot \mathbf{n} = 6$$

LDH21 for Each Organ in the Different Training TABLE 12 Groups: Means, Standard Deviations, ANOVA F Ratios and Scheffé's Contrasts.

Organ [£]	Sgrab IU/g wet weight	Cgrab IU/g wet weight	Igrab IU/g wet weight	P '	P <	Contrasts (F < .05)
TA	587 164	452 123	469 136	2.161	ns	· .
P	599 ^c 111	500 152	503 91	1.567	ns ·	•
GM	482 ^d 105	440 110	442 ^c 109	0.306	ns	
GL	505 104	362 94	408 ^C	3.752	0.05	.Cgr < Sgn
s	131 40	138 ^e 57	117 ^c 25	0.459	ns	÷.
Н	280 ^d 73	289 ^c , 129	270 66 ^	0.074	ns	
L	325 ^c 79	246 ^d 90 .	300 ^d 58	1.727	ns	

abbreviations: see Table 1. n = 8 a.

b.

ζ.

Groups: Means, Standard Deviations, ANOVA F

						
Organ ^a	Sgr ^{ab} IV/g met wright	Cgrab IU/g wet weight	Igrab . IU/g wet weigh	P.	P	Contrasts (P < .05)
TA	486 142	364 108	3 87 120	2.207	ns	
P.	510 ^C 91	420 138	425 · 91	1.630	ns	
GM	423 ^d 83	354 95	387 ⁰ 93	0.976	ns	•
. GL	431 91	315 93	351 ^c	3.667	0.05	Cgr < Sgr
S	143 38	151 ^e 59	121 ^c 33	0.879	hs .	
н	327 ^d	322 ^c 149	334 91	0.019	ns	• (
L	279 ^c	207 ^d 82	258 ^d 68	1.384	ns	
		•				•

a. abbreviations: see Table 1.

 $b. \quad n = 8$

c. n = 7

 $[\]mathbf{d} \cdot \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{6}$

 $e \cdot n = 5$

1DH, for Each Organ in the Differen Training Groups Means, Standard Deviations, SM-IDH (\$) and ANOVA P Ratiog.

Sgrab	.cgr ^{ab}	Igr ^{ab°}	, P	P.
		→ (**		
1.21 0.09 85.3	1.26 0.11 91.1	1.22 0.11 85.6	0.445	ns
1.17 ^c 0.12 79.6	1.21 0.10 82.7	1.20 0.09 81.4	0.259	ns
1.14 ^d 00.10 73.5	1.25 0.11 90.9	1.15 ^c 0.12 74.2	2.182	ns
1.17 0.08 79.2	1.17 0.11 75.2	1.16 ^c 0.12 77.8	0.045	ns
0.92 0.13 28.7	0.93 ^e 0.13 28.3	0.98 ^c • 0.09 39.6	0.538	ns
0.87 ^d 0.08 14.3	0.90 ^c 0.04 23.6	0.82 0.06 2.5	3.391	ns
1.18 ^c 0.10 77.8	1.20 ^d 0.06 82.3	1.18 ^d 0.10 78.0	0.095	, ns
	0.09 85.3 1.17° 0.12 79.6 1.14d 00.10 73.5 1.17 0.08 79.2 0.92 0.13 28.7 0.08 14.3 1.18° 0.10	0.09 0.11 85.3 91.1 1.17° 1.21 0.12 0.10 79.6 82.7 1.14 ^d 1.25 0.10 0.11 73.5 90.9 1.17 1.17 0.08 0.11 79.2 75.2 0.92 0.93° 0.13 28.7 28.3 0.87 ^d 0.90° 0.04 14.3 23.6 1.18° 0.06	0.09 0.11 0.11 85.3 91.1 85.6 1.17° 1.21 1.20 0.12 0.10 0.09 79.6 82.7 81.4 1.14d 1.25 1.15° 0.10 0.11 0.12 73.5 90.9 74.2 1.17 1.16° 0.12 0.08 0.11 0.12 79.2 75.2 77.8 0.92 0.93° 0.98° 0.13 0.09 0.98° 0.13 0.09 0.09 0.87d 0.90° 0.82 0.08 0.04 0.06 14.3 23.6 2.5 1.18° 1.20° 1.18° 0.10 0.06 0.10	0.09

a. abbreviations: see Table 1.b. n = 8

 $c \cdot n = 7$

n = 6

N-LON for Each Organ in the Different Training Groups: Neans, Standard Stylingions, ANOV. Ratios and Scheffe's Contract

Organ	IU/g. wet weight	TU/g wet weight	Igrab IU/g wet weig	. ₽	•	Contrasts (P < .05)
TA	51 6 164	419 126	415 136	1.284	-ns	•
P	497 ^c 171	428 123	426 80	0.731	ns	
GM	374 ^d 143	407 119	346 ^c 140	0.398	ns	•
GL	417 135	287 83	332 ^C 149	2.258	ns	•
s	44 54	41 ^e 70	52 ^C 20	0.092	ns	
н	48 ^d 53	80 ^e 35	8 58	3.884	0.05	Igr < Cgr
L	264 ^C 47	210 ^d 68	245 ^d 39	1.769	ns	. •

abbreviations: n = 8 see Table 1

n = 7 n = 6

n = 5e.

H-IDH for Each Organ in the Different Training Groups Means, Standard Deviations and ANOVA P Ratios.

			•		
Organ ^a	Sgrab IU/g wet weight	IU/g wet weight	IU/g wet weight	P	P
TA	89 102	41 89	68 97	0.505	ns
P	127 ^C 120	90 78	97 86	0.323	ns
GM	135 ^d 99	40 81	120 ^c 106	2.082	ns
GL .	110 82	94 81	88 ^c 80	0.157	, ns
S	109 50	113 ^e 65	80 ^c 40	0.828	ns
н	290 ^d 113	253 ^c 116	327 118	Q.760	ns
L	68 ^c 74	45 ^d 40	69 ^d 72	0.271	ns

abbreviations:
n = 8 see Table 1.

b.

c:

n = 7 n = 6

n = 5

TABLE 17' Total LDH for Each Organ in the Different Training Groups: Means, Standard Deviations and ANOVA F Ratios.

digana	Sgrab IU/g wet Weight	Cgrab IU/g wet weight	Igrab IU/g wet weight	P	P	
TA	6 05 170	460 128	477 145		ns 🚅	
P	624 ^c 105	512 165	498 65 .	2.462	ns	ARTIC.
GM ·	509 ^d 103	448 114	466 ^c 111	0.536	ns	
GL ·	· 516 · 124	381 104	420 ^c 116	2.916	ns	
S	147 40	154 ^e 59	133 ^c 31	0.392	ns	
Н	338 ^d 92	355 ^c 154	33 <i>5</i> 86	0.060	ns	
L .	340 ^c 91	255 ^d 97	314 ^d 70	1.578	ns	

abbreviations: see Table 1. n = 8

n = 7

n = 6d.

n = 5

18 Weights, Metabolite Concentrations and Enzyme TABLE Activities in the Different Organs: Means and Standard Deviations from Combined Data for All Training Groups.

				·			
Variables	ab TA	P	GM	GL	S	Н	Ļ
Wabe (mg)	990	565	1220	1432	253	1489	14114
	89	57	100	1 <i>5</i> 2	35	132	3276
Wrel (mg/g)	1.77°	1.01	2.19	2.57	0.45°	2.63	26.00
	0.23	0.15	Q.27	0.37	0.08	0.34	3.24
ATP mmole/kg	5.5 -0.8	5.0 0.7	5.2 1.0	4.8 0.8	3.5 0.5	4.2 0.4	
PC mmole/kg	18.3 3.0	14.7	16.3	14.2 2.7	9.0 2.3	5.5 1.4	
ATP + PC mmole/kg	23.7 3.0	19.7	21.5	19.0 3.0	12.4 2.6	9.7 1.6	
CPK	2590	2490	2560	2210	1080	870	14.2
(IU/g)	41	45	54	56	17	16	8.7
AK	128	126	123	108	59	,66	20
(IU/g)	56	57	56	50	26	25	4
LDH ₂₁ (IU/g)	503	531	452	426	128	279	292
	149	124	105	119	39	89	80
IDH ₃	412	449	385	366	137	328	250
	130	110	91	97	,42	109	81
LDH ₂₁	$\binom{1.23}{0.10}$	1.23	1.18	1.16	0.94 0.11	0.86 0.07	1.19 0.08
M-LDH	450	448	377	350	46	44	241
(IU/g)	44	126	129	131	48	57	55
% ^C	87:2	81.2	80.0	77.6	32.0	12.9	79.0
H-LDH	66	104	94	99	100	292	61
(IU/g)	94	92	100	78	50	115	62
% ^C	12.8	18.8	20.0	20.4	68.0	87.1	21.0
TOTAL LDI	f 514 157	541 127	47 1 108	440 124	144	343 109	30 5 9 0

All ANOVA F ratios for organ comparison were significant (P < 0.001).

The number of samples per cell was between 19 and 24. Calculated from LDH₂₁/LDH₃ and Figure 4 (Methods and Procedures).

Concentrations and Enzyme Activities ans: Scheffe's Contrasts from Combined Data Weights, Metabolite Concin the Different Organs: for All Training Groups. 19 TABLE

																•						
TOTAI	90	. n8	ns	ns	20	13 13	•	•	1	•		•	•	•	28	+	`,'	- 1	• •	1	+	2
H-11DH	an	na	20	r E	ng	8 U	ģů	8 u	ne	28	•	•	+	+	+	+	ns	2	200	2	30	•
M-IDH H-IDH TOTAL	ns	ns	18	ns	ns	มล	1	•	1	•		•	•	•	•	2	•	. •		ne	+	.
LDH21 LDH3	ns	มร	มร	มล	ns	มธ	ı	•	,1	ı		,	1	ı	1	8 u	. n8	20	118	n8·	+	+
1	มร	ns	26	ns	มล	กร	ı	ı	1	ì		n 8	•	ns	ns	+	•	1	i	1	118	มห
AK LDH ₂₁	มร	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	í	ı	ı	ı			•		ı	มล	ſ	٠ ١'	•	•	+	n n
	มล	SU	มล	na	ns	มล	١.	1	1	ns		1	1	1	ns	118	1	1	ı	ı	na	มล
CPK	ns	มร	กร	n.	มล	ns	, I	ı	1	1		ı	•	1	1	ns	ı		ı	ı	ı	ı
ATP + PC		n s	200		na	ns	ı	1	•			ı	ı	1	1	ns	-				•	
PC	١.	23	200	•	มล	ns	t	i	ı	1		1	1	1	ı	ı						
ATP	200	, E	7. BC	80	ns	ns	ı	•	· I			ı	ns	ı	200	+	,					
Wrel	ב מ	ָ מ	מ	מ	: +	ns	8	: מ	2	1 1		ns	+	7) (F	: +	4	- +	٠ ٦	+ 4	- 4	+
* abs	7.8	y (ב ב ב	; c	: E	su su	2	ָ מַנְ		מ ב ב	:	มล	ns	, K	ם כ	มร	4	- 4	٠ ٦	, ⊦ •	- 1	- +
Contrasts*	D_TA	A THE CASE	ξ μ Ι Σ Ε	4 E ! ! !	1 A I	GL-GM	E U	ל נ נ נ	יו ני ני	E 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10		· H-TA	H-P	₩21 H		3 S-H	¥ E-	ζ Ω !	3	5 E	יי פור	1 H-1

a positive differences "-" not significant (P < 0.05); "+" is negative difference. ns ı

Creatine Phosphokinase and Adenylate Kinase (Tables 18 and 19)

CPK was much lower in the liver than in any other organ. Heart and soleus CPK were not different but had only half the values found in the other muscles. AK was twice as active in the tibialis anterior, the plantaris and the gastrochemius as in the soleus, the heart and the liver.

Lactate Dehydrogenase (Tables 18 and 19)

LDH₂₁ was found to be lower in the soleus than in the heart and the liver and highest in the other muscles. For LDH₃, the pattern was low activity in the soleus, slightly higher activity in the liver and highest activity in the other muscles including the heart.

The percentage of M-LDH and of H-LDH from Total LDH as indicated by LDH21/LDH3 ratios was lower in the heart and the soleus than in the liver and other skeletal muscles. M-LDH activity was found to be lowest'in the heart and the soleus, much higher in the liver and highest in the other muscles. H-LDH was three times more active in the heart than in any other organ. Total LDH was lowest in the soleus, two times higher in the heart and liver and approximately three times higher in the other skeletal muscles.

CHAPTER V

sections: differences between selected muscles and liver and the chronic effects of exercise. For each of the selected parameters, differences between sampled muscles will first be analysed in order to compare the data in the present study with literature values. This comparison between sampled tissues will result in a classification that should make easier the following discussion of the

chronic effects of exercise on the selected parameters.

Differences Between Selected Muscles and Liver (Tables 18 and 19)

Since the enzyme and metabolite concentrations usually vary from one fiber type to another, it is appropriate to identify the fiber composition of the muscles selected for this study (Table 20). According to the classifications used by Ariano et al. (1973), Barnard et al. (1970a), Edgerton et al. (1969 and 1975) and Peter (1970), it can be seen that except for the soleus which is predominantly composed of SO fibers, other skeletal muscles are mostly composed of FT fibers with equal proportions of FG and FOG fibers. The soleus and the other skeletal muscles will be identified as the ST soleus and the FT muscles in the following discussion.

TABLE 20 Literature Values of Fiber Type Composition of Selected Rat Sheletal Muscles.

Muscle	Reference	Piber Types* (#)		
		50	POG.	PG
•	U	•		
TIBIALIS ANTERIOR	Ariano <u>et al</u> . (1973)	2	66	32
	Close (1972)	15-20	40	40-4
PLANTARIS	•			
Total	Ariano <u>et al</u> . (1973)	6	53	41
Superficial	Edgerton et al. (1969)	15	10	75
Deep	Edgerton et al. (1969)	20	25	55
GASTROCNEMIUS				
Total ·	Schmalbruch et al. (1975)	15	50	30 -
Medialis,	Ariano <u>et al</u> . (1973)	4	38	58
Lateralis	Ariano <u>et al</u> . (1973)	5	37	58
•	.Muller (1974) ** Untrained	9	19-53	38-7
	Trai ned	12	34-50	38-5
SOLEUS .	Ariano <u>et</u> <u>al</u> . (1973)	84 ′ ~	14	0
	Baldwin <u>et</u> al. (1972)	96	4	0
	Close (1972)	85-90	10-15	0
•	Edgerton <u>et al</u> . (1969)	80	20	0
	Schmalbruch et al. (1975)	94	6	0
	Muller (1974)** Untrained	86	13	. 0
	Trained	96.3	2.7	0

Slow twitch oxidative, fast twitch high oxidative glycolytic and fast twitch glycolytic respectively.

^{**} Estimation from another classification.

Before considering the tissue or muscle differences for each of the studied parameters, it is worthwhile to note that the enzyme ratios (i.e. LDH/CPK, AK/CPK and LDH/AK) found in this study agree with those reported by Pette (1975).

Lactate Dehydrogenase in Various Tissues

As the assay techniques as well as the enzyme activity units vary from one study to another, activity ratios are more useful than absolute activity in comparing the validity of the present results with previously published findings. As a whole, this study (Tables 18 and 19) revealed that Total LDH activity was the lowest in the soleus (144 IU/g), 2X higher in the heart (343 IU/g) and the liver (305 IU/G), and approximately 3X higher in the other skeletal muscles (440 to 541 IU/g). Karlsson et al. (1975) and Sjodin et al. (1976b) reported that total LDH is proportional to the % of FT fibers which are mostly composed of M-LDH, as was also found in the present study. However, heart was not studied by these investigators and this muscle does not seem to follow a similar trend. The method for calculating total LDH in the present study may partially explain this differ-Total activity is the summation of M-LDH and H-LDH activity calculated from LDH activity at low and high pyruvate concentrations which were found to be optimal for H-LDH and M-LDH respectively (see Chapter III on Methods and Procedures). In other studies (Karlsson et al., 1974b; Peter et al., 1971; Sjodin, 1976a), total LDH was measured at one pyruvate concentration. It is possible that M-LDH

has been favored when compared to H-LDH. To illustrate this rationale, a comparison of the LDH values for the heart and the gastrocnemius lateralis (Tables 18 and 19) For LDH at high pyruvate concentration, the can be made. gastrocnemius (426 IU/g) is much more active than the heart (279 IU/g), which is consistent with the proposed lower LDH activity in ST muscles. However, for LDH at low pyruvate concentrations, the heart (328 IU/g) is similar to the gastrocnemius (366 IU/g); also, Total LDH for the heart 343 IU/g) and the gastrocnemius (440 IU/g) was not significantly different. Thus the ST % alone appears insufficient to explain the level of Total LDH activity. It is speculated that the LDH distribution pattern might be, partially at least, explained by the actual state and potential of oxidative activity of the muscles as well by their ST %. For example, FOG portions of muscles usually have a lower LDH activity than FG portions, although they have the same percentage of FT (or ST) fibers (Baldwin et al., 1973; Peter et al., 1971; York et al., 1974). The LDH activity of FOG and FG muscle portions behaves reciprocally with the muscle's oxidative capacity, as measured by different markers such as citrate synthase, carnitine palmityltransferase, cytochrome a and cytochrome c activities as well as the pyruvate $-2 - {}^{14}C$ and palmitate $-U - {}^{14}C$ oxidations * (Baldwin et al., 1972a, 1977a and b; Holloszy et al., 1975; Peter et al., 1971). Such a relationship is also supported by the two following facts: firstly, muscle samples from

endurance-trained athletes have been shown to possess higher oxidative capacity and lower LDH activity compared to muscle with the same FT/ST fiber ratio found in sedentary subjects (Karlsson et al., 1975; Sjodin et al., 1976b) and secondly, the heart, with the highest oxidative capacity Baldwin et al., 1977a; Holloszy et al., 1975; Peter et al., 1971) also has lower LDH activity than FT muscles (Tables 18 and 19), and even FOG muscle portions (Peter et al., 1971). Since the oxidative capacity of the soleus is intermediary between the FG and FOG muscle portions, and much lower than the heart (Baldwin et al., 1972a, 1977a and b; Holloszy et al., 1975; Peter et al., 1971), the oxidative capacity of the muscle cannot explain the low LDH activity of the ST soleus found in this study and confirmed by others (Baldwin et al., 1973; Peter et al., 1971). Thus, both the oxidative capacity and the percentage of ST fibers appears to regulate the LDH activity levels. It is possible that at high intensity, work is carried out more by the FT muscles or fibers and less by the ST muscles or fibers, which would in turn, explain the lowest LDH activity of the soleus. the other cases, and as long as the oxidative potential is not reached, the energy demand must be met either by the aerobic or the anaerobic metabolism and the higher the former, the lower the latter.

Besides the small differences that have been described above between Total LDH and LDH measured at one pyruvate concentration, the two values generally agree. From this

point of view, organ to organ ratios are similar to those reported in the literature for the rat and guinea pig (Baldwin et al., 1973; Doty et al., 1971; Gollnick et al., 1961, 1967; Hickson et al., 1976; Peter et al., 1971; Staudte et al., 1973; York et al., 1974, 1975, 1976), and human skeletal muscles (Gollnick et al., 1974; Karlsson et al., 1975; Sjodin et al., 1976a and b). There does not seem to be much difference between man and rodents although rabbit livers contain 40% M-LDH compared to 95% and more for man and rat (Fine et al., 1963).

M-LDH% values were similar for the soleus and the heart $(\overline{X}=23\%)$ and much higher in the liver and skeletal muscles $(\overline{X}=84\%)$. This finding agrees with other reported values for the rat, guinea pig and human (Fine et al., 1963; Hirota et al., 1976; Peter et al., 1971; Plageman et al., 1960a; Sjodin et al., 1976a and b; Thorling and Jenson, 1966; York et al., 1974, 1975, 1976). Thus these results support the effectiveness of the assay technique used in this study.

Creatine Phosphokinase and Adenylate Kinase in Various Tissues

As shown in Tables 18 and 19, CPK and AK were generally much higher in FT skeletal muscles (2500 and 120 IU/g respectively) than in the ST soleus (1080 and 59 IU/g), the heart (870 and 66 IU/g) and the liver (14 and 19 IU/g. These findings are in accord with the muscle to muscle activity ratios for rat and human tissue reported by others (Bernstein et al., 1973; Dieter, 1970; Jacob et al., 1964;

Haralambie, 1972 and 1973; Kleine and Chlond, 1967;

Newsholme and Start, 1973; Oliver, 1955; Pette, 1971;

Staudte et al., 1973). In general, CPK and AK are higher in FT muscle as compared to ST muscle. Such a specific pattern might have some implications for the effects of chronic exercise on these enzymes.

Adenosine Triphosphate and Phosphorylcreatine in Various Tissues

patterns of difference from one tissue to the other and are as high as the ones reported in the literature for rat and human (Degenring et al., 1975; Fawaz et al., 1962; Harris et al., 1974; Hultman et al., 1967; Karlsson, 1971a; Leunissen and Piatnek-Leunissen, 1968; Keul et al., 1972, p. 32; Pool et al., 1976; Pourel, 1968; Rabinowitz and Zak, 1975; Swynghedauw et al., 1960). Thus, the difficult problem of rapid tissue fixation (particularly in the heart) seems to have been avoided. As shown in Tables 18 and 19, PC is twice as high in FT skeletal muscles (14 to 18 mmoles/kg) as in the ST soleus (9 mmoles/kg) and the heart (5.5 mmoles/kg).

In general, it can be stated that the glycolytic (LDH) and high-energy phosphate transferase enzymes (CPK and AK) as well as the ATP and PC stores are higher in the most anaerobic tissues.

The Chronic Effects of Exercise

Before discussing the effects of chronic exercise on the different parameters, some general aspects will be analysed. Firstly, the training effects reported in this study cannot be qualitatively characterized since there were no growth control groups in the study. In other words, although the trained groups might have a higher enzyme activity than the sedentary groups, which is a real difference, it cannot be stated that training has increased the enzyme activity because it may have prevented a possible decrease in activity with aging. Nevertheless, it seems appropriate to discuss the differences between the experimental groups.

at the end of the training period might have a reversing effect on the parameters studied. However, as judged by the exhausted state of the rats after each training session, it was felt that the rats were still overloaded. Barnard and Peter (1971), who also had to reduce the training load of their animals, reported that cytochrome a and c continued to increase after this reduced work load. Thus, reduced work load might only have slowed down the improvement rate or maintained the activity level. The reasons for such a decrease in training load are not understood at the present time.

Body and Organ Weights (Tables 4 and 6)

As found in other studies (Baldwin et al., 1972; "Crews et al., 1969; Dowell et al., 1976; Edington and Cosmos, 1972; Gollnick et al., 1961 and 1967; Hollost, 1967; Hubbard et al., 1974; Oscai et al., 1971; Pattengale and Holloszy, 1967; Rogozskin, 1976; Ruhling al., 1973), endurance training reduced by 15% the usual weight gain found in sedentary male rats (Table 4 and Figure 5). This adaptation supports the effectiveness of the endurance training regimen used in the present study. Sprint training has been shown to inhibit rat body weight gain to a similar extent. Staudte et al. (1973) have reported a 10% decrease in rat body weight after 21 days of sprint training and Rhuling et al. (1973) observed a 6-8% decrease in rat body weight after sprint training as compared to 14% and 4% after endurance running and swimming respectively.

The week by week rate of weight gain for trained and sedentary rats is depicted in Figure 5. Some points fell off the curve at one time or another. These variations appear to be normal as judged by other published curves (Booth, 1972; Freminet et al., 1975; Mayer et al., 1954; Muller, 1975) and surely reflect the precision and sensitivity of the mechanism of correction by successive compensation (or the long term regulation of the energy balance) discovered by André Mayer (Mayer, 1968).

Other possible explanations for the week by week abrupt

changes in body weight are 1) the irregularity in the weighing period time, 2) reduced population of the experimental group due to occasional death of a few animals (Table 22, Appendix B), 3) uncontrolled variations in diet or other living conditions of the animals under the care of the animal service of the University and 4) variations in the training load that were continuously adjusted to the estimated exhaustion levels of the rats. For these reasons and because the objective was to study the main effect of the exercise regimen on body weight, a curve of best fit was utilized. The exact causes of the abrupt changes remain to be however elucidated.

Organ weights were also measured to see if training induced hypertrophy. The absolute weights of the organs were similar in the three experimental groups (Table 5). However, the reduced body weight of both training groups may have masked organ hypertrophy since the relative weights of the organs (e.g. organ weight in mg/body weight in g) were higher in the heart and skeletal muscles but not in the liver of the trained groups (Table 6). Heart hypertrophy after endurance running and more particularly after endurance swimming training in rats is well documented (Baldwin et al., 1977a; Codini et al., 1977; Dowell et al., 1976; Gollnick et al., 1967; Hepp et al., 1974; Oscai et al., 1971; Penpargkul and Scheuer, 1970; Walpurger and Anger, 1970). Heart hypertrophy has also been reported after sprint training of the rat (Baldwin et al., 1977a). In skeletal

muscle, endurance training does not seem to induce hypertrophy (Baldwin et al., 1972 and 1977b; Holloszy, 1967; Oscai et al., 1971; Pattengale and Holloszy, 1967); Muller (1974), however, has found hypertrophy of the rat soleus, gastrocnemius and rectus femoris after 12 weeks using these same training regimens. Muller's findings do not differ very much from those studies previously reported. For example, as for most of the previously quoted studies, Muller used female rats and found no statistically significant difference for the body weights of endurance trained and control rats. Nevertheless, Maller believed he should use relative weights to evaluate hypertrophy. No significant hypertrophy, as judged by the absolute weight of the muscles, was reported. With trained male rats, which definitively differ in body weight when compared to control rats, absolute weights of the muscles cannot be used to assess hypertrophy unless the trained muscles were heavier than the non-trained muscles, which is usually not the case. Thus, relative weights were used in the present study, and significant hypertrophy of the muscles was observed. only known study (Staudte et al., 1973) reporting the effect of sprint training on rat heart and muscles weights might have been too short (21 training days) to be conclusive. Nevertheless, no hypertrophy was found.

The use of organ to body weight ratios, as in the present study, has been questioned (Dowell et al., 1976;

Gollnick et al., 1967; Héroux and Gridgeman, 1958; Muller, 1974 and 1975a; Tanner, 1949). The heart weight, for example, is not linearly proportional to the body weight, and the use of heart to body weight ratios might reveal a false hypertrophy if, as is the case for male rats, there is a concomitant decrease in body weight. The use of female rats or food restriction techniques are often used to avoid this problem (Baldwin et al., 1977; Holloszy, 1967; Oscai et al., 1971). Otherwise, linear or better, Iogarithm regressed weights must be used (Dowell et al., 1976; Gollnick et al., 1967; Héroux and Gridgeman, 1958). However, the absence of significant correlation between the organ weights and the body weights made uncertain choices of a regressed weight equation. The lack of significant correlation was probably due to the small cell size. Thus, it was decided to use relative weight. As far as skeletal muscle is concerned, the use of muscle weight to body weight ratios is justified since muscle constitutes the major portion of the total body mass (Héroux and Gridgeman, 1958; Muller, 1974 and 1975).

There is one more assumption involved when relative weight or regressed weights are used to assess hypertrophy. It is assumed that the rest of the body, or more accurately, its comportments (fat and lean tissue), as compared to the studied organ, are changing in equal proportion. For example, if the fat is decreased as a results of training,

which is probably the case in the present study,* the organ to body weight ratio will no longer indicate hypertrophy.

True absolute hypertrophy is not completely excluded and may be necessary to meet the overload since muscle cell proliferation is absent in adult muscle tissues. This seems to be the case in pathological myocardial hypertrophy where the contractile properties of the heart are depressed, as opposed to physical training which improves the contractile properties of the heart (Dowell et al., 1976; Hepp et al., 1974; Penpargkul and Scheuer, 1970) and often leads to myocardial hypertrophy as reported earlier. Skeletal muscle might incur some degree of hypertrophy with physical training as indicated by increased fiber area (Gollnick et al., 1973b; Gordon et al., 1967; Muller, 1974). This increase in cell size with chronic but intermittent exercise is probably within the optimal and critical cell size (Goss, 1966; Hubbard et al., 1974 and 1975) and differs from permanent compensatory overload hypertrophy (Baldwin, 1977b; Dowell et al., 1976). Of course, the relative proportion of sarcoplasmic and myofibrillar proteins may change without external hypertrophy with training (Gordon et al., Edington and Edgerton (1976, p. 230), Goldberg et al. (1975) and Muller (1974) have reported some occasional hyperplasia (fiber splitting or development of satelite

^{*} Although fat % was not assessed in this study, the decrease in body weight after training is usually the result of a decrease in fat % (Booth, 1972; Crews et al., 1969; Mayer, 1968).

cells) concomitant with skeletal muscle hypertrophy. In conclusion, both training programs used in this study appear to have increased the relative weight of the heart and skeletal muscle, but not of the liver.

Lactate Dehydrogenase Adaptation to Chronic Exercise (Tables 12 to 17, Appendix F)

From the two way analysis of variance (Appendix F), all the organs of both training groups have lower LDH and M-LDH activities as compared to the sedentary group. As training might have an opposite effect on LDH in different organs (Baldwin et al., 1972 and 1973; Gollnick et al., 1961 and 1967; York et al., 1974, 1975 and 1976) and as the analysis pools together all organs, a more stringent look at the results indicated that the main effect was due to changes in FT skeletal muscles and liver since either no change or a reversed trend was observed in the soleus and in the heart. One way analysis of variance conducted on each muscle revealed, however, only a few significant training effects (Tables 13 to 18). The fact that pooled data from the various muscles and liver resulted in significant effects in a greater number of cases, is acceptable from a statistical and mathematical point of view since pooling increases the degree of freedom and decreases the variance of the sample. Such a difference between one way and two way analyses of variance illustrates the necessity of larger sample groups, particularly when the coefficient of variation (CV) is large, which is the case with LDH activity (CV = SD x $100\overline{X}^{-1}$ = 30%).

Lactate Dehydrogenase Adaptation to Endurance Training. The present results are consistent with the literature which either reports similar effects or no change with the utilization of small sample groups (n ≤ 10). For instance, Baldwin et al. (1972 and 1973), Costill et al. (1976), Hickson et al. (1976), Karlsson et al. (1975), Suominen and Heikkinen (1975) and York et al. (1975) reported smaller LDH and M-LDH activity in FT muscles of endurance trained animals and man. In the heart, on the contrary, Gollnick et al. (1961 and 1967), Walpurger and Anger (1970), and York et al. (1975 and 1976) reported increased LDH and M-LDH activity. Other studies reported no significant effects of endurance training on the FT muscles (Bohmer, 1969; Bylund **<u>et al.</u>**, 1977; Gollnick <u>et al.</u>, 1967; Holloszy, 1971; Molé et al., 1973; Morgan et al., 1971) as well as the heart (Walpurger and Anger, 1970) and the ST soleus (Baldwin et al., 1973). It is interesting to note however that in all these cases, there was a tendency to follow the specific adaptation pattern reported previously. It seems that the small sample size used in these studies might have lead to a type II error. The lack of significant training effects might also be the result of different exercise conditions. For example, Walpurger and Anger (1970) reported a 15% and a 10% increase in myocardial LDH activity after endurance running and swimming respectively, but only the 15% increase was significant. Although the duration of the training regimen might affect the amplitude of the LDH

changes as shown by York et al. (1975 and 1976), this does not seem to be the case for the present study where the training lasted two months longer than others reported in the literature even though the intensity (31m/min, 8% slope) was similar to other studies (Baldwin et al., 1973; Gollnick et al., 1970; Hollossy, 1979; York et al., 1974, 1975, 1976). However, the duration of the training session was at the lower range of the reviewed studies which might partly explain the few significant training effects observed (1X ANOVA). On the other hand, Gollnick et al. (1970) and Fitts et al. (1975) have reported improved oxidative capacity of rat skeletal muscles with running training sessions of similar intensity and duration. In any case, the general tendency with endurance training appears to be a LDH decrease in FT muscle, an increase in the heart, and an increase or no change in the ST soleus.

There might be some exceptions to this pattern of adaptation. Firstly, the fact that training did not change significantly the LDH activity in human muscles (Bylund et al., 1977; Morgan et al., 1971; Sjodin et al., 1976a and b) and the fact that endurance trained athletes have 30 to 68% less LDH activity than sedentary subjects, would suggest some kind of genetic selection. However, training effects are not excluded since athletes are usually in a trained state for many years whereas training studies usually last only a few weeks. Thus, duration of training regimen appears to be an important factor that has not been fully

investigated. Again in each case reported above, there was a 6 to 22% decrease in human skeletal muscle LDH suggesting that the training regimen might have not been long enough to affect significant changes. This might also explain the apparent discrepancies between human and rat studies, where (in the latter case) endurance training significantly reduced the LDH activity of FT muscles as reported earlier. Indeed, the life span of a rat is much shorter than that of a human (1/15). A second fact that might also explain this human-rat controversy is that laboratory rats are relatively sedentary animals when restricted to normal cage activity whereas human control subjects are not. Thus the differences between "sedentary" controls and trained subjects might be greater and more easily significant in rats than in humans. In any case, all reviewed studies, whether dealing with human or other mammals, never show apposite trends. Only one study (Zika et al., 1973) reported a significant increase in the biceps brachii of rats trained "tonically." The undescribed nature of the training regimen as well as the sampled muscle make further discussion uncertain.

At the beginning of the present study, it was believed that the use of a more specific LDH assay technique (see Methodology chapter and this chapter section entitled "Lactate Dehydrogenase in Various Tissues) would yield more conclusive results. However, as shown by the two way and one way analyses of variance, this study simply confirmed what has been previously reported for endurance

training in FT muscles and the heart. It appears that the large coefficient of variation of the LDH values (30%) whether methodological or biological, as compared to other parameters (15% for PC and CPK), is a major problem in this study, and a larger "n" might improve the experimental design.

Heart muscle does not usually increase its oxidative capacity with endurance training (Baldwin et al., 1977a; Holloszy, 1975; Oscai et al., 1977b). The heart is continuously active and is probably closer to the genetic limits. of its oxidative potential. It is therefore possible that any substantial increase in the work load and energy demand is met by an increased glycolytic capacity. In the skeletal muscles, the specific LDH adaptation may be explained by the specific recruitment of fiber types. With endurance running, glycogen is depleted faster in ST fibers as compared to FT fibers (Gollnick et al., 1973a and d). Also ST fibers are innervated by the smaller and more excitable motor neurons and are therefore the first to become active (Edington and Edgerton, 1976). Finally, the tension level might have been relatively higher in the ST fibers as compared to FT fibers or muscles. Therefore, the ST soleus has to increase or at least maintain both its oxidative and glycolytic capacities to meet the extra energy demand of endurance running. On the contrary, FT muscles working at a relatively lower intensity increase their oxidative capacity which results in a reduced LDH activity.

To summarize, it seems that endurance training increases Total LDH activity, and more specifically M-LDH of the heart, decreases activity in FT muscles and retains or possibly increases activity in the ST soleus.

<u>Lactate Dehydrogenase Adaptation to Sprint Training.</u> As stated earlier, both intermittent and continuous training groups showed similar LDH adaptations. High intensity, short duration (i.e. sprint) training is less well documented in the literature. Mixed skeletal muscles of sprint and strength trained athletes have been shown to have higher LDH and M-LDH (Costill et al., 1976; Karlsso et al., 1975). None of the sprint training studies on humans were able to demonstrate any significant LDH increases (Sjodin et al., 1976a and b; Thorstensson et al., 1975). On the other hand, sprint training in animals either kept LDH in mixed skeletal muscles at the same level (Staudte et al., 1973) or decreased it (Hickson et al., 1976a; York et al., 1974). These trends are similar to those reported in the present study. Sprint training has also been shown to induce opposite trends between humans (Costill et al., 1976; Thorstensson et al., 1975) and other mammals (Bagby et al., 1972; Saubert et al., 1973; Staudte et al., 1973) for other anaerobic enzymes, such as myosin ATPase, phosphorylase, triosephosphate dehydrogenase, PK, PFK, AK and CPK in mixed skeletal muscle. It must be said however that the equivalence of the sprint training regimens between animals and humans is not clear.

In humans, the energy sources of running at different speeds are well documented (Astrand and Rodahl, 1970, p. 314; Gollnick and Hermansen, 1973; Margaria, 1972). However; it is not certain that sprint training programs as used in animal studies (Bagby et al., 1972; Fitts et al., 1974; Hickson et al., 1976a and b; Ruhling et al., 1973; Saubert et al., 1973; Staudte et al., 1973) are mainly stressing the anaerobic metabolism as originally intended. The duration and the ratio of the work/rest intervals of these programs are quite different and the aerobic metabolism might have been the principal target in some of these training programs when the total duration of the work intervals were long enough. In the present study both forms of training, continuous at 31m/min and intermittent at 70-75m/ min with a work/rest interval ratio of 1 min to 4 min, resulted in similar changes in body and organ weight. it has been shown (Léger, 1975):1) that such intermittent training could be more easily done than the continuous form; 2) that peak blood lactate was similar in both forms of training in the rat whereas; 3) humans can hardly double the speed at which they can run continuously for 1 hour, when training intermittently with the same work/rest intervals; 4) that humans had also higher blood lactate with this intermittent work as compared to the continuous form of running; and 5) that the blood lactate concentrations after such form of running (9 umole/ml) are somewhat lower than the ones reported by Baldwin et al. (1977c) after a 5 min

run at 48 m/min on a 17% slope (14.4 u mole/ml) and by Saubert et al. (1973) after 20 x 30 sec run at 67 m/min interspaced with 30 sec rest intervals (19.4 u mole/ml). This demonstrates that the intermittent training used in this study did not fully stress the anaerobic metabolism of these rats. More than the speed, the duration of the work/rest intervals appears to explain the lower blood lactate levels of the present study as the longer rest intervals (4 min) might have permitted the complete resynthesis of the PC stores before the start of the next work bout (Fox et al., 1969; Hultman et al., 1967a; Margaria, 1972; Piiper and Spiller, 1970). Fedak et al. (1974) have shown that the energy cost of running is double for bipeds as compared to quadripeds who are more efficient at higher speeds because they possess more gait options, passing from trot to gallop. The energy sources of running rats are unknown at the present time and may not follow the same pattern as humans. It has been reported that rats can run at 160 m/min (Guiness book of animal records), well above the speed used in this study. On the other hand, Ruhling et al. (1973) and Hickson et al. (1967a and b) have estimated the physiological limit at 100 m/min for rats in a running wheel. et al. (1973) have estimated 50 m/min to be the speed that corresponds to the $\mathrm{VO}_{2}\mathrm{max}$ of the rats. Nevertheless, Hickson et al. (1973) found similar decreases in LDH activity of FT and ST muscles with both sprint and endurance training with a concomitant increase in fumarase activity.

These authors used a work/rest interval ratio of 1/4 as in the present study with work intervals of 10 sec however, and the speed of the treadmill was set at 99 m/min. intermittent training used by Staudte et al. (1973) was even closer to the present study: the speed was set at 80 m/min, slope, at 30°, work intervals, at 45 sec with at least 1 hour rest between the 4 repetitions. After 21 days of training, Staudte et al. (1973) observed no change in LDH of ST and FT muscles. In view of the half-life times for LDH (Fritz et al., 1969 and 1973), 21 days may have been too short to induce any LDH changes. Baldwin et al. (1977a) found greater oxidative capacity improvement when using continuous running with interspersed sprints as compared to steady state running training. Other studies disclosed no difference between sprint and endurance training in animals (Bagby et al., 1972; Fitts et al., 1974; Ruhling et al., 1973). This information suggests that some form of sprint training may stress the aerobic metabolism more than the anaerobic metabolism in rat muscles.

Saubert et al. (1973) did not study LDH, but reported an increase in other glycolytic enzyme activities (e.g. PFK, PH, PK) in the soleus but not in the red and white portions of the gastrocnemius. Staudte et al. (1973) also found increased glycolytic activity in the soleus but not in the fast rectus femoris. Even with endurance training, Baldwin et al. (1973) and Holloszy et al. (1975) found an increased glycolytic activity of the soleus instead of the

rusual decrease found in the mixed skeletal muscle. It seems that, with previously reported types of sprint training, the ST soleus behaves reciprocally to FT muscles for the same reasons discussed for endurance training. It is not excluded however that, with other forms (i.e. more strenuous) of sprint training, FT muscles also increase their glycolytic activity as suggested by the higher LDH activity of highly trained human sprinters (Costill et al., 1976; Karlsson et al., 1975; Sjodin et al., 1976a; Thorstenson et al., 1974).

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Another point in relation to sprint training is the smaller total training time as opposed to continuous endurance training. This alone may explain the fewer significant LDH adaptations with sprint studies. LDH might be less rate limiting than other glycolytic enzymes and take more time to adapt. It has also been shown that LDH has a longer half-life than other soluble proteins (Don and Master, 1975; Fritz et al., 1969; Schimke, 1973).

As far as liver is concerned, two way analyses of variance indicated that chronic exercise decreased its LDH activity. The decrease in total LDH was more closely related to M-LDH than the H-LDH. This is unexpected since liver is usually seen more as a site of lactate oxidation rather than a site of pyruvate reduction (Keul, 1973; Rowell, 1966 and 1971). However, 1 X ANOVA revealed no significant changes; therefore, one must be cautious in explaining any changes observed in liver LDH with training.

Metabolism of High Energy Compounds and Chronic Exercise.

Endurance and sprint training regimens used in this study failed to increase the high energy compound stores (ATP + PC) in any of the studied tissues (Tables 7 and 9), except for a slight ATP increase for the endurance group as seen from the pooled data from organs (Appendix F). On the other hand, intermittent training did reduce the ATP stores by 10 to 15% as compared to the other groups in all tissues except the heart (Table 7 and Appendix F). The training regimens were not more sufficient in increasing the CPK and AK activities (Table 10 and 11). On the contrary, CPK activities of the fast twitch muscles were generally depressed in both the continuous and intermittent training groups (Table 10 and Appendix F).

The concentration levels of high energy compounds and enzymes might not be very important limiting factors in the kind of work loads used in this study, assuming the overload principle of adaptation to training. The absence of changes in PC levels of the skeletal muscles after continuous and intermittent training is consistent with the findings of Karlsson et al. (1972) and Thorstensson et al. (1975) on endurance and sprint trained humans respectively. On the other hand, this lack of increase in PC stores as well as the slight decrease in ATP levels of the skeletal muscle of the sprint trained rats as opposed to the endurance train rats are at variance with the findings of Russian workers (Yakolev, 1965; Yampolskaya, 1952 as quoted by Haralambie,

1972; and Rogozskin, 1976). Since the details of the experimental design of these authors are not known, it is hard to make any comment at the present time. FT and ST muscles appear to behave similarly in this study although reciprocal trends have previously been reported by Gale and Nagle (1971). The PC levels reported by these authors as well as their sampling technique and statistical design are however questionable. As far as ATP is concerned, Karlsson et al. (1972) indicated an increase after endurance training in human skeletal muscle, whereas Bohmer (1969) reported no changes in rat gastrocnemius after swimming training which is consistent with the present study. It is possible that these discrepancies simply reflect a statistical artifact (small "n" and large variance) since there was an increasing tendency in each case. The nature of the training regimen as well as the subjects (humans or animals) might also be involved. Nevertheless, it seems that endurance training either increases the ATP level of skeletal muscle or has no effect on it. With sprint training the present study revealed no training effect on muscle ATP.

In the heart, endurance exercise (Degenring et al., 1975 and Scheuer et al., 1970) and other forms of experimentally-induced hypertrophy (Rabinowitz and Zak, 1975) usually result in a decrease or no change in the ATP and PC levels. This is in accord with the present study which demonstrates no training effect on myocardial ATP and PC with either endurance or sprint running. Gangloff et al.

(1961) reported a PC increase in the heart with training but their sampling technique as well as the very low published values are questionable.

As far as CPK is concerned, the present study supports the absence of change found by Walpurger and Anger (1970) but is in opposition to the increase reported by Wagner and Critz (1970) in the heart of endurance trained animals. Heart CPK after sprint training does not seem to have been investigated elsewhere. In the ST soleus, the present findings support the absence of change reported by Dieter (1970) but again are opposed to the increase reported by Wagner and Critz (1970) after endurance training. details of Wagner and Critz's study (1970) were not explicited (i.e. abstract), it is worthless to speculate on their In sprint-trained rats, Staudte et al. (1973) found an increase in soleus CPK but not in the rectus femoris, whereas in the present study CPK was found to stay at the same level in the soleus and to decrease in FT muscles. This decrease of CPK in fast twitch muscles in sprint trained rats is also in opposition with the increase found in sprint-trained humans (Thorstensson et al., 1975). The 5 second duration of the sprint intervals used by Thorstensson et al. (1975) as opposed to 1 minute intervals in the present study might have imposed greater and more exclusive stress on the CPK reaction. This is supported by the concomitant absence of change in LDH and VO2 max reported

by the same authors. Also, as discussed earlier, sprint training regimens might not be equivalent in man and animals. The decrease found in FT skeletal muscles of endurance trained rats is also in opposition with the increase (Wagner and Critz, 1970) or the absence of change reported for endurance trained rats (Bohmer, 1969; Dieter, 1970; Oscai and Holloszy, 1971) and endurance trained humans (Suominen and Heikkinen, 1975).

To summarize, it seems that ST and FT muscles behave reciprocally with either an increase or no change in ST muscles and either a decrease or no change in FT muscles with training depending on the nature of the working loads $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}$

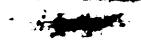
The fact that AK did not show any change with continuous and intermittent training is consistent with findings of Oscai and Holloszy (1971) in the gastrocnemius of endurance trained rats and the findings of Dart and Holloszy (1969) in the heart of rats after experimental hypertrophy (arteriovenous fistula). On the other hand, Walpurger and Anger (1970) reported a 50% and 30% rise in cytoplasmic myocardial AK after endurance swimming and running training respectively. The present data indicate a nonsignificant 20% rise in heart AK after intermittent training. As was the case for LDH, the large coefficient of variation (30-50%) might have hidden a possible rise in heart AK. In this regard, it is interesting to note that Thorstensson et al. (1976a and b) reported either an increase or no

change in strength trained human skeletal muscles on two different occasions using the same training regimen but different subjects. The only known sprint study carried out with humans (Thorstensson et al., 1975) is consistent with the absence of change in AK of FT skeletal muscles after intermittent training.

The absence of change in liver CPK and AK does not appear to be documented in the literature. However, this pattern seems consistent with the apparent lack of functional significance of liver CPK and AK in exercise.

The Effect of Chronic Exercise on Anaerobic Variables in Rat Tissues

Although the previous discussion revealed many unexplained discrepancies and many concurrences with literature data, there appears to be much more consistency when looking at the total metabolism. It seems that the usual increase in oxidative capacity after endurance training (Baldwin et al., 1972; Benzi et al., 1975; Fitts et al., 1975; Gollnick et al., 1970; Holloszy, 1967; Molé et al., 1973; Pattengale and Holloszy, 1967) is more important for fast twitch muscles and can explain the decrease in LDH, M-LDH% and CPK and the absence of change in AK and high energy compound stores. Such a reciprocal behavior between oxidative and non-oxidative enzymes has been previously reported by Pette et al. (1973). These authors found a decrease in LDH, M-LDH, CPK and AK activities concomitant to an increased oxidative activity in rabbit fast twitch



muscles stimulated intermittently for 8 hours a day. On the other hand, the increase in the exidative capacity might be less important in the heart (Baldwin et al., 1977a; Holloszy, 1975a; Oscai et al., 1971b) and in the soleus (Holloszy et al., 1975) which would explain the retention or the increase of LDH, M-LDH and CPK activities of these muscles. As Baldwin et al. (1972 and 1973) and Holloszy et al. (1975) found similar increases in the exidative capacity of the soleus as compared to fast twitch muscles, a higher intensity of work for the soleus might also explain the LDH and CPK activity retention in this muscle.

That intermittent and continuous training have similar effects on LDH, CPK and AK activities and on PC stores suggests that many of the selected forms of "sprint training" in animal studies, might be closer to endurance or continuous training. It is not excluded however that more strenuous forms of sprint training would bring more specific effects.

CHAPTER VI SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

cage mobility.

in some forms of physical activity, and in view of the few and conflicting related studies, it was decided to investigate the activities of the M and H forms of LDH, and the high energy compound stores (ATP + PC) and their regulatory enzymes (CPK and AK). These parameters were studied in the following tissues: liver, heart, slow twitch soleus, fast twitch gastrochemius, plantaris and tibialis anterior of rats. Three experimental conditions were established:

1) a continuous endurance training program known to increase the oxidative capacity of the tissues; 2) a high speed intermittent training regimen using a 1 min work and a 4 min rest interval intended to stimulate both anaerobic glycolysis and high energy compound metabolism; and 3) a

In view of the importance of anaerobic metabolism

The results indicated that similar adaptative changes occured for both training regimens. The forms of "sprint" training used with animals are still empirical and very unclear. Both training regimens resulted in a decreased activity of LDH, M-LDH, and CPK in the fast twitch muscles (tibialis anterior, plantaris, gastrocnemius), without

control or sedentary regimen restricting the rats to normal

altering their AK activity and PC stores. In the heart and slow twitch soleus, LDH, M-LDH, CPK and AK activities as well ad PC stores were retained after chronic exercise. No LDH, CPK and AK changes were present in the liver. Both training programs reduced body weight gain and increased the organ weight to body weight ratios of the muscles but not of the liver.

. It seems that the increased oxidative capacity usually found with endurance training in rats (Baldwin et al., 1972; Benzi et al., 1975; Fitts et al., 1975; Gollnick et al., 1970; Holloszy, 1967; Molé et al., 1973; Pattengale and Holloszy, 1967) might explain the decrease in LDH, M-LDH% and CPK and the absence of change in AK and high energy compound On the other hand, the absence of adaptation for the oxidative capacity of the heart as found by Baldwin et al. (1977a), Holloszy et al. (1975), Holloszy (1975) and Oscai et al. (1971b), would explain the retention or the increase of LDH, M-LDH and CPK activities. In the soleus, retention of LDH and CPK activities were explained by a higher relative intensity of work for this muscle as compared to other muscles since similar increases in the oxidative capacity of the slow twitch soleus and the fast twitch muscles were also reported after endurance training in rats (Baldwin et al., 1972 and 1973; Holloszy et al., 1975).

Conclusions

- Within the limitations of this study, the following conclusions were drawn:
- and slow and fast twitch muscles is affected in a similar manner by high speed intermittent and low speed continuous training in the laboratory rat;
- 2. Slow twitch and fast twitch muscles appear to adjust their non-oxidative metabolism reciprocally with sprint and endurance training;
- 3. The large coefficient of variation found with some variables and different results found with the one way and two way (pooled data) analyses of variance indicate the need for larger sample size in future studies to avoid possible statistical artifact.

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 "Lactate Dehydrogenase Changes Following
 Several Cardiac Hypertrophic Stress",
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APPENDIX A

LDH ELECTROPHORESIS

Ļ

Appendix A contains an illustration of LDH isoenzyme separation with polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
(plate 2). From such a separation, M₄ and H₄ LDH were
analysed at different pyruvate concentrations to find the
respective optimal pyruvate concentration (Table 21 and
Figure 6). For further details, see Chapter III, Methods
and Procedures.

()



PLATE 2. IDH ISOENZYME SEPARATION WITH POLYACRYLAMIDE GEL ELECTROPHORESIS. From the 5 isoenzymes, H_{\(\beta\)} is the fastest moving one toward the anode (bottom of the gels). From left to right:

1. LDH from beef heart (Sigma L 2625), 2.
LDH from rabbit muscle (Sigma L 2500), 3, 4, and 5. Rat muscle homogenates, 6. H_{\(\beta\)} (Sigma L 2875), 7. Mixture of H_{\(\beta\)} and M_{\(\beta\)}, 8. M_{\(\beta\)} (Sigma L 2875).

-L 13

TABLE 21 Optimal Pyruvate Concentrations for M_{ij} and H_{ij} LDH in the Rat.*

PA (X10 ⁻⁴ M)	H ₄ LDH**		M4 LDH**	
	(AA/mn) (%)	(AA /mn) (%)	
0	0	0	0	0
. •5	0.065	29.5	0.010	25
1	0.130	69.2	0.015	37•
3	0.220	100	0.031	77.
5	0.217	98.4	0.036	90
10	0.220	100	0.040	100
20	0.182	82.5	0.040	100
40	0.111	50.5	0.029	72.
100	0.065	29.6	0.020	50

^{*} M_{l_1} and H_{l_2} were electrophoretically separated from heart and skeletal muscles of the rat.

^{**} Average of three values.

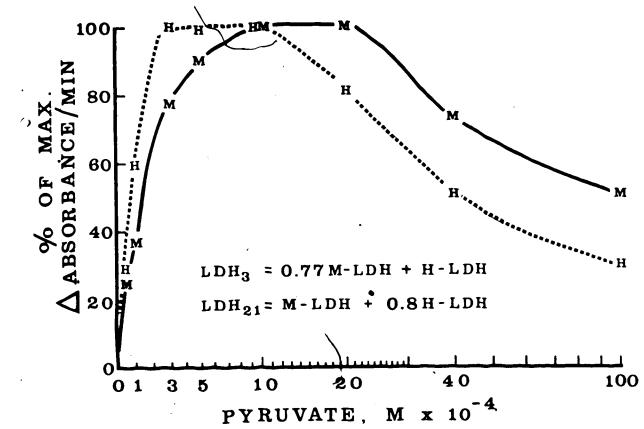


FIGURE 6. OPTIMAL PYRUVATE CONCENTRATIONS FOR M-LDH AND H-LDH IN RAT TISSUE

APPENDIX B

BODY WEIGHT PROGRESS
FOR TRAINING GROUPS

TABLE 22 Body Weight Progress for Training Groups: Means and Standard Deviations.

AGE	Sgr		Cgr		Igr			
(week)	X	SD	X	SD	· X	SD		
ARRIVAL ^a								
6	158.5	17.8	157.4	20.3	157.4	16.8		
RUNNING	EDUCATIO	N '						
7 8	204.5	13.9	203.4	17.4	205.7	14.6		
	255.6	19.2	258.4	19.2	256.8	16.5		
9 10	290.7. 305.0	20.1 26.5	2 93.3 317.5	18.2 18.0	293.5 311.7	19.5 20.4		
TRAINING	•	20.5	317.5	16.0	311.7	20.4		
11	341.8	25.4	343.0	20. 2	330.5	37.4		
12	358.8	26.5	362.0	20.7	361.7	26. 9		
13	390.0	28.6	383.0	26.9.	375.1	27.8		
14	410.5	32.5	384.5	37.8	386.5	25.6		
15 16	433.9	31.7	395.5	36.9	399.4	26.8		
17	459.3 476.0	38.0 36.1	420. 5 430. 4	35.2 41.6	419.6 426.5	26.6 26.2		
18	489.2	40.4	438.5	40.6	432.2	28.0		
19	504.9	40.0	457.5	36.4	439.8	25.5		
20	507.7	48.4	459.0	2 9. 2	453.3	30.0		
21	527.1	45.1	475.1 _b	29.5 _b	460.2	32.2		
22	535.9	41.4	4/0.0	31.4	465.2	35.0		
23 24	553.7 _b	50.9 _b	487.2 495.6	34.3 33.4	471.9 478.2 473.4b	33.1		
25	568.9	50.9	503.0	35.7	473.4b	35.7 _b		
26	572.6	52.4	513.6	37.1	481.9	28.0		
27	571.7	54.4	516.0	37.3	488.5	36.7		
33 ^d 35	598.9 613.2 624.6°	59.9 60.6 69.7 ^c	537.5 ^c 525.4 534.0	37.7 ^c 35.9 41.7	537.6 ^c 511.4 534.1	54.2 ^c 40.9 44.0		

Groups: n = 10. a.

b.

c.

From that time and on, n = 9. From that time and on, n = 8. Subtitute trainer forgot to weigh rats.

APPENDIX C

This appendix gives the raw data for each group, each organ and each variable in the following order:

1. Body weight

O

- 2. Wabs
- 3. Wrel
- 4. ATP
- 5. PC
- 6. ATP + PC
- 7. CPK
- 8. . AK
- 9., LDH21
- 10. LDH;
- 11. LDH21/LDH3
- 12. M-LDH
- 13. **H-L**DH
- 14. TOTAL LDH

FINAL BODY WEIGHT (g)

Rat #	Igr	Cgr	Sgr
1	510	623	655
2	610	56 5	597
3	535	515	630
4	475	520	507
5	535	490	753
6 .	505	517	650
7	58 5	530	615
8	518	512	590

	• .	• •	440
•		W /\	Jan .
		Wabs (mg)	~
	Igr	Cgr	Sgr
			
	870.600	1100.000	1006.600
	878.600		935.500
(TA	878.600 1065.600	111/23.000	935.500 789.800 ~ 969.000
TA	950.600		- 464.000
		979 800	921,200
	983 600	953.800	1194.200
	874 800	1010.200	1080,000
* *	0149800	1010.200	1084,600
	•		
•	491,200	670,490	553.200
	464.600	620.308	553.200
	539.200	264	•476.800
P	518.600	366 000	583,800
	- 02/a400	444 200	475.640
	616.400	\$54,200 554,200	626,600
	582.200 565.200	556,400	549.000 575.200
	200.00	27044110	77.200
			
	1209.400	1421.000 1329.400 1257.600	1335.800
	1280.000	1329,400	1335.800 1180.700 1879.000
	1177.000	1557 HOU	TA79 non
GM	1040.400 1357.800 1298.200	1173.700	1475 400
	1377,010	9 1 3 1 4 10 (1)	1020.000
	1238.200	1211 000	1327.200
	1170.200	1197.200	1744.000
	11.4.16.00	1 2 2 1 1 1 1	1844000
	1694 000	1576.500	15nA,200
	1477, 800	1576,400	1313.300
œĹ	1564.400	1244.800	1174.200
WD.	1178 200	1401.400	1507,400
	1402.600	1332 400	1234 000
•	1492.400	1433.200	1576.000
	1182.000	1314.600	1514.200
•		10114011	1 112,800
			**
	2.000	294.600	245.800
	244.400	301.000	263,400
	201 060 246 200 239 900	244 000	1 7 6 17 (11)
S	230.000	535.400	541.500
_	256.800	236.600	167.800 249.200
	304.800	253.200	.249.200 317.600
	256.800 304.800 265.200	268,600	767.500
	•	•	
	44.5 4	(-	•
	1602.800	1639,200	1496,000
	1558 000	1399.600	1400.500
	1384.200	1707 000	1270.200
H	1497 000	1707.000	1745 100
	1500.000	1710.000	1409.000
	1533.800	1267.600	0.000
	0.000	0.000	1534.500
			
	16473 700	15704 0	4.6
	15472.300	15706.900 1	6564.300
	13950.000	15319. Ann 41 11800. 750 1	7400 000 4773 900
	12025,300		4773, 900 7823, 405
Ľ	1278.340	11490.300 1	6968.200
	10940.000	14772.500 1	5188 000
	13583.600	1456/2500 1	4100.700
	15746,700	13903.600 i	5153.400
	•		<i>-</i>

	•		•	
	Igr	Wrel (mg/g)	Sgr	
	1.707	1,775	1,537	
TA	2001	1.76P 988 1.969	254	
	2.001	1.862	756	
	589.	-1.800 + 1.973	, A38	<u> </u>
	963	1.076	1 A45	·
P	800.1 590.1	1.096	1.152	
	1 77	1.019	964 964	·
	1.091	1,087	975	
	2.371 2.098	2.353 2.353	2.059	
·CM	2 201 2 190 2 538 2 571	5 191	1,713 2,313 1,363	
	2.117	2,342 2,422 2,338	2 pg 5	
		,		
· 	423	2,3AR 2,791 2,514	2.303 2.200 1.864	
ŒΓ	924 480 3 004	2,695	3.170 1.639	
) / / ·	2.551	2.56H	2,425 2,586 2,566	
	0.000	.473 .533 .474	.432	
s	376 518	470	~ 1 06	<u> </u>
, 0	518 448 508 521	470 460 458 478 525	515 223 343 516 454	
	:512	1525	1454	
	3-143	2,631	2,284 2,446	
н	2.305 2.912 3.914 798	2.477 0.000 3.283 2.58	2.446 2.016 0.000 2.316	
••	\$ 655	2.362	2.601 2.601	
				
	35 598 25 675	22.512	25.289 29.146 23.451	
L	25 316 23 842 21 663	27.15 27.089 27.089 23.462 28.574 27.486 27.155	35,155	
	25.316	27.089 23.462 28.574 27.446 27.155	35.155 22.534 23.366 22.928 25.685	
	_ , _ , _ ,	- -	= ; • = -	

	ATI	(mmoles	s/ g)	
	Igr	Cer	Sgr	
	4.770 4.870 4.700	6.630 6.250	6.000 5.750 5.430	
TA -	5.280 5.420 4.960 4.210	7 300 7 300 5 250 5 280	5.260 6.690 5.540 6.200	
_	4.700	6.410	5.410	
	5.210 4.360 5.020	4,830 4,830 6,150	4.630 4.860 5.430	
P	4.440	4.710 6.790	4.620	· .
	4.720 5.160 3.850	0 000 4 830 4 990	5.420 5.420	
· · · _	4.500 4.570 5.480	4.940 5.150 5.400	4.740 4.950 4.900	
GM .	4 896 4 276 3 400 5 480	7 300 5 790 4 700	4 290 5 850 7 740	
	3,260	6 ,560	4,840	
GT .	4 7 4 0 4 7 4 0 4 7 4 0 4 7 6 0 4 7 5 0	4,060 7,460 5,770	4.700 4.580 4.790 4.360	
 , .	4,630 3,870	4 550	4 360 5 980 - 4 910	
(3.430 2.110 3.350 3.500	3.770 4.130 4.080	3.120 3.510 3.540 3.060	* -
S	3 410 3 410 2 700	3.450 3.450 3.720 3.470	3.560 3.370 3.150 3.020	· · ·
	3.970	4.860	3,920	•
พ	4 170 4 210 4 020 4 310	4 950 4 790 4 360	3.570 3.870 0.000 3.980	
ņ.	3.960 4.580 5.020	3.510 4.210 0.000	3.640 4.750 4.100	

PC	(mmo	هم ٦	101
PC I		TED	/ K /

	Igr	. Cgr	Sgr	_
·	14.390	17.810 18.700 17.600	22.470 25.430	
TA	0.000 15.750 . 0.00 . 18.700	22.790 16.740 19.670 19.260	18 890 -13 870 14 600 20 280	-
Ç.	+4,150	0.000	0.000	
P	11 950 15 060 19 190 0 100 14 560	14.530 16.830 14.910 11.490 13.880 11.670 9.180	14.990 14.990 15.420 15.630	
	18.530 19.360 17.420 17.350	0.000 12.780 17.650	0.000	_ }
M	19.730 0.000 14.370 0.000	13.60 d 23.140 17.700 18.390		
	10	4.670	16.680	
GT .		4 H50 5 R70 6 3H0	18.610	
•	0.000 13.490 12.250	8.440 0,000	11.740	
~	8.940 6.610 8.970	8.680 12.720 8	7.220 11.940 8.370	
S ,	0.000 7.830 0.000 7.680	12 640 13 240 6 330	8.530 10.540 6.960	
	2,770	6,460	3.730	 ,
н .	4.370 0.000 6.020	4.970 6.400 5.440	4.560 0.000 4.290	
	3,750 7,320	0.000	4.910	

90

			A '	_	- 5	- 7	
ATP	&	PC	mmo	le	3	/	g)

	T		Sam	
	Igr	, e	Sgr 	
	19,160	24.476	28.470	
	24.200	\$3.330	31.100	
AT	- 19.96 h	27.810	20.560	
	19.960 22.910 .18.850	24.040	20.800	·* .
	0.000	24.540	25.690	
•	0.000	0.000	, u • u o o	
	. 7 . 4 6 6	19.360	17.300	
	14:158	21.660	38,990	 -
P.	24 41 n	0.00	20.040	
• •	23.690	.20.670	15.830	
	15.210	14.530.	22,411	•
	0.000	0.000	0.000	
		17.760	20.390	
•	21.920 21.920	25.400	24.740	•
234	25 210 25 210 18 640	29.6406	18.680	
GM	25.070	25.00 0 %	15.740	•
	0.000	19 090	>1.340	
	0.000	<u>ó e o o ú</u>	0.000	
			21,380_	
	14.090	19.330	53.190	
GL	33.540	22.310	17.530	•
Œ.	18.120	22.150	30 060	·
	16.120	12.830	16,650	C
	0,000	0.000	0.000	B
e d	12.370	12.450 16.450 12.310	10.340 +5.450 11.910	
	12:320	12.310	11.910	
S	10.380	17.820	13.090	
	0.000	10.050	9,980	- 57
	<u> </u>	0.000	0.000	
	• •	٨		
	6.740	11,320	7,650	
	. 8.580	3 10.540	R. 430	
IJ	16 \$30 8 \$30	11.200	0.000	,
H	12.340	6.870	9,010	
	0.000	10.860	0.000	ø.
	11 6 17 17 17	• •	_	

Tgr Cgr Sgr 117.290 143.200 231.800 133.400 206.840 0.000 133.400 206.840 10.000 133.400 206.840 10.000 133.400 206.840 10.000 133.400 174.020 194.000 153.400 174.020 194.000 153.400 116.300 194.000 153.400 116.300 194.000 172.740 45.1300 194.3500 116.300 168.370 113.910 117.300 168.300 0.000 118.400 168.300 0.000 113.070 138.200 179.800 113.070 138.200 179.800 113.070 138.200 179.800 113.070 138.200 179.800 113.070 138.200 179.800 113.070 138.200 179.800 113.070 138.200 179.800 113.070 138.200 179.800 113.070 138.200 179.800 1143.000 166.300 97.800 117.400 20.500 97.800 109.410 126.500 97.800 109.410 126.500 97.800 109.410 126.500 97.800 117.400 0.000 176.530 180.000 117.400 0.000 176.530 180.000 117.400 0.000 176.530 180.000 117.400 0.000 176.530 180.000 117.400 0.000 176.530 180.000 117.400 0.000 176.530 180.000 117.400 0.000 176.530 180.000 117.400 0.000 176.530 180.000 117.400 0.000 176.530 180.000 117.400 0.000 176.530 180.000 117.400 0.000 176.530 180.000 117.400 0.000 176.530 180.000 117.400 0.000 176.530 180.000 117.400 0.000 176.530 180.000 117.400 0.000 176.500 176.000 117.400 0.000 176.500 176.000 117.400 0.000 176.500 176.000 117.400 0.000 176.500 176.000 117.400 0.000 176.500 176.000 117.400 0.000 176.500 176.000 117.400 0.000 176.500 176.000 117.400 0.000 176.500 176.000 117.400 0.000 176.500 176.000 117.400 0.000 176.000 177.000 117.400 0.000 176.000 177.000 117.400 0.000 176.000 177.000 117.400 0.000 176.			AK (IU/g)	
TA 141 710 20 40 76 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70		Igr	Cer	Ser
174 174		133,400	206.84n	0.000
130 440	ŢA	141.710	44.750	79.996
115 040 131 400 204 000 121 151 000 121 150 000 121 15		138,940	174 020	- Xr* 000 m
P 172 740 45 130		0,000	201.930	
P 172 740 45 1300 43 360 136 700 40 810 121 230 116 340 166 300 0 0 000 136 450 120 610 49 660 136 450 120 610 49 660 137 170 138 200 179 800 143 600 210 890 201 340 CM 179 130 36 770 27 800 143 800 36 770 123 820 151 600 203 620 1 0 000 151 600 203 620 1 0 000 170 530 180 060 CIL 14 640 701 200 189 600 114 640 701 200 189 600 117 600 143 650 20 10 840 117 600 143 650 20 10 840 117 600 143 650 20 10 840 117 600 143 650 45 810 0 000 70 140 166 340 CIL 16 34 650 30 070 10 840 117 600 144 560 45 810 0 000 70 50 600 70 600 117 600 144 560 45 810 0 000 70 510 80 000 117 600 144 560 45 810 0 000 70 510 80 000 117 600 144 560 45 810 0 000 70 510 80 000 117 600 144 560 45 810 0 000 70 510 80 000 117 600 144 60 60 70 000 117 600 144 60 60 70 000 117 600 144 60 60 70 000 117 600 144 60 70 80 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70 70		115.040	131.400	
138 700	•	49.520	56.370	
130,340 120,500 0,000 0,000 130,000 179,800 143,000 210,750 7,000 143,000 179,800 143,000 210,750 7,000 210,750 7,000 210,750 7,000 210,750 7,000 210,750 7,000 210,750 7,000 210,750 7,000 210,750 7,000 210,750 7,000 210,750 7,000 210,750 7,000 120,750 7,000 120,750 7,000 120,750 7,000 120,750 7,000 120,750 7,000 7,	P	172.740	45.1304	A# 360
TIME STATE S		118.340	160.30A	$0 \cdot 0 \cdot 0$
GM 143.070 138.200 179.800 143.070 210.750 27.000 27.830 28.770 28.820 151.600 20.500 28.500 28.990 29.000 179.530 180.000 20.700 25.820 28.820 29.000 179.530 180.000 29.700 25.820 29.000 129.500 29.230 29.000 129.500 29.230 29.000 129.500 29.230 29.000 129.500 29.230 29.000 129.500 29.230 29.000 129.600 29.230 29.000 29.230 29.000 29.230 29.000 29.230 29.000 29.230 29.200 29.2		132.450	120.610	49,660
GM 179 130 30 700 97 830 100 143 800 30 700 125 820 151 600 20 30 700 125 820 151 600 20 30 700 180 000 170 530 180 000 170 530 180 000 170 530 180 000 170 530 180 000 170 530 180 000 170 170 800 112 180 180 180 180 180 180 180 180 180 180			· ·	,
GM 179 130 30 700 97 830 100 143 800 30 700 125 820 151 600 20 30 700 125 820 151 600 20 30 700 180 000 170 530 180 000 170 530 180 000 170 530 180 000 170 530 180 000 170 530 180 000 170 170 800 112 180 180 180 180 180 180 180 180 180 180		143,000	138.200	<u>ጉስር ሰርሰ</u>
## 143.600 203.620 #3.820 #3.990 #0.000 #3.620 #3.990 #3.990 #0.000 #3.620 #3.990 #3.990 #0.000 #3.620 #3.990 #0.000 #3.620 #3.990 #0.000 #3.620 #3.6	CD4		47.800 36.679	71.030
## 100 ## 10	GM.	143.800	10./40	123.820
# 0 000 178 530 180 000 114 640 701 200 189 600 134 690 46 430 95 230 163 860 36 070 101 840 134 650 32 990 112 180 102 000 143 460 0000 117 600 114 560 45 810 0 000 71 490 92 700 70 630 24 480 55 410 112 110 440 55 640 58 980 83 800 0000 58 980 83 800 0000 62 310 57 880 21 110 55 920 90 520 0000 55 920 90 520 0000 57 520 32 350 69 040 57 520 32 350 69 040 106 970 177 350 0000 106 970 177 350 0000 10 080 57 880 33 900 11 10 080 57 880 57 880 57 900 11 10 080 57 880 57 900 0000 11 10 080 57 880 57 900 0000 11 10 080 57 880 57 900 00000 11 10 080 57 880 57 900 00000 11 10 080 57 880 57 900 000000 11 10 080 57 880 57 900 000000 11 10 080 57 880 57 900 0000000000000000000000000000000		109.410	129,5560	
GIL 117, 400		» O. 000	170,530	180.000
GL 163 860 36 070 101 840 12 180 102 000 143 460 45 810 12 180 117 600 114 560 45 810 0000 190 140 166 340 166 340 17 180 180 180 180 180 180 180 180 180 180	•	-114.64	101.200	189,600
163,860 36,076 101,840 102,000 143,460 00,000 117,600 114,560 45,810 0,000 196,140 166,340 0,000 71,490 92,700 70,630 0,000 0,000 23,340 24,480 55,410 112,110 24,910 65,060 58,980 83,800 0,000 62,310 57,080 21,110 0,000 75,510 80,030 4,480 32,400 83,100 55,920 90,520 0,000 62,310 57,080 21,110 0,000 75,510 80,030 H 63,940 32,350 69,040 17,520 32,190 47,840 166,970 117,350 0,000 0,000 81,690 71,490 19,080 22,160 22,700 15,080 10,000 17,240 21,450 16,890 17,740 21,450 16,890 17,740 21,450 16,890 17,740 21,450 16,890 17,750 20,410 18,550		117.400 38.690	0 . იიი	n ₌ n ∩ ∩
S	GT	165,860	36.070 32.990	101.840
0.000 196.140 166.340 0.000 71.490 92.700 70.630 0.000 0.000 23.340 24.480 55.410 112.110 24.910 65.060 60.020 23.610 56.640 60.020 73.510 80.030 62.310 57.080 21.110 0.000 73.510 80.030 69.240 74.430 83.100 55.920 90.520 0.000 34.550 30.600 58.530 77.520 32.190 47.840 63.940 32.350 69.040 106.970 117.350 0.000 90.460 57.880 33.900 0.000 81.690 71.490 19.080 22.160 22.700 15.080 0.000 71.490 19.080 22.160 22.700 17.730 20.140 18.250 12.650 20.410 18.250 12.650 20.410 18.250		102.000	143.400 .	0.000
S		0.000	196.140	166,340
S		0 000	71 490	93 700
S 112 110 24 910 65 060		70,630	0.000	ninn
H	_	112.110	34.480	55,410
H	S	050.030	23.610	56.640
H		62.310	57.080	21.110
H	•	0.000	72,510	80,030
H		69.740	74,430	83,100
19.080 27.180 33.900 0.000 81.690 71.490 19.080 27.160 22.700 15.080 0.000 0.000 17.730 20.40 18.250 12.650 20.410 18.250 12.650 20.410 18.250 27.320 12.850 18.550		55.920 54.550	30.500	0.000
19.080 27.180 33.900 0.000 81.690 71.490 19.080 27.160 22.700 15.080 0.000 0.000 17.730 20.40 18.250 12.650 20.410 18.250 12.650 20.410 18.250 27.320 12.850 18.550		77.520	32.190	47,840
19.080 22.160 22.700 15.080 0.000 0.000 17.240 21.450 16.890 17.750 20.140 18.250 12.650 20.410 16.730 29.770 21.920 0.000 27.320 12.850 18.550	п	106.976	117.350	0.000
L 15.080 0.000 0.000 16.890 17.730 20.140 18.250 18.650 20.410 18.250 20.000 27.320 12.850 18.550		90.460 0.000	57.880 81.690	33,900
15.080 0.000 0.000 17.240 21.450 16.890 17.730 20.140 18.250 12.650 20.410 16.730 27.320 12.850 18.550			<u> </u>	*
17.740 21.450 16.890 17.730 20.140 18.250 12.650 20.410 16.730 29.770 21.920 0.000 27.320 12.850 18.550			22.160	22.700
L 12.650 20.41 ft 16.730 21.920 0.000 27.320 12.850 18.550		17.240	21,450	16,890
<u> </u>	T.	. 12.650	50.414	16.730
0.000 13.730 24.810			21.920	0.000
		6.056	13.730	54.810

.

		CPK	(IU/gr)	
	Igr		C&.	Sgr
	2275.20	10	7.000	0.000
_	2614.60	10 IJ	76.500	793,500
Ä	5000-50	10 20	70 000 37 700 50 300	2486.200
	2020 31	10 24	99.500	3000.900
	2569 5	כק חו	06.800	\$295,200
		• •	0 000	2500 500
	3015.50 1829.90	7 7 >0	79.766	2412,500
	1829.99	^ ^ 4	48.200 62.800	2781,900 008,8cc
•	-1628.0	10 22	92.300	2781 900 228 300 3085 300 2706 700
•	2377.9	10 21 00 27	15.900	2706 700 2885, 900
.	263A.1	ήή <u>2</u> 8	73.500	3265,800
•	2147.7	0.0	0.000	2470.600
J. San	2034.1	00 25	51.500	3060.000 2607.400
M	2384.T	00 17	946 200 51 900 97 400 05 900 10 700	2121.600
	2816 4	00 19	10.700	3810.490
•	1 422 4	··	047,200 004,800	3118,900
	2510.4)	, () • • () () ()	
	1990.8	00_20	20 = 200	2486,600
_	1309.4	00 20	101.500 101.500	2555.600
L	24A5.5 1431.9	00 17	728 800 346 300	2963,900
	4120.4	00 13	574-BAA	3559,400
	2167.4	00 20	087.500 08.700	3552 200 3226.500
Ş.	103361			36601
•	1130.7	20 11	198.000	1197.600
	1028.9	20 11	96 500	1105 400
;	1039.5	00 11	154,930	177.700
	1039.5	añ (316-100	1039.500
	1235.7	00	247 200 343 400	1026.400
	855.2	00 11	159.200	
	776.3	חח	767.900	868,800 609,900
	859.6 817.8	ng (879.000 89.800	943.000 702.400 1053.100
Į.	A26.7	20 1	014 500	636.500
	1073.0	00 1	92.900	958,800
	810.1	00 10	03Y,500	660,800
	9.0	20	15.360	12.490
	7_2	50	14,820	9_110
		50	13.610	8,490
			6.870	143420
	13.6	40	6.870 17.880	14.420

		Ĺ	DH ₂₁ (IU/	g)
		Igr	• Cgr	Sgr
		424.600	339.300	850.000
		468.300	525.700	636.500
	TA	656.000	576,000	642.200
		241.300 517.700	246.700	612.200 358.900
		433 800 - 375 600	480.100	455.000
	4 .	375,600	413.900	423,700
			## 7 200	702,900
₹		682.500	447.200	521.700
		554.400	486.466 752.266 459.766 617.466	n
	P	545.500	457-700	722.364
		401.800		517.000
		454.100	451.700	510,000 668,300 431,500
		417.800	559,000	451,500
	•	0.000	424.700	489,900
		514.800	434.500	ፍፍጜ ነ 0 ባ
		488.000	541.200	0 0 0 0 0
	GM	454.500 457.100	470.000	625.840
•		587,800	197.300	398,200
		280,600	561.900	488.200 333.400
•		312,800	3016 7111	1311460
		4196 200	277.600	404,900
		-496.200-	392.300	#40° 400
	OT.	366,000	415-100	611,600
	GL	573 900 0 000	364.400	692 000 515 800 457 000
,		465.300	1/5.800	457.009
		385.900 192.200	366.700	447.600 342.30
		7,21200		
		0.000	215.800	115.500
		109.900	0.000	196.100
	•	167.800	159 300	78.000
	S	98.100	138,500	149.800
		107.300	01.500	160,000
		98.100 107.200 128.700 97.100		108.300 76.500
		• •	•	
		325,600	545,300	209,000
		777,900	190,100	
		27(.900	246.100	254.000
	Н	280.500 211.800	310 900 246 100 343 800	383,500
	**	356.500	U • 0 0 0	242,400
		284.400	195.100	235,400
			- · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
		260.900	0.000	314,300
•		403.900	0-000	260 900 314 800
		317.600	347.800	237.700
	L ,	268.400	261.800 339.100 148.200	297.700 484.900
	L (305.300 -244.700	148.200	353.100
			214.800	0,000

LDH₃ (IU/g)

		,	•
	Igr	Cgr	Ser.o
	361.900 573.000 452.700	286 4 6 473 766 517 700	758.600 555.000 534.000
TA .	498.700 196.100 399.700 315.000 300.100	355.400 420.700 170.900 345.900	194 100 506 500 325 500 357 500 358 900
•	457 000 582 800	329.500_	615,000
P	509 100 454 000 575 600	403.700 403.700 531.200	0.000 594.100 594.100
	353.900 343.300 323.600	167.906 579.200 476.600	424,560 511,500 395,200
	0.000 480.100 461.500	374.700 312.400 480.000	468.400 521.700 0.000
GM	376 300 432 800 432 900 700 200 700	3/0.500 369.000 160.100 313.900	0.000 487.800 368.700 394.800
	454.100	254.000	45
GL	350.100 337.900 439.400	377 700 377 700 328 440 130 700	45 623.700 538.400 505.800 465.200
	341.600 293.900 189.300	282.000	355.800 297.200
~	104.500	196.100	196.100
S	185.960 98.100 129.100 132.100	31 · 1 · n 59 · 3 · n 60 · 4 · n 0 · 0 · n	158.900 170.100 100.000 110.400
	450.100	0.00 h	211-700
н	346 300 370 900 329 600 260 900	213.76n 349.66n 281.36n 402.70n	433.400 339.900 0.000 440.800
	426.200 321.200 168.800	201.300	263.100
	227.500 387.900 276.500	13.900 313.900	276.200 227.500 272.100 214.6004
L	221.900 0.000 0.000 230.300 202.000	282 300 2000 2000 2000	451.000 309.900 202.400

• •

LDH21/LDH3

	E4 3				
	Igr	Cgr	Ser		
	1.170	1.180	1:150	•	
_	1.030	1.100	1,340		
DA .	1.280 1.230 1.300	1,170	1.307		
	1.300	1.400.	1.100		
-	1.358	1.390	1 270		
	1 46 20	1.540	1 0 100	••	
*	1.690	1.360	1.140	•	
•	1.170	1,100	1,060		
P	1.090	1.200 1.140	0.000		
r .	[*500	1.160	1,070		
	1.320	1.190	1.510		
	iżoö	i i 70	1:040		
•			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
•	0.000	1.130	1.050		
	1.070	1,39n 1,150	1 060		
GM	1:514	1:100	7,000		
CI-1	1.060	1,27n 1,19n	1.500	1	
	0.55.1	11400	1.24		
	1.000	1,280	1,110		
	· •	4			
	1.090	1.090	1.090		
_	1,090	1.100	1.140		
GL	1.310	1.230	1.340		
	1,190	1,310	1.120		
	1.310	1.300	1.200		
		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	. 1110		
	0.000	1,100	.720		
	0.000 1.020	0.000	1 10 0 0		
	1.378	#8A0	1,120		
S	1,000	870	048	1	
	830 970	9.000	1 000 980 870	•	
	1.030	1.010 9.000 0.000	870		
	720	900	990		
	740	.890	750		
	188 0	.87n	0 1000		
H	810	0.200	0.000		
	IA9 0	970 930	916		
	880	•450	860	ن بـ	
;	1	0.000	4 4 8 0		
	1.150 1.040	0.000	1.140	:	
/	1.750	1,110	1.160		
L	0.000	1.200	1.080		
L	0.000	1.240	1.140		
•	1.350	1,180	0.65.1	4	

M - LDH (IU/g)

	Igr '	Cgr	Sgr ·	
TA	\$51.800 \$10.900 276.400 617.400 219.800 473.400 352.900	286 - 100 362 - 100 528 - 100 340 - 100 529 - 100 529 - 100	53 100 561 300 643 000 544 900 256 300 441 500	
. P	347.900 563.200 380.500 474.200 448.500 467.300 413.900	478 100 349 400 650 500 350 100 501 100 501 100 366 300 462 800	549.200 336.900 757.200 417.000 443.500 674.700 300.400	
GM .	0 000 340 400 340 400 340 400 260 700 260 200 252 200	375.400 479.800 409.400 381.300 455.200 167.800 490.600	299.900 358.700 0.000 0.000 623.900 268.900 448.900	
ŒL _Ļ . •	346 100 252 100 254 400 579 100 0 000 395 900 392 700 106 100	193 800 204 300 350 600 350 900 367 400 360 200	341 900 471 000 716 000 716 000 374 100 424 400 272 200	
S	9.000 68.500 71.000 49.700 51.100 10.200 59.900	28.800 28.800 33.800 0.000	102 - 100 102 - 100 132 - 500 132 - 500 153 - 700 52 - 100 51 - 200	
Н	-89 800 -59 400 69 800 -71 500 -33 700	0.000	103,200 35,500 -46,700 0,000 70,000 77,900 40,900	
L	205.500 243.700 253.600 0.000 0.000 -315.300	251.840 248.600 293.700 137.600	243.100 252.900 327.800 323.200 273.900 224.700 0.000	

	•			
	H	- rĎH (1	U/g) 🙀	
	Ier	*	Sgr	
	S 91.000	65.500	271 100	
	179.000	174.500	102.200	
X	23.000	73.200	- 1.000	
	000	- 30.000	120.100	
	20 400	35,000	77.7A.0	<u> </u>
* 1	£0,40	35, 400	73.UVV.	
•	189.100	-30,700	192.100	·
,	716.100	121.100	231.000	•
	30.300	129.500	-43.700°	
	115.900	-19.900	273 000 63 100 -000	 .
	-16'600 4,930	700	163,900	
				
	2,0,000	134.300	237.4hn	. 4
	218.000	-164.8nn	245 500	
M ₆	210.500	55.500	0 000	,
	-51.300 -51.500	36 900 -63 800	2.400 161.700	
	138.488	14:444	113.000	
	150.000	235.000	191,200	
L	142-000	151.200	175.700	
_	-6.500 0.000	84.400	177 200	
	36.500	- 900	29,7000	
	107.600	137,700	A7% ŠÕÕ	•
		78 4.4		7
	51.600	78.000	188.400 11/7.500	•
	147.500	207.200	157.500 25.400	•
	58 800 121 200 85 900	13/4100	1/42 400	
	185.500	0.000	71×499	
	50,300	0.000	77.500	_ /
	\$19,200	439,900	172 200	
	335.500	160.500	407,600	-
	352.600 416.700 275.600 254.700	168.500 267.000 239.100 359.300	3/3/0/0	•
•	395.000	359.300	178 900 178 900	-
	, 200 , 200	133.000	203.100 243.100 · 5	
	136.800	144,900	243.100 - 3	_ '
	· 69.30n	0,000	• 39.000	•
	200.300	120.000	64 300 77 400	2
•	34.700	41.400	-37,600	-
,	9.000 9.000 -12.450	39.800 30.00	202 - 200 20 - 400 0 - 600	

TOTAL LDH	(IU/g)
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		, , , , , ,	4	
	Igr	Cgr	^\ Sgr	
	442.800	352.400	904.200	
	442.500	561.600	670.500	•
TΑ	546.300	433.700	708.100 642.000	
	2190000 516.300	563.800 241.100	630.500 384.500	•
	423,900	467.700	454.100.	
	381.300	421.100	440.700	
	537 AAA	#19 FAA	744 700	
•	537.000	520.700	741.300	
P	- 596.60n 565.100	777.600	713.600	
	425.000	646,400	697,000	
٠,	450.800	224.000	526,600	•
. #	448 830	583.000	464.300	
		. 5 -		 -
	558.400	449.500	537,400 604,200	
	-512.700 -468.200	423 200 574 200 464 200	0.000	
GM.	469.200	41/3 _ / 00	626.300	•
	499 200 577 500 287 700	204.7nn 425.7nn	430.500 498.000	
	346.600	262.940	356 000	
	•			
	533.700	298.600	533.100	
	408.100 396.400	445.300	514.400	
GL	572,600	403.100	673.500	
•	432.700	178.300	456.200	
	384.200 213.700	369 500	453 400 272 200	
	0.000	231,400	153,200	
	120.300	0.000 165.800	154 400	-
0	197,300	737.700	रेडव, यतंत	
S.	197 300	165.900	139 466 178 300 112 000	
	145,900	0,000	122 600	
,	107.200	0 • 900	44 (100)	
•	429,490	643.300	235,400	
	377 407	254 RUU	441,109	
	357 200 345 700	368.300 393.900	329.200	
Н	435.6an.	0,000	454,500	
	337.600	221.700	261.000	
	170.600	211.400	284,000	
	274.800	0.000	272 (00	
	444_000	0,000	332.100 274.800	
	334 Ann 276 300	371 Ann 290 100	330.300	
L	0.000	350.5ch	\$25,300 372,900	
	0.00	150 Hrn 151 500	254.100	
	-302 800 500	Si7.nnn	• 10.000	

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APRENDIX D

TRAINING GROUP COMPARISONS FOR EACH
DEPENDANT VARIABLE AND TISSUE: ONE
WAY ANALYSES OF VARIANCE AND OTHER
RELATED STATISTICS

This appendix contains only those among the 89 one way analyses of variance, that revealed significant differences between groups. Scheffe's contrasts are also shown.

ANOVA Tables appears in the following order:

- 1. Wabs (BW)
- 2. W_{rel} (TA, P, GM, H)
- 3. ATP (TA, GM, GL, S)
- 4. CPK (P, GM, GL)
- 5. LDH₂₁ (GL)
- 6. LDH₃ (GL)
- 7. M-LDH (H)

On the computer print-out, Sgr, Cgr and Igr are represented by No 3, 2, 1 respectively. "Moyenne" and "Ecart-type" are the mean and standard deviation. Scheffe's contrasts (alpha (j) - alpha (i)) are significant at P < 0.05 when their confidence interval are both positive or negative in which case group j is larger or smaller than group i respectively.

40.0 010.0	545.0 . 475.0		505±8 .	. 505.A. _m	sie.»	<u> </u>	•
ABLA TANA	i Brist Stan	e ••n,n	417.0	350.0	, 512.4		
48 8 115 TO GARDE	630.c 517.	7 753,0	444.0	415.4	30600.		•
		4.				<u> </u>	·
COPIDS HIMENIA 1	-1176 68 5 484,17	<u> </u>	Tria				
64 64 41 54 6 1444 43 4. (44)	504,250 504,250	۱۰۱ - ۱۵ م کسسر	1968 64,6	***			
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## PH (1) # - 1 1 4 1 1 1 1 1 1 1					· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	,	-
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MB # 165 MET ST	****	1 • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•1 /, 00 f	-4,0-0	•28,000		=
\$6.\$74 ".27.A24"	5.375 -117.68	٠ ١٢٨, ١٦٥	25,375	-9;625	-34,625		
	•	\$01 -68	55	δL			-
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·						7 .04	-
		ENTHE LES	.437426+45		.214718.09	7,49F	- ·
		f had		21	.24411640	,	ف ا
		f h ~ f con	.594036 +115		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•	•
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		Trital	,14340£+00	5.	-		• •
		Trital			-		•
LA VALFOR CALCULFE DI		Trital			-		
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		Trital	,103402+00	57			- -
		Trital	,103402+00	57			-
CALTIL IFS CT TIASTES	LIE SCHEEFE PAY L	Trital D5	,103402+00	57			-
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CALTI 1 F S C 1 T1 A S T 1 S) = (-10. \\\ 1	Trital **HTMOTHESE HU	,103402+00	57			-
CALTIL IFS CT TIASTES	1. E (-21.,2012, 1p	Trital DS PHTMOTHESE HU D.CARAS	,103402+00	57			-
EALTH FES CT TIAGTES ALPH(5) - ILPH(1)	1. E (-21.,2012, 1p	Trital DS PHTMOTHESE HU D.CARAS	,103402+00	57			-
(ALPH 3) - 11 PM 1	1. E (-21.,2012, 1p	Trital DS PHTMOTHESE HU D.CARAS	,103402+00	57			
(ALPH 3) - 11 PM 1	1	Trital DS PHTMOTHESE HU D.CARAS	,103402+00	57			
(ALPH 3) - 11 PM 1	1	Trital DS PHTMOTHESE HU D.CARAS	,103402+00	57			
(ALT) (FS () 1.ASTAGA ALPH(2) - (LIH(1) ALPH(3) - (LIH(2)	1	Trital DS PHTMOTHESE HU D.CARAS	,103402+00	57			
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ME A LES MESIDIE DI GHOUPE SCHT	000	, 676	,117 %	P 3	•,002	
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		SHOUPES	.130408+00	. 2	. 45229[+4	1 :- 3,63
		GROUPES				
·		ERPEUR	. 4304466+11	21	.174768-0	
		*******	*********	*****	***********	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
•	· ·	TOTAL	.49745E+44	53		
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LA CHAPEUM CALCINIFF OF PHE EST	1,577					
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) EST PEJETE		ine FFF .	
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	CTD Fan) EST PEJETES		IME FFF },	···· \
CALCUL DES CONTRASTE DE SCHEFFF	CAP L*H	YPOTHESS HO	EST REJETER		THE PFF 1.	••••
CALCUL DES CONTRASTE DE SCHERFE	CAP L ^P H 27, ,	TPUTHESS H	EST REJETES		ME PFF }.	••••
CALCUL DES CONTRASTE DE SCHEFFF	CAP L ^P H 27, ,	**************************************) EST PEJETER		ine fff },	••••

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Total 123 124 125 12			• "	V_3 GM		<u>.</u>	
AND A LES RESTONS DU GROUPE SONT AND A LES RESTONS DU GROUPE SONT ALFA R	-liendre e e -	·				·	
### 0 LES WESTONE DIST 2.00 ENGINE WINNERS AND THE PROPERTY 2.3	HE A LIS Y DIS GROUPE BONT	2.8	2.5			1. 2.3	•
1.0 1.0	612 ' 614 614	5.8	.8,3				٢
ALPHA(3) = .107 ALPHA(3) = .251 NO A LEX RESIDING NO CHOUPE SONT	2.6	. 8.3	1,4	1.1	C.	8.1 (
No. A LES REATONS DU GROUPF SONT	CHUSTON AND AUGUST AND AUGUST OF THE MUNICIPAL OF THE MUN			TYPES	182		
### ##################################	ALPH4(1)0 .107 ALPH4(2)0 .148 ALPH4(3)0 -251						
### -1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 -					· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
NE 0 LES MESIDIES DI GROUPE RONT	NE A LES RESTONS DO GROUPE S	ONT -103	245	216	_*4176	• , 634	
## # LES #ESTOINS ON GROTINE STATE , 377 -,575 ,106 -,007 ,173 ### # LES ###	NO. A LES DESTRUS DU CHOUPE &	CNT				4007	
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APPENDIX E

ORGAN COMPARISONS FOR EACH DEPENDANT VARIABLE
ON COMBINED DATA FROM ALL TRAINING GROUPS:
ONE WAY ANALYSES OF VARIANCE AND OTHER
RELATED STATISTICS

This appendix contains organ comparisons: one way analysis of variance and Scheffé's contrasts. The computer print-outs appear in the following order:

ATP PC · 5. ATP + PC ٠6. **CPK** 7. AK LDH21 8. TDH3 9. 10. LDH21/LDH3 11. M-TĎH 12. H-LDH TOTAL LDH 13.

Legend for the computer print outs:

Group No.	0rgar
1	TA
2	P
,	_GM
4	GL
5	S
6	Н
7	L

Moyenne = Mean Ecart type = Standard deviation

For the Scheffé's contrasts (alpha (j) - alpha (i)), two positive (or negative) limits of the confidence interval (P < 0.05) indicates that organ j is bigger (or smaller) than organ i.

ALPH(3) = ALPH(2) = (-659.0347, 1969.6287) ALPH(4) = ALPH(1) = (-072.2338, 1756.4508) ALPH(4) = ALPH(2) = (-447.2547, 2181.422) ALPH(4) = ALPH(3) = (-1102.5427, 1526.1422)	SCART-TYPE* 83.350 ALPH(5) - ALPH(1) * (-2064.7671, 592.3353) FUART-TYPE* 57.213 ALPH(5) - ALPH(2) * (-1639.7379, 1017.3155) ECART-TYPE* 151.571 ALPH(5) - ALPH(3) * (-2295.0754, 352.0230) ECART-TYPE* 132.329 ALPH(5) - ALPH(4) * (-2566.8754, 150.2230)	ALPHC 6) - ALPHC 1) = (-800.6635, 1097.6159) ALPHC 6) - ALPHC 2) = (-473.6652, 2322.5931) ALPHC 6) - ALPHC 3) = (-1120.9729, 1455.5076) F ALPHC 6) - ALPHC 4) = (-1740.7728, 1455.5076) F ALPHC 6) - ALPHC 5) = (-175.6162, 2647.1975)	+09 359.996 ALPHC 7) - ALPHC 1) + (11G10.0720, 14433.7563) ALPHC 7) - ALPHC 2) + (12235.0312, 14053.7358) +07 ALPHC 7) - ALPHC 3) + (11579.7537, 14203.4430)	ALTEC 7) - ALTEC 4) = (11367.9527, 12995.6430) ALTEC 7) - ALTEC 5) = (12522.0779, 15159.1313) ALTEC 7) - ALTEC 6) = (11253.7032, 14023.0795)
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9 - (1)#4Y - (2)hc'Y	A.P. (3) - ALP4(-1) + (ALP' () - ALPAC NO - C	Action to - ALPHO 10 - 6	1 - (2) - VIPM(2) - (A.PHE (1) - ALPSE 31 - 4	3	ALP46 51 - ALP46 11 - 6	ALPAC S1 - ALPHO 21 . C	J. PH. S ALPH. 31 - (A. 740 St - ALPHE 41 - 6		Appel 61 - Albert 15 - 6	ALP IT 61 - ALPHE 21 - C	ALPH 61 - ALPH 31 - (1 - (1 - ALPH(4) - (ALT IS - ALPHE SD - C	A. ** (7) - ALPM 31 - 6	7.74(7) - ALPIC 20 - C	7 - (C 2) - VI-H(3) - C	ALP'1 7) - ALP'1 6) - 6	3	ALPH: 71 - ALPHE 61 - C
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APPENDIX F

TRAINING GROUP AND ORGAN COMPARISONS
FOR EACH DEPENDANT VARIABLE:
TWO WAY ANALYSES OF VARIANCE
AND OTHER RELATED STATISTICS

This appendix contains the two by two factors analysis of variance in the usual order:

- 1. Wabs
- 2. Wrel
- 3. ATP
- 4. PC
- 5. ATP + PC
- 6. CPK
- 7. AK
- 8. LDH₂₁
- 9. LDH₃
- 10. LDH21/LDH3
- 11. M-LDH
- 12. **M-**LDH
- 13. TOTAL LDH

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APPENDIX G

CHEMICALS USED IN THE STUDY

•		
Acrylamide	Fisher, 5521	LDH electrophoresis
ADP, trisodium salt	Sigma A-0127	AK & PC
Adenylate Kinase, grade III, from rabbit muscle in sulfate suspension	Sigma M-3 003	AK as a Std
ATP, crystalline disodium salt	Sigma A-3127	ATP as a Std
ATP Assay Kit, Calbiochem ATP - Stat Pack	Calbiochem 869206	ATP
Ammonium persulfate	Fisher A-682	LDH electrophoresis
Bromophenol blue	Fisher B-392	LDH electrophoresis
Creatine Phosphokinase, type 1, from rabbit muscle, lyophilized salt- free powder	Sigma C-3755	PC
CPK Control (Dade)	Canlab B-5126	CPK as a Std
CPK Assays Kit, Dade UV-1-CPK or UV-10-CPK	Canlab B-5329	СРК
Dextrose	Canlab 1916	AK
G-6-P de H, type XV-Baker yeast, crystallized and lyophilized sulfate free	Sigma G-6378	AK
Glycine	Fisher G-46	LDH electrophoresis
Hexokinase, type F-300 sulfate free	Sigma H-4502	AK
Hydrochloric acid	Fisher A-144	LDH electrophoresis
Lactate, Lithium Salt	Sigma L-2250	LDH electrophoresis staining solution
Lactate Dehydrogenase, type II, crystalline from rabbit muscle, ammonium sulfate suspension	Sigma L-2500	LDH and LDH electrophoresis as a Std

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SOURCE

ASSAY(S)

LDH, type III, from beef heart, ammonium sulfate suspension	Sigma L-2625	LDH and LDH electrophoresis as a Std
LDH, type V, LDH-5 (M _L), isoenzyme, crystalline, rabbit muscle, ammonium sulfate suspension	Sigma L-2875	. • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
LDH, type VII, LDH-1 (H_{μ}), isoenzyme, crystalline, pig heart, ammonium sulfate suspension	Sigma L-3125	11
Magnesium chloride .	Anachemia AC-5538	Ak LDH electrophoresis staining solution
N, N'-Methylenebisacr- ylamide	Fisher 8383	LDH electrophoresis
Methyl Orange, sodium salt	Canlab 2694 (Baker)	ATP & PC (neutral-ization)
Nembutal, 50mg/ml	Abbott 3778	Anaesthesia
NAD, free acid	Sigma N-7004	LDH electrophoresis staining solution
NADH, disodium salt, grade III	Sigma N-8129	LDH .
NADP, monosodium salt	Sigma N-0505	AK
Nitroblue Tetrazolium	Sigma N-6876	LDH electrophoresis staining solution
Nitrogen (liquid)	University of Montreal (Liquid Air)	ATP & PC (depro- teinization)
Perchloric acid, 70% W/V	Canlab 1-9652	ATP & PC (depro- teinization)
Phenazine methosulfate	Sigma P- 9265	LDH electrophoresis staining solution
Phosphorylcreatine, disodium salt	Sigma P-6502	PC as a Std

Potassium acid phosphate	Fisher P-285	LDH buffer, LDH electrophoresis
	•	staining solution buffer
Potassium carbonate	University of Montreal 4-5469 (BDH-29591)	ATP & PC (neutralization)
Potassium dichromate	Fisher P-188	AK & CPK (blank)
Pyruvate, sodium salt	Sigma P-2256	LDH
Sodium chloride	Canlab 1-3624 (BDH-10241)	LDH electrophoresis staining solution
Sodium phosphate (dibasic)	Fisher 9-374	LDH buffer LDH electrophoresis staining solution buffer
Sucrose	Canlab 4072	AK, CPK, LDH, LDH electrophoresis (homogenization)
N, N, N', N'- tetramethylethylene diamine	Sigma T-8183	LDH electrophoresis
TRIS (TRIZMA)	Sigma T 1503 (Base) T 3253 (HCL)	AK• LDH electrophoresis